

Tim Cox, Dr. Steven Lawrence Fernandes

Raspberry Pi 3 Cookbook for Python Programmers

Third Edition

Unleash the potential of Raspberry Pi 3 with
over 100 recipes



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BIRMINGHAM - MUMBAI

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*Dedicated to my loving LORD Jesus Christ for enlightening me with his word
"I will tell you great and hidden things which you have not known"*

- Jeremiah 33:3.



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Supporting the vision behind the Raspberry Pi, to encourage a new generation of engineers, Tim co-founded the *MagPi* magazine (the official magazine for the Raspberry Pi) and produces electronic kits through his site PiHardware.com.

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Preface

This book is intended for anyone who wants to build software applications or hardware projects using the Raspberry Pi. The book gradually introduces text classification, creating games, 3D graphics, and sentiment analysis. We also move towards more advanced topics, such as building computer vision applications, robots, and neural network applications. It would be ideal to have basic understanding of Python; however, all programming concepts are explained in detail. All the examples are written using Python 3, with clear and detailed explanations of how everything works so that you can adapt and use all the information in your own projects. By the end of the book, you will have the skills you need to build innovative software applications and hardware projects using the Raspberry Pi.

Who this book is for

This book is for anyone who wants to master the skills of Python programming using Raspberry Pi 3. Prior knowledge of Python will be an added advantage.

What this book covers

Chapter 1, *Getting Started with a Raspberry Pi Computer*, introduces the Raspberry Pi and explores the various ways in which it can be set up and used.

Chapter 2, *Dividing Text Data and Building a Text Classifier*, guides us to build a text classifier; it can classify text using the bag-of-words model.

Chapter 3, *Using Python for Automation and Productivity*, explains how to use graphical user interfaces to create your own applications and utilities.

Chapter 4, *Predicting Sentiments in Words*, explains how Naive Bayes classifiers and logistic regression classifiers are constructed to analyze the sentiment in words.

Chapter 5, *Creating Games and Graphics*, explains how to create a drawing application and graphical games using the Tkinter canvas.

Chapter 6, *Detecting Edges and Contours in Images*, describes in detail how images are loaded, displayed, and saved. It provides detailed implementations of erosion and dilation, image segmentation, histogram equalization, edge detection, detecting corners in images, and more.

Chapter 7, *Creating 3D Graphics*, discusses how we can use the hidden power of the Raspberry Pi's graphical processing unit to learn about 3D graphics and landscapes, and produce our very own 3D maze for exploration.

Chapter 8, *Building Face Detector and Face Recognition Applications*, explains how human faces can be detected from webcams and recognized using images stored in a database.

Chapter 9, *Using Python to Drive Hardware*, establishes the fact that to experience the Raspberry Pi at its best, we really have to use it with our own electronics. This chapter discusses how to create circuits with LEDs and switches, and how to use them to indicate the status of a system and provide control. Finally, it shows us how to create our own game controller, light display, and a persistence-of-vision text display.

Chapter 10, *Sensing and Displaying Real-World Data*, explains how to use an analog-to-digital converter to provide sensor readings to the Raspberry Pi. We discover how to store and graph the data in real time, as well as display it on an LCD text display. Next, we record the data in a SQL database and display it in our own web server. Finally, we transfer the data to the internet, which will allow us to view and share the captured data anywhere in the world.

Chapter 11, *Building a Neural Network Module for Optical Character Recognition*, introduces neural network implementation on Raspberry Pi 3. Optical characters are detected, displayed, and recognized using neural networks.

Chapter 12, *Building Robots*, takes you through building two different types of robot (a Rover-Pi and a Pi-Bug), plus driving a servo-based robot arm. We look at motor and servo control methods, using sensors, and adding a compass sensor for navigation.

Chapter 13, *Interfacing with Technology*, teaches us how to use the Raspberry Pi to trigger remote mains sockets, with which we can control household appliances. We learn how to communicate with the Raspberry Pi over a serial interface and use a smartphone to control everything using Bluetooth. Finally, we look at creating our own applications to control USB devices.

Chapter 14, *Can I Recommend a Movie for You?*, explains how movie recommender systems are built. It elaborates how Euclidean distance and Pearson correlation scores are computed. It also explains how similar users are found in the dataset and the movie recommender module is built.

Appendix, *Hardware and Software List*, explains the detailed hardware software list used inside the book.

To get the most out of this book

Readers are expected to know the basics of Python programming.

It would be beneficial for readers to have a basic understanding of machine learning, computer vision, and neural networks.

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We also provide a PDF file that has color images of the screenshots/diagrams used in this book. You can download it here:

http://www.packtpub.com/sites/default/files/downloads/RaspberryPi3CookbookforPythonProgrammersThirdEdition_ColorImages.pdf.

Conventions used

There are a number of text conventions used throughout this book.

CodeInText: Indicates code words in text, database table names, folder names, filenames, file extensions, pathnames, dummy URLs, user input, and Twitter handles. Here is an example:

"We use the `bind` function here, which will bind a specific event that occurs on this widget (`the_canvas`) to a specific action or key press."

A block of code is set as follows:

```
#!/usr/bin/python3
# bouncingball.py
import tkinter as TK
import time

VERT, HOREZ=0,1
xTOP, yTOP = 0,1
xBTM, yBTM = 2,3
MAX_WIDTH, MAX_HEIGHT = 640,480
xSTART, ySTART = 100,200
BALL_SIZE=20
RUNNING=True
```

Any command-line input or output is written as follows:

```
sudo nano /boot/config.txt
```

Bold: Indicates a new term, an important word, or words that you see onscreen. For example, words in menus or dialog boxes appear in the text like this. Here is an example: "Click on the **Pair** button to begin the pairing process and enter the device's **PIN**."



Warnings or important notes appear like this.



Tips and tricks appear like this.

Sections

In this book, you will find several headings that appear frequently (*Getting ready*, *How to do it...*, *How it works...*, *There's more...*, and *See also*).

To give clear instructions on how to complete a recipe, use these sections as follows:

Getting ready

This section tells you what to expect in the recipe and describes how to set up any software or any preliminary settings required for the recipe.

How to do it...

This section contains the steps required to follow the recipe.

How it works...

This section usually consists of a detailed explanation of what happened in the previous section.

There's more...

This section consists of additional information about the recipe in order to make you more knowledgeable about the recipe.

See also

This section provides helpful links to other useful information for the recipe.

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1

Getting Started with a Raspberry Pi 3 Computer

In this chapter, we will cover the following recipes:

- Connecting peripherals to Raspberry Pi
- Using NOOBS to set up your Raspberry Pi SD card
- Networking and connecting your Raspberry Pi to the internet via the LAN connector
- Using built-in Wi-Fi and Bluetooth on Raspberry Pi
- Configuring your network manually
- Networking directly to a laptop or computer
- Networking and connecting your Raspberry Pi to the internet via a USB Wi-Fi dongle
- Connecting to the internet through a proxy server
- Connecting remotely to Raspberry Pi over the network using VNC
- Connecting remotely to Raspberry Pi over the network using SSH (and X11 forwarding)
- Sharing the home folder of Raspberry Pi with SMB
- Keeping Raspberry Pi up to date

Introduction

This chapter introduces Raspberry Pi and the process of setting it up for the first time. We will connect Raspberry Pi to a suitable display, power, and peripherals. We will install an operating system on an SD card. This is required for the system to boot. Next, we will ensure that we can connect successfully to the internet through a local network.

Finally, we will make use of the network to provide ways to remotely connect to and/or control Raspberry Pi from other computers and devices, as well as to ensure that the system is kept up to date.

Once you have completed the steps within this chapter, your Raspberry Pi will be ready for you to use for programming. If you already have your Raspberry Pi set up and running, ensure that you take a look through the following sections, as there are many helpful tips.

Introducing Raspberry Pi

The Raspberry Pi is a single-board computer created by the **Raspberry Pi Foundation**, a charity formed with the primary purpose of re-introducing low-level computer skills to children in the UK. The aim was to rekindle the microcomputer revolution of the 1980s, which produced a whole generation of skilled programmers.

Even before the computer was released at the end of February 2012, it was clear that Raspberry Pi had gained a huge following worldwide and, at the time of writing this book, has sold over 10 million units. The following image shows several different Raspberry Pi models:



The Raspberry Pi Model 3B, Model A+, and Pi Zero

What's with the name?

The name, Raspberry Pi, was a combination of the desire to create an alternative computer with a fruit-based name (such as Apple, BlackBerry, and Apricot) and a nod to the original concept of a simple computer that could be programmed using **Python** (shortened to **Pi**).

In this book, we will take this little computer, find out how to set it up, and then explore its capabilities chapter by chapter, using the Python programming language.

Why Python?

It is often asked, "Why has Python been selected as the language to use on Raspberry Pi?" The fact is that Python is just one of the many programming languages that can be used on Raspberry Pi.

There are many programming languages that you can choose, from high-level graphical block programming, such as **Scratch**, to traditional C, right down to **BASIC**, and even the raw **machine code assembler**. A good programmer often has to be code multilingual to be able to play to the strengths and weaknesses of each language to best meet the needs of their desired application. It is useful to understand how different languages (and programming techniques) try to overcome the challenge of converting *what you want* into *what you get*, as this is what you are trying to do as well while you program.

Python has been selected as a good place to start when learning about programming, as it provides a rich set of coding tools while still allowing simple programs to be written without fuss. This allows beginners to gradually be introduced to the concepts and methods on which modern programming languages are based without requiring them to know it all from the start. It is very modular with lots of additional libraries that can be imported to quickly extend the functionality. You will find that, over time, this encourages you to do the same, and you will want to create your own modules that you can plug into your own programs, thus taking your first steps into structured programming.

Python addresses formatting and presentation concerns. As indentation will add better readability, indents matter a lot in Python. They define how blocks of code are grouped together. Generally, Python is slow; since it is interpreted, it takes time to create a module while it is running the program. This can be a problem if you need to respond to time-critical events. However, you can precompile Python or use modules written in other languages to overcome this.

It hides the details; this is both an advantage and a disadvantage. It is excellent for beginners but can be difficult when you have to second-guess aspects such as datatypes. However, this in turn forces you to consider all the possibilities, which can be a good thing.

Python 2 and Python 3

A massive source of confusion for beginners is that there are two versions of Python on Raspberry Pi (**Version 2.7** and **Version 3.6**), which are not compatible with each other, so code written for Python 2.7 may not run with Python 3.6 (and vice versa).

The **Python Software Foundation** is continuously working to improve and move forward with the language, which sometimes means they have to sacrifice backward compatibility to embrace new improvements (and, importantly, remove redundant and legacy ways of doing things).

Supporting Python 2 and Python 3



There are many tools that will ease the transition from Python 2 to Python 3, including converters such as `2to3`, which will parse and update your code to use Python 3 methods. This process is not perfect, and in some cases you'll need to manually rewrite sections and fully retest everything. You can write the code and libraries that will support both. The `import __future__` statement allows you to import the friendly methods of Python 3 and run them using Python 2.7.

Which version of Python should you use?

Essentially, the selection of which version to use will depend on what you intend to do. For instance, you may require Python 2.7 libraries, which are not yet available for Python 3.6. Python 3 has been available since 2008, so these tend to be older or larger libraries that have not been translated. In many cases, there are new alternatives to legacy libraries; however, their support can vary.

In this book, we have used Python 3.6, which is also compatible with Python 3.5 and 3.3.

The Raspberry Pi family – a brief history of Pi

Since its release, Raspberry Pi has come in various iterations, featuring both small and large updates and improvements to the original Raspberry Pi Model B unit. Although it can be confusing at first, there are three basic types of Raspberry Pi available (and one special model).

The main flagship model is called **Model B**. This has all the connections and features, as well as the maximum RAM and the latest processor. Over the years, there have been several versions, most notably Model B (which had 256 MB and then 512 MB RAM) and then Model B+ (which increased the 26-pin GPIO to 40 pins, switched to using a microSD card slot, and had four USB ports instead of two). These original models all used the Broadcom BCM2835 **system on chip (SOC)**, consisting of a single core 700 MHz ARM11 and VideoCore IV **graphical processing unit (GPU)**.

The release of Raspberry Pi 2 Model B (also referred to as 2B) in 2015 introduced a new Broadcom BCM2836 SOC, providing a quad-core 32-bit ARM Cortex A7 1.2 GHz processor and GPU, with 1 GB of RAM. The improved SOC added support for Ubuntu and Windows 10 IoT. Finally, we had the latest Raspberry Pi 3 Model B, using another new Broadcom BCM2837 SOC, which provides a quad-core 64-bit ARM Cortex-A53 and GPU, alongside on-board Wi-Fi and Bluetooth.

Model A has always been targeted as a cut-down version. While having the same SOC as Model B, there are limited connections consisting of a single USB port and no wired network (LAN). Model A+ again added more GPIO pins and a microSD slot. However, the RAM was later upgraded to 512 MB of RAM and again there was only a single USB port/no LAN. The Broadcom BCM2835 SOC on Model A has not been updated so far (so is still a single core ARM11); however, a Model 3A (most likely using the BCM2837).

The **Pi Zero** is an ultra-compact version of Raspberry Pi intended for embedded applications where cost and space are a premium. It has the same 40-pin GPIO and microSD card slot as the other models, but lacks the on-board display (CSI and DSI) connection. It does still have HDMI (via a mini-HDMI) and a single micro USB **on-the-go (OTG)** connection. Although not present in the first revision of the Pi Zero, the most recent model also includes a CSI connection for the on-board camera.



Pi Zero was famously released in 2015 and was given away with Raspberry Pi foundation's magazine *The MagPi*, giving the magazine the benefit of being the first magazine to give away a computer on its cover! This did make me rather proud since (as you may have read in my biography at the start of this book) I was one of the founders of the magazine.

The special model is known as the **compute module**. This takes the form of a 200-pin SODIMM card. It is intended for industrial use or within commercial products, where all the external interfaces would be provided by a host/motherboard, into which the module would be inserted. Example products include the Slice Media Player (<http://fiveninjas.com>) and the OTTO camera. The current module uses the BCM2835, although an updated compute module (CM3).

The Raspberry Pi Wikipedia page provides a full list of the all different variants and their specifications:

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Raspberry_Pi#Specifications

Also, the Raspberry Pi product page gives you the details about the models available and the accessories' specifications:

<https://www.raspberrypi.org/products/>

Which Pi to choose?

All sections of this book are compatible will all current versions of Raspberry Pi, but Model 3B is recommended as the best model to start with. This offers the best performance (particularly useful for the GPU examples in Chapter 7, *Creating 3D Graphics*, and the OpenCV examples used in Chapter 6, *Detecting Edges and Contours in Images*), lots of connections, and built-in Wi-Fi, which can be very convenient.

Pi Zero is recommended for projects where you want low power usage or reduced weight/size but do not need the full processing power of Model 3B. However, due to its ultra-low cost, Pi Zero is ideal for deploying a completed project after you have developed it.

Connecting to Raspberry Pi

There are many ways to wire up Raspberry Pi and use the various interfaces to view and control content. For typical use, most users will require power, display (with audio), and a method of input such as a keyboard and mouse. To access the internet, refer to the *Networking and connecting your Raspberry Pi to the internet via the LAN connector or Using built-in Wi-Fi and Bluetooth on Raspberry Pi* recipes.

Getting ready

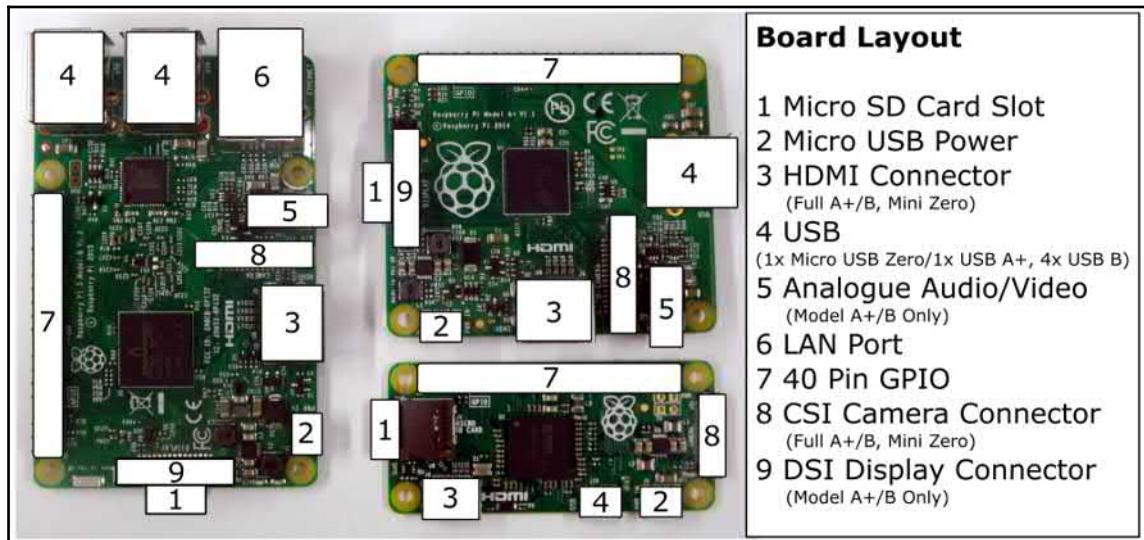
Before you can use your Raspberry Pi, you will need an SD card with an operating system installed or with the **New Out Of Box System (NOOBS)** on it, as discussed in the *Using NOOBS to set up your Raspberry Pi SD card* recipe.

The following section will detail the types of devices you can connect to Raspberry Pi and, importantly, how and where to plug them in.

As you will discover later, once you have your Raspberry Pi set up, you may decide to connect remotely and use it through a network link, in which case you only need power and a network connection. Refer to the following sections: *Connecting remotely to Raspberry Pi over the Network using VNC* and *Connecting Remotely to Raspberry Pi over the Network using SSH (and X11 Forwarding)*.

How to do it...

The layout of Raspberry Pi is shown in the following diagram:



The Raspberry Pi connection layout (Model 3 B, Model A+, and Pi Zero)

More information about the preceding figure is listed as follows:

- **Display:** The Raspberry Pi supports the following three main display connections; if both HDMI and composite video are connected, it will default to HDMI only:
 - **HDMI:** For best results, use a TV or monitor that has an HDMI connection, thus allowing the best resolution display (1080p) and also digital audio output. If your display has a DVI connection, you may be able to use an adapter to connect through the HDMI. There are several types of DVI connection; some support analogue (DVI-A), some digital (DVI-D), and some both (DVI-I). Raspberry Pi is only able to provide a digital signal through the HDMI, so an HDMI-to-DVI-D adapter is recommended (shown with a tick mark in the following screenshot). This lacks the four extra analogue pins (shown with a cross mark in the following screenshot), thus allowing it to fit into both DVI-D and DVI-I type sockets:



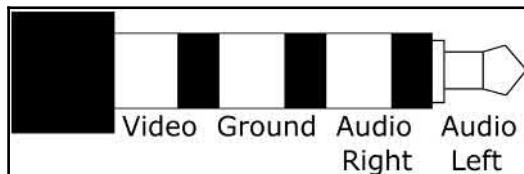
HDMI-to-DVI connection (DVI-D adaptor)

If you wish to use an older monitor (with a VGA connection), an additional HDMI-to-VGA converter is required. Raspberry Pi also supports a rudimentary VGA adaptor (VGA Gert666 Adaptor), which is driven directly off of the GPIO pins. However, this does use up all but four pins of the 40-pin header (older 26-pin models will not support the VGA output):



HDMI-to-VGA adapter

- **Analogue:** An alternative display method is to use the analogue composite video connection (via the phono socket); this can also be attached to an S-Video or European SCART adapter. However, the analogue video output has a maximum resolution of 640 x 480 pixels, so it is not ideal for general use:



3.5 mm phono analogue connections

When using the RCA connection or a DVI input, audio has to be provided separately by the analogue audio connection. To simplify the manufacturing process (by avoiding through-hole components), the Pi Zero does not have analogue audio or an RCA socket for analogue video (although they can be added with some modifications):

- **Direct Display DSI:** A touch display produced by Raspberry Pi Foundation will connect directly into the DSI socket. This can be connected and used at the same time as the HDMI or analogue video output to create a dual display setup.
- **Stereo analogue audio (all except Pi Zero):** This provides an analogue audio output for headphones or amplified speakers. The audio can be switched via Raspberry Pi configuration tool on the desktop between analog (stereo socket) and digital (HDMI), or via the command line using `amixer` or `alsamixer`.

To find out more information about a particular command in the Terminal, you can use the following `man` command before the terminal reads the manual (most commands should have one):



`man amixer`

Some commands also support the `--help` option for more concise help, shown as follows:

```
amixer --help
```

- **Network (excluding models A and Pi Zero):** The network connection is discussed in the *Networking and connecting your Raspberry Pi to the internet via the LAN connector* recipe later in this chapter. If we use the Model A Raspberry Pi, it is possible to add a USB network adapter to add wired or even wireless networking (refer to the *Networking and connecting your Raspberry Pi to the internet via a USB Wi-Fi dongle* recipe).
- **Onboard Wi-Fi and Bluetooth (Model 3 B only):** The Model 3 B has built-in 802.11n Wi-Fi and Bluetooth 4.1; see the *Using the built-in Wi-Fi and Bluetooth on Raspberry Pi* recipe.
- **USB (1x Model A/Zero, 2x Model 1 B, 4x Model 2 B and 3 B):** Using a keyboard and mouse:
 - Raspberry Pi should work with most USB keyboards and mice. You can also use wireless mice and keyboards, which use RF dongles. However, additional configuration is required for items that use the Bluetooth dongles.
 - If there is a lack of power supplied by your power supply or the devices are drawing too much current, you may experience the keyboard keys appearing to stick, and, in severe cases, corruption of the SD card.



USB power can be more of an issue with the early Model B revision 1 boards that were available prior to October 2012. They included additional **Polyfuses** on the USB output and tripped if an excess of 140 mA was drawn. The Polyfuses can take several hours or days to recover completely, thus causing unpredictable behavior to remain even when the power is improved.

You can identify a revision 1 board, as it lacks the four mounting holes that are present in the later models.

- Debian Linux (upon which Raspbian is based) supports many common USB devices, such as flash storage drives, hard-disk drives (external power may be required), cameras, printers, Bluetooth, and Wi-Fi adapters. Some devices will be detected automatically, while others will require drivers to be installed.

- **Micro USB power:** The Raspberry Pi requires a 5V power supply that can comfortably supply at least 1,000 mA (1,500 mA or more is recommended, particularly with the more power-hungry Model 2 and Model 3) with a micro USB connection. It is possible to power the unit using portable battery packs, such as the ones suitable for powering or recharging tablets. Again, ensure that they can supply 5V at 1,000 mA or over.

You should aim to make all other connections to Raspberry Pi before connecting the power. However, USB devices, audio, and networks may be connected and removed while it is running, without problems.

There's more...

In addition to the standard primary connections you would expect to see on a computer, Raspberry Pi also has a number of other connections.

Secondary hardware connections

Each of the following connections provides additional interfaces for Raspberry Pi:

- **20 x 2 GPIO pin header (Model A+, B+, 2 B, 3 B, and Pi Zero):** This is the main 40-pin GPIO header of Raspberry Pi used for interfacing directly with hardware components. We use this connection in *Chapters 6, Detecting Edges and Contours in Images*, *Chapter 7, Creating 3D Graphics*, *Chapter 9, Using Python to Drive Hardware*, and *Chapter 10, Sensing and Displaying Real-world Data*. The recipes in this book are also compatible with older models of Raspberry Pi that have a 13 x 2 GPIO pin header.
- **P5 8 x 2 GPIO pin header (Model 1 B revision 2.0 only):** We do not use this in the book.
- **Reset connection:** This is present on later models (no pins fitted). A reset is triggered when Pin 1 (reset) and Pin 2 (GND) are connected together. We use this in the *A controlled shutdown button* recipe in *Chapter 9, Using Python to Drive Hardware*.

- **GPU/LAN JTAG:** The **Joint Test Action Group (JTAG)** is a programming and debugging interface used to configure and test processors. These are present on newer models as surface pads. A specialist JTAG device is required to use this interface. We do not use this in the book.
- **Direct camera CSI:** This connection supports Raspberry Pi Camera Module. Note that the Pi Zero has a smaller CSI connector than the other models, so it requires a different ribbon connector.
- **Direct Display DSI:** This connection supports a directly connected display, such as a 7-inch 800 x 600 capacitive touch screen.

Using NOOBS to set up your Raspberry Pi SD card

The Raspberry Pi requires the operating system to be loaded onto an SD card before it starts up. The easiest way to set up the SD card is to use **NOOBS**; you may find that you can buy an SD card with NOOBS already loaded on it.

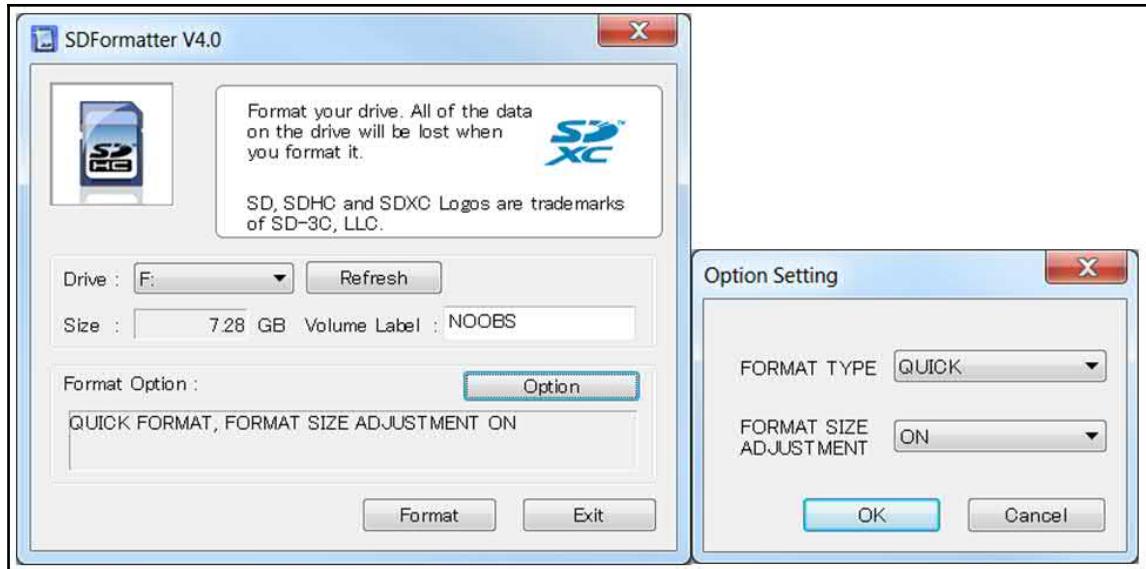
NOOBS provides an initial start menu that provides options to install several of the available operating systems on to your SD card.

Getting ready

Since NOOBS creates a **RECOVERY** partition to keep the original installation images, an 8 GB SD card or larger is recommended. You will also need an SD card reader (experience has shown that some built-in card readers can cause issues, so an external USB type reader is recommended).

If you are using an SD card that you have used previously, you may need to reformat it to remove any previous partitions and data. NOOBS expects the SD card to consist of a single FAT32 partition.

If using Windows or macOS X, you can use the SD Association's formatter, as shown in the following screenshot (available at https://www.sdcard.org/downloads/formatter_4/):



Getting rid of any partitions on the SD card, using SD formatter

From the **Option Setting** dialog box, set **FORMAT SIZE ADJUSTMENT**. This will remove all the SD card partitions that were created previously.

If using Linux, you can use `gparted` to clear any previous partitions and reformat it as a FAT32 partition.

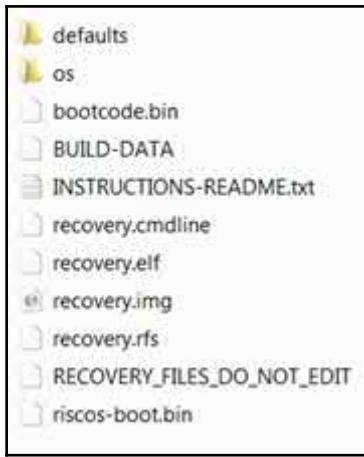
The full NOOBS package (typically just over 1 GB) contains Raspbian, the most popular Raspberry Pi operating system image built in. A lite version of NOOBS is also available that has no preloaded operating systems (although a smaller initial download of 20 MB and a network connection on Raspberry Pi are required to directly download the operating system you intend to use).

NOOBS is available at <http://www.raspberrypi.org/downloads>, with the documentation available at <https://github.com/raspberrypi/noobs>.

How to do it...

By performing the following steps, we will prepare the SD card to run NOOBS. This will then allow us to select and install the operating system we want to use:

1. Get your SD card ready.
2. On a freshly formatted or new SD card, copy the contents of the NOOBS_vX.zip file. When it has finished copying, you should end up with something like the following screenshot of the SD card:



NOOBS files extracted onto the SD card



The files may vary slightly with different versions of NOOBS, and the icons displayed may be different on your computer.

3. You can now put the card into your Raspberry Pi, connect it to a keyboard and display, and turn the power on. Refer to the *Connecting to Raspberry Pi* recipe for details on what you need, and how to do this.

By default, NOOBS will display via the HDMI connection. If you have another type of screen (or you don't see anything), you will need to manually select the output type by pressing 1, 2, 3, or 4, according to the following functions:

- Key 1 stands for the **Standard HDMI** mode (the default mode)
- Key 2 stands for the **Safe HDMI** mode (alternative HDMI settings if the output has not been detected)
- Key 3 stands for **Composite PAL** (for connections made via the RCA analogue video connection)
- Key 4 stands for **Composite NTSC** (again, for connections via the RCA connector)

This display setting will also be set for the installed operating system.

After a short while, you will see the NOOBS selection screen that lists the available distributions (the offline version only includes Raspbian). There are many more distributions that are available, but only the selected ones are available directly through the NOOBS system. Click on **Raspbian**, as this is the operating system being used in this book.

Press *Enter* or click on **Install OS**, and confirm that you wish to overwrite all the data on the card. This will overwrite any distributions previously installed using NOOBS but will not remove the NOOBS system; you can return to it at any time by pressing *Shift* when you turn the power on.

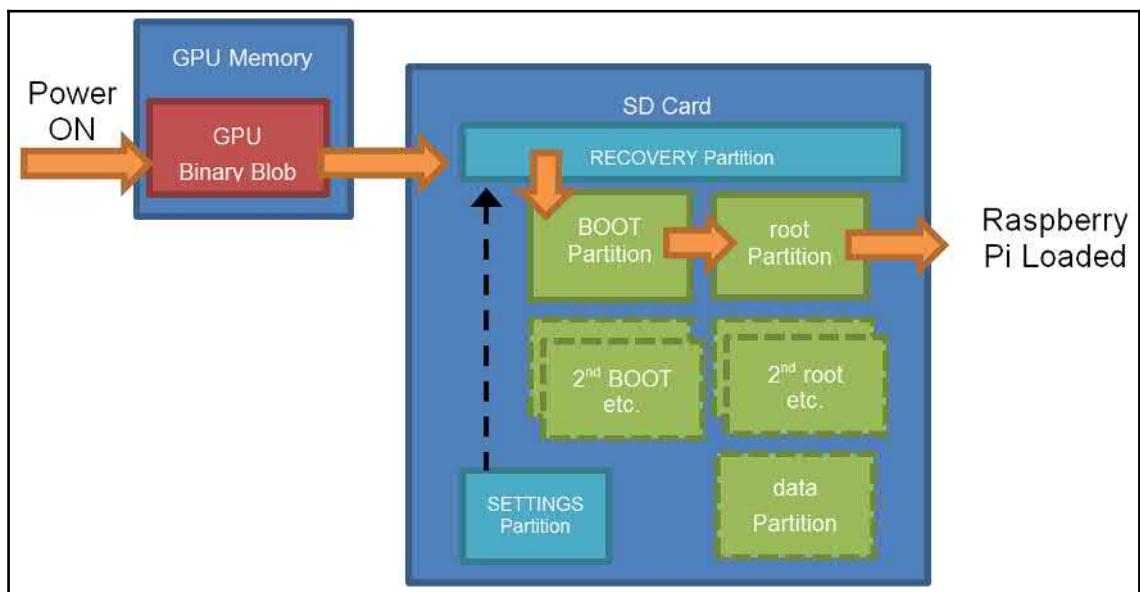
It will take around 20 to 40 minutes to write the data to the card depending on its speed. When it completes and the **Image Applied Successfully** message appears, click on **OK**, and Raspberry Pi will start to boot into Raspberry Pi Desktop.

How it works...

The purpose of writing the image file to the SD card in this manner is to ensure that the SD card is formatted with the expected filesystem partitions and files required to correctly boot the operating system.

When Raspberry Pi powers up, it loads some special code contained within the GPU's internal memory (commonly referred to as **binary blob** by Raspberry Pi Foundation). The binary blob provides the instructions required to read the **BOOT** partition on the SD card, which (in the case of a NOOBS install) will load NOOBS from the **RECOVERY** partition. If at this point *Shift* is pressed, NOOBS will load the recovery and installation menu. Otherwise, NOOBS will begin loading the OS as specified by the preferences stored in the **SETTINGS** partition.

When loading the operating system, it will boot via the **BOOT** partition, using the settings defined in `config.txt` and options in `cmdline.txt` to finally load to the desktop on the **root** partition. Refer to the following diagram:



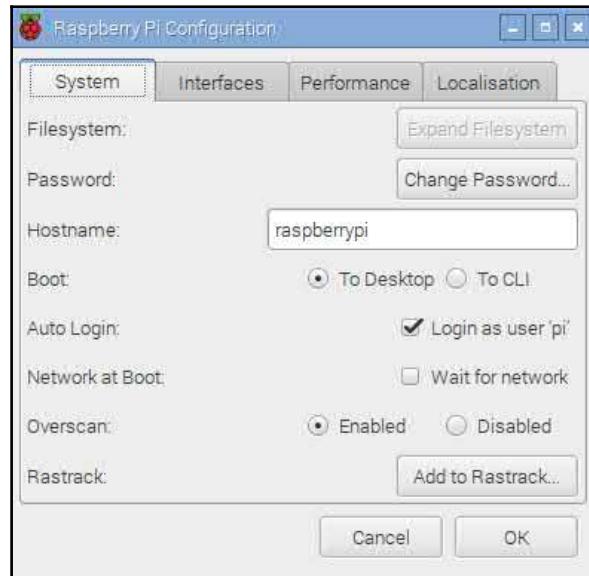
NOOBS creates several partitions on the SD card to allow the installation of multiple operating systems and to provide recovery

NOOBS allows the user to optionally install multiple operating systems on the same card and provides a boot menu to choose between them (with an option to set a default value in the event of a time-out period).

If you later add, remove, or re-install an operating system, ensure first that you make a copy of any files, including system settings you wish to keep, as NOOBS may overwrite everything on the SD card.

There's more...

When you power up Raspberry Pi for the first time directly, the desktop will be loaded. You can configure the system settings using the **Raspberry Pi Configuration** menu (under the **Preferences** menu on the Desktop or via the `sudo raspi-config` command). With this menu, you can make changes to your SD card or set up your general preferences:



Changing the default user password

Ensure that you change the default password for the `pi` user account once you have logged in, as the default password is well known. This is particularly important if you connect to public networks. You can do this with the `passwd` command, as shown in the following screenshot:

```
pi@raspberrypi ~ $ passwd
Changing password for pi.
(current) UNIX password:
Enter new UNIX password:
Retype new UNIX password:
passwd: password updated successfully
```

Setting a new password for the Pi user

This provides greater confidence because if you later connect to another network, only you will be able to access your files and take control of your Raspberry Pi.

Ensuring that you shut down safely

To avoid any data corruption, you must ensure that you correctly shut down Raspberry Pi by issuing a shutdown command, as follows:

```
sudo shutdown -h now
```

Or, use this one:

```
sudo halt
```

You must wait until this command completes before you remove power from Raspberry Pi (wait for at least 10 seconds after the SD card access light has stopped flashing).

You can also restart the system with the reboot command, as follows:

```
sudo reboot
```

Preparing an SD card manually

An alternative to using NOOBS is to manually write the operating system image to the SD card. While this was originally the only way to install the operating system, some users still prefer it. It allows the SD cards to be prepared before they are used in Raspberry Pi. It can also provide easier access to startup and configuration files, and it leaves more space available for the user (unlike NOOBS, a RECOVERY partition isn't included).

The default Raspbian image actually consists of two partitions, BOOT and SYSTEM, which will fit into a 2 GB SD card (4 GB or more is recommended).

You need a computer running Windows/Mac OS X/Linux (although it is possible to use another Raspberry Pi to write your card; be prepared for a very long wait).

Download the latest version of the operating system you wish to use. For the purpose of this book, it is assumed you are using the latest version of Raspbian available at <http://www.raspberrypi.org/downloads>.

Perform the following steps depending on the type of computer you plan to use to write to the SD card (the .img file you need is sometimes compressed, so before you start, you will need to extract the file).

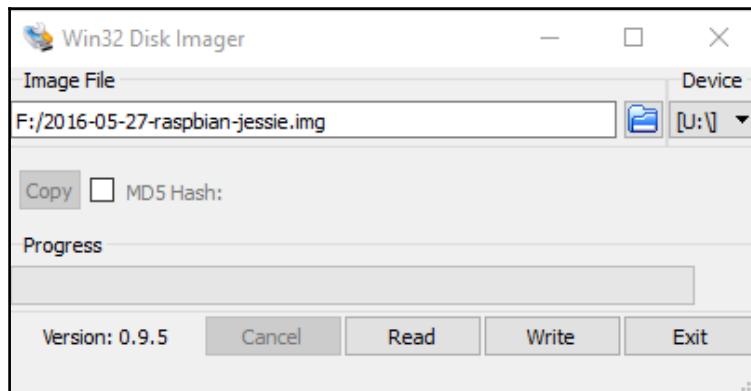
The following steps are for Windows:

1. Ensure that you have downloaded the Raspbian image, as previously detailed, and extracted it to a convenient folder to obtain an .img file.
2. Obtain the Win32DiskImager.exe file available at <http://www.sourceforge.net/projects/win32diskimager>.
3. Run Win32DiskImager.exe from your downloaded location.
4. Click on the folder icon and navigate to the location of the .img file and click on **Save**.
5. If you haven't already done so, insert your SD card into your card reader and plug it into your computer.
6. Select the **Device** drive letter that corresponds to your SD card from the small drop-down box. Double-check that this is the correct device (as the program will overwrite whatever is on the device when you write the image).

The drive letter may not be listed until you select a source image file.



7. Finally, click on the **Write** button and wait for the program to write the image to the SD card, as shown in the following screenshot:



Manually writing operating system images to the SD card, using Disk Imager

8. Once completed, you can exit the program. Your SD card is ready.

The following steps should work for the most common Linux distributions, such as Ubuntu and Debian:

1. Using your preferred web browser, download the Raspbian image and save it in a suitable place.
2. Extract the file from the file manager or locate the folder in the terminal and unzip the `.img` file with the following command:

```
unzip filename.zip
```

3. If you haven't already done so, insert your SD card into your card reader and plug it into your computer.
4. Use the `df -h` command and identify the `sdX` identifier for the SD card. Each partition will be displayed as `sdX1`, `sdX2`, and so on, where `X` will be `a`, `b`, `c`, `d`, and so on for the device ID.
5. Ensure that all the partitions on the SD card are unmounted using the `umount /dev/sdXn` command for each partition, where `sdXn` is the partition being unmounted.
6. Write the image file to the SD card, with the following command:

```
sudo dd if=filename.img of=/dev/sdX bs=4M
```

7. The process will take some time to write to the SD card, returning to the Terminal prompt when complete.
8. Unmount the SD card before removing it from the computer, using the following command:

```
umount /dev/sdX1
```

The following steps should work for most of the versions of OS X:

1. Using your preferred web browser, download the Raspbian image and save it somewhere suitable.
2. Extract the file from the file manager or locate the folder in the terminal and unzip the `.img` file, with the following command:

```
unzip filename.zip
```

3. If you haven't already done so, insert your SD card into your card reader and plug it into your computer.

4. Use the `diskutil list` command and identify the `disk#` identifier for the SD card. Each partition will be displayed as `disk#s1`, `disk#s2`, and so on, where # will be 1, 2, 3, 4, and so on, for the device ID.



If `rdisk#` is listed, use this for faster writing (this uses a raw path and skips data buffering).

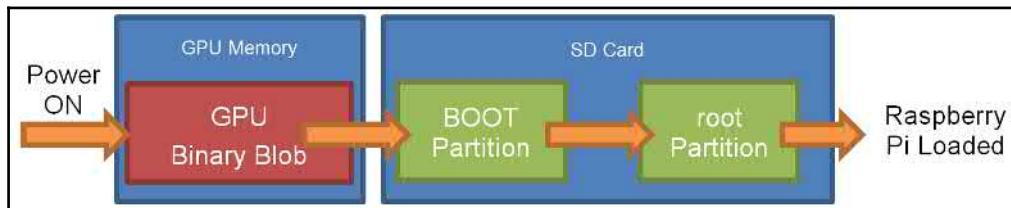
5. Ensure that the SD card is unmounted using the `umountdisk /dev/diskX` command, where `diskX` is the device being unmounted.
6. Write the image file to the SD card, with the following command:

```
sudo dd if=filename.img of=/dev/diskX bs=1M
```

7. The process will take some time to write to the SD card, returning to the Terminal prompt when complete.
8. Unmount the SD card before removing it from the computer, using the following command:

```
umountdisk /dev/diskX
```

Refer to the following diagram:



The boot process of a manually installed OS image

Expanding the system to fit in your SD card

A manually written image will be of a fixed size (usually made to fit the smallest-sized SD card possible). To make full use of the SD card, you will need to expand the system partition to fill the remainder of the SD card. This can be achieved using the **Raspberry Pi Configuration** tool.

Select **Expand Filesystem**, as shown in the following screenshot:



Raspberry Pi Configuration tool

Accessing the RECOVERY/BOOT partition

Windows and macOS X do not support the ext 4 format, so when you read the SD card, only the **File Allocation Table (FAT)** partitions will be accessible. In addition, Windows only supports the first partition on an SD card, so if you've installed NOOBS, only the RECOVERY partition will be visible. If you've written your card manually, you will be able to access the BOOT partition.

The `data` partition (if you installed one via NOOBS) and the `root` partition are in `ext 4` format and won't usually be visible on non-Linux systems.



If you do need to read files from the SD card using Windows, a freeware program, **Linux Reader** (available at www.diskinternals.com/linux-reader) can provide read-only access to all of the partitions on the SD card.

Access the partitions from Raspberry Pi. To view the currently mounted partitions, use `df`, as shown in the following screenshot:

```
pi@raspberrypi:~ $ df
Filesystem      1K-blocks    Used Available Use% Mounted on
/dev/root        5964864  3554020   2084804  64% /
devtmpfs          469544       0   469544   0% /dev
tmpfs            473880       0   473880   0% /dev/shm
tmpfs            473880    6460   467420   2% /run
tmpfs             5120       4    5116   1% /run/lock
tmpfs            473880       0   473880   0% /sys/fs/cgroup
/dev/mmcblk0p6     64366  20442    43924  32% /boot
tmpfs            94776       0   94776   0% /run/user/1000
/dev/mmcblk0p5    30701     398   28010   2% /media/pi/SETTINGS
pi@raspberrypi:~ $
```

The result of the `df` command

To access the `BOOT` partition from within Raspbian, use the following command:

```
cd /boot/
```

To access the RECOVERY or data partition, we have to mount it by performing the following steps:

1. Determine the name of the partition as the system refers to it by listing all the partitions, even the unmounted ones. The `sudo fdisk -l` command lists the partitions, as shown in the following screenshot:

```
Device      Boot  Start    End  Sectors  Size Id Type
/dev/mmcblk0p1        8192 2541015 2532824  1.2G e W95 FAT16 (LBA)
/dev/mmcblk0p2      2541016 15130623 12589608   6G 5 Extended
/dev/mmcblk0p5      2547712 2613245   65534   32M 83 Linux
/dev/mmcblk0p6      2613248 2742271 129024   63M c W95 FAT32 (LBA)
/dev/mmcblk0p7      2744320 15130623 12386304  5.9G 83 Linux
```

NOOBS installation and data partition

The following table shows the names of partitions and their meanings

Partition name	Meaning
mmcblk0p1	(VFAT) RECOVERY
mmcblk0p2	(Extended partition) contains (root, data, BOOT)
mmcblk0p5	(ext 4) root
mmcblk0p6	(VFAT) BOOT
mmcblk0p7	(ext 4) SETTINGS

If you have installed additional operating systems on the same card, the partition identifiers shown in the preceding table will be different.

2. Create a folder and set it as the mount point for the partition; for the RECOVERY partition, use the following command:

```
mkdir ~/recovery
sudo mount -t vfat /dev/mmcblk0p1 ~/recovery
```

To ensure that they are mounted each time the system is started, perform the following steps:

1. Add the sudo mount commands to `/etc/rc.local` before `exit 0`. If you have a different username, you will need to change `pi` to match:

```
sudo nano /etc/rc.local
sudo mount -t vfat /dev/mmcblk0p1 /home/pi/recovery
```

2. Save and exit by pressing `Ctrl + X`, `Y`, and `Enter`.



Commands added to `/etc/rc.local` will be run for any user who logs on to Raspberry Pi. If you only want the drive to be mounted for the current user, the commands can be added to `.bash_profile` instead.

If you have to install additional operating systems on the same card, the partition identifiers shown here will be different.

Using the tools to back up your SD card in case of failure

You can use **Win32 Disk Imager** to make a full backup image of your SD card by inserting your SD card into your reader, starting the program, and creating a filename to store the image in. Simply click on the **Read** button instead to read the image from the SD card and write it to a new image file.

To make a backup of your system, or to clone to another SD card using Raspberry Pi, use the **SD Card Copier** (available from the desktop menu via the **Accessories | SD Card Copier**).

Insert an SD card into a card reader into a spare USB port of Raspberry Pi and select the new storage device, as shown in the following screenshot:



SD Card Copier program

Before continuing, the **SD Card Copier** will confirm that you wish to format and overwrite the target device and, if there is sufficient space, make a clone of your system.

The `dd` command can similarly be used to back up the card, as follows:

- For Linux, replacing `sdX` with your device ID, use this command:

```
sudo dd if=/dev/sdX of=image.img.gz bs=1M
```

- For OS X, replacing `diskX` with your device ID, use the following command:

```
sudo dd if=/dev/diskX of=image.img.gz bs=1M
```

- You can also use `gzip` and `split` to compress the contents of the card and split them into multiple files, if required, for easy archiving, as follows:

```
sudo dd if=/dev/sdX bs=1M | gzip -c | split -d -b 2000m -  
image.img.gz
```

- To restore the split image, use the following command:

```
sudo cat image.img.gz* | gzip -dc | dd of=/dev/sdX bs=1M
```

Networking and connecting your Raspberry Pi to the internet via an Ethernet port, using a CAT6 Ethernet cable

The simplest way to connect Raspberry Pi to the internet is by using the built-in LAN connection on the Model B. If you are using a Model A Raspberry Pi, a USB-to-LAN adapter can be used (refer to the *There's more...* section of the *Networking and connecting your Raspberry Pi to the internet via a USB Wi-Fi dongle* recipe for details of how to configure this).

Getting ready

You will need access to a suitable wired network, which will be connected to the internet, and a standard network cable (with an **RJ45** type connector for connecting to Raspberry Pi).

How to do it...

Many networks connect and configure themselves automatically using the **Dynamic Host Configuration Protocol (DHCP)**, which is controlled by the router or switch. If this is the case, simply plug the network cable into a spare network port on your router or network switch (or wall network socket if applicable).

Alternatively, if a DHCP server is not available, you shall have to configure the settings manually (refer to the *There's more...* section for details).

You can confirm this is functioning successfully with the following steps:

1. Ensure that the two LEDs on either side of Raspberry Pi light up (the left orange LED indicates a connection and the green LED on the right shows activity by flashing). This will indicate that there is a physical connection to the router and that the equipment is powered and functioning.
2. Test the link to your local network using the `ping` command. First, find out the IP address of another computer on the network (or the address of your router, perhaps, often `192.168.0.1` or `192.168.1.254`). Now, on the Raspberry Pi Terminal, use the `ping` command (the `-c 4` parameter is used to send just four messages; otherwise, press `Ctrl + C` to stop) to ping the IP address, as follows:

```
sudo ping 192.168.1.254 -c 4
```

3. Test the link to the internet (this will fail if you usually connect to the internet through a proxy server) as follows:

```
sudo ping www.raspberrypi.org -c 4
```

4. Finally, you can test the link back to Raspberry Pi by discovering the IP address using `hostname -I` on Raspberry Pi. You can then use the `ping` command on another computer on the network to ensure it is accessible (using Raspberry Pi's IP address in place of `www.raspberrypi.org`). The Windows version of the `ping` command will perform five pings and stop automatically, and will not need the `-c 4` option.

If the aforementioned tests fail, you will need to check your connections and then confirm the correct configuration for your network.

There's more...

If you find yourself using your Raspberry Pi regularly on the network, you won't want to have to look up the IP address each time you want to connect to it.

On some networks, you may be able to use Raspberry Pi's hostname instead of its IP address (the default is `raspberrypi`). To assist with this, you may need some additional software, such as **Bonjour**, to ensure hostnames on the network are correctly registered. If you have macOS X, you will have Bonjour running already.

On Windows, you can either install iTunes (if you haven't got it), which also includes the service, or you can install it separately (via the Apple Bonjour Installer available from <https://support.apple.com/kb/DL999>). Then you can use the hostname, `raspberrypi` or `raspberrypi.local`, to connect to Raspberry Pi over the network. If you need to change the hostname, then you can do so with the Raspberry Pi configuration tool, shown previously.

Alternatively, you may find it helpful to fix the IP address to a known value by manually setting the IP address. However, remember to switch it back to use DHCP when connecting to another network.

Some routers will also have an option to set a **Static IP DHCP address**, so the same address is always given to Raspberry Pi (how this is set will vary depending on the router itself).

Knowing your Raspberry Pi's IP address or using the hostname is particularly useful if you intend to use one of the remote access solutions described later on, which avoids the need for a display.

Using built-in Wi-Fi and Bluetooth on Raspberry Pi

Many home networks provide a wireless network over Wi-Fi; if you have Raspberry Pi 3, then you can make use of the on-board Broadcom Wi-Fi to connect to it. Raspberry Pi 3 also supports Bluetooth, so you can connect most standard Bluetooth devices and use them like you would on any other computer.

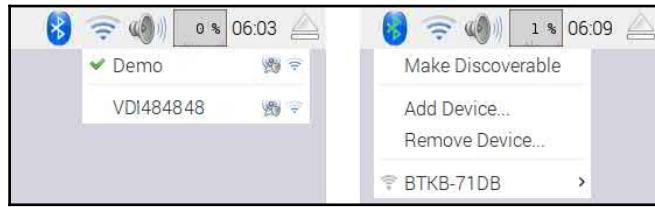
This method should also work for any supported USB Wi-Fi and Bluetooth devices; see the *Networking and connecting your Raspberry Pi to the internet via a USB Wi-Fi dongle* recipe for extra help on identifying devices and installing firmware (if required).

Getting ready

The latest version of Raspbian includes helpful utilities to quickly and easily configure your Wi-Fi and Bluetooth through the graphical interface.



Note: If you need to configure the Wi-Fi via the command line, then see the *Networking and connecting your Raspberry Pi to the internet via a USB Wi-Fi dongle* recipe for details.



Wi-Fi and Bluetooth configuration applications

You can use the built-in Bluetooth to connect a wireless keyboard, a mouse, or even wireless speakers. This can be exceptionally helpful for projects where additional cables and wires are an issue, such as robotic projects, or when Raspberry Pi is installed in hard-to-reach locations (acting as a server or security camera).

How to do it...

Here are the various methods.

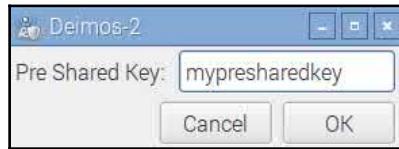
Connecting to your Wi-Fi network

To configure your Wi-Fi connection, click on the networking symbol to list the local available Wi-Fi networks:



Wi-Fi listing of the available access points in the area

Select the required network (for example, Demo) and, if required, enter your password (also known as a Pre Shared Key):



Providing the password for the access point

After a short while, you should see that you have connected to the network and the icon will change to a Wi-Fi symbol. If you encounter problems, ensure you have the correct password/key:



Successful connection to an access point

That is it; it's as easy as that!

You can now test your connection and ensure it is working by using the web browser to navigate to a website or by using the following command in the terminal:

```
sudo ping www.raspberrypi.com
```

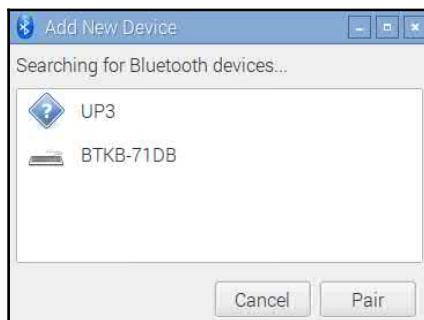
Connecting to Bluetooth devices

To start, we need to put the Bluetooth device into discoverable mode by clicking on the Bluetooth icon and selecting **Make Discoverable**. You will also need to make the device you want to connect to discoverable and ready to pair; this may vary from device to device (such as pressing a pairing button):



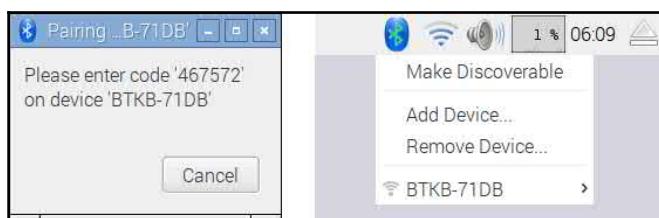
Setting the Bluetooth up as discoverable

Next, select **Add Device...** and select the target device and **Pair**:



Selecting and pairing the required device

The pairing process will then start; for example, the **BTKB-71DB** keyboard will need the pairing code 467572 to be entered onto the keyboard for the pairing to complete. Other devices may use default pairing codes, often set to 0000, 1111, 1234, or similar:



Following the instructions to pair the device with the required pairing code

Once the process has completed, the device will be listed and will connect automatically each time the devices are present and booted.

Configuring your network manually

If your network does not include a DHCP server or it is disabled (typically, these are built into most modern ADSL/cable modems or routers), you may need to configure your network settings manually.

Getting ready

Before you start, you will need to determine the network settings for your network.

You will need to find out the following information from your router's settings or another computer connected to the network:

- **IPv4 address:** This address will need to be selected to be similar to other computers on the network (typically, the first three numbers should match, that is, 192.168.1.X if netmask is 255.255.255.0), but it should not already be used by another computer. However, avoid x.x.x.255 as the last address, since this is reserved as a broadcast address.
- **Subnet mask:** This number determines the range of addresses the computer will respond to (for a home network, it is typically 255.255.255.0, which allows up to 254 addresses). This is also sometimes referred to as the **netmask**.
- **Default gateway address:** This address is usually your router's IP address, through which the computers connect to the internet.
- **DNS servers:** The **Domain Name Service (DNS)** server converts names into IP addresses by looking them up. Usually, they will already be configured on your router, in which case you can use your router's address. Alternatively, your **Internet Service Provider (ISP)** may provide some addresses, or you can use Google's public DNS servers at the addresses 8.8.8.8 and 8.8.4.4. These are also called **nameservers** in some systems.

For Windows, you can obtain this information by connecting to the internet and running the following command:

```
ipconfig /all
```

Locate the active connection (usually called Local Area Connection 1 or similar if you are using a wired connection, or if you are using Wi-Fi, it is called a wireless network connection) and find the information required, as follows:

The screenshot shows a Windows Command Prompt window titled 'cmd C:\Windows\system32\cmd.exe'. It displays network configuration for two adapters:

- Wireless LAN adapter Wireless Network Connection 2:**
 - Media State : Media disconnected
 - Connection-specific DNS Suffix :
 - Description : Microsoft Virtual WiFi Miniport Adapter
 - Physical Address : 00-19-7E-00-00-00
 - DHCP Enabled. : Yes
 - Autoconfiguration Enabled : Yes
- Ethernet adapter Local Area Connection:**
 - Connection-specific DNS Suffix : home
 - Description : Broadcom 440x 10/100 Integrated Controller
 - Physical Address : 00-1D-00-00-00-00
 - DHCP Enabled. : Yes
 - Autoconfiguration Enabled : Yes
 - Link-local IPv6 Address : fe80::f539:0000:0000:0000%12<Preferred>
 - IPv4 Address. : 192.168.1.86<Preferred>
 - Subnet Mask : 255.255.255.0
 - Lease Obtained. : 24 June 2013 20:34:35
 - Lease Expires : 25 June 2013 20:34:35
 - Default Gateway : 192.168.1.254
 - DHCP Server : 192.168.1.254
 - DHCPv6 IAID : 285220000
 - DHCPv6 Client DUID. : 00-01-00-01-16-C3-4A-46-00-00-00-00-00-00
 - DNS Servers : 192.168.1.254
 192.168.1.254
 - Primary WINS Server : 192.168.1.254

The ipconfig/all command shows useful information about your network settings

For Linux and macOS X, you can obtain the required information with the following command (note that it is `ifconfig` rather than `ipconfig`):

```
ifconfig
```

The DNS servers are called nameservers and are usually listed in the `resolv.conf` file. You can use the `less` command as follows to view its contents (press Q to quit when you have finished viewing it):

```
less /etc/resolv.conf
```

How to do it...

To set the network interface settings, edit `/etc/network/interfaces` using the following code:

```
sudo nano /etc/network/interfaces
```

Now perform the following steps:

1. We can add the details for our particular network, the IP address number we want to allocate to it, the netmask address of the network, and the gateway address, as follows:

```
iface eth0 inet static
    address 192.168.1.10
    netmask 255.255.255.0
    gateway 192.168.1.254
```

2. Save and exit by pressing *Ctrl + X*, *Y*, and *Enter*.
3. To set the name servers for DNS, edit `/etc/resolv.conf` using the following code:

```
sudo nano /etc/resolv.conf
```

4. Add the addresses for your DNS servers as follows:

```
nameserver 8.8.8.8
nameserver 8.8.4.4
```

5. Save and exit by pressing *Ctrl + X*, *Y*, and *Enter*.

There's more...

You can configure the network settings by editing `cmdline.txt` in the `BOOT` partition and adding settings to the startup command line with `ip`.

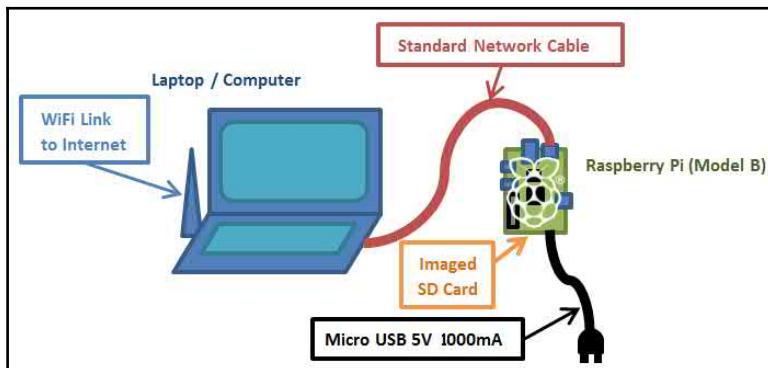
The `ip` option takes the following form:

```
ip=client-ip:nfsserver-ip:gw-ip:netmask:hostname:device:autoconf
```

- The `client-ip` option is the IP address you want to allocate to Raspberry Pi
- The `gw-ip` option will set the gateway server address if you need to set it manually
- The `netmask` option will directly set the `netmask` of the network
- The `hostname` option will allow you to change the default `raspberrypi` hostname
- The `device` option allows you to specify a default network device if more than one network device is present
- The `autoconf` option allows the automatic configuration to be switched on or off

Networking directly to a laptop or computer

It is possible to connect Raspberry Pi LAN port directly to a laptop or computer using a single network cable. This will create a local network link between the computers, allowing all the things you can do if connected to a normal network without the need for a hub or a router, including connection to the internet, if **Internet Connection Sharing (ICS)** is used, as follows:





Make use of Raspberry Pi, with just a network cable, a standard imaged SD card, and power.

ICS allows Raspberry Pi to connect to the internet through another computer. However, some additional configuration is required for the computers to communicate across the link, as Raspberry Pi does not automatically allocate its own IP address.

We will use the ICS to share a connection from another network link, such as a built-in Wi-Fi on a laptop. Alternatively, we can use a direct network link (refer to the *Direct network link* section under the *There's more...* section) if the internet is not required or if the computer has only a single network adapter.



Although this setup should work for most computers, some setups are more difficult than the others. For additional information, see www.pihardware.com/guides/direct-network-connection.

Getting ready

You will need Raspberry Pi with power and a standard network cable.



Raspberry Pi Model B LAN chip includes **Auto-MDIX (Automatic Medium-Dependent Interface Crossover)**. Removing the need to use a special crossover cable (a special network cable wired so that the transmit lines connect to receive lines for direct network links), the chip will decide and change the setup as required automatically.

It may also be helpful to have a keyboard and monitor available to perform additional testing, particularly if this is the first time you have tried this.

To ensure that you can restore your network settings to their original values, you should check whether it has a fixed IP address or the network is configured automatically.

To check the network settings on Windows 10, perform these steps:

1. Open **Settings** from the start menu, then select **Network and Internet**, then **Ethernet**, and click on **Change adapter options** from the list of **Related Settings**.

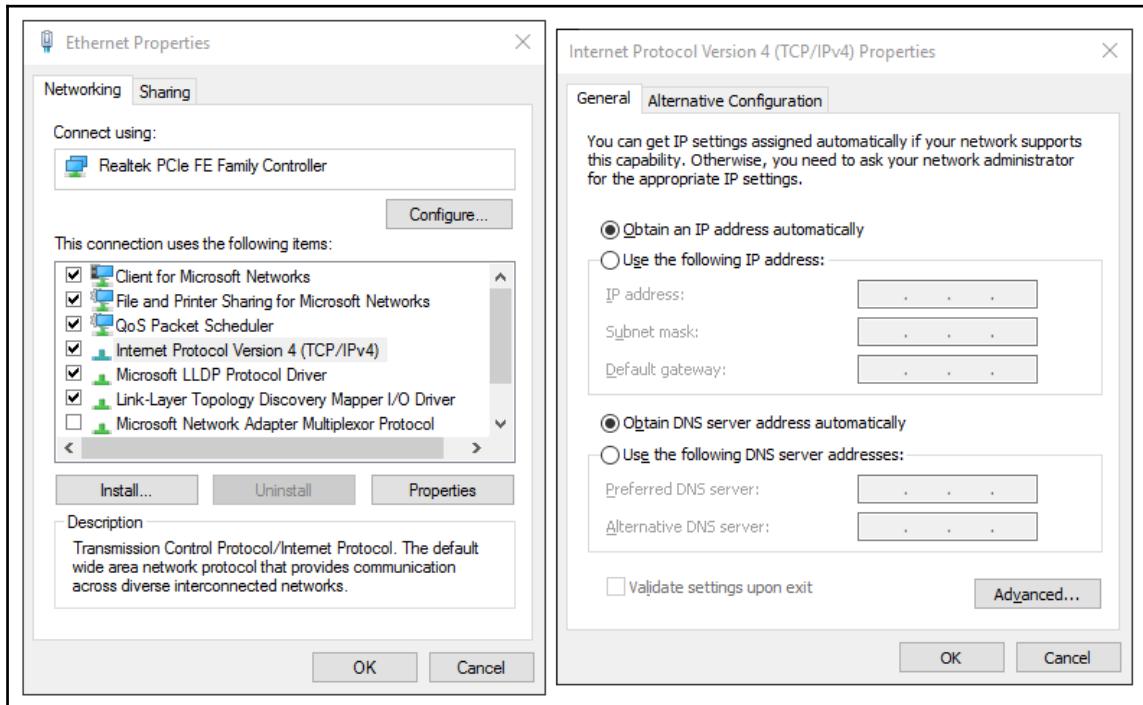
To check the network settings on Windows 7 and Vista, perform the following steps:

1. Open **Network and Sharing Center** from the **Control Panel** and click on **Change adapter settings** on the left-hand side.
2. To check the network settings on Windows XP, open **Network Connections** from the **Control Panel**.
3. Find the item that relates to your wired network adapter (by default, this is usually called **Ethernet** or **Local Area Connection**, as shown in the following screenshot):



Locating your wired network connection

4. Right-click on its icon and click on **Properties**. A dialog box will appear, as shown in this screenshot:



Selecting the TCP/IP properties and checking the settings

5. Select the item called **Internet Protocol (TCP/IP)** or **Internet Protocol Version 4 (TCP/IPv4)** if there are two versions (the other is Version 6), and click on the **Properties** button.
6. You can confirm that your network is set by using automatic settings or a specific IP address (if so, take note of this address and the remaining details as you may want to revert the settings at a later point).

To check the network settings on Linux, perform the following steps:

1. Open the **Network Settings** dialog box and select **Configure Interface**. Refer to the following screenshot:



Linux Network Settings dialog box

2. If any settings are manually set, ensure you take note of them so that you can restore them later if you want.

To check the network settings on macOS X, perform the following steps:

1. Open **System Preferences** and click on **Networks**. You can then confirm whether the IP address is allocated automatically (using DHCP) or not.

2. Ensure that if any settings are manually set you take note of them so you can restore them later if you want to. Refer to the following screenshot:



OS X Network Settings dialog box

If you just need to access or control Raspberry Pi without an internet connection, refer to the *Direct network link* section in the *There's more...* section.

How to do it...

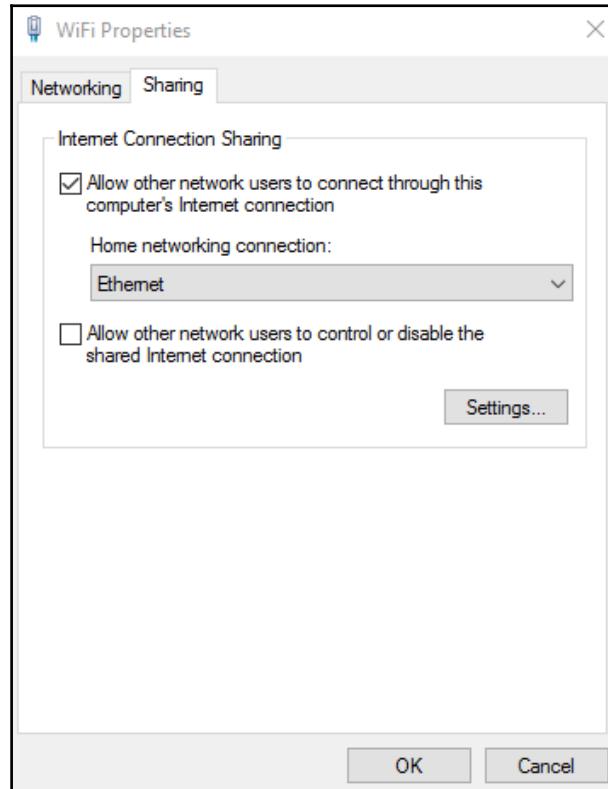
First, we need to enable ICS on our network devices. In this case, we will be sharing the internet, which is available on **Wireless Network Connection** through the **Ethernet** connection to Raspberry Pi.

For Windows, perform these steps:

1. Return to the list of network adapters, right-click on the connection that links to the internet (in this case, the **WiFi** or **Wireless Network Connection** device), and click on **Properties**:



2. At the top of the window, select the second tab (in Windows XP, it is called **Advanced**; in Windows 7 and Windows 10, it is called **Sharing**), as shown in the following screenshot:



Selecting the TCP/IP properties and noting the allocated IP address

3. In the **Internet Connection Sharing** section, check the box for **Allow other network users to connect through this computer's Internet connection** (if present, use the drop-down box to select the **Home networking connection:** option as **Ethernet** or **Local Area Connection**). Click on **OK** and confirm whether you previously had a fixed IP address set for **Local Area Connection**.

For macOS X, to enable the ICS, perform the following steps:

1. Click on **System Preferences** and then click on **Sharing**.
2. Click on **Internet Sharing** and select the connection from which we want to share the internet (in this case, it will be the **Wi-Fi AirPort**). Then select the connection that we will connect Raspberry Pi to (in this case, **Ethernet**).

For Linux to enable the ICS, perform the following steps:

1. From the **System** menu, click on **Preferences** and then on **Network Connections**. Select the connection you want to share (in this case, **Wireless**) and click on **Edit** or **Configure**. In the **IPv4 Settings** tab, change the **Method** option to **Shared to other computers**.

The IP address of the network adapter will be the **Gateway IP** address to be used on Raspberry Pi, and will be assigned an IP address within the same range (it will all match, except the last number). For instance, if the computer's wired connection now has 192.168.137.1, the Gateway IP of Raspberry Pi will be 192.168.137.1 and its own IP address might be set to 192.168.137.10.

Fortunately, thanks to updates in the operating system, Raspbian will now automatically allocate a suitable IP address to join the network and set the gateway appropriately. However, unless we have a screen attached to Raspberry Pi or scan for devices on our network, we do not know what IP address Raspberry PI has given itself.

Fortunately (as mentioned in the *Networking and connecting your Raspberry Pi to the internet via the LAN connector* recipe in the *There's more...* section), Apple's **Bonjour** software will automatically ensure hostnames on the network are correctly registered. As stated previously, if you have a Mac OS X, you will have Bonjour running already. On Windows, you can either install iTunes, or you can install it separately (available from <https://support.apple.com/kb/DL999>). By default, the hostname **raspberrypi** can be used.

We are now ready to test the new connection, as follows:

1. Connect the network cable to Raspberry Pi and the computer's network port, and then power up Raspberry Pi, ensuring that you have re-inserted the SD card if you previously removed it. To reboot Raspberry Pi, if you edited the file there, use `sudo reboot` to restart it.
2. Allow a minute or two for Raspberry Pi to fully power up. We can now test the connection.

3. From the connected laptop or computer, test the connection by pinging with the hostname of Raspberry Pi, as shown in the following command (on Linux or OS X, add `-c 4` to limit to four messages or press Ctrl + C to exit):

```
ping raspberrypi
```

Hopefully, you will find you have a working connection and receive replies from the Raspberry Pi.

If you have a keyboard and a screen connected to Raspberry Pi, you can perform the following steps:

1. You can ping the computer in return (for example, 192.168.137.1) from Raspberry Pi Terminal as follows:

```
sudo ping 192.168.137.1 -c 4
```

2. You can test the link to the internet by using ping to connect to a well-known website as follows, assuming you do not access the internet through a proxy server:

```
sudo ping www.raspberrypi.org -c 4
```

If all goes well, you will have full internet available through your computer to Raspberry Pi, allowing you to browse the web as well as update and install new software.

If the connection fails, perform the following steps:

1. Repeat the process, ensuring that the first three sets of numbers match with Raspberry Pi and the network adapter IP addresses.
2. You can also check that when Raspberry Pi powers up, the correct IP address is being set using the following command:

```
hostname -I
```

3. Check your firewall settings to ensure your firewall is not blocking internal network connections.

How it works...

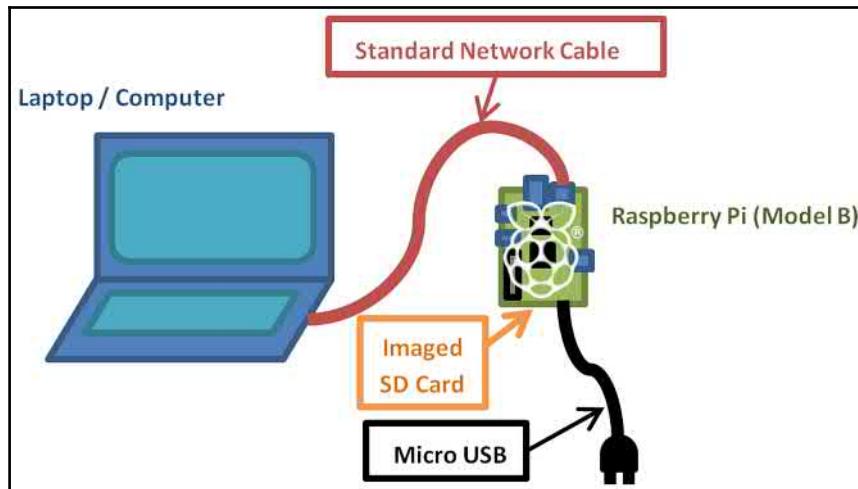
When we enable ICS on the primary computer, the operating system will automatically allocate a new IP address to the computer. Once connected and powered up, Raspberry Pi will set itself to a compatible IP address and use the primary computer IP address as an Internet Gateway.

By using Apple Bonjour, we are able to use `raspberrypi` hostname to connect to Raspberry Pi from the connected computer.

Finally, we check whether the computer can communicate over the direct network link to Raspberry Pi, back the other way, and also through to the internet.

There's more...

If you do not require the internet on Raspberry Pi, or your computer has only a single network adapter, you can still connect the computers together through a direct network link. Refer to the following diagram:



Connecting and using Raspberry Pi with just a network cable, a standard imaged SD card, and power

Direct network link

For a network link to work between two computers, they need to be using the same address range. The allowable address range is determined by the subnet mask (for example, 255.255.0.0 or 255.255.255.0 would mean all IP addresses should be the same except for the last two, or just the last number in the IP address; otherwise, they will be filtered).

To use a direct link without enabling ICS, check the IP settings of the adapter you are going to connect to and determine whether it is automatically allocated or fixed to a specific IP address.

Most PCs connected directly to another computer will allocate an IP address in the range 169.254.x.x (with a subnet mask of 255.255.0.0). However, we must ensure that the network adaptor is set to **Obtain an IP address automatically**.

For Raspberry Pi to be able to communicate through the direct link, it needs to have an IP address in the same address range, 169.254.x.x. As mentioned before, Raspberry Pi will automatically give itself a suitable IP address and connect to the network.

Therefore, assuming we have **Apple Bonjour** (mentioned previously), we only need to know the hostname given to Raspberry Pi (raspberrypi).

See also

If you don't have a keyboard or screen connected to Raspberry Pi, you can use this network link to remotely access Raspberry Pi just as you would on a normal network (just use the new IP address you have set for the connection). Refer to the *Connecting remotely to Raspberry Pi over the network using VNC* and *Connecting remotely to Raspberry Pi over the network using SSH (and X11 Forwarding)* recipes.

There is lots of additional information available on my website, <https://pihw.wordpress.com/guides/direct-network-connection>, including additional troubleshooting tips and several other ways to connect to your Raspberry Pi without needing a dedicated screen and keyboard.

Networking and connecting your Raspberry Pi to the internet via a USB Wi-Fi dongle

By adding a **USB Wi-Fi dongle** to Raspberry Pi's USB port, even models without built-in Wi-Fi can connect to and use the Wi-Fi network.

Getting ready

You will need to obtain a suitable USB Wi-Fi dongle, and, in some cases, you may require a powered USB hub (this will depend on the hardware version of Raspberry Pi you have and the quality of your power supply). General suitability of USB Wi-Fi dongles will vary depending on the chipset that is used inside and the level of Linux support available. You may find that some USB Wi-Fi dongles will work without installing additional drivers (in which case you can jump to configuring it for the wireless network).

A list of supported Wi-Fi adapters is available at http://elinux.org/RPi_USB_Wi-Fi_Adapters.

You will need to ensure that your Wi-Fi adapter is also compatible with your intended network; for example, it supports the same types of signals **802.11bgn** and the encryptions **WEP**, **WPA**, and **WPA2** (although most networks are backward compatible).

You will also need the following details of your network:

- **Service set identifier (SSID):** This is the name of your Wi-Fi network and should be visible if you use the following command:

```
sudo iwlist scan | grep SSID
```

- **Encryption type and key:** This value will be **None**, **WEP**, **WPA**, or **WPA2**, and the key will be the code you normally enter when you connect your phone or laptop to the wireless network (sometimes, it is printed on the router).

You will require a working internet connection (that is, wired Ethernet) to download the required drivers. Otherwise, you may be able to locate the required firmware files (they will be the .deb files) and copy them to Raspberry Pi (that is, via a USB flash drive; the drive should be automatically mounted if you are running in desktop mode). Copy the file to a suitable location and install it, using the following command:

```
sudo apt-get install firmware_file.deb
```

How to do it...

This task has two stages: first, we identify and install firmware for the Wi-Fi adapter, and then we need to configure it for the wireless network.

We will try to identify the chipset of your Wi-Fi adapter (the part that handles the connection); this may not match the actual manufacturer of the device.

An approximate list of supported firmware can be found with this command:

```
sudo apt-cache search wireless firmware
```

This will produce results similar to the following output (disregarding any results without firmware in the package title):

```
atmel-firmware - Firmware for Atmel at76c50x wireless networking chips.
firmware-atheros - Binary firmware for Atheros wireless cards
firmware-brcm80211 - Binary firmware for Broadcom 802.11 wireless cards
firmware-ipw2x00 - Binary firmware for Intel Pro Wireless 2100, 2200 and
2915
firmware-iwlwifi - Binary firmware for Intel PRO/Wireless 3945 and 802.11n
cards
firmware-libertas - Binary firmware for Marvell Libertas 8xxx wireless
cards
firmware-ralink - Binary firmware for Ralink wireless cards
firmware-realtek - Binary firmware for Realtek wired and wireless network
adapters
libertas-firmware - Firmware for Marvell's libertas wireless chip series
(dummy package)
zd1211-firmware - Firmware images for the zd1211rw wireless driver
```

To find out the chipset of your wireless adapter, plug the Wi-Fi-adapter into Raspberry Pi, and from the terminal, run the following command:

```
dmesg | grep 'Product:|Manufacturer:'
```

This command stitches together two commands into one. First, `dmesg` displays the message buffer of the kernel (this is an internal record of system events that have occurred since power on, such as detected USB devices). You can try the command on its own to observe the complete output.



The `|` (pipe) sends the output to the `grep` command; `grep 'Product:|Manufacturer'` checks it and only returns lines that contain `Product` or `Manufacturer` (so we should get a summary of any items that are listed as `Product` and `Manufacturer`). If you don't find anything or want to see all your USB devices, try the `grep 'usb'` command instead.

This should return something similar to the following output—in this case, I've got a ZyXEL device, which has a ZyDAS chipset (a quick Google search reveals that `zd1211-firmware` is for ZyDAS devices):

```
[ 1.893367] usb usb1: Product: DWC OTG Controller
[ 1.900217] usb usb1: Manufacturer: Linux 3.6.11+ dwc_otg_hcd
[ 3.348259] usb 1-1.2: Product: ZyXEL G-202
[ 3.355062] usb 1-1.2: Manufacturer: ZyDAS
```

Once you have identified your device and the correct firmware, you can install it as you would any other package available through `apt-get` (where `zd1211-firmware` can be replaced with your required firmware). This is shown in the following command:

```
sudo apt-get install zd1211-firmware
```

Remove and reinsert the USB Wi-Fi dongle to allow it to be detected and the drivers loaded. We can now test whether the new adapter is correctly installed with `ifconfig`. The output is shown as follows:

```
wlan0      IEEE 802.11bg  ESSID:off/any
           Mode:Managed  Access Point: Not-Associated Tx-Power=20 dBm
           Retry long limit:7  RTS thr:off  Fragment thr:off
           Power Management:off
```

The command will show the network adapters present on the system. For Wi-Fi, this is usually `wlan0` or `wlan1` and so on if you have installed more than one. If not, double-check the selected firmware and perhaps try an alternative or check on the site for troubleshooting tips.

Once we have the firmware installed for the Wi-Fi adapter, we will need to configure it for the network we wish to connect to. We can use the GUI as shown in the previous recipe, or we can manually configure it through the Terminal, as shown in the following steps:

1. We will need to add the wireless adapter to the list of network interfaces, which is set in `/etc/network/interfaces`, as follows:

```
sudo nano -c /etc/network/interfaces
```

Using the previous `wlan#` value in place of `wlan0` if required, add the following command:

```
allow-hotplug wlan0
iface wlan0 inet manual
wpa-conf /etc/wpa_supplicant/wpa_supplicant.conf
```

When the changes have been made, save and exit by pressing *Ctrl + X*, *Y*, and *Enter*.

2. We will now store the Wi-Fi network settings of our network in the `wpa_supplicant.conf` file (don't worry if your network doesn't use the `wpa` encryption; it is just the default name for the file):

```
sudo nano -c /etc/wpa_supplicant/wpa_supplicant.conf
```

It should include the following:

```
ctrl_interface=DIR=/var/run/wpa_supplicant GROUP=netdev
update_config=1
country=GB
```

The network settings can be written within this file as follows (that is, if the SSID is set as `theSSID`):

- If no encryption is used, use this code:

```
network={  
    ssid="theSSID"  
    key_mgmt=NONE  
}
```

- With the WEP encryption (that is, if the WEP key is set as `theWEPkey`), use the following code:

```
network={  
    ssid="theSSID"  
    key_mgmt=NONE  
    wep_key0="theWEPkey"  
}
```

- For the WPA or WPA2 encryption (that is, if the WPA key is set as `theWPAkey`), use the following code:

```
network={  
    ssid="theSSID"  
    key_mgmt=WPA-PSK  
    psk="theWPAkey"  
}
```

3. You can enable the adapter with the following command (again, replace `wlan0` if required):

```
sudo ifup wlan0
```

Use the following command to list the wireless network connections:

```
iwconfig
```

You should see your wireless network connected with your SSID listed, as follows:

```
wlan0      IEEE 802.11bg  ESSID:"theSSID"
           Mode:Managed  Frequency:2.442 GHz  Access Point:
           00:24:BB:FF:FF:FF
           Bit Rate=48 Mb/s  Tx-Power=20 dBm
           Retry long limit:7  RTS thr:off  Fragment thr:off
           Power Management:off
           Link Quality=32/100  Signal level=32/100
           Rx invalid nwid:0  Rx invalid crypt:0  Rx invalid frag:0
           Tx excessive retries:0  Invalid misc:15  Missed beacon:0
```

If not, adjust your settings and use `sudo ifdown wlan0` to switch off the network interface, and then `sudo ifup wlan0` to switch it back on. This will confirm that you have successfully connected to your Wi-Fi network.

- Finally, we will need to check whether we have access to the internet. Here, we have assumed that the network is automatically configured with DHCP and no proxy server is used. If not, refer to the *Connecting to the internet through a proxy server* recipe.

Unplug the wired network cable, if still connected, and see whether you can ping the Raspberry Pi website, as follows:

```
sudo ping www.raspberrypi.org
```



If you want to quickly know the IP address currently in use by Raspberry Pi, you can use `hostname -I`, or to find out which adapter is connected to which IP address, use `ifconfig`.

There's more...

The Model A version of Raspberry Pi does not have a built-in network port, so to get a network connection, a USB network adapter will have to be added (either a Wi-Fi dongle, as explained in the preceding section, or a LAN-to-USB adapter, as described in the following section).

Using USB wired network adapters

Just like USB Wi-Fi, the adapter support will depend on the chipset used and the drivers available. Unless the device comes with Linux drivers, you may have to search the internet to obtain the suitable Debian Linux drivers.

If you find a suitable .deb file, you can install it with the following command:

```
sudo apt-get install firmware_file.deb
```

Also, check using `ifconfig`, as some devices will be supported automatically, appear as `eth1` (or `eth0` on Model A), and be ready for use immediately.

Connecting to the internet through a proxy server

Some networks, such as ones within workplaces or schools, often require you to connect to the internet through a proxy server.

Getting ready

You will need the address of the proxy server you are trying to connect to, including the username and password, if one is required.

You should confirm that Raspberry Pi is already connected to the network and that you can access the proxy server.

Use the `ping` command to check this, as follows:

```
ping proxy.address.com -c 4
```

If this fails (you get no responses), you will need to ensure your network settings are correct before continuing.

How to do it...

1. Create a new file using nano as follows (if there is already some content in the file, you can add the code at the end):

```
sudo nano -c ~/.bash_profile
```

2. To allow basic web browsing through programs such as **Midori** while using a proxy server, you can use the following script:

```
function proxyenable {
# Define proxy settings
PROXY_ADDR="proxy.address.com:port"
# Login name (leave blank if not required):
LOGIN_USER="login_name"
# Login Password (leave blank to prompt):
LOGIN_PWD=
#If login specified - check for password
if [[ -z $LOGIN_USER ]]; then
    #No login for proxy
    PROXY_FULL=$PROXY_ADDR
else
    #Login needed for proxy Prompt for password -s option hides input
    if [[ -z $LOGIN_PWD ]]; then
        read -s -p "Provide proxy password (then Enter):" LOGIN_PWD
        echo
    fi
    PROXY_FULL=$LOGIN_USER:$LOGIN_PWD@$PROXY_ADDR
fi
#Web Proxy Enable: http_proxy or HTTP_PROXY environment variables
export http_proxy="http://$PROXY_FULL/"
export HTTP_PROXY=$http_proxy
export https_proxy="https://$PROXY_FULL/"
export HTTPS_PROXY=$https_proxy
export ftp_proxy="ftp://$PROXY_FULL/"
export FTP_PROXY=$ftp_proxy
#Set proxy for apt-get
sudo cat <<EOF | sudo tee /etc/apt/apt.conf.d/80proxy > /dev/null
Acquire::http::proxy "http://$PROXY_FULL/";
Acquire::ftp::proxy "ftp://$PROXY_FULL/";
Acquire::https::proxy "https://$PROXY_FULL/";
EOF
#Remove info no longer needed from environment
unset LOGIN_USER LOGIN_PWD PROXY_ADDR PROXY_FULL
echo Proxy Enabled
}
```

```
function proxydisable {  
    #Disable proxy values, apt-get and git settings  
    unset http_proxy HTTP_PROXY https_proxy HTTPS_PROXY  
    unset ftp_proxy FTP_PROXY  
    sudo rm /etc/apt/apt.conf.d/80proxy  
    echo Proxy Disabled  
}
```

- Once done, save and exit by pressing *Ctrl + X*, *Y*, and *Enter*.



The script is added to the user's own `.bash_profile` file, which is run when that particular user logs in. This will ensure that the proxy settings are kept separately for each user. If you want all users to use the same settings, you can add the code to `/etc/rc.local` instead (this file must have `exit 0` at the end).

How it works...

Many programs that make use of the internet will check for the `http_proxy` or `HTTP_PROXY` environment variables before connecting. If they are present, they will use the proxy settings to connect through. Some programs may also use the `HTTPS` and `FTP` protocols, so we can set the proxy setting for them here too.



If a username is required for the proxy server, a password will be prompted for. It is generally not recommended to store your passwords inside scripts unless you are confident that no one else will have access to your device (either physically or through the internet).

The last part allows any programs that execute using the `sudo` command to use the proxy environment variables while acting as the super user (most programs will try accessing the network using normal privileges first, even if running as a super user, so it isn't always needed).

There's more...

We also need to allow the proxy settings to be used by some programs, which use superuser permissions while accessing the network (this will depend on the program; most don't need this). We need to add the commands into a file stored in `/etc/sudoers.d/` by performing the following steps:

1. Use the following command to open a new `sudoer` file:

```
sudo visudo -f /etc/sudoers.d/proxy
```

2. Enter the following text in the file (on a single line):

```
Defaults env_keep += "http_proxy HTTP_PROXY https_proxy HTTPS_PROXY  
ftp_proxy FTP_PROXY"
```

3. Once done, save and exit by pressing `Ctrl + X`, `Y`, and `Enter`; don't change the `proxy.tmp` filename (this is normal for `visudo`; it will change it to `proxy` when finished).
4. If prompted `What now?`, there is an error in the command. Press `X` to exit without saving and retype the command.
5. After a reboot (using `sudo reboot`), you will be able to use the following commands to enable and disable the proxy respectively:

```
proxyenable  
proxydisable
```



It is important to use `visudo` here, as it ensures the permissions of the file are created correctly for the `sudoers` directory (read only by the `root` user).

Connecting remotely to Raspberry Pi over the network using VNC

Often, it is preferable to remotely connect to and control Raspberry Pi across the network, for instance, using a laptop or desktop computer as a screen and keyboard, or while Raspberry Pi is connected elsewhere, perhaps even connected to some hardware it needs to be close to.

VNC is just one way in which you can remotely connect to Raspberry Pi. It will create a new desktop session that will be controlled and accessed remotely. The VNC session here is separate from the one that may be active on Raspberry Pi's display.

Getting ready

Ensure that your Raspberry Pi is powered up and connected to the internet. We will use the internet connection to install a program using `apt-get`. This is a program that allows us to find and install applications directly from the official repositories.

How to do it...

1. First, we need to install the TightVNC server on Raspberry Pi with the following commands. It is advisable to run an `update` command first to get the latest version of the package you want to install, as follows:

```
sudo apt-get update  
sudo apt-get install tightvncserver
```

2. Accept the prompt to install and wait until it completes. To start a session, use the following command:

```
vncserver :1
```

3. The first time you run this, it will ask you to enter a password (of no more than eight characters) to access the desktop (you will use this when you connect from your computer).

The following message should confirm that a new desktop session has been started:

```
New 'X' desktop is raspberrypi:1
```

If you do not already know the IP address of Raspberry Pi, use `hostname -I` and take note of it.

Next, we need to run a VNC client. **VNC Viewer** is suitable program, which is available at <http://www.realvnc.com/> and should work on Windows, Linux, and OS X.

When you run VNC Viewer, you will be prompted for the **Server** address and **Encryption** type. Use the IP address of your Raspberry Pi with :1. That is, for the IP address 192.168.1.69, use the 192.168.1.69:1 address.

You can leave the **Encryption type** as **Off** or **Automatic**.

Depending on your network, you may be able to use the hostname; the default is raspberrypi, that is raspberrypi:1.

You may have a warning about not having connected to the computer before or having no encryption. You should enable encryption if you are using a public network or if you are performing connections over the internet (to stop others from being able to intercept your data).

There's more...

You can add options to the command line to specify the resolution and also the color depth of the display. The higher the resolution and color depth (can be adjusted to use 8-bits to 32-bits per pixel to provide low or high color detail), the more data has to be transferred through the network link. If you find the refresh rate a little slow, try reducing these numbers as follows:

```
vncserver :1 -geometry 1280x780 -depth 24
```

To allow the VNC server to start automatically when you switch on, you can add the vncserver command to .bash_profile (this is executed each time Raspberry Pi starts).

Use the nano editor as follows (the -c option allows the line numbers to be displayed):

```
sudo nano -c ~/.bash_profile
```

Add the following line to the end of the file:

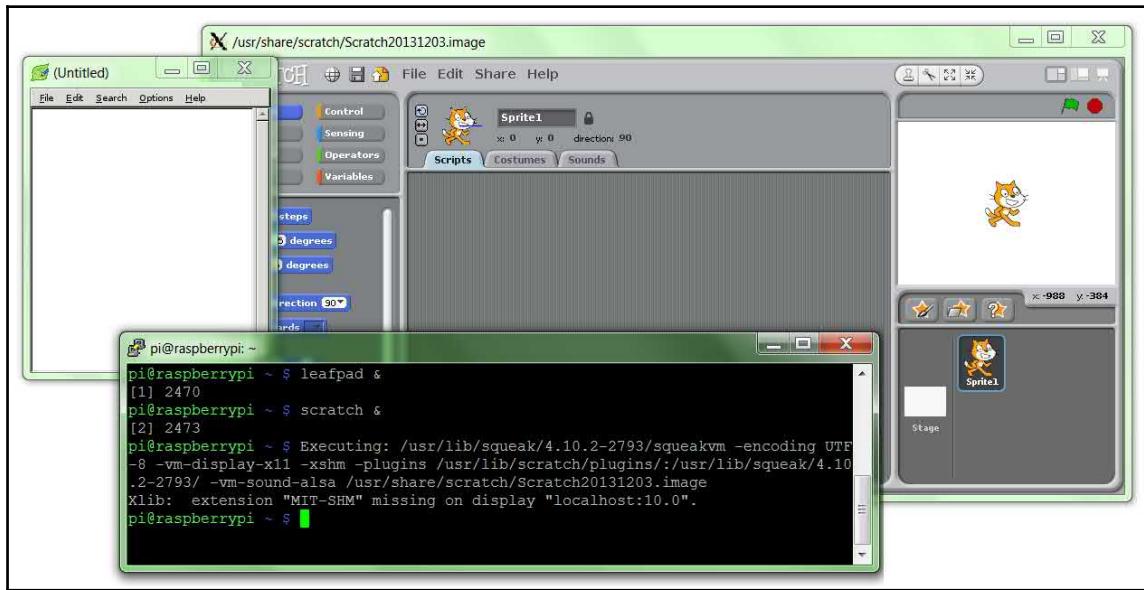
```
vncserver :1
```

The next time you power up, you should be able to remotely connect using VNC from another computer.

Connecting remotely to Raspberry Pi over the network using SSH (and X11 forwarding)

An **Secure Shell (SSH)** is often the preferred method for making remote connections, as it allows only the Terminal connections and typically requires fewer resources.

An extra feature of SSH is the ability to transfer the **X11** data to an **X Windows** server running on your machine. This allows you to start programs that would normally run on Raspberry Pi desktop, and they will appear in their own Windows on the local computer, as follows:



X11 forwarding on a local display

X11 forwarding can be used to display applications which are running on Raspberry Pi on a Windows computer.

Getting ready

If you are running the latest version of Raspbian, SSH, and X11 forwarding will be enabled by default (otherwise, double-check the settings explained in the *How it works...* section).

How to do it...

Linux and OS X have built-in support for X11 forwarding, but if you are using Windows, you will need to install and run the X Windows server on your computer.

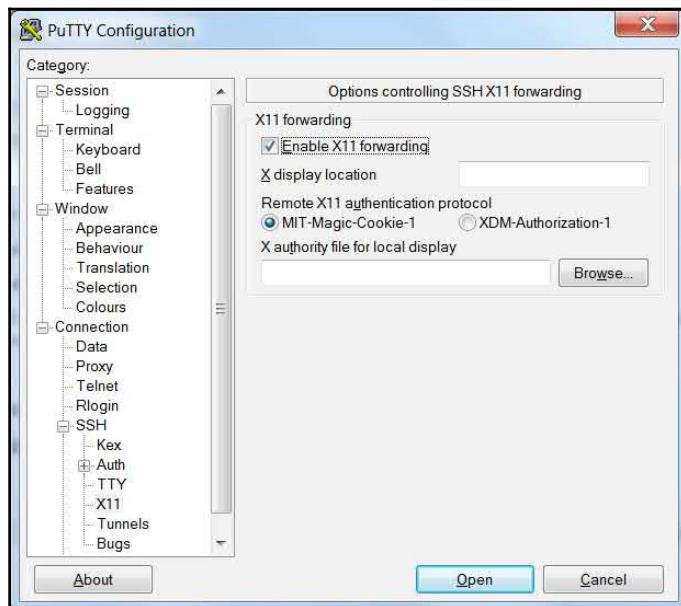
Download and run **xming** from the **Xming** site
(<http://sourceforge.net/projects/xming/>).

Install **xming**, following the installation steps, including the installation of **PuTTY** if you don't have it already. You can also download PuTTY separately from <http://www.putty.org/>.

Next, we need to ensure that the SSH program we use has X11 enabled when we connect.

For Windows, we shall use PuTTY to connect to Raspberry Pi.

In the **PuTTY Configuration** dialog box, navigate to **Connection | SSH | X11** and tick the checkbox for **Enable X11 forwarding**. If you leave the **X display location** option blank, it will assume the default Server 0:0 as follows (you can confirm the server number by moving your mouse over the Xming icon in the system tray when it is running):

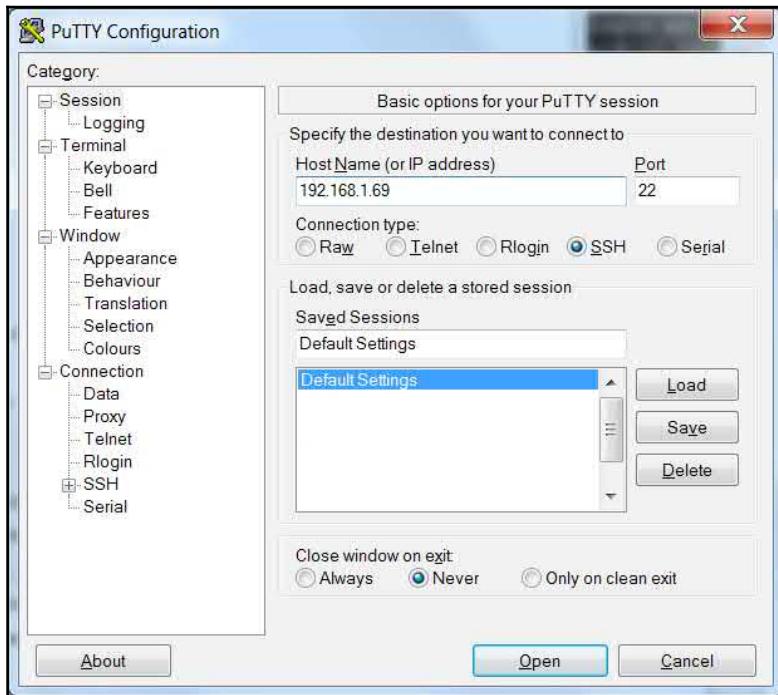


Enabling X11 forwarding within the PuTTY configuration

Enter the IP address of Raspberry Pi in the **Session** settings (you may also find that you can use Raspberry Pi's hostname here instead; the default hostname is `raspberrypi`).

Save the setting using a suitable name, `RaspberryPi`, and click on **Open** to connect to your Raspberry Pi.

You are likely to see a warning message pop up stating you haven't connected to the computer before (this allows you to check whether you have everything right before continuing):



Opening an SSH connection to Raspberry Pi using PuTTY

For OS X or Linux, click on **Terminal** to open a connection to Raspberry Pi.

To connect with the default `pi` username, with an IP address of `192.168.1.69`, use the following command; the `-X` option enables X11 forwarding:

```
ssh -X pi@192.168.1.69
```

All being well, you should be greeted with a prompt for your password (remember the default value for the `pi` user is `raspberry`).

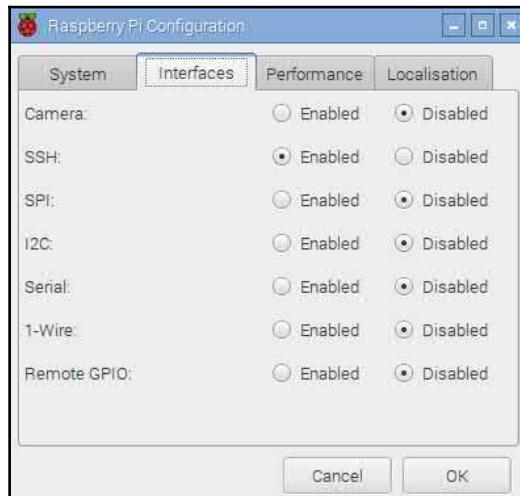
Ensure that you have Xming running by starting the Xming program from your computer's Start menu. Then, in the Terminal window, type a program that normally runs within Raspberry Pi desktop, such as `leafpad` or `scratch`. Wait a little while and the program should appear on your computer's desktop (if you get an error, you have probably forgotten to start Xming, so run it and try again).

How it works...

X Windows and X11 is what provides the method by which Raspberry Pi (and many other Linux-based computers) can display and control graphical Windows as part of a desktop.

For X11 forwarding to work over a network connection, we need both SSH and X11 forwarding enabled on Raspberry Pi. Perform the following steps:

1. To switch on (or off) SSH, you can access **Raspberry Pi Configuration** program under the **Preferences** menu on the **Desktop** and click on **SSH** within the **Interfaces** tab, as shown in the following screenshot (SSH is often enabled by default for most distributions to help allow remote connections without needing a monitor to configure it):



The advanced settings menu in the raspi-config tool

2. Ensure that X11 forwarding is enabled on Raspberry Pi (again, most distributions now have this enabled by default).
3. Use nano with the following command:

```
sudo nano /etc/ssh/sshd_config
```

4. Look for a line in the /etc/ssh/sshd_config file that controls X11 forwarding and ensure that it says yes (with no # sign before it), as follows:

```
X11Forwarding yes
```

5. Save if required by pressing *Ctrl + X*, *Y*, and *Enter* and reboot (if you need to change it) as follows:

```
sudo reboot
```

There's more...

SSH and X11 forwarding is a convenient way to control Raspberry Pi remotely; we will explore some additional tips on how to use it effectively in the following sections.

Running multiple programs with X11 forwarding

If you want to run an **X program**, but still be able to use the same Terminal console for other stuff, you can run the command in the background with & as follows:

```
leafpad &
```

Just remember that the more programs you run, the slower everything will get. You can switch to the background program by typing fg and check for background tasks with bg.

Running as a desktop with X11 forwarding

You can even run a complete desktop session through X11, although it isn't particularly user friendly and VNC will produce better results. To achieve this, you have to use lxsession instead of startx (in the way you would normally start the desktop from the Terminal).

An alternative is to use `lxpanel`, which provides the program menu bar from which you can start and run programs from the menu as you would on the desktop.

Running Pygame and Tkinter with X11 forwarding

You can get the following error (or similar) when running the Pygame or Tkinter scripts:

```
_tkinter.TclError: couldn't connect to display "localhost:10.0"
```

In this case, use the following command to fix the error:

```
sudo cp ~/.Xauthority ~root/
```

Sharing the home folder of Raspberry Pi with SMB

When you have Raspberry Pi connected to your network, you can access the home folder by setting up file sharing; this makes it much easier to transfer files and provides a quick and easy way to back up your data. **Server Message Block (SMB)** is a protocol that is compatible with Windows file sharing, OS X, and Linux.

Getting ready

Ensure that you have Raspberry Pi powered and running with a working connection to the internet.

You will also need another computer on the same local network to test the new share.

How to do it...

First, we need to install `samba`, a piece of software that handles folder sharing in a format that is compatible with Windows sharing methods:

1. Ensure that you use `update` as follows to obtain the latest list of available packages:

```
sudo apt-get update  
sudo apt-get install samba
```

The install will require around 20 MB of space and take a few minutes.

- Once the installation has completed, we can make a copy of the configuration file as follows to allow us to restore defaults if needed:

```
sudo cp /etc/samba/smb.conf /etc/samba/smb.conf.backup  
sudo nano /etc/samba/smb.conf
```

Scroll down and find the section named `Authentication`; change the `# security = user` line to `security = user`.

As described in the file, this setting ensures that you have to enter your username and password for Raspberry Pi in order to access the files (this is important for shared networks).

Find the section called `Share Definitions` and `[homes]`, and change the `read only = yes` line to `read only = no`.

This will allow us to view and also write files to the shared home folder. Once done, save and exit by pressing `Ctrl + X`, `Y`, and `Enter`.



If you have changed the default user from `pi` to something else, substitute it in the following instructions.

- Now, we can add `pi` (the default user) to use `samba`:

```
sudo pdbedit -a -u pi
```

- Now, enter a password (you can use the same password as your login or select a different one, but avoid using the default Raspberry password, which would be very easy for someone to guess). Restart `samba` to use the new configuration file, as follows:

```
sudo /etc/init.d/samba restart  
[ ok ] Stopping Samba daemons: nmbd smbd.  
[ ok ] Starting Samba daemons: nmbd smbd.
```

- To test, you will need to know either Raspberry Pi's `hostname` (the default `hostname` is `raspberrypi`) or its IP address. You can find both of these with the following command:

```
hostname
```

6. For the IP address, add -I:

```
hostname -I
```

On another computer on the network, enter the \raspberrypi address in the explorer path.

Depending on your network, the computer should locate Raspberry Pi on the network and prompt for a username and password. If it can't find the share using the `hostname`, you can use the IP address directly, where 192.168.1.69 should be changed to match the IP address \192.168.1.69pi.

Keeping Raspberry Pi up to date

The Linux image used by Raspberry Pi is often updated to include enhancements, fixes, and improvements to the system, as well as adding support for new hardware or changes made to the latest board. Many of the packages that you install can be updated too.

This is particularly important if you plan on using the same system image on another Raspberry Pi board (particularly a newer one), as older images will lack support for any wiring changes or alternative RAM chips. New firmware should work on older Raspberry Pi boards, but older firmware may not be compatible with the latest hardware.

Fortunately, you need not reflash your SD card every time there is a new release, since you can update it instead.

Getting ready

You will need to be connected to the internet to update your system. It is always advisable to make a backup of your image first (and at a minimum, make a copy of your important files).

You can check your current version of firmware with the `uname -a` command, as follows:

```
Linux raspberrypi 4.4.9-v7+ #884 SMP Fri May 6 17:28:59 BST 2016 armv7l  
GNU/Linux
```

The GPU firmware can be checked using the `/opt/vc/bin/vcgencmd version` command, as follows:

```
May 6 2016 13:53:23
Copyright (c) 2012 Broadcom
version 0cc642d53eab041e67c8c373d989fef5847448f8 (clean) (release)
```

This is important if you are using an older version of firmware (pre-November 2012) on a newer board, since the original Model B board was only 254 MB RAM. Upgrading allows the firmware to make use of the extra memory if available.

The `free -h` command will detail the RAM available to the main processor (the total RAM is split between the GPU and ARM cores) and will give the following output:

	total	used	free	shared	buffers
cached					
Mem:	925M	224M	701M	7.1M	14M
123M					
-/+ buffers/cache:		86M	839M		
Swap:	99M	0B	99M		

You can then recheck the preceding output following a reboot to confirm that they have been updated (although they may have already been the latest).

How to do it...

1. Before running any upgrades or installing any packages, it is worth ensuring you have the latest list of packages in the repository. The `update` command gets the latest list of available software and versions:

```
sudo apt-get update
```

2. If you just want to obtain an upgrade of your current packages, `upgrade` will bring them all up to date:

```
sudo apt-get upgrade
```

3. To ensure that you are running the latest release of Raspbian, you can run `dist-upgrade` (be warned: this can take an hour or so depending on the amount that needs to be upgraded). This will perform all the updates that `upgrade` will perform but will also remove redundant packages and clean up:

```
sudo apt-get dist-upgrade
```

Both methods will upgrade the software, including the firmware used at boot and startup (`bootcode.bin` and `start.elf`).

4. To update the firmware, the following command can be used:

```
sudo rpi-update
```

There's more...

You will often find that you will want to perform a clean installation of your setup, however, this will mean you will have to install everything from scratch. To avoid this, I developed the Pi-Kitchen project (<https://github.com/PiHw/Pi-Kitchen>), based on the groundwork of *Kevin Hill*. This aims to provide a flexible platform for creating customized setups that can be automatically deployed to an SD card:



Pi Kitchen allows Raspberry Pi to be configured before powering up

The Pi-Kitchen allows a range of flavors to be configured, which can be selected from the NOOBS menu. Each flavor consists of a list of recipes, each providing a specific function or feature to the final operating system. Recipes can range from setting up custom drivers for Wi-Fi devices, to mapping shared drives on your network, to providing a fully functional web server out of the box, all combining to make your required setup.

This project is in beta, developed as a proof of concept, but once you have everything configured, it can be incredibly useful to deploy fully working setups directly onto an SD card. Ultimately, the project could be combined with Kevin Hill's advanced version of NOOBS, called **PINN Is Not NOOBS** (PINN), which aims to allow extra features for advanced users, such as allowing operating systems and configurations to be stored on your network or on an external USB memory stick.

2

Dividing Text Data and Building Text Classifiers

This chapter presents the following recipes:

- Building a text classifier
- Preprocessing data using tokenization
- Stemming text data
- Dividing text using chunking
- Building a bag-of-words model
- Applications of text classifiers

Introduction

This chapter presents recipes to build text classifiers. This includes extracting vital features from the database, training, testing, and validating the text classifier. Initially, a text classifier is trained using commonly used words. Later, the trained text classifier is used for prediction. Building a text classifier includes preprocessing the data using tokenization, stemming text data, dividing text using chunking, and building a bag-of-words model.

Building a text classifier

Classifier units are normally considered to separate a database into various classes. The Naive Bayes classifier scheme is widely considered in literature to segregate the texts based on the trained model. This section of the chapter initially considers a text database with keywords; feature extraction extracts the key phrases from the text and trains the classifier system. Then, **term frequency-inverse document frequency (tf-idf)** transformation is implemented to specify the importance of the word. Finally, the output is predicted and printed using the classifier system.

How to do it...

1. Include the following lines in a new Python file to add datasets:

```
from sklearn.datasets import fetch_20newsgroups
category_mapping = {'misc.forsale': 'Sellings', 'rec.motorcycles':
'Motorbikes',
'rec.sport.baseball': 'Baseball', 'sci.crypt':
'Cryptography',
'sci.space': 'OuterSpace'}

training_content = fetch_20newsgroups(subset='train',
categories=category_mapping.keys(), shuffle=True, random_state=7)
```

2. Perform feature extraction to extract the main words from the text:

```
from sklearn.feature_extraction.text import CountVectorizer

vectorizing = CountVectorizer()
train_counts = vectorizing.fit_transform(training_content.data)
print "nDimensions of training data:", train_counts.shape
```

3. Train the classifier:

```
from sklearn.naive_bayes import MultinomialNB
from sklearn.feature_extraction.text import TfidfTransformer

input_content = [
    "The curveballs of right handed pitchers tend to curve to the
left",
    "Caesar cipher is an ancient form of encryption",
    "This two-wheeler is really good on slippery roads"
]
```

```
tfidf_transformer = TfidfTransformer()
train_tfidf = tfidf_transformer.fit_transform(train_counts)
```

4. Implement the Multinomial Naive Bayes classifier:

```
classifier = MultinomialNB().fit(train_tfidf,
training_content.target)
input_counts = vectorizing.transform(input_content)
input_tfidf = tfidf_transformer.transform(input_counts)
```

5. Predict the output categories:

```
categories_prediction = classifier.predict(input_tfidf)
```

6. Print the output:

```
for sentence, category in zip(input_content,
categories_prediction):
    print '\nInput:', sentence, 'nPredicted category:',
category_mapping[training_content.target_names[category]]
```

The following screenshot provides examples of predicting the object based on the input from the database:

```
manju@manju-HP-Notebook:~/Documents$ python Building_text_classifier.py
Dimensions of training data: (2968, 40605)
Input: The curveballs of right handed pitchers tend to curve to the left
Predicted category: Baseball

Input: Caesar cipher is an ancient form of encryption
Predicted category: Cryptography

Input: This two-wheeler is really good on slippery roads
Predicted category: Motorbikes
manju@manju-HP-Notebook:~/Documents$ █
```

How it works...

The previous section of this chapter provided insight regarding the implemented classifier section and some sample results. The classifier section works based on a comparison between the previous text in the trained Naive Bayes with the key test in the test sequence.

See also

Please refer to the following articles:

- *Sentiment analysis algorithms and applications: A survey* at <https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S2090447914000550>.
- *Sentiment classification of online reviews: using sentence-based language model* to learn how sentiment prediction works at <https://www.tandfonline.com/doi/abs/10.1080/0952813X.2013.782352?src=recsysjournalCode=teta20>.
- *Sentiment analysis using product review data and Sentence-level sentiment analysis in the presence of modalities* to learn more about various metrics used in recommendation systems at <https://journalofbigdata.springeropen.com/articles/10.1186/s40537-015-0015-2> and https://link.springer.com/chapter/10.1007/978-3-642-54903-8_1.

Pre-processing data using tokenization

The pre-processing of data involves converting the existing text into acceptable information for the learning algorithm.

Tokenization is the process of dividing text into a set of meaningful pieces. These pieces are called tokens.

How to do it...

1. Introduce sentence tokenization:

```
from nltk.tokenize import sent_tokenize
```

2. Form a new text tokenizer:

```
tokenize_list_sent = sent_tokenize(text)
print "nSentence tokenizer:"
print tokenize_list_sent
```

3. Form a new word tokenizer:

```
from nltk.tokenize import word_tokenize
print "nWord tokenizer:"
print word_tokenize(text)
```

4. Introduce a new WordPunct tokenizer:

```
from nltk.tokenize import WordPunctTokenizer
word_punct_tokenizer = WordPunctTokenizer()
print "nWord punct tokenizer:"
print word_punct_tokenizer.tokenize(text)
```

The result obtained by the tokenizer is shown here. It divides a sentence into word groups:

```
manju@manju-HP-Notebook:~/Documents$ python tokenization.py

Sentence tokenizer:
['Tokenization is the process of dividing text into a set of meaningful pieces.',
 'These pieces are called tokens.']

Word tokenizer:
['Tokenization', 'is', 'the', 'process', 'of', 'dividing', 'text', 'into', 'a',
 'set', 'of', 'meaningful', 'pieces', '.', 'These', 'pieces', 'are', 'called', 't
 okens', '.']

Word punct tokenizer:
['Tokenization', 'is', 'the', 'process', 'of', 'dividing', 'text', 'into', 'a',
 'set', 'of', 'meaningful', 'pieces', '.', 'These', 'pieces', 'are', 'called', 't
 okens', '.']

manju@manju-HP-Notebook:~/Documents$
```

Stemming text data

The stemming procedure involves creating a suitable word with reduced letters for the words of the tokenizer.

How to do it...

1. Initialize the stemming process with a new Python file:

```
from nltk.stem.porter import PorterStemmer  
from nltk.stem.lancaster import LancasterStemmer  
from nltk.stem.snowball import SnowballStemmer
```

2. Let's describe some words to consider, as follows:

```
words = ['ability', 'baby', 'college', 'playing', 'is', 'dream',  
'election', 'beaches', 'image', 'group', 'happy']
```

3. Identify a group of stemmers to be used:

```
stemmers = ['PORTER', 'LANCASTER', 'SNOWBALL']
```

4. Initialize the necessary tasks for the chosen stemmers:

```
stem_porter = PorterStemmer()  
stem_lancaster = LancasterStemmer()  
stem_snowball = SnowballStemmer('english')
```

5. Format a table to print the results:

```
formatted_row = '{:>16}' * (len(stemmers) + 1)  
print 'n', formatted_row.format('WORD', *stemmers), 'n'
```

6. Repeatedly check the list of words and arrange them using chosen stemmers:

```
for word in words:  
    stem_words = [stem_porter.stem(word),  
                  stem_lancaster.stem(word),  
                  stem_snowball.stem(word)]  
    print formatted_row.format(word, *stem_words)
```

The result obtained from the stemming process is shown in the following screenshot:

```
manju@manju-HP-Notebook:~$ cd Documents
manju@manju-HP-Notebook:~/Documents$ python stemming.py
```

WORD	PORTER	LANCASTER	SNOWBALL
ability	abil	abl	abil
baby	babi	baby	babi
college	colleg	colleg	colleg
playing	play	play	play
is	is	is	is
dream	dream	dream	dream
election	elect	elect	elect
beaches	beach	beach	beach
image	imag	im	imag
group	group	group	group
happy	happi	happy	happi

Dividing text using chunking

The chunking procedure can be used to divide the large text into small, meaningful words.

How to do it...

1. Develop and import the following packages using Python:

```
import numpy as np
from nltk.corpus import brown
```

2. Describe a function that divides text into chunks:

```
# Split a text into chunks
def splitter(content, num_of_words):
    words = content.split(' ')
    result = []
```

3. Initialize the following programming lines to get the assigned variables:

```
current_count = 0
current_words = []
```

4. Start the iteration using words:

```
for word in words:  
    current_words.append(word)  
    current_count += 1
```

5. After getting the essential amount of words, reorganize the variables:

```
if current_count == num_of_words:  
    result.append(' '.join(current_words))  
    current_words = []  
    current_count = 0
```

6. Attach the chunks to the output variable:

```
result.append(' '.join(current_words))  
return result
```

7. Import the data of Brown corpus and consider the first 10000 words:

```
if __name__=='__main__':  
    # Read the data from the Brown corpus  
    content = ' '.join(brown.words()[:10000])
```

8. Describe the word size in every chunk:

```
# Number of words in each chunk  
num_of_words = 1600
```

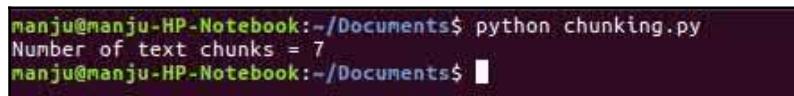
9. Initiate a pair of significant variables:

```
chunks = []  
counter = 0
```

10. Print the result by calling the splitter function:

```
num_text_chunks = splitter(content, num_of_words)  
print "Number of text chunks =", len(num_text_chunks)
```

11. The result obtained after chunking is shown in the following screenshot:



```
manju@manju-HP-Notebook:~/Documents$ python chunking.py  
Number of text chunks = 7  
manju@manju-HP-Notebook:~/Documents$ █
```

Building a bag-of-words model

When working with text documents that include large words, we need to switch them to several types of arithmetic depictions. We need to formulate them to be suitable for machine learning algorithms. These algorithms require arithmetical information so that they can examine the data and provide significant details. The bag-of-words procedure helps us to achieve this. Bag-of-words creates a text model that discovers vocabulary using all the words in the document. Later, it creates the models for every text by constructing a histogram of all the words in the text.

How to do it...

1. Initialize a new Python file by importing the following file:

```
import numpy as np
from nltk.corpus import brown
from chunking import splitter
```

2. Define the `main` function and read the input data from `Brown corpus`:

```
if __name__=='__main__':
    content = ' '.join(brown.words()[:10000])
```

3. Split the text content into chunks:

```
num_of_words = 2000
num_chunks = []
count = 0
texts_chunk = splitter(content, num_of_words)
```

4. Build a vocabulary based on these text chunks:

```
for text in texts_chunk:
    num_chunk = {'index': count, 'text': text}
    num_chunks.append(num_chunk)
    count += 1
```

5. Extract a document word matrix, which effectively counts the amount of incidences of each word in the document:

```
from sklearn.feature_extraction.text  
import CountVectorizer
```

6. Extract the document term matrix:

```
from sklearn.feature_extraction.text import CountVectorizer  
vectorizer = CountVectorizer(min_df=5, max_df=.95)  
matrix = vectorizer.fit_transform([num_chunk['text'] for num_chunk  
in num_chunks])
```

7. Extract the vocabulary and print it:

```
vocabulary = np.array(vectorizer.get_feature_names())  
print "nVocabulary:"  
print vocabulary
```

8. Print the document term matrix:

```
print "nDocument term matrix:"  
chunks_name = ['Chunk-0', 'Chunk-1', 'Chunk-2', 'Chunk-3',  
'Chunk-4']  
formatted_row = '{:>12}' * (len(chunks_name) + 1)  
print 'n', formatted_row.format('Word', *chunks_name), 'n'
```

9. Iterate throughout the words, and print the reappearance of every word in various chunks:

```
for word, item in zip(vocabulary, matrix.T):  
    # 'item' is a 'csr_matrix' data structure  
    result = [str(x) for x in item.data]  
    print formatted_row.format(word, *result)
```

10. The result obtained after executing the bag-of-words model is shown as follows:

```
manju@manju-HP-Notebook:~$ cd Documents
manju@manju-HP-Notebook:~/Documents$ python bag_of_word.py

Vocabulary:
[u'about', u'after', u'against', u'aid', u'all', u'also', u'an', u'and', u'are',
 u'as', u'at', u'be', u'been', u'before', u'but', u'by', u'committee', u'congress',
 u'did', u'each', u'education', u'first', u'for', u'from', u'general', u'had',
 u'has', u'have', u'he', u'health', u'his', u'house', u'in', u'increase', u'is',
 u'it', u'last', u'made', u'make', u'may', u'more', u'no', u'not', u'of', u'on',
 u'one', u'only', u'or', u'other', u'out', u'over', u'pay', u'program',
 u'proposed', u'said', u'similar', u'state', u'such', u'take', u'than', u'that',
 u'the', u'them', u'there', u'they', u'this', u'time', u'to', u'two', u'under',
 u'up', u'was', u'were', u'what', u'which', u'who', u'will', u'with', u'would',
 u'year', u'years']
```

Document term matrix:					
Word	Chunk-0	Chunk-1	Chunk-2	Chunk-3	Chunk-4
about	1	1	1	1	3
after	2	3	2	1	3
against	1	2	2	1	1
aid	1	1	1	3	5
all	2	2	5	2	1
also	3	3	3	4	3
an	5	7	5	7	10
and	34	27	36	36	41
are	5	3	6	3	2
as	13	4	14	18	4
at	5	7	9	3	6
be	20	14	7	10	18
been	7	1	6	15	5
before	2	2	1	1	2
but	3	3	2	9	5
by	8	22	15	14	12
committee	2	10	3	1	7
congress	1	1	3	3	1
did	2	1	1	2	2
each	1	1	4	3	1
education	3	2	3	1	1
first	4	1	4	6	3
for	22	19	24	27	20
from	4	5	6	5	5
general	2	2	2	3	6
had	3	2	7	2	6
has	10	2	5	20	11
have	4	4	4	7	5
he	4	13	12	13	29
health	1	1	2	6	1
his	10	6	9	3	7
house	5	7	4	4	2
in	38	27	37	49	45
increase	3	1	1	4	1
is	12	9	12	14	8
it	18	16	5	6	9
last	1	1	5	4	2
made	1	1	7	4	3
make	3	2	1	1	1
may	1	1	2	2	1
more	3	5	4	6	7
no	4	1	1	7	3
not	5	6	3	14	7
of	61	69	76	56	53
on	10	18	14	13	13
one	4	5	3	4	9
only	1	1	1	3	2
or	4	4	5	5	4
other	2	6	7	1	3
out	3	3	3	4	1
over	1	1	5	1	2

In order to understand how it works on a given sentence, refer to the following:

- *Introduction to Sentiment Analysis*, explained here: <https://blog.algorithmia.com/introduction-sentiment-analysis/>

Applications of text classifiers

Text classifiers are used to analyze customer sentiments, in product reviews, when searching queries on the internet, in social tags, to predict the novelty of research articles, and so on.

3

Using Python for Automation and Productivity

In this chapter, we will cover the following topics:

- Using Tkinter to create graphical user interfaces
- Creating a graphical Start menu application
- Displaying photo information in an application
- Organizing your photos automatically

Introduction

Until now, we have focused purely on command-line applications; however, there is much more to Raspberry Pi than just the command line. By using **graphical user interfaces (GUIs)**, it is often easier to obtain input from a user and provide feedback in a simpler way. After all, we continuously process multiple inputs and outputs all the time, so why limit ourselves to the procedural format of the command line when we don't have to?

Fortunately, Python can support this. Much like other programming languages, such as Visual Basic and C/C++/C#, this can be achieved using prebuilt objects that provide standard controls. We will use a module called **Tkinter** which provides a good range of controls (also referred to as **widgets**) and tools for creating graphical applications.

First, we will take an example, `encryptdecrypt.py`, and demonstrate how useful modules can be written and reused in a variety of ways. This is an example of good coding practice. We should aim to write code that can be tested thoroughly and then reused in many places.

Next, we will extend our previous examples by creating a small graphical Start menu application to run our favorite applications from.

Then, we will explore using **classes** within our applications to display and then to organize photos.

Using Tkinter to create graphical user interfaces

We will create a basic GUI to allow the user to enter information, and the program can then be used to encrypt and decrypt it.

Getting ready

You must ensure that this file is placed in the same directory.

Since we are using Tkinter (one of many available add-ons for Python), we need to ensure that it is installed. It should be installed by default on the standard Raspbian image. We can confirm it is installed by importing it from the Python prompt, as follows:

```
Python3  
>>> import tkinter
```

If it is not installed, an `ImportError` exception will be raised, in which case you can install it using the following command (use *Ctrl + Z* to exit the Python prompt):

```
sudo apt-get install python3-tk
```



If the module did load, you can use the following command to read more about the module (use *Q* to quit when you are done reading):

```
>>>help(tkinter)
```

You can also get information about all the classes, functions, and methods within the module using the following command:

```
>>>help(tkinter.Button)
```

The following `dir` command will list any valid commands or variables that are in the scope of the module:

```
>>>dir(tkinter.Button)
```

You will see that our own modules will have the information about the functions marked by triple quotes; this will show up if we use the `help` command.

The command line will not be able to display the graphical displays created in this chapter, so you will have to start Raspberry Pi desktop (using the command `startx`), or if you are using it remotely.



Make sure you have **X11 forwarding** enabled and an **X server** running (see Chapter 1, *Getting Started with a Raspberry Pi 3 Computer*).

How to do it...

We will use the `tkinter` module to produce a GUI for the `encryptdecrypt.py` script.

To generate the GUI we will create the following `tkencryptdecrypt.py` script:

```
#!/usr/bin/python3
#tkencryptdecrypt.py
import encryptdecrypt as ENC
import tkinter as TK

def encryptButton():
    encryptvalue.set(ENC.encryptText(encryptvalue.get(),
                                    keyvalue.get()))

def decryptButton():
    encryptvalue.set(ENC.decryptText(encryptvalue.get(),
                                    -keyvalue.get()))

#Define Tkinter application
root=TK.Tk()
root.title("Encrypt/Decrypt GUI")
#Set control & test value
encryptvalue = TK.StringVar()
encryptvalue.set("My Message")
keyvalue = TK.IntVar()
keyvalue.set(20)
prompt="Enter message to encrypt:"
key="Key:"

label1=TK.Label(root,text=prompt,width=len(prompt),bg='green')
textEnter=TK.Entry(root,textvariable=encryptvalue,
                   width=len(prompt))
encryptButton=TK.Button(root,text="Encrypt",command=encryptButton)
decryptButton=TK.Button(root,text="Decrypt",command=decryptButton)
label2=TK.Label(root,text=key,width=len(key))
keyEnter=TK.Entry(root,textvariable=keyvalue,width=8)
#Set layout
label1.grid(row=0,columnspan=2,sticky=TK.E+TK.W)
textEnter.grid(row=1,columnspan=2,sticky=TK.E+TK.W)
encryptButton.grid(row=2,column=0,sticky=TK.E)
decryptButton.grid(row=2,column=1,sticky=TK.W)
label2.grid(row=3,column=0,sticky=TK.E)
keyEnter.grid(row=3,column=1,sticky=TK.W)

TK.mainloop()
#End
```

Run the script using the following command:

```
python3 tkencryptdecrypt
```

How it works...

We start by importing two modules; the first is our own `encryptdecrypt` module and the second is the `tkinter` module. To make it easier to see which items have come from where, we use ENC/TK. If you want to avoid the extra reference, you can use `from <module_name> import *` to refer to the module items directly.

The `encryptButton()` and `decryptButton()` functions will be called when we click on the **Encrypt** and **Decrypt** buttons; they are explained in the following sections.

The main Tkinter window is created using the `Tk()` command, which returns the main window where all the widgets/controls can be placed.

We will define six controls as follows:

- Label: This displays the prompt **Enter message to encrypt:**
- Entry: This provides a textbox to receive the user's message to be encrypted
- Button: This is an **Encrypt** button to trigger the message to be encrypted
- Button: This is a **Decrypt** button to reverse the encryption
- Label: This displays the **Key:** field to prompt the user for an encryption key value
- Entry: This provides a second textbox to receive values for the encryption keys

These controls will produce a GUI similar to the one shown in the following screenshot:



The GUI to encrypt/decrypt messages

Let's take a look at the first `label1` definition:

```
label1=TK.Label(root,text=prompt,width=len(prompt),bg='green')
```

All controls must be linked to the application window; hence, we have to specify our Tkinter window `root`. The text used for the label is set by `text`; in this case, we have set it to a string named `prompt`, which has been defined previously with the text we require. We also set the `width` to match the number of characters of the message (while not essential, it provides a neater result if we add more text to our labels later), and finally, we set the background color using `bg='green'`.

Next, we define the text Entry box for our message:

```
textEnter=TK.Entry(root,textvariable=encryptvalue,
                   width=len(prompt))
```

We will define `textvariable`—a useful way to link a variable to the contents of the box which is a special string variable. We could access the `text` directly using `textEnter.get()`, but we shall use a Tkinter `StringVar()` object instead to access it indirectly. If required, this will allow us to separate the data we are processing from the code that handles the GUI layout. The `encryptvalue` variable automatically updates the Entry widget it is linked to whenever the `.set()` command is used (and the `.get()` command obtains the latest value from the Entry widget).

Next, we have our two Button widgets, **Encrypt** and **Decrypt**, as follows:

```
encryptButton=TK.Button(root,text="Encrypt",command=encryptButton)
decryptButton=TK.Button(root,text="Decrypt",command=decryptButton)
```

In this case, we can set a function to be called when the Button widget is clicked by setting the `command` attribute. We can define the two functions that will be called when each button is clicked. In the following code snippet, we have the `encryptButton()` function, which will set the `encryptvalue` `StringVar` that controls the contents of the first Entry box. This string is set to the result we get by calling `ENC.encryptText()` with the message we want to encrypt (the current value of `encryptvalue`) and the `keyvalue` variable. The `decrypt()` function is exactly the same, except we make the `keyvalue` variable negative to decrypt the message:

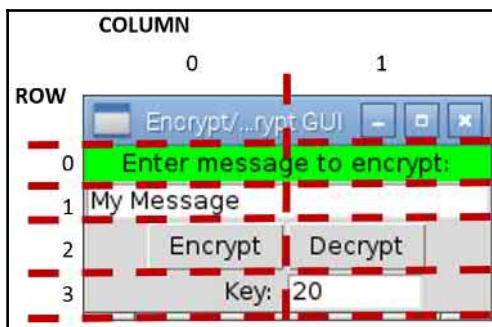
```
def encryptButton():
    encryptvalue.set(ENC.encryptText(encryptvalue.get(),
                                    keyvalue.get()))
```

We then set the final `Label` and `Entry` widgets in a similar way. Note that `textvariable` can also be an integer (numerical value) if required, but there is no built-in check to ensure that only numbers can be entered. You will encounter a `ValueError` exception when the `.get()` command is used.

After we have defined all the widgets to be used in the Tkinter window, we have to set the layout. There are three ways to define the layout in Tkinter: *place*, *pack*, and *grid*.

The *place* layout allows us to specify the positions and sizes using exact pixel positions. The *pack* layout places the items in the window in the order that they have been added in. The *grid* layout allows us to place the items in a specific layout. It is recommended that you avoid the *place* layout wherever possible since any small change to one item can have a knock-on effect on the positions and sizes of all the other items; the other layouts account for this by determining their positions relative to the other items in the window.

We will place the items as laid out in the following screenshot:



Grid layout for the Encrypt/Decrypt GUI

The positions of first two items in the GUI are set using the following code:

```
label1.grid(row=0, columnspan=2, sticky= TK.E+TK.W)  
textEnter.grid(row=1, columnspan=2, sticky= TK.E+TK.W)
```

We can specify that the first `Label` and `Entry` box will span both columns (`columnspan=2`), and we can set the `sticky` values to ensure they span right to the edges. This is achieved by setting both the `TK.E` for the east and `TK.W` for the west sides. We'd use `TK.N` for the north and `TK.S` for the south sides if we needed to do the same vertically. If the `column` value is not specified, the `grid` function defaults to `column=0`. The other items are similarly defined.

The last step is to call `TK.mainloop()`, which allows Tkinter to run; this allows the buttons to be monitored for clicks and Tkinter to call the functions linked to them.

Creating a graphical application – Start menu

The example in this recipe shows how we can define our own variations of Tkinter objects to generate custom controls and dynamically construct a menu with them. We will also take a quick look at using threads to allow other tasks to continue to function while a particular task is being executed.

Getting ready

To view the GUI display, you will need a monitor displaying the Raspberry Pi desktop, or you need to be connected to another computer running the X server.

How to do it...

1. To create a graphical Start menu application, create the following `graphicmenu.py` script:

```
#!/usr/bin/python3
# graphicmenu.py
import tkinter as tk
from subprocess import call
import threading

#Define applications ["Display name", "command"]
leafpad = ["Leafpad", "leafpad"]
scratch = ["Scratch", "scratch"]
pistore = ["Pi Store", "pistore"]
```

```
app_list = [leafpad, scratch,pistore]
APP_NAME = 0
APP_CMD = 1

class runApplictionThread(threading.Thread):
    def __init__(self,app_cmd):
        threading.Thread.__init__(self)
        self.cmd = app_cmd
    def run(self):
        #Run the command, if valid
        try:
            call(self.cmd)
        except:
            print ("Unable to run: %s" % self.cmd)

class appButtons:
    def __init__(self,gui,app_index):
        #Add the buttons to window
        btn = tk.Button(gui, text=app_list[app_index][APP_NAME],
                        width=30, command=self.startApp)
        btn.pack()
        self.app_cmd=app_list[app_index][APP_CMD]
    def startApp(self):
        print ("APP_CMD: %s" % self.app_cmd)
        runApplictionThread(self.app_cmd).start()

root = tk.Tk()
root.title("App Menu")
prompt = '      Select an application      '
label1 = tk.Label(root, text=prompt, width=len(prompt), bg='green')
label1.pack()
#Create menu buttons from app_list
for index, app in enumerate(app_list):
    appButtons(root,index)
#Run the tk window
root.mainloop()
#End
```

2. The previous code produces the following application:



The App Menu GUI

How it works...

We create the Tkinter window as we did before; however, instead of defining all the items separately, we create a special class for the application buttons.

The class we create acts as a blueprint or specification of what we want the `appButtons` items to include. Each item will consist of a string value for `app_cmd`, a function called `startApp()`, and an `__init__()` function. The `__init__()` function is a special function (called a **constructor**) that is called when we create an `appButtons` item; it will allow us to create any setup that is required.

In this case, the `__init__()` function allows us to create a new **Tkinter** button with the text to be set to an item in `app_list` and the command to be called in the `startApp()` function when the button is clicked. The `self` keyword is used so that the command called will be the one that is part of the item; this means that each button will call a locally defined function that has access to the local data of the item.

We set the value of `self.app_cmd` to the command from `app_list` and make it ready for use via the `startApp()` function. We now create the `startApp()` function. If we run the application command here directly, the Tkinter window will freeze until the application we have opened is closed again. To avoid this, we can use the Python threading module, which allows us to perform multiple actions at the same time.

The `runApplicationThread()` class is created using the `threading.Thread` class as a template—this inherits all the features of the `threading.Thread` class in a new class. Just like our previous class, we provide an `__init__()` function for this as well. We first call the `__init__()` function of the inherited class to ensure it is set up correctly, and then we store the `app_cmd` value in `self.cmd`. After the `runApplicationThread()` function has been created and initialized, the `start()` function is called. This function is part of `threading.Thread`, which our class can use. When the `start()` function is called, it will create a separate application thread (that is, simulate running two things at the same time), allowing Tkinter to continue monitoring button clicks while executing the `run()` function within the class.

Therefore, we can place the code in the `run()` function to run the required application (using `call(self.cmd)`).

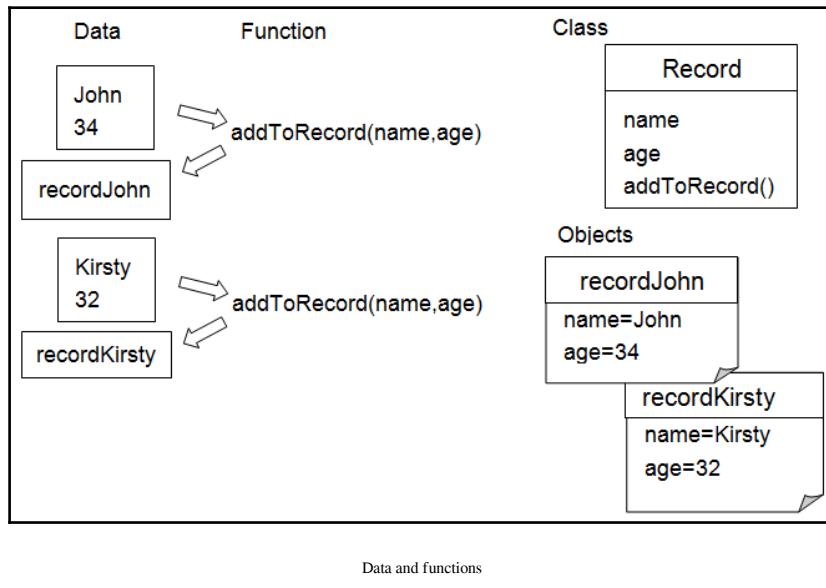
There's more...

One aspect that makes Python particularly powerful is that it supports the programming techniques used in **Object-Orientated Design (OOD)**. This is commonly used by modern programming languages to help translate the tasks we want our program to perform into meaningful constructs and structures in code. The principle of OOD lies in the fact that we think of most problems as consisting of several objects (a GUI window, a button, and so on) that interact with each other to produce a desired result.

In the previous section, we found that we could use classes to create unique objects that could be reused multiple times. We created an `appButton` class, which generated an object with all the features of the class, including its own personal version of `app_cmd` that will be used by the `startApp()` function. Another object of the `appButton` type will have its own unrelated `[app_cmd]` data that its `startApp()` function will use.

You can see that classes are useful to keep together a collection of related variables and functions in a single object, and the class will hold its own data in one place. Having multiple objects of the same type (class), each with their own functions and data inside them, results in better program structure. The traditional approach would be to keep all the information in one place and send each item back and forth for various functions to process; however, this may become cumbersome in large systems.

The following diagram shows the organization of related functions and data:



So far, we have used Python modules to separate parts of our programs into different files; this allows us to conceptually separate different parts of the program (an interface, encoder/decoder, or library of classes, such as Tkinter). Modules can provide code to control a particular bit of hardware, define an interface for the internet, or provide a library of common functionality; however, its most important function is to control the interface (the collection of functions, variables, and classes that are available when the item is imported). A well-implemented module should have a clear interface that is centered around how it is used, rather than how it is implemented. This allows you to create multiple modules that can be swapped and changed easily since they share the same interface. In our previous example, imagine how easy it would be to change the `encryptdecrypt` module for another one just by supporting `encryptText(input_text, key)`. Complex functionality can be split into smaller, manageable blocks that can be reused in multiple applications.

Python makes use of classes and modules all the time. Each time you import a library, such as `sys` or Tkinter or convert a value using `value.str()` and iterate through a list using `for...in`, you can use them without worrying about the details. You don't have to use classes or modules in every bit of code you write, but they are useful tools to keep in your programmer's toolbox for times when they fit what you are doing.

We will understand how classes and modules allow us to produce well-structured code that is easier to test and maintain by using them in the examples of this book.

Displaying photo information in an application

In this example, we shall create a utility class to handle photos that can be used by other applications (as modules) to access photo metadata and display preview images easily.

Getting ready

The following script makes use of **Python Image Library (PIL)**; a compatible version for Python 3 is **Pillow**.

Pillow has not been included in the Raspbian repository (used by `apt-get`); therefore, we will need to install Pillow using a **Python Package Manager** called **PIP**.

To install packages for Python 3, we will use the Python 3 version of PIP (this requires 50 MB of available space).

The following commands can be used to install PIP:

```
sudo apt-get update  
sudo apt-get install python3-pip
```

Before you use PIP, ensure that you have installed `libjpeg-dev` to allow Pillow to handle JPEG files. You can do this using the following command:

```
sudo apt-get install libjpeg-dev
```

Now you can install Pillow using the following PIP command:

```
sudo pip-3.2 install pillow
```

PIP also makes it easy to uninstall packages using `uninstall` instead of `install`.

Finally, you can confirm that it has installed successfully by running `python3`:

```
>>>import PIL  
>>>help(PIL)
```

You should not get any errors and see lots of information about PIL and its uses (press `Q` to finish). Check the version installed as follows:

```
>>PIL.PILLOW_VERSION
```

You should see 2.7.0 (or similar).

PIP can also be used with Python 2 by installing pip-2.x using the following command:



```
sudo apt-get install python-pip
```

Any packages installed using sudo pip install will be installed just for Python 2.

How to do it...

To display photo information in an application, create the following photohandler.py script:

```
#!/usr/bin/python3
#photohandler.py
from PIL import Image
from PIL import ExifTags
import datetime
import os

#set module values
previewsize=240,240
defaultimagepreview="../preview.ppm"
filedate_to_use="Exif DateTime"
#Define expected inputs
ARG_IMAGEFILE=1
ARG_LENGTH=2
class Photo:
    def __init__(self,filename):
        """Class constructor"""
        self.filename=filename
        self.filevalid=False
        self.exifvalid=False
        img=self.initImage()
        if self.filevalid==True:
            self.initExif(img)
            self.initDates()
    def initImage(self):
        """opens the image and confirms if valid, returns Image"""
        try:
            img=Image.open(self.filename)
            self.filevalid=True
        except IOError:
            pass
```

```
        print ("Target image not found/valid %s" %
              (self.filename))
        img=None
        self.filevalid=False
    return img
def initExif(self,image):
    """gets any Exif data from the photo"""
    try:
        self.exif_info={
            ExifTags.TAGS[x]:y
            for x,y in image._getexif().items()
            if x in ExifTags.TAGS
        }
        self.exifvalid=True
    except AttributeError:
        print ("Image has no Exif Tags")
        self.exifvalid=False

def initDates(self):
    """determines the date the photo was taken"""
    #Gather all the times available into YYYY-MM-DD format
    self.filedates={}
    if self.exifvalid:
        #Get the date info from Exif info
        exif_ids=["DateTime","DateTimeOriginal",
                  "DateTimeDigitized"]
        for id in exif_ids:
            dateraw=self.exif_info[id]
            self.filedates["Exif "+id]=
                dateraw[:10].replace(":", "-")
        modtimeraw = os.path.getmtime(self.filename)
        self.filedates["File ModTime"]="%s" %
            datetime.datetime.fromtimestamp(modtimeraw).date()
        createtimeraw = os.path.getctime(self.filename)
        self.filedates["File CreateTime"]="%s" %
            datetime.datetime.fromtimestamp(createtimeraw).date()

    def getDate(self):
        """returns the date the image was taken"""
        try:
            date = self.filedates[filedate_to_use]
        except KeyError:
            print ("Exif Date not found")
            date = self.filedates["File ModTime"]
        return date
    def previewPhoto(self):
        """creates a thumbnail image suitable for tk to display"""
        imageview=self.initImage()
```

```
imageview=imageview.convert('RGB')
imageview.thumbnail(previewsize,Image.ANTIALIAS)
imageview.save(defaultimagepreview,format='ppm')
return defaultimagepreview
```

The previous code defines our `Photo` class; it is of no use to us until we run it in the *There's more...* section and in the next example.

How it works...

We define a general class called `Photo`; it contains details about itself and provides functions to access **Exchangeable Image File Format (EXIF)** information and generate a preview image.

In the `__init__()` function, we set values for our class variables and call `self.initImage()`, which will open the image using the `Image()` function from the PIL. We then call `self.initExif()` and `self.initDates()` and set a flag to indicate whether the file was valid or not. If not valid, the `Image()` function would raise an `IOError` exception.

The `initExif()` function uses PIL to read the EXIF data from the `img` object, as shown in the following code snippet:

```
self.exif_info={
    ExifTags.TAGS[id]:y
    for id,y in image._getexif().items()
    if id in ExifTags.TAGS
}
```

The previous code is a series of compound statements that results in `self.exif_info` being populated with a dictionary of tag names and their related values.

`ExifTag.TAGS` is a dictionary that contains a list of possible tag names linked with their IDs, as shown in the following code snippet:

```
ExifTag.TAGS={
4096: 'RelatedImageFileFormat',
513: 'JpegIFOffset',
514: 'JpegIFByteCount',
40963: 'ExifImageHeight',
...etc...}
```

The `image._getexif()` function returns a dictionary that contains all the values set by the camera of the image, each linked to their relevant IDs, as shown in the following code snippet:

```
Image._getexif()={  
    256: 3264,  
    257: 2448,  
    37378: (281, 100),  
    36867: '2016:09:28 22:38:08',  
    ...etc...}
```

The `for` loop will go through each item in the image's EXIF value dictionary and check for its occurrence in the `ExifTags.TAGS` dictionary; the result will get stored in `self.exif_info`. The code for this is as follows:

```
self.exif_info={  
    'YResolution': (72, 1),  
    'ResolutionUnit': 2,  
    'ExposureMode': 0,  
    'Flash': 24,  
    ...etc...}
```

Again, if there are no exceptions, we set a flag to indicate that the EXIF data is valid, or if there is no EXIF data, we raise an `AttributeError` exception.

The `initDates()` function allows us to gather all the possible file dates and dates from the EXIF data so that we can select one of them as the date we wish to use for the file. For example, it allows us to rename all the images to a filename in the standard date format. We create a `self.filedates` dictionary that we populate with three dates extracted from the EXIF information. We then add the filesystem dates (created and modified) just in case no EXIF data is available. The `os` module allows us to use `os.path.getctime()` and `os.path.getmtime()` to obtain an epoch value of the file creation. It can also be the date and time when the file was moved – and the file modification – when it was last written to (for example, it often refers to the date when the picture was taken). The epoch value is the number of seconds since January 1, 1970, but we can use `datetime.datetime.fromtimestamp()` to convert it into years, months, days, hours, and seconds. Adding `date()` simply limits it to years, months, and days.

Now, if the `Photo` class was to be used by another module, and we wished to know the date of the image that was taken, we could look at the `self.dates` dictionary and pick out a suitable date. However, this would require the programmer to know how the `self.dates` values are arranged, and if we later changed how they are stored, it would break their program. For this reason, it is recommended that we access data in a class through access functions so the implementation is independent of the interfaces (this process is known as **encapsulation**). We provide a function that returns a date when called; the programmer does not need to know that it could be one of the five available dates or even that they are stored as epoch values. Using a function, we can ensure that the interface will remain the same no matter how the data is stored or collected.

Finally, the last function we want the `Photo` class to provide is `previewPhoto()`. This function provides a method to generate a small thumbnail image and saves it as a **Portable Pixmap Format (PPM)** file. As we will discover in a moment, Tkinter allows us to place images on its `Canvas` widget, but unfortunately, it does not support JPEGs directly and only supports GIF or PPM. Therefore, we simply save a small copy of the image we want to display in the PPM format – with the added warning that the image pallet must be converted to RGB too – and then get Tkinter to load it onto the `Canvas` when required.

To summarize, the `Photo` class we have created is as follows:

Operations	Description
<code>__init__(self, filename)</code>	This is the object initializer.
<code>initImage(self)</code>	This returns <code>img</code> , a PIL-type image object.
<code>initExif(self, image)</code>	This extracts all the EXIF information, if any is present.
<code>initDates(self)</code>	This creates a dictionary of all the dates available from the file and photo information.
<code>getDate(self)</code>	This returns a string of the date when the photo was taken/created.
<code>previewPhoto(self)</code>	This returns a string of the filename of the previewed thumbnail.

The properties and their respective descriptions are as follows:

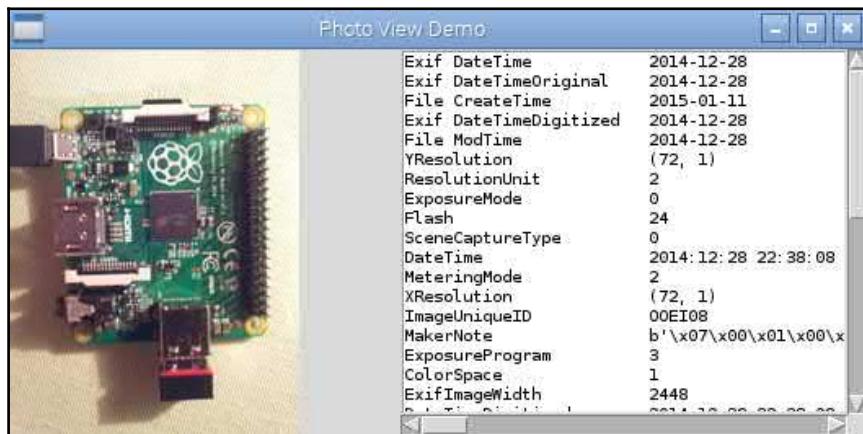
Properties	Description
self.filename	The filename of the photo.
self.filevalid	This is set to True if the file is opened successfully.
self.exifvalid	This is set to True if the photo contains EXIF information.
self.exif_info	This contains the EXIF information from the photo.
self.filedates	This contains a dictionary of the available dates from the file and photo information.

To test the new class, we will create some test code to confirm that everything is working as we expect; see the following section.

There's more...

We previously created the Photo class. Now we can add some test code to our module to ensure that it functions as we expect. We can use the `__name__ = "main"` attribute as before to detect whether the module has been run directly or not.

We can add the subsequent section of code at the end of the `photohandler.py` script to produce the following test application, which looks as follows:



The Photo View Demo application

Add the following code at the end of photohandler.py:

```
#Module test code
def dispPreview(aPhoto):
    """Create a test GUI"""
    import tkinter as TK

    #Define the app window
    app = TK.Tk()
    app.title("Photo View Demo")
    #Define TK objects
    # create an empty canvas object the same size as the image
    canvas = TK.Canvas(app, width=previewSize[0],
                        height=previewSize[1])
    canvas.grid(row=0, rowspan=2)
    # Add list box to display the photo data
    #(including xyscroll bars)
    photoInfo=TK.Variable()
    lbPhotoInfo=TK.Listbox(app, listvariable=photoInfo,
                          height=18, width=45,
                          font=("monospace", 10))
    yscroll=tk.Scrollbar(command=lbPhotoInfo.yview,
                         orient=TK.VERTICAL)
    xscroll=tk.Scrollbar(command=lbPhotoInfo.xview,
                         orient=TK.HORIZONTAL)
    lbPhotoInfo.configure(xscrollcommand=xscroll.set,
                          yscrollcommand=yscroll.set)
    lbPhotoInfo.grid(row=0, column=1, sticky=TK.N+TK.S)
    yscroll.grid(row=0, column=2, sticky=TK.N+TK.S)
    xscroll.grid(row=1, column=1, sticky=TK.N+TK.E+TK.W)
    # Generate the preview image
    preview_filename = aPhoto.previewPhoto()
    photoImg = TK.PhotoImage(file=preview_filename)
    # anchor image to NW corner
    canvas.create_image(0, 0, anchor=TK.NW, image=photoImg)
    # Populate infoList with dates and exif data
    infoList=[]
    for key,value in aPhoto.filedates.items():
        infoList.append(key.ljust(25) + value)
    if aPhoto.exifvalid:
        for key,value in aPhoto.exif_info.items():
            infoList.append(key.ljust(25) + str(value))
    # Set listvariable with the infoList
    photoInfo.set(tuple(infoList))

    app.mainloop()
```

```
def main():
    """called only when run directly, allowing module testing"""
    import sys
    #Check the arguments
    if len(sys.argv) == ARG_LENGTH:
        print ("Command: %s" %(sys.argv))
        #Create an instance of the Photo class
        viewPhoto = Photo(sys.argv[ARG_IMAGEFILE])
        #Test the module by running a GUI
        if viewPhoto.filevalid==True:
            dispPreview(viewPhoto)
    else:
        print ("Usage: photohandler.py imagefile")

if __name__=='__main__':
    main()
#End
```

The previous test code will run the `main()` function, which takes the filename of a photo to use and creates a new `Photo` object called `viewPhoto`. If `viewPhoto` is opened successfully, we will call `dispPreview()` to display the image and its details.

The `dispPreview()` function creates four Tkinter widgets to be displayed: a `Canvas` to load the thumbnail image, a `Listbox` widget to display the photo information, and two scroll bars to control the `Listbox`. First, we create a `Canvas` widget the size of the thumbnail image (`prevIEWSIZE`).

Next, we create `photoInfo`, which will be our `listvariable` parameter linked to the `Listbox` widget. Since Tkinter doesn't provide a `ListVar()` function to create a suitable item, we use the generic type `TK.Variable()` and then ensure we convert it to a tuple type before setting the value. The `Listbox` widget gets added; we need to make sure that the `listvariable` parameter is set to `photoInfo` and also set the font to `monospace`. This will allow us to line up our data values using spaces, as `monospace` is a fixed width font, so each character takes up the same width as any other.

We define the two scroll bars, linking them to the `Listbox` widget, by setting the `Scrollbar` command parameters for vertical and horizontal scroll bars to `lbPhotoInfo.yview` and `lbPhotoInfo.xview`. Then, we adjust the parameters of the `Listbox` using the following command:

```
lbPhotoInfo.configure(xscrollcommand=xscroll.set,  
                      yscrollcommand=yscroll.set)
```

The `configure` command allows us to add or change the widget's parameters after it has been created, in this case linking the two scroll bars so the `Listbox` widget can also control them if the user scrolls within the list.

As before, we make use of the grid layout to ensure that the `Listbox` widget has the two scroll bars placed correctly next to it and the `Canvas` widget is to the left of the `Listbox` widget.

We now use the `Photo` object to create the `preview.ppm` thumbnail file (using the `aPhoto.previewPhoto()` function) and create a `TK.PhotoImage` object that can then be added to the `Canvas` widget with the following command:

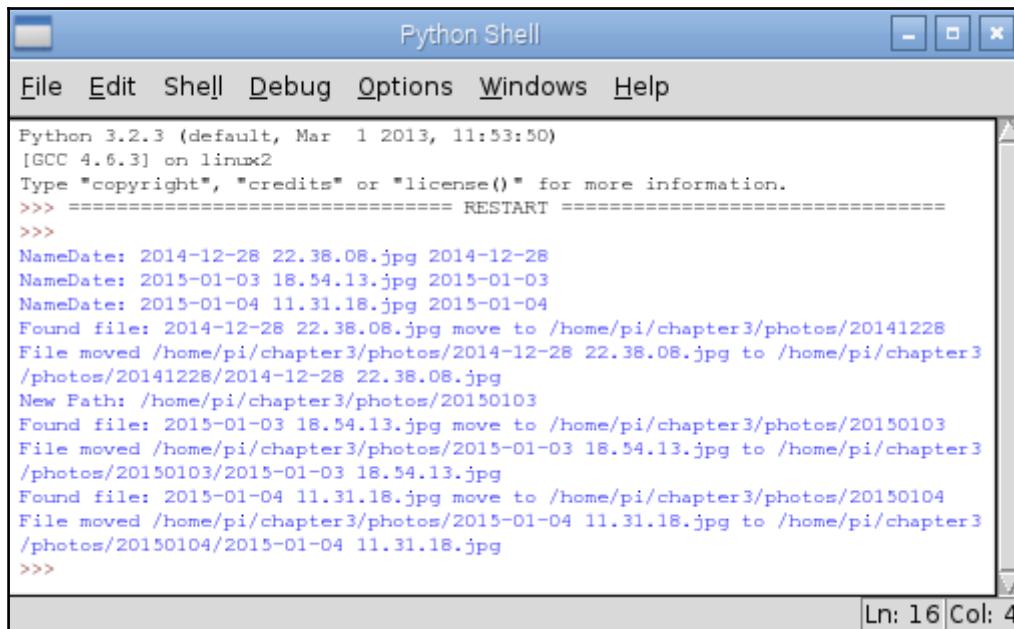
```
canvas.create_image(0, 0, anchor=TK.NW, image=photoImg)
```

Finally, we use the date information that the `Photo` class gathers and the EXIF information (ensuring it is valid first) to populate the `Listbox` widget. We do this by converting each item into a list of strings that are spaced out using `.ljust(25)`—it adds left justification to the name and pads it out to make the string 25 characters wide. Once we have the list, we convert it to a tuple type and set the `listvariable` (`photoInfo`) parameter.

As always, we call `app.mainloop()` to start monitoring for events to respond to.

Organizing your photos automatically

Now that we have a class that allows us to gather information about photos, we can apply this information to perform useful tasks. In this case, we will use the file information to automatically organize a folder full of photos into a subset of folders based on the dates the photos were taken on. The following screenshot shows the output of the script:



The screenshot shows a Python Shell window titled "Python Shell". The menu bar includes File, Edit, Shell, Debug, Options, Windows, and Help. The main window displays the following text:

```
Python 3.2.3 (default, Mar 1 2013, 11:53:50)
[GCC 4.6.3] on linux2
Type "copyright", "credits" or "license()" for more information.
>>> ===== RESTART =====
>>>
NameDate: 2014-12-28 22.38.08.jpg 2014-12-28
NameDate: 2015-01-03 18.54.13.jpg 2015-01-03
NameDate: 2015-01-04 11.31.18.jpg 2015-01-04
Found file: 2014-12-28 22.38.08.jpg move to /home/pi/chapter3/photos/20141228
File moved /home/pi/chapter3/photos/2014-12-28 22.38.08.jpg to /home/pi/chapter3
/photos/20141228/2014-12-28 22.38.08.jpg
New Path: /home/pi/chapter3/photos/20150103
Found file: 2015-01-03 18.54.13.jpg move to /home/pi/chapter3/photos/20150103
File moved /home/pi/chapter3/photos/2015-01-03 18.54.13.jpg to /home/pi/chapter3
/photos/20150103/2015-01-03 18.54.13.jpg
Found file: 2015-01-04 11.31.18.jpg move to /home/pi/chapter3/photos/20150104
File moved /home/pi/chapter3/photos/2015-01-04 11.31.18.jpg to /home/pi/chapter3
/photos/20150104/2015-01-04 11.31.18.jpg
>>>
```

Ln: 16 Col: 4

Script output to organize photos in folder

Getting ready

You will need a selection of photos placed in a folder on Raspberry Pi. Alternatively, you can insert a USB memory stick or a card reader with photos on it—they will be located in `/mnt/`. However, please make sure you test the scripts with a copy of your photos first, just in case there are any problems.

How to do it...

Create the following script in `filehandler.py` to automatically organize your photos:

```
#!/usr/bin/python3
#filehandler.py
import os
import shutil
import photohandler as PH
from operator import itemgetter

FOLDERSONLY=True
```

```
DEBUG=True
defaultpath=""
NAME=0
DATE=1

class FileList:
    def __init__(self, folder):
        """Class constructor"""
        self.folder=folder
        self.listFiles()

    def getPhotoNamedates(self):
        """returns the list of filenames and dates"""
        return self.photo_namedates

    def listFileDates(self):
        """Generate list of filenames and dates"""
        self.photo_namedates = list()
        if os.path.isdir(self.folder):
            for filename in os.listdir(self.folder):
                if filename.lower().endswith(".jpg"):
                    aPhoto = PH.Photo(os.path.join(self.folder, filename))
                    if aPhoto.filevalid:
                        if (DEBUG):print("NameDate: %s %s"%
                                         (filename,aPhoto.getDate()))
                        self.photo_namedates.append((filename,
                                         aPhoto.getDate()))
        self.photo_namedates = sorted(self.photo_namedates,
                                      key=lambda date: date[DATE])

    def genFolders(self):
        """function to generate folders"""
        for i,namedate in enumerate(self.getPhotoNamedates()):
            #Remove the - from the date format
            new_folder=namedate[DATE].replace("-", "")
            newpath = os.path.join(self.folder,new_folder)
            #If path does not exist create folder
            if not os.path.exists(newpath):
                if (DEBUG):print ("New Path: %s" % newpath)
                os.makedirs(newpath)
            if (DEBUG):print ("Found file: %s move to %s" %
                             (namedate[NAME],newpath))
            src_file = os.path.join(self.folder,namedate[NAME])
            dst_file = os.path.join(newpath,namedate[NAME])
            try:
                if (DEBUG):print ("File moved %s to %s" %
                                 (src_file, dst_file))
                if (FOLDERSONLY==False):shutil.move(src_file, dst_file)
```

```
        except IOError:
            print ("Skipped: File not found")

def main():
    """called only when run directly, allowing module testing"""
    import tkinter as TK
    from tkinter import filedialog
    app = TK.Tk()
    app.withdraw()
    dirname = TK.filedialog.askdirectory(parent=app,
                                           initialdir=defaultpath,
                                           title='Select your pictures folder')
    if dirname != "":
        ourFileList=FileList(dirname)
        ourFileList.genFolders()

if __name__=="__main__":
    main()
#End
```

How it works...

We shall make a class called `FileList`; it will make use of the `Photo` class to manage the photos within a specific folder. There are two main steps for this: we first need to find all the images within the folder, and then generate a list containing both the filename and the photo date. We will use this information to generate new subfolders and move the photos into these folders.

When we create the `FileList` object, we will create the list using `listFileDates()`. We will then confirm that the folder provided is valid and use `os.listdir` to obtain the full list of files within the directory. We will check that each file is a JPEG file and obtain each photo's date (using the function defined in the `Photo` class). Next, we will add the filename and date as a tuple to the `self.photo_namedates` list.

Finally, we will use the built-in `sorted` function to place all the files in order of their date. While we don't need to do this here, this function would make it easier to remove duplicate dates if we were to use this module elsewhere.

The `sorted` function requires the list to be sorted, and, in this case, we want to sort it by the date values:



```
sorted(self.photo_namedates, key=lambda date:  
date[DATE])
```

We will substitute `date [DATE]` with `lambda date:` as the value to sort by.

Once the `FileList` object has been initialized, we can use it by calling `genFolders()`. First, we convert the date text into a suitable format for our folders (YYYYMMDD), allowing our folders to be easily sorted in order of their date. Next, it will create the folders within the current directory if they don't already exist. Finally, it will move each of the files into the required subfolder.

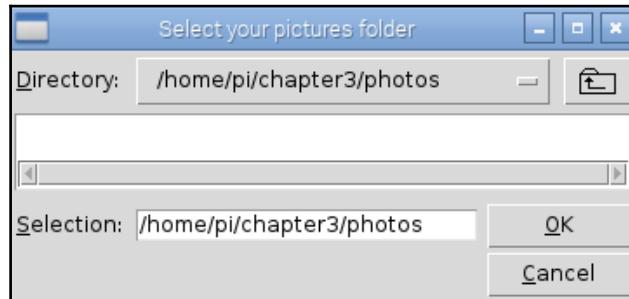
We end up with our `FileList` class that is ready to be tested:

Operations	Description
<code>__init__(self, folder)</code>	This is the object initializer.
<code>getPhotoNamedates(self)</code>	This returns a list of the filenames of the dates of the photos.
<code>listFileDates(self)</code>	This creates a list of the filenames and dates of the photos in the folder.
<code>genFolders(self)</code>	This creates new folders based on a photo's date and moves the files into them.

The properties are listed as follows:

Properties	Description
<code>self.folder</code>	The folder we are working with.
<code>self.photo_namedates</code>	This contains a list of the filenames and dates.

The `FileList` class encapsulates all the functions and the relevant data together, keeping everything in one logical place:



Tkinter `filedialog.askdirectory()` is used to select the photo directory

To test this, we use the Tkinter `filedialog.askdirectory()` widget to allow us to select a target directory of pictures. We use `app.withdraw()` to hide the main Tkinter window since it isn't required this time. We just need to create a new `FileList` object and then call `genFolders()` to move all our photos to new locations!



Two additional flags have been defined in this script that provide extra control for testing. `DEBUG` allows us to enable or disable extra debugging messages by setting them to either `True` or `False`. Furthermore, `FOLDERSONLY`, when set to `True`, only generates the folders and doesn't move the files (this is helpful for testing whether the new subfolders are correct).

Once you have run the script, you can check if all the folders have been created correctly. Finally, change `FOLDERSONLY` to `True`, and your program will automatically move and organize your photos according to their dates the next time. It is recommended that you only run this on a copy of your photos, just in case you get an error.

4

Predicting Sentiments in Words

This chapter presents the following recipes:

- Building a Naive Bayes classifier
- Logistic regression classifier
- Splitting the dataset for training and testing
- Evaluating the accuracy using cross-validation
- Analyzing the sentiment of a sentence
- Identifying patterns in text using topic modeling
- Application of sentiment analyses

Building a Naive Bayes classifier

A Naive Bayes classifier employs Bayes' theorem to construct a supervised model.

How to do it...

1. Import the following packages:

```
from sklearn.naive_bayes import GaussianNB
import numpy as np
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
```

2. Use the following data file, which includes comma-separated arithmetical data:

```
in_file = 'data_multivar.txt'
a = []
b = []
with open(in_file, 'r') as f:
    for line in f.readlines():
        data = [float(x) for x in line.split(',')]
        a.append(data[:-1])
        b.append(data[-1])
a = np.array(a)
b = np.array(b)
```

3. Construct a Naive Bayes classifier:

```
classification_gaussiannb = GaussianNB()
classification_gaussiannb.fit(a, b)
b_pred = classification_gaussiannb.predict(a)
```

4. Calculate the accuracy of Naive Bayes:

```
correctness = 100.0 * (b == b_pred).sum() / a.shape[0]
print "correctness of the classification =", round(correctness, 2),
"%"
```

5. Plot the classifier result:

```
def plot_classification(classification_gaussiannb, a, b):
    a_min, a_max = min(a[:, 0]) - 1.0, max(a[:, 0]) + 1.0
    b_min, b_max = min(a[:, 1]) - 1.0, max(a[:, 1]) + 1.0
    step_size = 0.01
    a_values, b_values = np.meshgrid(np.arange(a_min, a_max,
                                                step_size), np.arange(b_min, b_max, step_size))
    mesh_output1 =
    classification_gaussiannb.predict(np.c_[a_values.ravel(),
                                             b_values.ravel()])
    mesh_output2 = mesh_output1.reshape(a_values.shape)
    plt.figure()
    plt.pcolormesh(a_values, b_values, mesh_output2,
                   cmap=plt.cm.gray)
    plt.scatter(a[:, 0], a[:, 1], c=b, s=80, edgecolors='black',
                linewidth=1, cmap=plt.cm.Paired)
```

6. Specify the boundaries of the figure:

```
plt.xlim(a_values.min(), a_values.max())
plt.ylim(b_values.min(), b_values.max())
# specify the ticks on the X and Y axes
```

```
plt.xticks((np.arange(int(min(a[:, 0])-1), int(max(a[:, 0])+1),
1.0)))
plt.yticks((np.arange(int(min(a[:, 1])-1), int(max(a[:, 1])+1),
1.0)))
plt.show()
plot_classification(classification_gaussiannb, a, b)
```

The accuracy obtained after executing a Naive Bayes classifier is shown in the following screenshot:

```
manju@manju-HP-Notebook:~/Documents$ python Building_Naive_Bayes_classifier.py
correctness of the classification = 93.67 %
manju@manju-HP-Notebook:~/Documents$ █
```

See also

Please refer to the following articles:

- To get to know how the classifier works with an example refer to the following link:

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Naive_Bayes_classifier

- To learn more about text classification with the proposed classifier, refer to the following link:

http://sebastianraschka.com/Articles/2014_naive_bayes_1.html

- To learn more about the Naive Bayes Classification Algorithm, refer to the following link:

<http://software.ucv.ro/~cmihaescu/ro/teaching/AIR/docs/Lab4-NaiveBayes.pdf>

Logistic regression classifier

This approach can be chosen where the output can take only two values, 0 or 1, pass/fail, win/lose, alive/dead, or healthy/sick, and so on. In cases where the dependent variable has more than two outcome categories, it may be analyzed using multinomial logistic regression.

How to do it...

1. After installing the essential packages, let's construct some training labels:

```
import numpy as np
from sklearn import linear_model
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
a = np.array([[-1, -1], [-2, -1], [-3, -2], [1, 1], [2, 1], [3,
2]])
b = np.array([1, 1, 1, 2, 2, 2])
```

2. Initiate the classifier:

```
classification =
linear_model.LogisticRegression(solver='liblinear', C=100)
classification.fit(a, b)
```

3. Sketch datapoints and margins:

```
def plot_classification(classification, a, b):
    a_min, a_max = min(a[:, 0]) - 1.0, max(a[:, 0]) + 1.0
    b_min, b_max = min(a[:, 1]) - 1.0, max(a[:, 1]) + 1.0 step_size =
0.01
    a_values, b_values = np.meshgrid(np.arange(a_min, a_max,
step_size), np.arange(b_min, b_max, step_size))
    mesh_output1 = classification.predict(np.c_[a_values.ravel(),
b_values.ravel()])
    mesh_output2 = mesh_output1.reshape(a_values.shape)
    plt.figure()
    plt.pcolormesh(a_values, b_values, mesh_output2,
cmap=plt.cm.gray)
    plt.scatter(a[:, 0], a[:, 1], c=b, s=80,
edgecolors='black', linewidth=1, cmap=plt.cm.Paired)

    # specify the boundaries of the figure
    plt.xlim(a_values.min(), a_values.max())
    plt.ylim(b_values.min(), b_values.max())

    # specify the ticks on the X and Y axes
    plt.xticks((np.arange(int(min(a[:, 0])-1), int(max(a[:, 0])+1),
1.0)))
    plt.yticks((np.arange(int(min(a[:, 1])-1), int(max(a[:, 1])+1),
1.0)))
    plt.show()
plot_classification(classification, a, b)
```

The command to execute logistic regression is shown in the following screenshot:

```
manju@manju-HP-Notebook:~/Documents$ python logistic_regression.py
```

Splitting the dataset for training and testing

Splitting helps to partition the dataset into training and testing sequences.

How to do it...

1. Add the following code fragment into the same Python file:

```
from sklearn import cross_validation
from sklearn.naive_bayes import GaussianNB
import numpy as np
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
in_file = 'data_multivar.txt'
a = []
b = []
with open(in_file, 'r') as f:
    for line in f.readlines():
        data = [float(x) for x in line.split(',')]
        a.append(data[:-1])
        b.append(data[-1])
a = np.array(a)
b = np.array(b)
```

2. Allocate 75% of data for training and 25% of data for testing:

```
a_training, a_testing, b_training, b_testing =
cross_validation.train_test_split(a, b, test_size=0.25,
random_state=5)
classification_gaussiannb_new = GaussianNB()
classification_gaussiannb_new.fit(a_training, b_training)
```

3. Evaluate the classifier performance on test data:

```
b_test_pred = classification_gaussiannb_new.predict(a_testing)
```

4. Compute the accuracy of the classifier system:

```
correctness = 100.0 * (b_testing == b_test_pred).sum() /  
a_testing.shape[0]  
print "correctness of the classification =", round(correctness, 2),  
"%"
```

5. Plot the datapoints and the boundaries for test data:

```
def plot_classification(classification_gaussiannb_new, a_testing ,  
b_testing):  
    a_min, a_max = min(a_testing[:, 0]) - 1.0, max(a_testing[:, 0]) +  
1.0  
    b_min, b_max = min(a_testing[:, 1]) - 1.0, max(a_testing[:, 1]) +  
1.0  
    step_size = 0.01  
    a_values, b_values = np.meshgrid(np.arange(a_min, a_max,  
step_size), np.arange(b_min, b_max, step_size))  
    mesh_output =  
classification_gaussiannb_new.predict(np.c_[a_values.ravel(),  
b_values.ravel()])  
    mesh_output = mesh_output.reshape(a_values.shape)  
    plt.figure()  
    plt.pcolormesh(a_values, b_values, mesh_output, cmap=plt.cm.gray)  
    plt.scatter(a_testing[:, 0], a_testing[:, 1], c=b_testing , s=80,  
edgecolors='black', linewidth=1,cmap=plt.cm.Paired)  
    # specify the boundaries of the figure  
    plt.xlim(a_values.min(), a_values.max())  
    plt.ylim(b_values.min(), b_values.max())  
    # specify the ticks on the X and Y axes  
    plt.xticks((np.arange(int(min(a_testing[:, 0])-1),  
int(max(a_testing[:, 0])+1), 1.0)))  
    plt.yticks((np.arange(int(min(a_testing[:, 1])-1),  
int(max(a_testing[:, 1])+1), 1.0)))  
    plt.show()  
plot_classification(classification_gaussiannb_new, a_testing,  
b_testing)
```

The accuracy obtained while splitting the dataset is shown in the following screenshot:

```
manju@manju-HP-Notebook:~/Documents$ python Splitting_dataset.py
/usr/local/lib/python2.7/dist-packages/sklearn/cross_validation.py:41: DeprecationWarning: This module was deprecated in version 0.18 in favor of the model_selection module into which all the refactored classes and functions are moved. Also note that the interface of the new CV iterators are different from that of this module. This module will be removed in 0.20.
    "This module will be removed in 0.20.", DeprecationWarning)
correctness of the classification = 92.0 %
manju@manju-HP-Notebook:~/Documents$ █
```

Evaluating the accuracy using cross-validation

Cross-validation is essential in machine learning. Initially, we split the datasets into a train set and a test set. Next, in order to construct a robust classifier, we repeat this procedure, but we need to avoid overfitting the model. Overfitting indicates that we get excellent prediction results for the train set, but very poor results for the test set. Overfitting causes poor generalization of the model.

How to do it...

1. Import the packages:

```
from sklearn import cross_validation
from sklearn.naive_bayes import GaussianNB
import numpy as np
in_file = 'cross_validation_multivar.txt'
a = []
b = []
with open(in_file, 'r') as f:
    for line in f.readlines():
        data = [float(x) for x in line.split(',')]
        a.append(data[:-1])
        b.append(data[-1])
a = np.array(a)
b = np.array(b)
classification_gaussiannb = GaussianNB()
```

2. Compute the accuracy of the classifier:

```
num_of_validations = 5
accuracy =
cross_validation.cross_val_score(classification_gaussiannb, a, b,
scoring='accuracy', cv=num_of_validations)
print "Accuracy: " + str(round(100* accuracy.mean(), 2)) + "%"
f1 = cross_validation.cross_val_score(classification_gaussiannb, a,
b, scoring='f1_weighted', cv=num_of_validations)
print "f1: " + str(round(100*f1.mean(), 2)) + "%"
precision =
cross_validation.cross_val_score(classification_gaussiannb,a, b,
scoring='precision_weighted', cv=num_of_validations)
print "Precision: " + str(round(100*precision.mean(), 2)) + "%"
recall =
cross_validation.cross_val_score(classification_gaussiannb, a, b,
scoring='recall_weighted', cv=num_of_validations)
print "Recall: " + str(round(100*recall.mean(), 2)) + "%"
```

3. The result obtained after executing cross-validation is shown as follows:

```
manju@manju-HP-Notebook:~/Documents$ python cross_validation.py
/usr/local/lib/python2.7/dist-packages/sklearn/cross_validation.py:41: DeprecationWarning: This module was deprecated in version 0.18 in favor
of the model_selection module into which all the refactored classes and functions are moved. Also note that the interface of the new CV iterato
rs are different from that of this module. This module will be removed in 0.20.
"This module will be removed in 0.20.", DeprecationWarning)
Accuracy: 75.13%
f1: 74.73%
Precision: 74.61%
Recall: 75.13%
manju@manju-HP-Notebook:~/Documents$
```

In order to know how it works on a given sentence dataset, refer to the following:

- Introduction to logistic regression:

<https://machinelearningmastery.com/logistic-regression-for-machine-learning/>

Analyzing the sentiment of a sentence

Sentiment analysis refers to procedures of finding whether a specified part of text is positive, negative, or neutral. This technique is frequently considered to find out how people think about a particular situation. It evaluates the sentiments of consumers in different forms, such as advertising campaigns, social media, and e-commerce customers.

How to do it...

1. Create a new file and import the chosen packages:

```
import nltk.classify.util
from nltk.classify import NaiveBayesClassifier
from nltk.corpus import movie_reviews
```

2. Describe a function to extract features:

```
def collect_features(word_list):
    word = []
    return dict([(word, True) for word in word_list])
```

3. Adopt movie reviews in NLTK as training data:

```
if __name__ == '__main__':
    plus_filenum = movie_reviews.fileids('pos')
    minus_filenum = movie_reviews.fileids('neg')
```

4. Divide the data into positive and negative reviews:

```
feature_pluspts =
[(collect_features(movie_reviews.words(fileids=[f])),
  'Positive') for f in plus_filenum]
feature_minuspts =
[(collect_features(movie_reviews.words(fileids=[f])),
  'Negative') for f in minus_filenum]
```

5. Segregate the data into training and testing datasets:

```
threshold_fact = 0.8
threshold_pluspts = int(threshold_fact * len(feature_pluspts))
threshold_minuspts = int(threshold_fact * len(feature_minuspts))
```

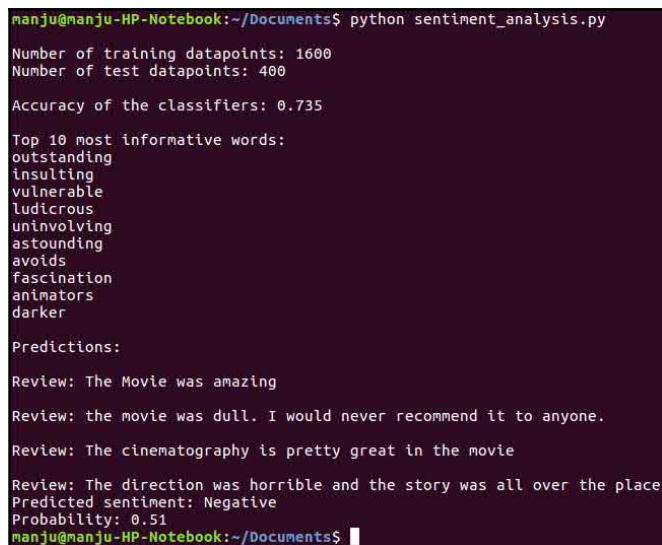
6. Extract the features:

```
feature_training = feature_pluspts[:threshold_pluspts] +
feature_minuspts[:threshold_minuspts]
feature_testing = feature_pluspts[threshold_pluspts:] +
feature_minuspts[threshold_minuspts:]
print "Number of training datapoints:", len(feature_training)
print "Number of test datapoints:", len(feature_testing)
```

7. Consider the Naive Bayes classifier and train it with an assigned objective:

```
# Train a Naive Bayes classifiers
classifiers = NaiveBayesClassifier.train(feature_training)
print "nAccuracy of the
classifiers:", nltk.classify.util.accuracy(classifiers, feature_testing)
print "nTop 10 most informative words:"
for item in classifiers.most_informative_features() [:10]:print
item[0]
# Sample input reviews
in_reviews = [
"The Movie was amazing",
"the movie was dull. I would never recommend it to anyone.",
"The cinematography is pretty great in the movie",
"The direction was horrible and the story was all over the place"
]
print "nPredictions:"
for review in in_reviews:
    print "nReview:", review
    probdist =
classifiers.prob_classify(collect_features(review.split()))
    predict_sentiment = probdist.max()
    print "Predicted sentiment:", predict_sentiment
    print "Probability:", round(probdist.prob(predict_sentiment), 2)
```

8. The result obtained for sentiment analysis is shown as follows:



A terminal window showing the execution of a Python script named `sentiment_analysis.py`. The script performs sentiment analysis on movie reviews using a Naive Bayes classifier. It prints the accuracy of the classifiers (0.735), the top 10 most informative words (outstanding, insulting, vulnerable, ludicrous, uninvolving, astounding, avoids, fascination, animators, darker), and several sample predictions for reviews like "The Movie was amazing" and "the movie was dull. I would never recommend it to anyone.".

```
manju@manju-HP-Notebook:~/Documents$ python sentiment_analysis.py
Number of training datapoints: 1600
Number of test datapoints: 400
Accuracy of the classifiers: 0.735
Top 10 most informative words:
outstanding
insulting
vulnerable
ludicrous
uninvolving
astounding
avoids
fascination
animators
darker
Predictions:
Review: The Movie was amazing
Review: the movie was dull. I would never recommend it to anyone.
Review: The cinematography is pretty great in the movie
Review: The direction was horrible and the story was all over the place
Predicted sentiment: Negative
Probability: 0.51
manju@manju-HP-Notebook:~/Documents$
```

Identifying patterns in text using topic modeling

The theme modeling refers to the procedure of recognizing hidden patterns in manuscript information. The objective is to expose some hidden thematic configuration in a collection of documents.

How to do it...

1. Import the following packages:

```
from nltk.tokenize import RegexpTokenizer
from nltk.stem.snowball import SnowballStemmer
from gensim import models, corpora
from nltk.corpus import stopwords
```

2. Load the input data:

```
def load_words(in_file):
    element = []
    with open(in_file, 'r') as f:
        for line in f.readlines():
            element.append(line[:-1])
    return element
```

3. Class to pre-process text:

```
class Preprocedure(object):
    def __init__(self):
        # Create a regular expression tokenizer
        self.tokenizer = RegexpTokenizer(r'w+')
```

4. Obtain a list of stop words to terminate the program execution:

```
self.english_stop_words= stopwords.words('english')
```

5. Create a Snowball stemmer:

```
self.snowball_stemmer = SnowballStemmer('english')
```

6. Define a function to perform tokenizing, stop word removal, and stemming:

```
def procedure(self, in_data):
    # Tokenize the string
    token = self.tokenizer.tokenize(in_data.lower())
```

7. Eliminate stop words from the text:

```
tokenized_stopwords = [x for x in token if not x in
self.english_stop_words]
```

8. Implement stemming on the tokens:

```
token_stemming = [self.snowball_stemmer.stem(x) for x in
tokenized_stopwords]
```

9. Return the processed tokens:

```
return token_stemming
```

10. Load the input data from the `main` function:

```
if __name__=='__main__':
    # File containing input data
    in_file = 'data_topic_modeling.txt'
    # Load words
    element = load_words(in_file)
```

11. Create an object:

```
preprocedure = Preprocedure()
```

12. Process the file and extract the tokens:

```
processed_tokens = [preprocedure.procedure(x) for x in element]
```

13. Create a dictionary based on the tokenized documents:

```
dict_tokens = corpora.Dictionary(processed_tokens)
corpus = [dict_tokens.doc2bow(text) for text in processed_tokens]
```

14. Develop an LDA model, define required parameters, and initialize the LDA objective:

```
num_of_topics = 2
num_of_words = 4
ldamodel =
models.ldamodel.LdaModel(corpus,num_topics=num_of_topics,
id2word=dict_tokens, passes=25)
print "Most contributing words to the topics:"
for item in ldamodel.print_topics(num_topics=num_of_topics,
num_words=num_of_words):
    print "nTopic", item[0], "=>", item[1]
```

15. The result obtained when `topic_modelling.py` is executed is shown in the following screenshot:

```
manju@manju-HP-Notebook:~/Documents$ python topic_modeling.py
Most contributing words to the topics:

Topic 0 ==> 0.067*"drive" + 0.066*"pressur" + 0.039*"caus" + 0.039*"doctor"
Topic 1 ==> 0.090*"sugar" + 0.064*"father" + 0.064*"sister" + 0.038*"practic"
manju@manju-HP-Notebook:~/Documents$ █
```

Applications of sentiment analysis

Sentiment analysis is used in social media such as Facebook and Twitter, to find the sentiments (positive/negative) of the general public over an issue. They are also used to establish the sentiments of people regarding advertisements and how people feel about your product, brand, or service.

5

Creating Games and Graphics

In this chapter, we will cover the following topics:

- Using IDLE3 to debug your programs
- Drawing lines using a mouse on a Tkinter Canvas
- Creating a bat and ball game
- Creating an overhead scrolling game

Introduction

Games are often a great way to explore and extend your programming skills, as they present an inherent motivating force to modify and improve your creation, add new features, and create new challenges. They are also great for sharing your ideas with others, even if they aren't interested in programming.

This chapter focuses on using the Tkinter Canvas widget to create and display objects on a screen for the user to interact with. Using these techniques, a wide variety of games and applications can be created, limited only by your own creativity.

We will also take a quick look at using the debugger built into IDLE3, a valuable tool for testing and developing your programs without the need to write extensive test code.

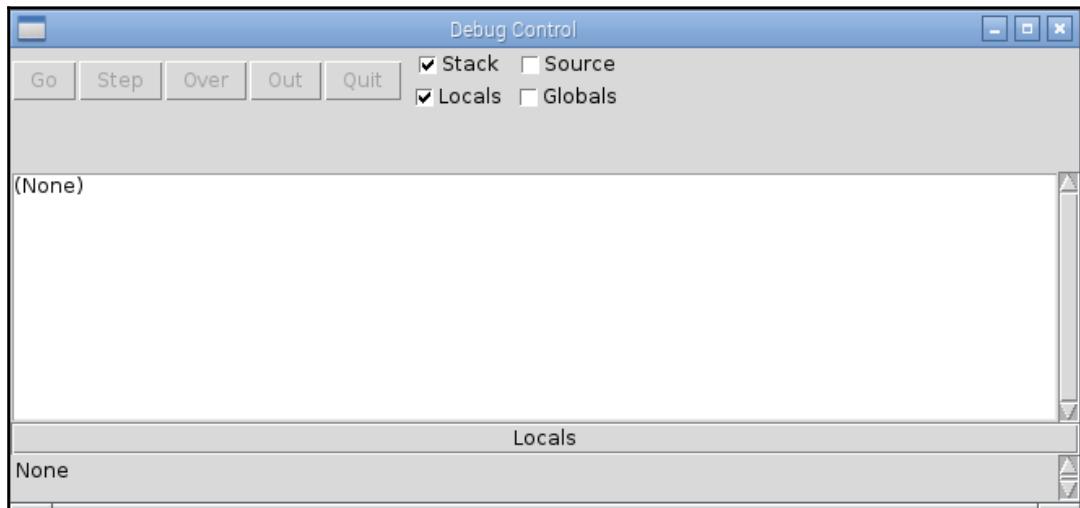
The first example demonstrates how we can monitor and make use of the mouse to create objects and draw directly on the Canvas widget. Then, we create a bat and ball game, which shows how the positions of objects can be controlled and how interactions between them can be detected and responded to. Finally, we take things a little further and use Tkinter to place our own graphics onto the Canvas widget to create an overhead view treasure hunt game.

Using IDLE3 to debug your programs

A key aspect of programming is being able to test and debug your code, and a useful tool to achieve this is a debugger. The IDLE editor (make sure you use IDLE3 to support the Python 3 code we use in this book) includes a basic debugger. It allows you to step through your code, observe the values of local and global variables, and set breakpoints.

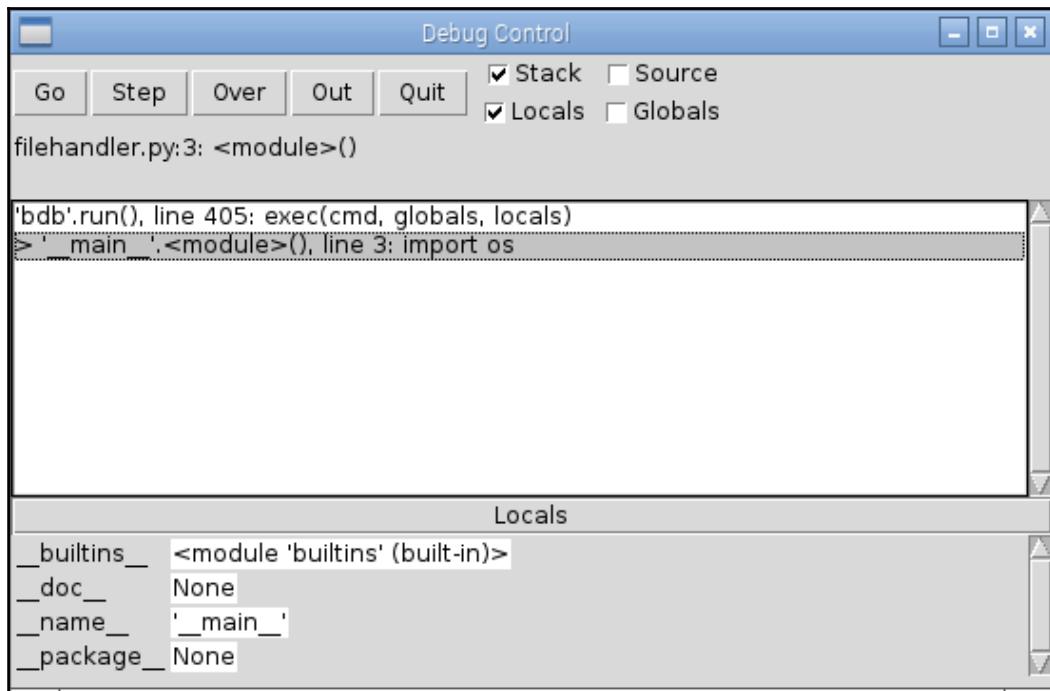
How to do it...

1. To enable the debugger, start IDLE3 and select **Debugger** from the **Debug** menu; it will open up the following window (if you are currently running some code, you will need to stop it first):



The IDLE3 debugger window

2. Open up the code you want to test (via **File | Open...**) and try running it (*F5*). You will find that the code will not start since the debugger has automatically stopped at the first line. The following screenshot shows that the debugger has stopped on the first line of code in `filehandler.py`, which is line 3: `import os:`



The IDLE3 debugger at the start of the code

How it works...

The control buttons shown in the following screenshot allow you to run and/or jump through the code:



Debugger controls

The functions of the control buttons are as follows:

- **Go:** This button will execute the code as normal.
- **Step:** This button will execute the block of code one line at a time, and then stop again. If a function is called, it will enter that function and allow you to step through that, too.

- **Over:** This button is like the **Step** command, but if there is a function call, it will execute the whole function and stop at the following line.
- **Out:** This button will keep executing the code until it has completed the function it is currently in, continuing until you come out of the function.
- **Quit:** This button ends the program immediately.

In addition to the previously mentioned controls, you can **Set Breakpoint** and **Clear Breakpoint** directly within the code. A breakpoint is a marker that you can insert in the code (by right-clicking on the editor window), which the debugger will always break on (stop at) when reached, as shown in the following screenshot:

A screenshot of a Windows-style code editor window titled "filehandler.py - /home/pi/chapter3/filehandler.py". The menu bar includes File, Edit, Format, Run, Options, Windows, and Help. The main code area contains Python code for handling files. On the right side of the code, there is a context menu with two items: "Set Breakpoint" and "Clear Breakpoint". The status bar at the bottom right shows "Ln: 32 Col: 2".

```
if os.path.isdir(self.folder):
    for filename in os.listdir(self.folder):
        if filename.lower().endswith(".jpg"):
            aPhoto = PH.Photo(os.path.join(self.folder, filename))
            if aPhoto.filevalid:
                if (DEBUG):print("NameDate: %s %s"
                                  (filename,aPhoto.getDate()))
                self.photo_namedates.append((filename,
                                              aPhoto.getDate()))
            self.photo_namedates = sorted(self.photo_namedates,
                                          key=lambda date: date[DATE])
```

Set and clear breakpoints directly in your code

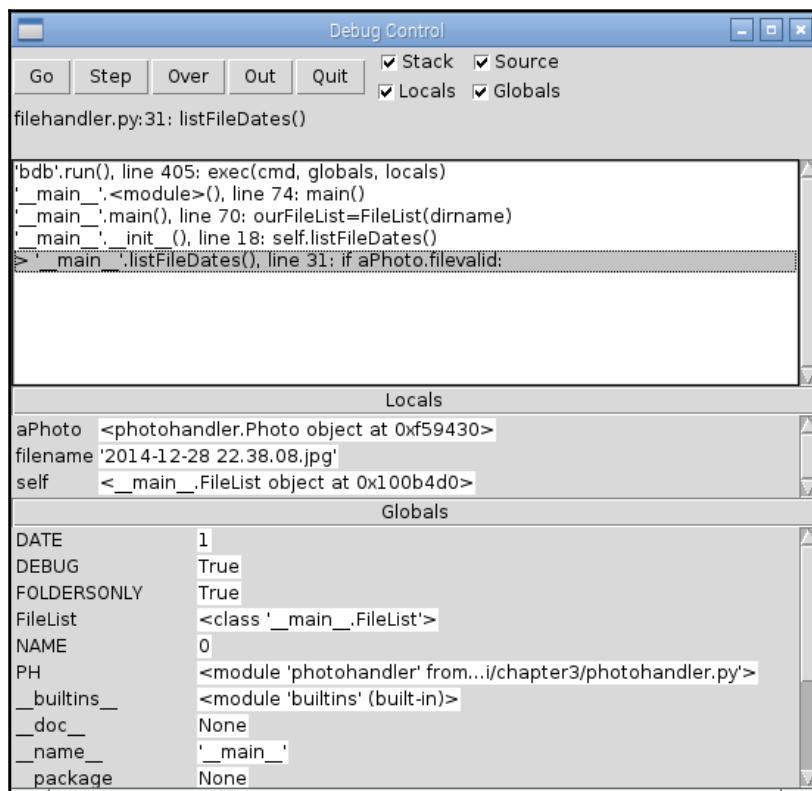
The checkboxes (on the right-hand side of the control buttons) allow you to choose what information to display when you step through the code or when the debugger stops somewhere due to a breakpoint. **Stack** is shown in the main window, which is similar to what you would see if the program hit an unhandled exception. The **Stack** option shows all of the function calls made to get to the current position in the code, right up to the line it has stopped at. The **Source** option highlights the line of code currently being executed and, in some cases, the code inside the imported modules, too (if they are non-compiled libraries).

You can also select whether to display **Locals** and/or **Globals**. By default, the **Source** and **Globals** options are usually disabled, as they can make the process quite slow if there is a lot of data to display.



Python uses the concept of local and global variables to define the scope (where and when the variables are visible and valid). Global variables are defined at the top level of the file and are visible from any point in the code, after it has been defined. However, in order to alter its value from anywhere other than the top level, Python requires you to use the `global` keyword first. Without the `global` keyword, you will create a local copy with the same name (the value of which will be lost when you exit the block). Local variables are defined when you create a variable within a function; once outside of the function, the variable is destroyed and is not visible anymore.

Following **Stack** data are the **Locals** – in this case, `aPhoto`, `filename`, and `self`. Then (if enabled), we have all of the global values that are currently valid, providing useful details about the status of the program (`DATE = 1`, `DEBUG = True`, `FOLDERONLY = True`, and so on):



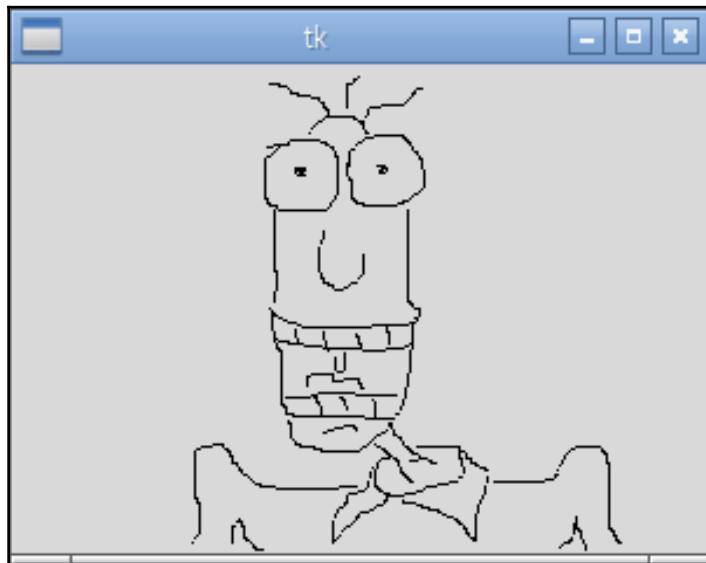
The Stack, Locals, and Globals options within the debugger

The debugger isn't particularly advanced, as it does not allow you to expand complex objects, such as the `photohandler.Photo` object, to see what data it contains. However, if required, you can adjust your code and assign the data you want to observe to some temporary variables during testing.

It is worth learning how to use the debugger, as it is a much easier way to track down particular problems and check whether or not things are functioning as you expect them to.

Drawing lines using a mouse on Tkinter Canvas

The Tkinter Canvas widget provides an area to create and draw objects on. The following script demonstrates how to use mouse events to interact with Tkinter. By detecting the mouse clicks, we can use Tkinter to draw a line that follows the movement of the mouse:



A simple drawing application using Tkinter

Getting ready

As before, we need to have Tkinter installed, and either the Raspbian desktop running (`startx` from the command line) or an SSH session with X11 forwarding and an X server running (see Chapter 1, *Getting Started with a Raspberry Pi 3 Computer*). We will also need a mouse connected.

How to do it...

Create the following script, `painting.py`:

```
#!/usr/bin/python3
#painting.py
import tkinter as TK

#Set defaults
btn1pressed = False
newline = True

def main():
    root = TK.Tk()
    the_canvas = TK.Canvas(root)
    the_canvas.pack()
    the_canvas.bind("<Motion>", mousemove)
    the_canvas.bind("<ButtonPress-1>", mouse1press)
    the_canvas.bind("<ButtonRelease-1>", mouse1release)
    root.mainloop()

def mouse1press(event):
    global btn1pressed
    btn1pressed = True

def mouse1release(event):
    global btn1pressed, newline
    btn1pressed = False
    newline = True

def mousemove(event):
    if btn1pressed == True:
        global xorig, yorig, newline
        if newline == False:
            event.widget.create_line(xorig,yorig,event.x,event.y,
                                    smooth=TK.TRUE)
        newline = False
        xorig = event.x
```

```
yorig = event.y

if __name__ == "__main__":
    main()
#End
```

How it works...

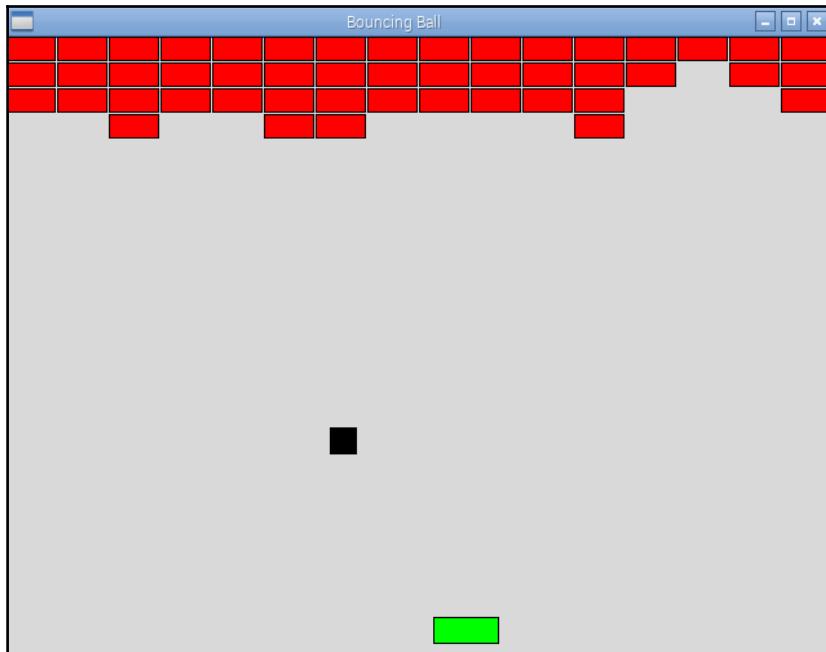
The Python code creates a Tkinter window that contains a `Canvas` object called `the_canvas`. We use the `bind` function here, which will bind a specific event that occurs on this widget (`the_canvas`) to a specific action or key press. In this case, we bind the `<Motion>` function of the mouse, plus the click and release of the first mouse button (`<ButtonPress-1>` and `<ButtonRelease-1>`). Each of these events are then used to call the `mouse1press()`, `mouse1release()`, and `mousemove()` functions.

The logic here is to track the status of the mouse button using the `mouse1press()` and `mouse1release()` functions.

If the mouse button has been clicked, the `mousemove()` function will check to see whether we are drawing a new line (we set new coordinates for this) or continuing an old one (we draw a line from the previous coordinates to the coordinates of the current event that has triggered `mousemove()`). We just need to ensure that we reset to the `newline` command whenever the mouse button is released to reset the start position of the line.

Creating a bat and ball game

A classic bat and ball game can be created using the drawing tools of `canvas` and detecting the collisions of the objects. The user will be able to control the green paddle, using the left and right cursor keys to aim the ball at the bricks and hit them until they have all been destroyed:



A game in progress

Getting ready

This example requires graphical output, so you must have a screen and keyboard attached to the Raspberry Pi, or use X11 forwarding and X server if connected remotely from another computer.

How to do it...

Create the following script, `bouncingball.py`:

1. First, import the `tkinter` and `time` modules, and define constants for the game graphics:

```
#!/usr/bin/python3
# bouncingball.py
import tkinter as TK
import time
```

```
VERT, HOREZ=0,1  
xTOP,yTOP = 0,1  
xBTM,yBTM = 2,3  
MAX_WIDTH,MAX_HEIGHT = 640,480  
xSTART,ySTART = 100,200  
BALL_SIZE=20  
RUNNING=True
```

2. Next, create functions for closing the program, moving the paddle right and left, and for calculating the direction of the ball:

```
def close():  
    global RUNNING  
    RUNNING=False  
    root.destroy()  
  
def move_right(event):  
    if canv.coords(paddle)[xBTM]<(MAX_WIDTH-7):  
        canv.move(paddle, 7, 0)  
  
def move_left(event):  
    if canv.coords(paddle)[xTOP]>7:  
        canv.move(paddle, -7, 0)  
  
def determineDir(ball,obj):  
    global delta_x,delta_y  
    if (ball[xTOP] == obj[xBTM]) or (ball[xBTM] ==  
        obj[xTOP]):  
        delta_x = -delta_x  
    elif (ball[yTOP] == obj[yBTM]) or (ball[yBTM] ==  
        obj[yTOP]):  
        delta_y = -delta_y
```

3. Set up the tkinter window and define the canvas:

```
root = TK.Tk()  
root.title("Bouncing Ball")  
root.geometry('%sx%s+%s+%s' %(MAX_WIDTH, MAX_HEIGHT, 100, 100))  
root.bind('<Right>', move_right)  
root.bind('<Left>', move_left)  
root.protocol('WM_DELETE_WINDOW', close)  
  
canv = TK.Canvas(root, highlightthickness=0)  
canv.pack(fill='both', expand=True)
```

4. Add the borders, ball, and paddle objects to the canvas:

```
top = canv.create_line(0, 0, MAX_WIDTH, 0, fill='blue',
                      tags=('top'))
left = canv.create_line(0, 0, 0, MAX_HEIGHT, fill='blue',
                       tags=('left'))
right = canv.create_line(MAX_WIDTH, 0, MAX_WIDTH, MAX_HEIGHT,
                        fill='blue', tags=('right'))
bottom = canv.create_line(0, MAX_HEIGHT, MAX_WIDTH, MAX_HEIGHT,
                         fill='blue', tags=('bottom'))

ball = canv.create_rectangle(0, 0, BALL_SIZE, BALL_SIZE,
                            outline='black', fill='black',
                            tags=('ball'))
paddle = canv.create_rectangle(100, MAX_HEIGHT - 30, 150, 470,
                               outline='black',
                               fill='green', tags=('rect'))
```

5. Draw all of the bricks and set up the ball and paddle positions:

```
brick=list()
for i in range(0,16):
    for row in range(0,4):
        brick.append(canv.create_rectangle(i*40, row*20,
                                           ((i+1)*40)-2, ((row+1)*20)-2,
                                           outline='black', fill='red',
                                           tags=('rect')))

delta_x = delta_y = 1
xold,yold = xSTART,ySTART
canv.move(ball, xold, yold)
```

6. Create the main loop for the game to check for collisions and handle the movement of the paddle and ball:

```
while RUNNING:
    objects = canv.find_overlapping(canv.coords(ball)[0],
                                    canv.coords(ball)[1],
                                    canv.coords(ball)[2],
                                    canv.coords(ball)[3])

    #Only change the direction once (so will bounce off 1st
    # block even if 2 are hit)
    dir_changed=False
    for obj in objects:
        if (obj != ball):
            if dir_changed==False:
```

```

determineDir(canv.coords(ball), canv.coords(obj))
dir_changed=True
if (obj >= brick[0]) and (obj <= brick[len(brick)-1]):
    canv.delete(obj)
if (obj == bottom):
    text = canv.create_text(300,100,text="YOU HAVE MISSED!")
    canv.coords(ball, (xSTART,ySTART,
                       xSTART+BALL_SIZE,ySTART+BALL_SIZE))
    delta_x = delta_y = 1
    canv.update()
    time.sleep(3)
    canv.delete(text)
new_x, new_y = delta_x, delta_y
canv.move(ball, new_x, new_y)

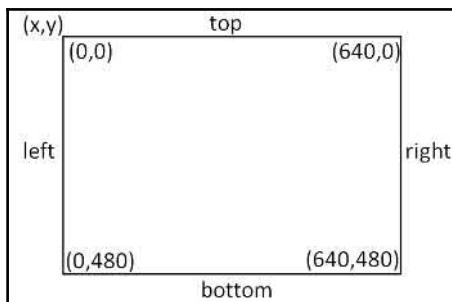
canv.update()
time.sleep(0.005)
#End

```

How it works...

We create a Tkinter application that is 640×480 pixels and bind the `<Right>` and `<Left>` cursor keys to the `move_right()` and `move_left()` functions. We use `root.protocol('WM_DELETE_WINDOW', close)` to detect when the window is closed, so that we can cleanly exit the program (via `close()`, which sets `RUNNING` to `False`).

We then add a Canvas widget that will hold all our objects to the application. We create the following objects: `top`, `left`, `right`, and `bottom`. These make up our bounding sides for our game area. The canvas coordinates are $0, 0$ in the top-left corner and $640, 480$ in the bottom-right corner, so the start and end coordinates can be determined for each side (using `canv.create_line(xStart, yStart, xEnd, yEnd)`):

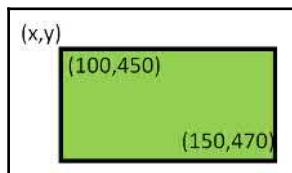


The coordinates of the Canvas widget

You can also add multiple `tags` to the objects; `tags` are often useful for defining specific actions or behaviors of objects. For instance, they allow for different types of events to occur when specific objects or bricks are hit. We will see more uses of `tags` in the next example.

Next, we define the ball and paddle objects, which are added using `canv.create_rectangle()`. This requires two sets of coordinates that define the opposite corners of the image (in this case, the top-left and bottom-right corners).

A Tkinter rectangle is defined by the coordinates of the two corners:



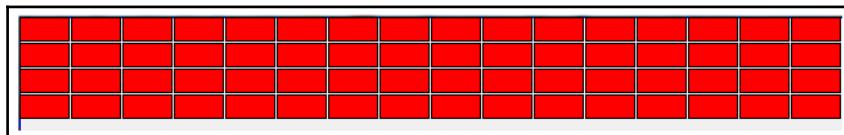
Example of Tkinter rectangle

Finally, we can create the bricks!

We want our bricks to be 40 x 20 pixels wide so that we can fit 16 bricks across our game area of 640 pixels (in four rows). We can create a list of brick objects with their positions defined automatically, as shown in the following code:

```
brick=list()
for i in range(0,16):
    for row in range(0,4):
        brick.append(canv.create_rectangle(i*40, row*20,
                                           ((i+1)*40)-2, ((row+1)*20)-2, outline='black',
                                           fill='red', tags=('rect')))
```

A brick-like effect is provided by making the bricks slightly smaller (-2) to create a small gap:



4 x 16 block of rows

We will now set the default settings before starting the main control loop. The movement of the ball will be governed by `delta_x` and `delta_y`, which are added to or subtracted from the ball's previous position in each cycle.

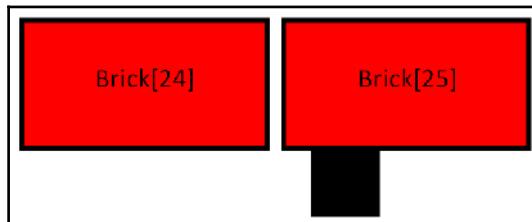
Next, we set the starting position of the ball and use the `canv.move()` function to move the ball by that amount. The `move()` function will add 100 to the `x` and `y` coordinates of the ball object, which was originally created at position 0, 0.

Now that everything is set up, the main loop can run; this will check that the ball has not hit anything (using the `canv.find_overlapping()` function), make any adjustments to the `delta_x` or `delta_y` values, and then apply them to move the ball to the next location.

The sign of `delta_x` and `delta_y` determines the direction of the ball. Positive values will make the ball travel diagonally downwards and towards the right, while `-delta_x` will make it travel towards the left – either downwards or upwards, depending on whether `delta_y` is positive or negative.

After the ball has been moved, we use `canv.update()` to redraw any changes made to the display, and `time.sleep()` allows a small delay before checking and moving the ball again.

Object collisions are detected using the `canv.find_overlapping()` function. This returns a list of `canvas` objects that are found to be overlapping the bounds of a rectangle defined by the supplied coordinates. For example, in the case of the square ball, are any of the coordinates of the `canvas` objects within the space the ball is occupying? See the following:



The objects are checked to detect if they overlap each other

If the ball is found to be overlapping another object, such as the walls, the paddle, or one or more of the bricks, we need to determine which direction the ball should travel in next.

Since we are using the coordinates of the ball as the area within which to check, the ball will always be listed, so that we ignore them when we check the list of objects.

We use the `dir_changed` flag to ensure that if we hit two bricks at the same time, we do not change direction twice before we move the ball. Otherwise, it would cause the ball to continue moving in the same direction, even though it has collided with the bricks.

So, if the ball is overlapping something else, we can call `determineDir()` with the coordinates of the ball and the object to work out what the new direction should be.

When the ball collides with something, we want the ball to bounce off of it; fortunately, this is easy to simulate, as we just need to change the sign of either `delta_x` or `delta_y`, depending on whether we have hit something on the sides or the top/bottom. If the ball hits the bottom of another object, it means that we were traveling upwards and should now travel downwards. However, we will continue to travel in the same direction on the `x` axis (be it left or right, or just up). This can be seen from the following code:

```
if (ball[xTOP] == obj[xBTM]) or (ball[xBTM] == obj[xTOP]):  
    delta_x = -delta_x
```

The `determineDir()` function looks at the coordinates of the ball and the object, and looks for a match between either the left and right `x` coordinates or the top and bottom `y` coordinates. This is enough to say whether the collision is on the sides or top/bottom, and we can set the `delta_x` or `delta_y` signs accordingly, as can be seen in the following code:

```
if (obj >= brick[0]) and (obj <= brick[-1]):  
    canv.delete(obj)
```

Next, we can determine whether we have hit a brick by checking whether the overlapping object ID is between the first and last ID bricks. If it was a brick, we can remove it using `canv.delete()`.



Python allows the index values to wrap around, rather than access the invalid memory, so an index value of `-1` will provide us with the last item in the list. We use this to reference the last brick as `brick [-1]`.

We also check to see whether the object being overlapped is the bottom line (in which case, the player has missed the ball with the paddle), so a short message is briefly displayed. We reset the position of the ball and `delta_x/delta_y` values. The `canv.update()` function ensures that the display is refreshed with the message before it is deleted (three seconds later).

Finally, the ball is moved by the `delta_x/delta_y` distance, and the display is updated. A small delay is added here to reduce the rate of updates and the CPU time used. Otherwise, you will find that your Raspberry Pi will become unresponsive if it is spending 100 percent of its effort running the program.

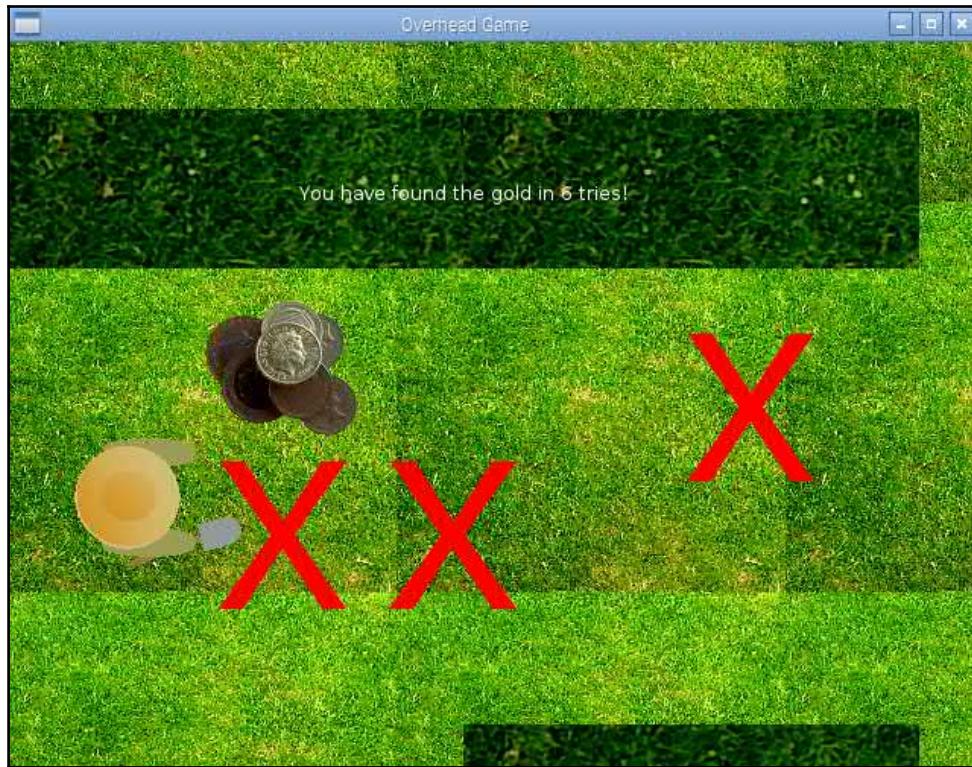
When the user presses the cursor keys, the `move_right()` and `move_left()` functions are called. They check the position of the paddle object, and if the paddle is not at the edge, the paddle will be moved accordingly. If the ball hits the paddle, the collision detection will ensure that the ball bounces off, just as if it has hit one of the bricks.

You can extend this game further by adding a score for each block destroyed, allowing the player a finite number of lives that are lost when they miss the ball, and even writing some code to read in new brick layouts.

Creating an overhead scrolling game

By using objects and images in our programs, we can create many types of 2D graphical games.

In this recipe, we will create a treasure hunt game where the player is trying to find buried treasure (by pressing *Enter* to dig for it). Each time the treasure has not been found, the player is given a clue to how far away the treasure is; the player can then use the cursor keys to move around and search until they find it:



Dig for treasure in your own overhead scrolling game

Although this is a basic concept for a game, it could easily be extended to include multiple layouts, traps, and enemies to avoid, and perhaps even additional tools or puzzles to solve. With a few adjustments to the graphics, the character could be exploring a dungeon, a spaceship, or hopping through the clouds, collecting rainbows!

Getting ready

The following example uses a number of images; these are available as part of the book's resources. You will need to place the nine images in the same directory as the Python script.

The required image files can be seen in the code bundle of this chapter.

How to do it...

Create the following script, scroller.py:

1. Begin by importing the required libraries and parameters:

```
#!/usr/bin/python3
# scroller.py
import tkinter as TK
import time
import math
from random import randint

STEP=7
xVAL,yVAL=0,1
MAX_WIDTH,MAX_HEIGHT=640,480
SPACE_WIDTH=MAX_WIDTH*2
SPACE_HEIGHT=MAX_HEIGHT*2
LEFT,UP,RIGHT,DOWN=0,1,2,3
SPACE_LIMITS=[0,0,SPACE_WIDTH-MAX_WIDTH,
              SPACE_HEIGHT-MAX_HEIGHT]
DIS_LIMITS=[STEP,STEP,MAX_WIDTH-STEP,MAX_HEIGHT-STEP]
BGN_IMG="bg.gif"
PLAYER_IMG=["playerL.gif","playerU.gif",
            "playerR.gif","playerD.gif"]
WALL_IMG=["wallH.gif","wallV.gif"]
GOLD_IMG="gold.gif"
MARK_IMG="mark.gif"
newGame=False
checks=list()
```

2. Provide functions to handle the movements of the player:

```
def move_right(event):
    movePlayer(RIGHT,STEP)
def move_left(event):
    movePlayer(LEFT,-STEP)
def move_up(event):
    movePlayer(UP,-STEP)
def move_down(event):
    movePlayer(DOWN,STEP)

def foundWall(facing,move):
    hitWall=False
    olCoords=[canv.coords(player)[xVAL],
              canv.coords(player)[yVAL],
              canv.coords(player)[xVAL]+PLAYER_SIZE[xVAL],
```

```
        canv.coords(player) [yVAL]+PLAYER_SIZE[yVAL]]
olCoords[facing]+=move
objects = canv.find_overlapping(olCoords[0],olCoords[1],
                                olCoords[2],olCoords[3])
for obj in objects:
    objTags = canv.gettags(obj)
    for tag in objTags:
        if tag == "wall":
            hitWall=True
return hitWall

def moveBackgnd(movement):
    global bg_offset
    bg_offset[xVAL]+=movement[xVAL]
    bg_offset[yVAL]+=movement[yVAL]
    for obj in canv.find_withtag("bg"):
        canv.move(obj, -movement[xVAL], -movement[yVAL])

def makeMove(facing,move):
    if facing == RIGHT or facing == LEFT:
        movement=[move,0] #RIGHT/LEFT
        bgOffset=bg_offset[xVAL]
        playerPos=canv.coords(player) [xVAL]
    else:
        movement=[0,move] #UP/DOWN
        bgOffset=bg_offset[yVAL]
        playerPos=canv.coords(player) [yVAL]
    #Check Bottom/Right Corner
    if facing == RIGHT or facing == DOWN:
        if (playerPos+PLAYER_SIZE[xVAL]) < DIS_LIMITS[facing]:
            canv.move(player, movement[xVAL], movement[yVAL])
        elif bgOffset < SPACE_LIMITS[facing]:
            moveBackgnd(movement)
    else:
        #Check Top/Left Corner
        if (playerPos) > DIS_LIMITS[facing]:
            canv.move(player, movement[xVAL], movement[yVAL])
        elif bgOffset > SPACE_LIMITS[facing]:
            moveBackgnd(movement)

def movePlayer(facing,move):
    hitWall=foundWall(facing,move)
    if hitWall==False:
        makeMove(facing,move)
        canv.itemconfig(player,image=playImg[facing])
```

3. Add functions to check how far the player is from the hidden gold:

```
def check(event):
    global checks,newGame,text
    if newGame:
        for chk in checks:
            canv.delete(chk)
        del checks[:]
        canv.delete(gold,text)
        newGame=False
        hideGold()
    else:
        checks.append(
            canv.create_image(canv.coords(player) [xVAL],
                             canv.coords(player) [yVAL],
                             anchor=TK.NW, image=checkImg,
                             tags=('check','bg')))
        distance=measureTo(checks[-1],gold)
        if(distance<=0):
            canv.itemconfig(gold,state='normal')
            canv.itemconfig(check,state='hidden')
            text = canv.create_text(300,100,fill="white",
                                   text=("You have found the gold in"+
                                         " %d tries!"%len(checks)))
            newGame=True
        else:
            text = canv.create_text(300,100,fill="white",
                                   text=("You are %d steps
away! "%distance))
            canv.update()
            time.sleep(1)
            canv.delete(text)

def measureTo(objectA,objectB):
    deltaX=canv.coords(objectA) [xVAL]-
                    canv.coords(objectB) [xVAL]
    deltaY=canv.coords(objectA) [yVAL]-
                    canv.coords(objectB) [yVAL]
    w_sq=abs(deltaX)**2
    h_sq=abs(deltaY)**2
    hypot=math.sqrt (w_sq+h_sq)
    return round((hypot/5)-20,-1)
```

4. Add functions to help find a location to hide the gold in:

```
def hideGold():
    global gold
    goldPos=findLocationForGold()
    gold=canv.create_image(goldPos[xVAL], goldPos[yVAL],
                           anchor=TK.NW, image=goldImg,
                           tags=('gold','bg'),
                           state='hidden')

def findLocationForGold():
    placeGold=False
    while(placeGold==False):
        goldPos=[randint(0-bg_offset[xVAL],
                         SPACE_WIDTH-GOLD_SIZE[xVAL]-bg_offset[xVAL]),
                 randint(0-bg_offset[yVAL],
                         SPACE_HEIGHT-GOLD_SIZE[yVAL]-bg_offset[yVAL])]
        objects = canv.find_overlapping(goldPos[xVAL],
                                         goldPos[yVAL],
                                         goldPos[xVAL]+GOLD_SIZE[xVAL],
                                         goldPos[yVAL]+GOLD_SIZE[yVAL])
        findNewPlace=False
        for obj in objects:
            objTags = canv.gettags(obj)
            for tag in objTags:
                if (tag == "wall") or (tag == "player"):
                    findNewPlace=True
        if findNewPlace == False:
            placeGold=True
    return goldPos
```

5. Create the Tkinter application window and bind the keyboard events:

```
root = TK.Tk()
root.title("Overhead Game")
root.geometry('%sx%s+%s+%s' %(MAX_WIDTH,
                             MAX_HEIGHT,
                             100, 100))
root.resizable(width=TK.FALSE, height=TK.FALSE)
root.bind('<Right>', move_right)
root.bind('<Left>', move_left)
root.bind('<Up>', move_up)
root.bind('<Down>', move_down)
root.bind('<Return>', check)

canv = TK.Canvas(root, highlightthickness=0)
canv.place(x=0,y=0,width=SPACE_WIDTH,height=SPACE_HEIGHT)
```

6. Initialize all of the game objects (the background tiles, the player, the walls, and the gold):

```
#Create background tiles
bgnImg = TK.PhotoImage(file=BGN_IMG)
BGN_SIZE = bgnImg.width(),bgnImg.height()
background=list()
COLS=int(SPACE_WIDTH/BGN_SIZE[xVAL])+1
ROWS=int(SPACE_HEIGHT/BGN_SIZE[yVAL])+1
for col in range(0,COLS):
    for row in range(0,ROWS):
        background.append(canv.create_image(col*BGN_SIZE[xVAL],
                                              row*BGN_SIZE[yVAL], anchor=TK.NW,
                                              image=bgnImg,
                                              tags=('background','bg')))

bg_offset=[0,0]

#Create player
playImg=list()
for img in PLAYER_IMG:
    playImg.append(TK.PhotoImage(file=img))
#Assume images are all same size/shape
PLAYER_SIZE=playImg[RIGHT].width(),playImg[RIGHT].height()
player = canv.create_image(100,100, anchor=TK.NW,
                           image=playImg[RIGHT],
                           tags=('player'))

#Create walls
wallImg=[TK.PhotoImage(file=WALL_IMG[0]),
          TK.PhotoImage(file=WALL_IMG[1])]
WALL_SIZE=[wallImg[0].width(),wallImg[0].height()]
wallPosH=[(0,WALL_SIZE[xVAL]*1.5),
          (WALL_SIZE[xVAL],WALL_SIZE[xVAL]*1.5),
          (SPACE_WIDTH-WALL_SIZE[xVAL],WALL_SIZE[xVAL]*1.5),
          (WALL_SIZE[xVAL],SPACE_HEIGHT-WALL_SIZE[yVAL])]

wallPosV=[(WALL_SIZE[xVAL],0),(WALL_SIZE[xVAL]*3,0)]
wallPos=[wallPosH,wallPosV]
wall=list()
for i,img in enumerate(WALL_IMG):
    for item in wallPos[i]:
        wall.append(canv.create_image(item[xVAL],item[yVAL],
                                      anchor=TK.NW, image=wallImg[i],
                                      tags=('wall','bg')))

#Place gold
goldImg = TK.PhotoImage(file=GOLD_IMG)
GOLD_SIZE=[goldImg.width(),goldImg.height()]
```

```
hideGold()  
#Check mark  
checkImg = TK.PhotoImage(file=MARK_IMG)
```

7. Finally, start the `mainloop()` command to allow Tkinter to monitor for events:

```
#Wait for actions from user  
root.mainloop()  
#End
```

How it works...

As before, we create a new Tkinter application that contains a `Canvas` widget, so that we can add all of the game objects. We ensure that we bind the right, left, up, down and `Enter` keys, which will be our controls in the game.

First, we place our background image (`bg.gif`) onto the `Canvas` widget. We calculate the number of images we can fit along the length and width to tile the whole canvas space, and locate them using suitable coordinates.

Next, we create the player image (by creating `playImg`, a list of Tkinter image objects for each direction the player can turn in) and place it on the canvas.

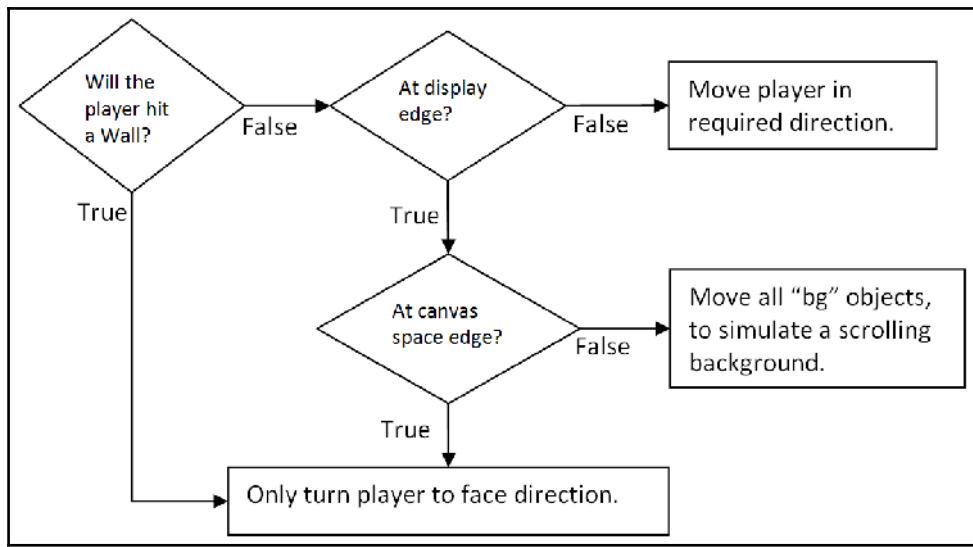
We now create the walls, the positions of which are defined by the `wallPosH` and `wallPosV` lists. These could be defined using the exact coordinates, and perhaps even read from a file to provide an easy method to load different layouts for levels, if required. By iterating through the lists, the horizontal and vertical wall images are put in position on the canvas.

To complete the layout, we just need to hide the gold somewhere. Using the `hideGold()` function, we can randomly determine a suitable place to locate the gold. Within `findLocationForGold()`, we use `randint(0, value)` to create a pseudo-random number (it is not totally random, but good enough for this use) between 0 and `value`. In our case, the value we want is between 0 and the edge of our canvas space, minus the size of the gold image and any `bg_offset` that has been applied to the canvas. This ensures that it is not beyond the edge of the screen. We then check the potential location, using the `find_overlapping()` function to see whether any objects with `wall` or `player` tags are in the way. If so, we pick a new location. Otherwise, we place the gold on the canvas, but with the `state="hidden"` value, which will hide it from view.

We then create `checkImg` (a Tkinter image), and use it while checking for gold to mark the area we have checked. Finally, we just wait for the user to press one of the keys.

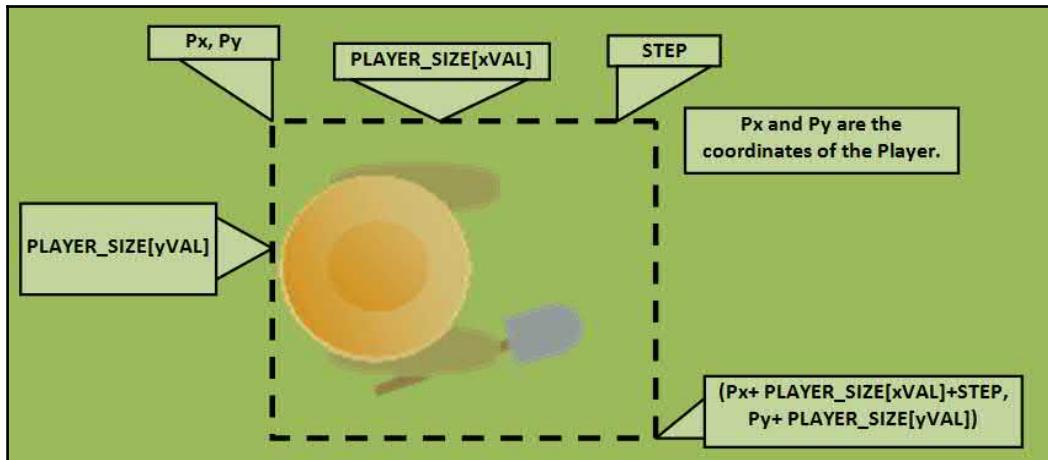
The character will move around the screen whenever one of the cursor keys is pressed. The player's movement is determined by the `movePlayer()` function; it will first check whether the player is trying to move into a wall, then determine (within the `makeMove()` function) if the player is at the edge of the display or canvas space.

Every time a cursor key is pressed, we use the logic shown in the diagram to determine what to do:



Cursor key press action logic

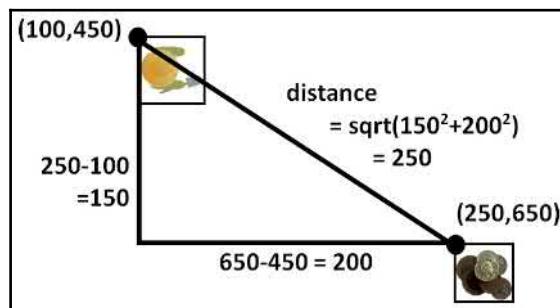
The `foundWall()` function works out whether the player will hit a wall by checking for any objects with `wall` tags within the area being covered by the player image, plus a little extra for the area that the player will be moving to next. The following diagram shows how the `o1Coords` coordinates are determined:



olCoords coordinate determination

The `makeMove()` function checks if the player will be moving to the edge of the display (as defined by `DIS_LIMITS`) and whether they are at the edge of the canvas space (as defined by `SPACE_LIMITS`). Within the display, the player can be moved in the direction of the cursor, or all of the objects tagged with `bg` within the canvas space are moved in the opposite direction, simulating scrolling behind the player. This is done with the `moveBackground()` function.

When the player presses *Enter*, we'll want to check for gold in the current location. Using the `measureTo()` function, the position of the player and the gold are compared (the distance between the x and y coordinates of each is calculated, as shown in the following figure):



Player and gold distance calculation

The result is scaled to provide a rough indication of how far away the player is from the gold. If the distance is greater than zero, we display how far away the player is from the gold and leave a cross to show where we have checked. If the player has found the gold, we display a message saying so and set `newGame` to `True`. The next time the player presses `Enter`, the places marked with a cross are removed, and the gold is relocated to somewhere new.

With the gold hidden again, the player is ready to start over!

6

Detecting Edges and Contours in Images

This chapter presents the following recipes:

- Loading, displaying, and saving images
- Image flipping and scaling
- Erosion and dilation
- Image segmentation
- Blurring and sharpening images
- Detecting edges in images
- Histogram equalization
- Detecting corners in images

Introduction

Image processing plays a vital role in almost all engineering and medical applications to extract and evaluate the region of interest from gray/color images. Image processing methods include pre-processing, feature extraction, and classification. Pre-processing is used to enhance the quality of the image; this includes adaptive thresholding, contrast enhancement, histogram equalization, and edge detection. Feature extraction techniques are used to extract prominent features from images that can later be used for classification.

The procedures to build an image pre-processing scheme are presented in the recipes.

Loading, displaying, and saving images

This section presents how to work on images by means of OpenCV-Python. Furthermore, we discuss how to load, display, and save images.

How to do it...

1. Import the Computer Vision package - cv2:

```
import cv2
```

2. Read the image using the built-in `imread` function:

```
image = cv2.imread('image_1.jpg')
```

3. Display the original image using the built-in `imshow` function:

```
cv2.imshow("Original", image)
```

4. Wait until any key is pressed:

```
cv2.waitKey(0)
```

5. Save the image using the built-in `imwrite` function:

```
cv2.imwrite("Saved Image.jpg", image)
```

6. The command used to execute the Python program `Load_Display_Save.py` is shown here:

```
manju@manju-HP-Notebook:~/Documents$ python Load_Display_Save.py
```

7. The result obtained after executing `Load_Display_Save.py` is shown here:

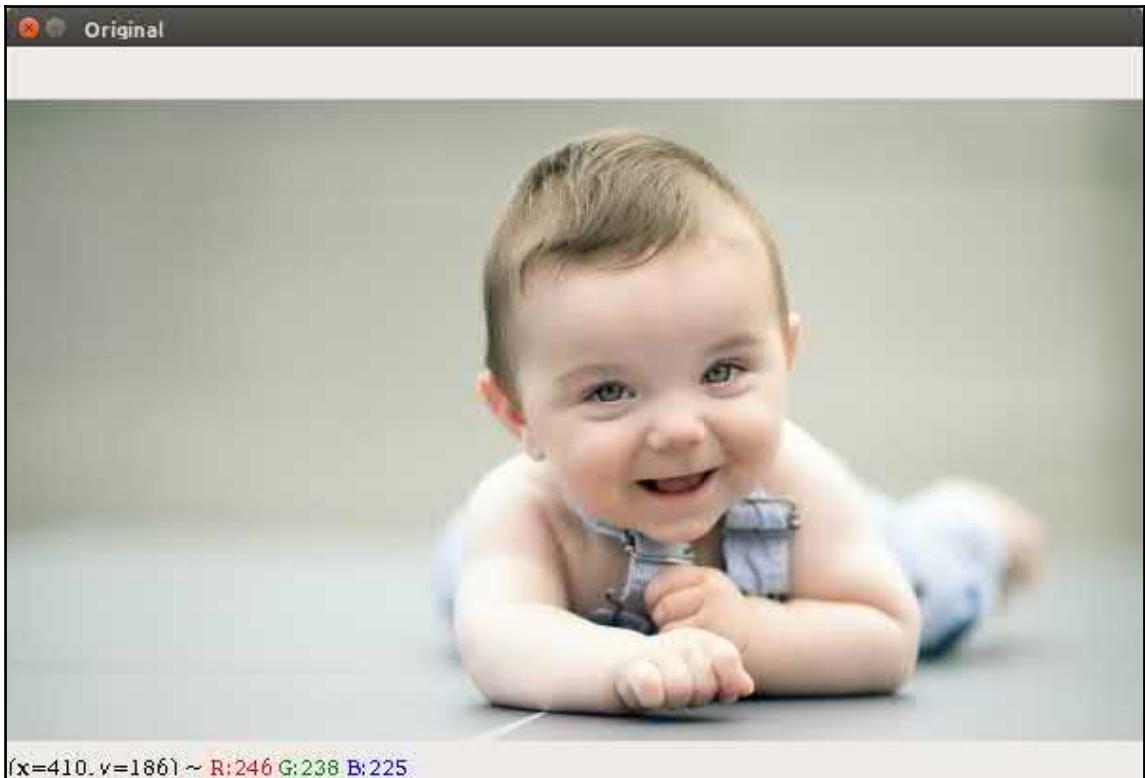


Image flipping

In the image flipping operation, we can flip the input images horizontally, vertically, horizontal, and vertically.

How to do it...

1. Import the Computer Vision package - cv2:

```
import cv2
```

2. Read the image using the built-in imread function:

```
image = cv2.imread('image_2.jpg')
```

3. Display the original image using the built-in `imshow` function:

```
cv2.imshow("Original", image)
```

4. Wait until any key is pressed:

```
cv2.waitKey(0)
```

5. Perform the required operation on the test image:

```
# cv2.flip is used to flip images  
# Horizontal flipping of images using value '1'  
flipping = cv2.flip(image, 1)
```

6. Display the horizontally flipped image:

```
# Display horizontally flipped image  
cv2.imshow("Horizontal Flipping", flipping)
```

7. Wait until any key is pressed:

```
cv2.waitKey(0)
```

8. Perform vertical flipping of input image:

```
# Vertical flipping of images using value '0'  
flipping = cv2.flip(image, 0)
```

9. Display the vertically flipped image:

```
cv2.imshow("Vertical Flipping", flipping)
```

10. Wait until any key is pressed:

```
cv2.waitKey(0)
```

11. Display the processed image:

```
# Horizontal & Vertical flipping of images using value '-1'  
flipping = cv2.flip(image, -1)  
# Display horizontally & vertically flipped image  
cv2.imshow("Horizontal & Vertical Flipping", flipping)  
# Wait until any key is pressed  
cv2.waitKey(0)
```

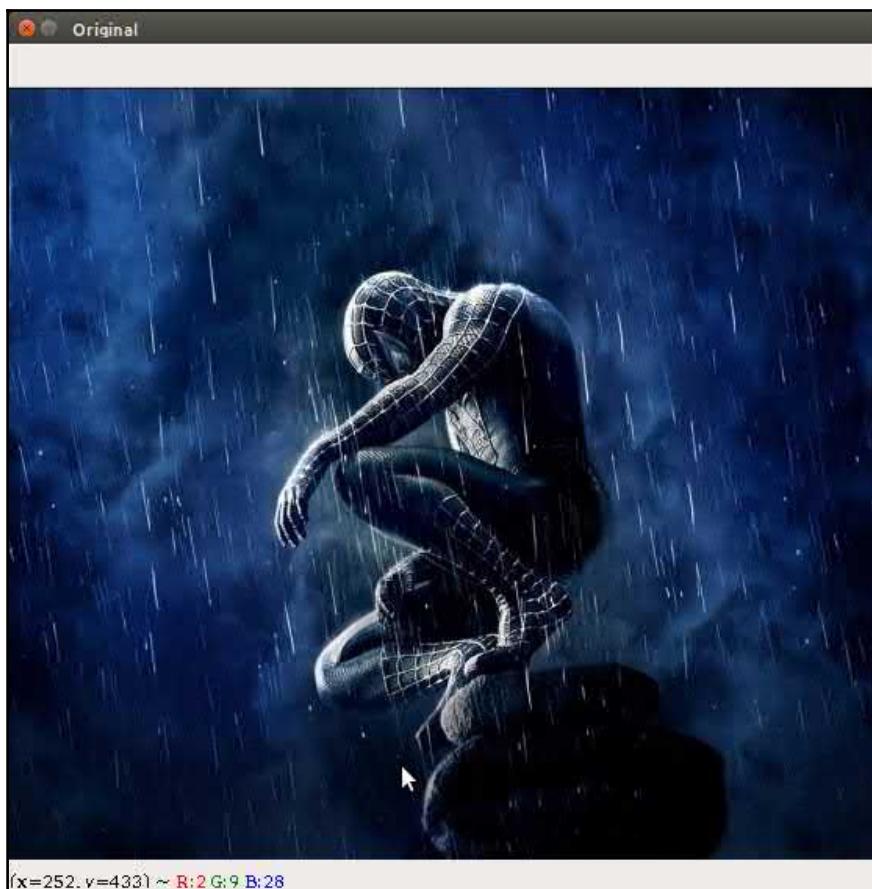
12. Stop the execution and display the result:

```
# Close all windows  
cv2.destroyAllWindows()
```

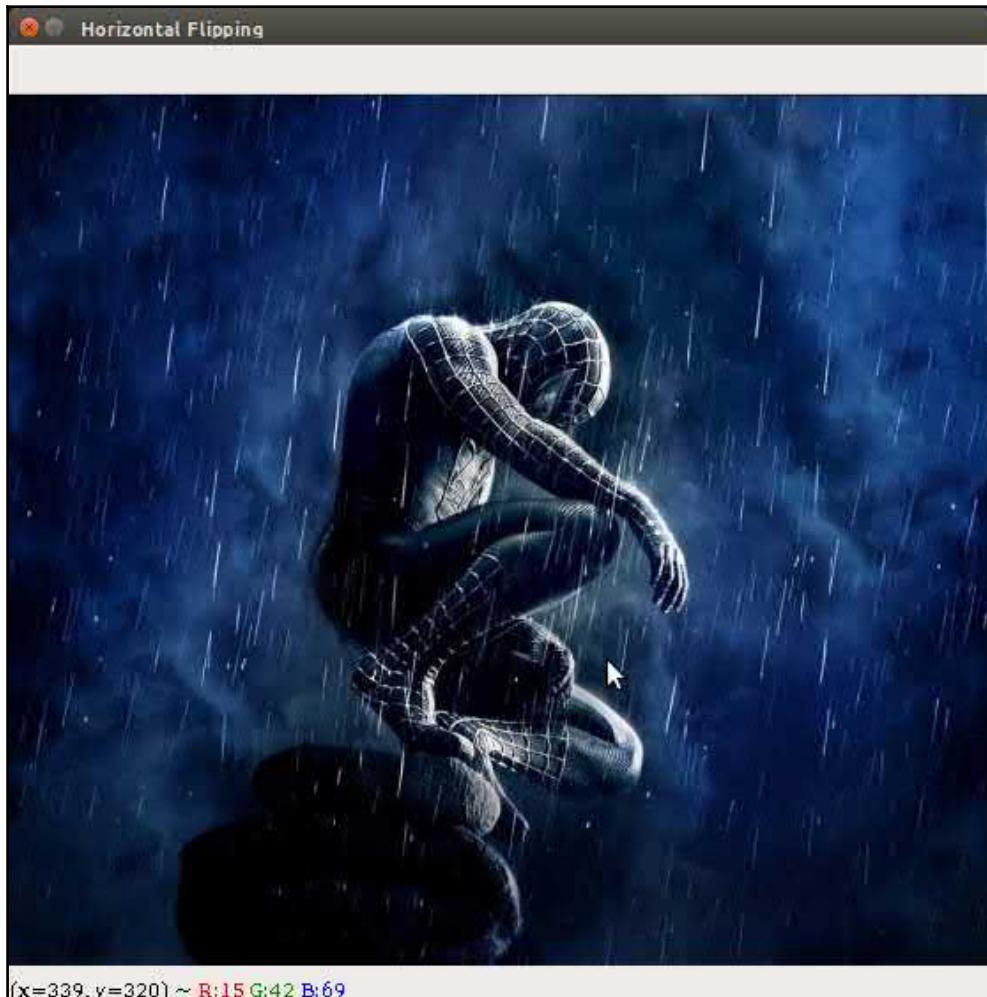
13. The command used to execute the Flipping.py Python program is shown here:

```
manju@manju-HP-Notebook:~/Documents$ python Flipping.py
```

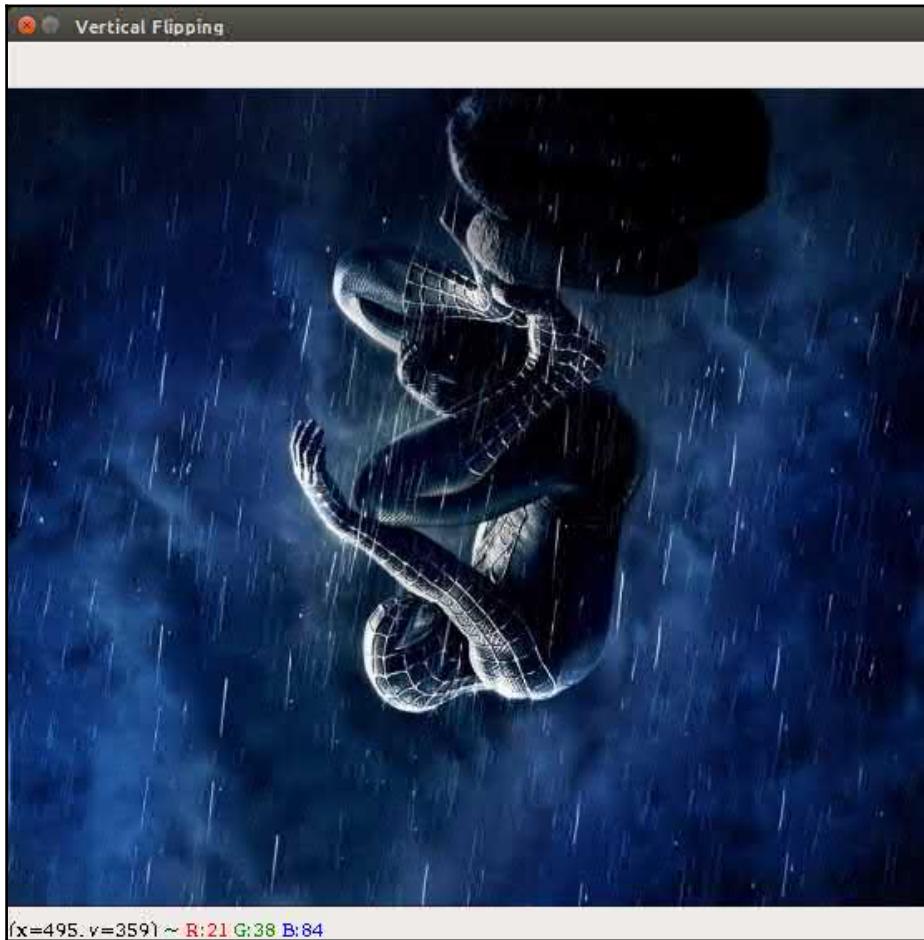
14. The original and horizontally flipped images obtained after executing Flipping.py are shown here:



Following is the horizontally flipped picture:



15. Vertically, and horizontally and vertically, flipped images obtained after executing Flipping.py are shown here:



Following horizontally and vertically flipped picture:

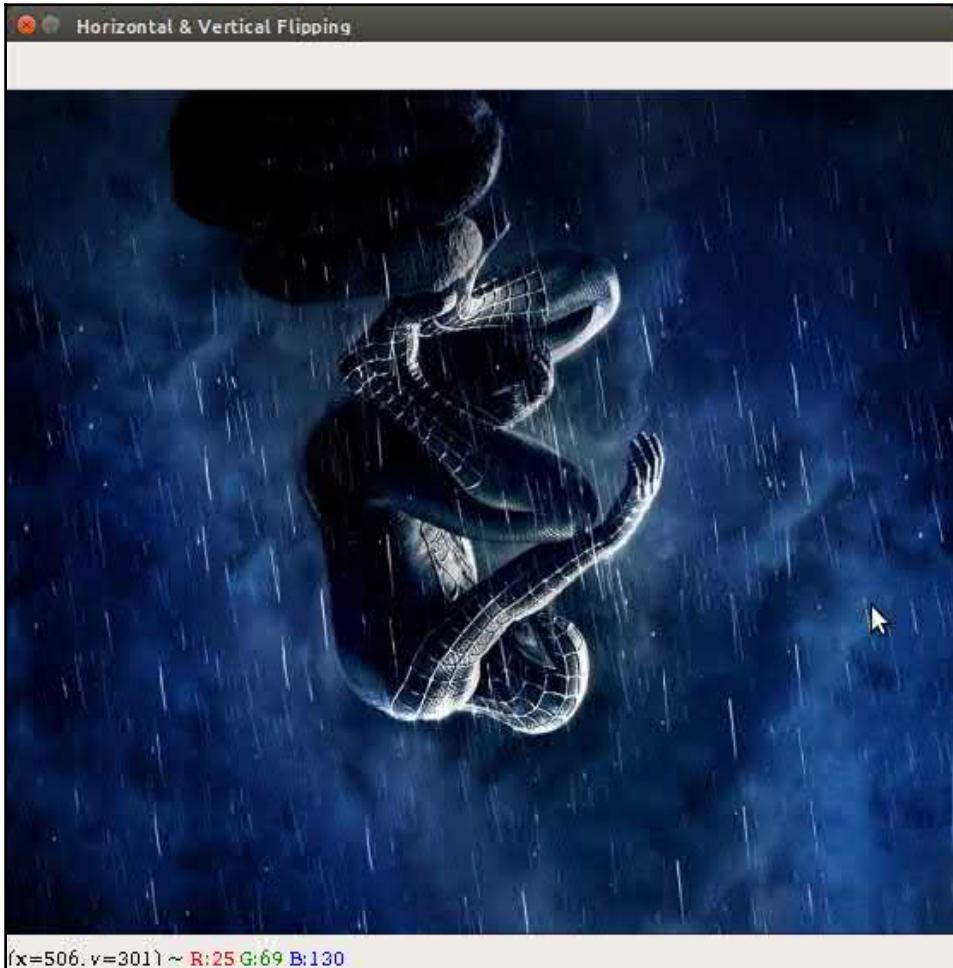


Image scaling

Image scaling is used to modify the dimensions of the input image based on requirements. Three types of scaling operators are commonly used in OpenCV, and they are cubic, area, and linear interpolations.

How to do it...

1. Create a new Python file and import the following packages:

```
# Scaling (Resizing) Images - Cubic, Area, Linear Interpolations
# Interpolation is a method of estimating values between known data
points
# Import Computer Vision package - cv2
import cv2
# Import Numerical Python package - numpy as np
import numpy as np
```

2. Read the image using the built-in `imread` function:

```
image = cv2.imread('image_3.jpg')
```

3. Display the original image using the built-in `imshow` function:

```
cv2.imshow("Original", image)
```

4. Wait until any key is pressed:

```
cv2.waitKey()
```

5. Adjust the image size based on the operator's command:

```
# cv2.resize(image, output image size, x scale, y scale,
interpolation)
```

6. Adjust the image size using cubic interpolation:

```
# Scaling using cubic interpolation
scaling_cubic = cv2.resize(image, None, fx=.75, fy=.75,
interpolation = cv2.INTER_CUBIC)
```

7. Show the output image:

```
# Display cubic interpolated image
cv2.imshow('Cubic Interpolated', scaling_cubic)
```

8. Wait until any key is pressed:

```
cv2.waitKey()
```

9. Adjust the image size using area interpolation:

```
# Scaling using area interpolation
scaling_skewed = cv2.resize(image, (600, 300), interpolation =
cv2.INTER_AREA)
```

10. Show the output image:

```
# Display area interpolated image
cv2.imshow('Area Interpolated', scaling_skewed)
```

11. Wait for the instruction from the operator:

```
# Wait until any key is pressed
cv2.waitKey()
```

12. Adjust the image size using linear interpolation:

```
# Scaling using linear interpolation
scaling_linear = cv2.resize(image, None, fx=0.5, fy=0.5,
interpolation = cv2.INTER_LINEAR)
```

13. Show the output image:

```
# Display linear interpolated image
cv2.imshow('Linear Interpolated', scaling_linear)
```

14. Wait until any key is pressed:

```
cv2.waitKey()
```

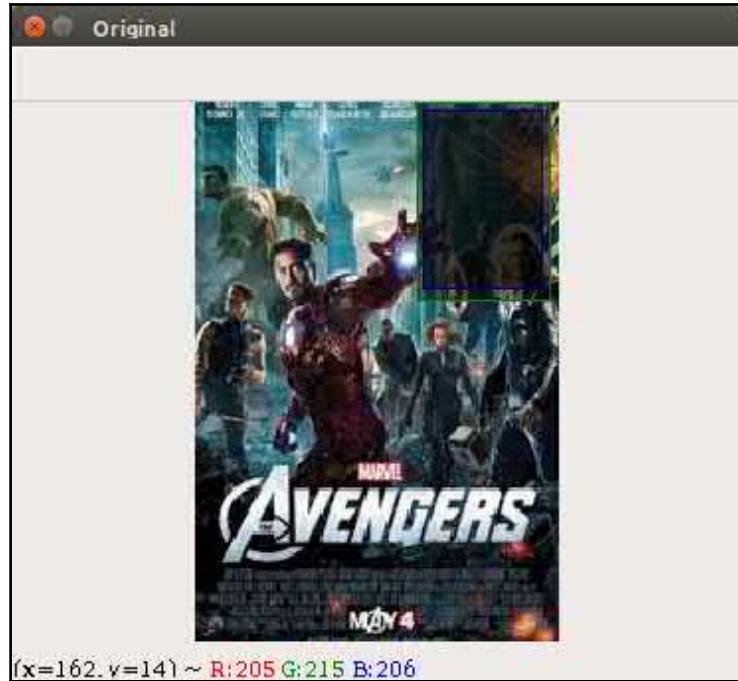
15. After completing the image scaling task, terminate the program execution:

```
# Close all windows
cv2.destroyAllWindows()
```

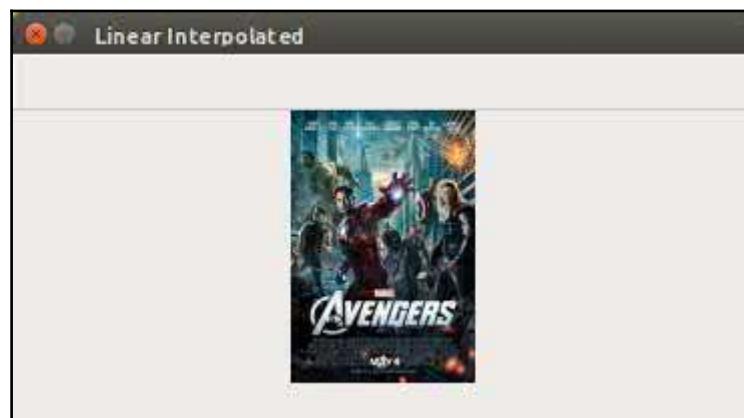
16. The command used to execute the `Scaling.py` Python program is shown here:

```
manju@manju-HP-Notebook:~/Documents$ python Scaling.py
```

17. The original image used for scaling is shown here:



18. Linear interpolated output obtained after executing the `Scaling.py` file is shown here:



19. The area-interpolated output obtained after executing the Scaling.py file is shown here:



20. The cubic-interpolated output obtained after executing the Scaling.py file is shown here:



Erosion and dilation

Erosion and dilation are morphological operations. Erosion removes pixels at the boundaries of objects in an image and dilation adds pixels to the boundaries of objects in an image.

How to do it...

1. Import the Computer Vision package – cv2:

```
import cv2
```

2. Import the numerical Python package – numpy as np:

```
import numpy as np
```

3. Read the image using the built-in imread function:

```
image = cv2.imread('image_4.jpg')
```

4. Display the original image using the built-in `imshow` function:

```
cv2.imshow("Original", image)
```

5. Wait until any key is pressed:

```
cv2.waitKey(0)
```

6. Given shape and type, fill it with ones:

```
# np.ones(shape, dtype)
# 5 x 5 is the dimension of the kernel, uint8: is an unsigned
# integer (0 to 255)
kernel = np.ones((5,5), dtype = "uint8")
```

7. `cv2.erode` is the built-in function used for erosion:

```
# cv2.erode(image, kernel, iterations)
erosion = cv2.erode(image, kernel, iterations = 1)
```

8. Display the image after erosion using the built-in `imshow` function:

```
cv2.imshow("Erosion", erosion)
```

9. Wait until any key is pressed:

```
cv2.waitKey(0)
```

10. `cv2.dilate` is the built-in function used for dilation:

```
# cv2.dilate(image, kernel, iterations)
dilation = cv2.dilate(image, kernel, iterations = 1)
```

11. Display the image after dilation using the built-in `imshow` function:

```
cv2.imshow("Dilation", dilation)
```

12. Wait until any key is pressed:

```
cv2.waitKey(0)
```

13. Close all windows:

```
cv2.destroyAllWindows()
```

14. The command used to execute the `Erosion_Dilation.py` file is shown here:

```
manju@manju-HP-Notebook:~/Documents$ python Erosion_Dilation.py
```

15. The input image used to execute the `Erosion_Dilation.py` file is shown here:



16. The eroded image obtained after executing the `Erosion_Dilation.py` file is shown here:



17. The dilated image obtained after executing the `Erosion_Dilation.py` file is shown here:



Image segmentation

Segmentation is a process of partitioning images into different regions. Contours are lines or curves around the boundary of an object. Image segmentation using contours is discussed in this section.

How to do it...

1. Import the Computer Vision package - cv2:

```
import cv2
# Import Numerical Python package - numpy as np
import numpy as np
```

2. Read the image using the built-in imread function:

```
image = cv2.imread('image_5.jpg')
```

3. Display the original image using the built-in imshow function:

```
cv2.imshow("Original", image)
```

4. Wait until any key is pressed:

```
cv2.waitKey(0)
```

5. Execute the Canny edge detection system:

```
# cv2.Canny is the built-in function used to detect edges
# cv2.Canny(image, threshold_1, threshold_2)
canny = cv2.Canny(image, 50, 200)
```

6. Display the edge detected output image using the built-in imshow function:

```
cv2.imshow("Canny Edge Detection", canny)
```

7. Wait until any key is pressed:

```
cv2.waitKey(0)
```

8. Execute the contour detection system:

```
# cv2.findContours is the built-in function to find contours
# cv2.findContours(canny, contour retrieval mode, contour
approximation mode)
# contour retrieval mode: cv2.RETR_LIST (retrieves all contours)
# contour approximation mode: cv2.CHAIN_APPROX_NONE (stores all
boundary points)
contours, hierarchy = cv2.findContours(canny, cv2.RETR_LIST,
cv2.CHAIN_APPROX_NONE)
```

9. Sketch the contour on the image:

```
# cv2.drawContours is the built-in function to draw contours
# cv2.drawContours(image, contours, index of contours, color,
thickness)
cv2.drawContours(image, contours, -1, (255,0,0), 10)
# index of contours = -1 will draw all the contours
```

10. Show the sketched contour of the image:

```
# Display contours using imshow built-in function
cv2.imshow("Contours", image)
```

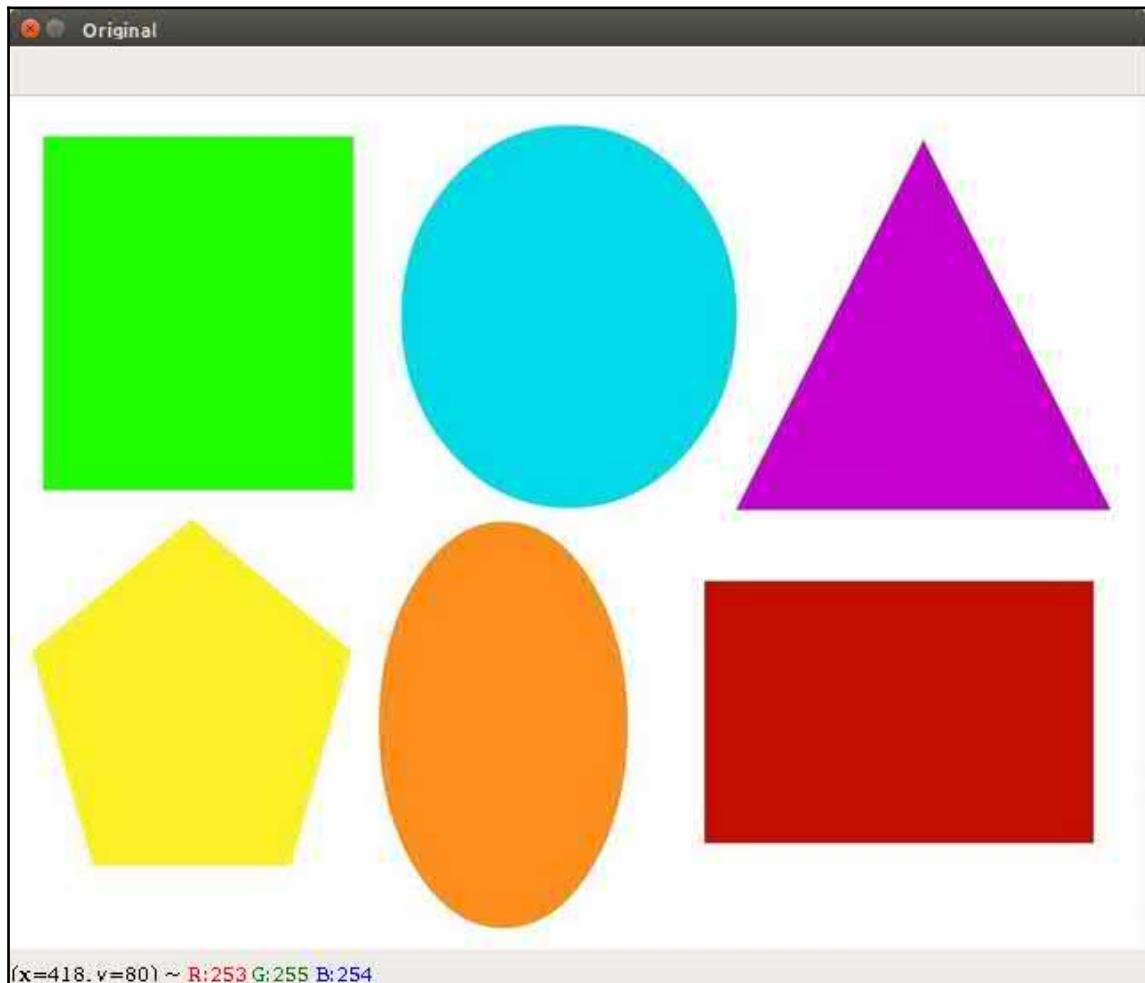
11. Wait until any key is pressed:

```
cv2.waitKey()
```

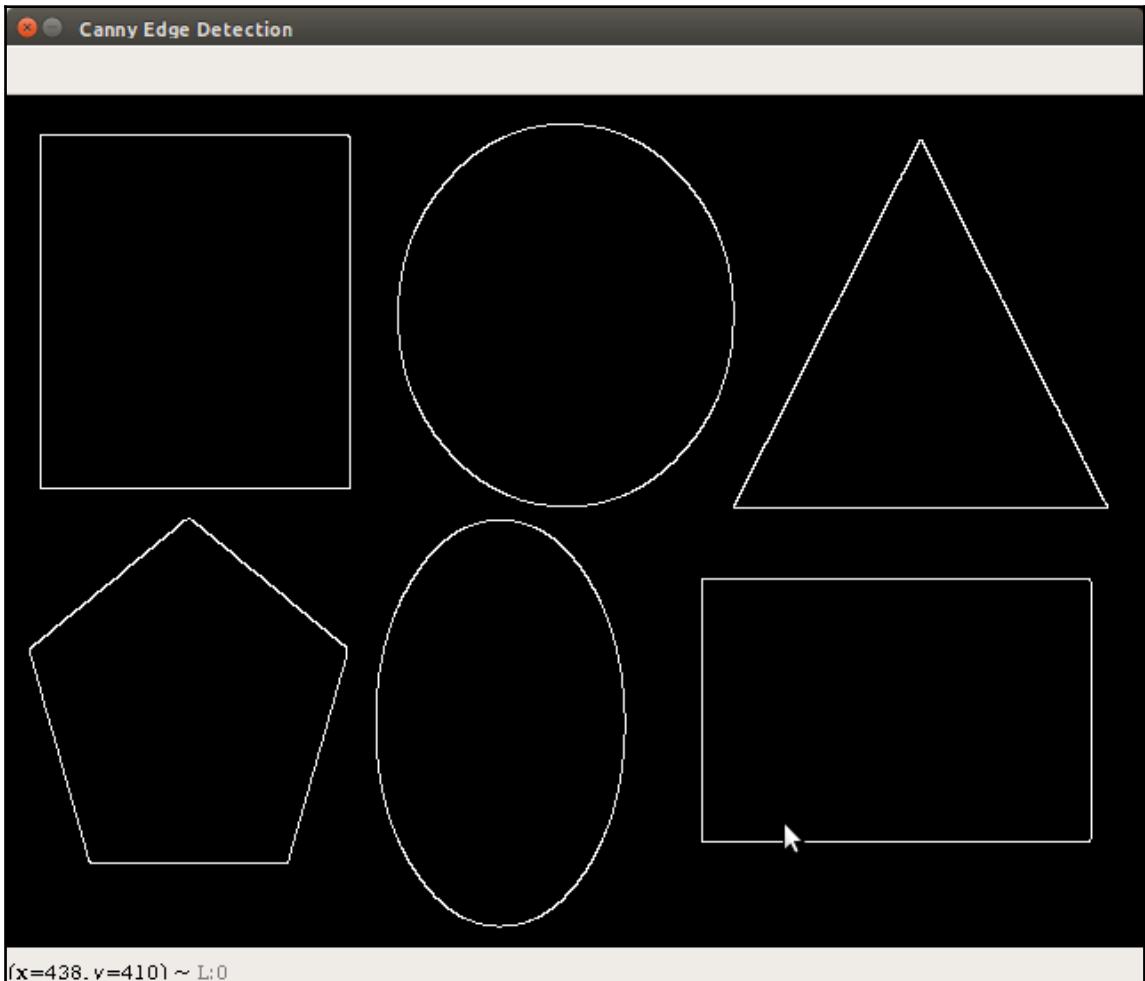
12. Terminate the program and display the result:

```
# Close all windows
cv2.destroyAllWindows()
```

13. The result obtained after executing the `Image_Segmentation.py` file is shown here:



Following is the edge detection output:



Blurring and sharpening images

Blurring and sharpening are image processing operations used to enhance the input images.

How to do it...

1. Import the Computer Vision package - cv2:

```
import cv2
# Import Numerical Python package - numpy as np
import numpy as np
```

2. Read the image using the built-in imread function:

```
image = cv2.imread('image_6.jpg')
```

3. Display the original image using the built-in imshow function:

```
cv2.imshow("Original", image)
```

4. Wait until any key is pressed:

```
cv2.waitKey(0)
```

5. Execute the pixel level action with the blurring operation:

```
# Blurring images: Averaging, cv2.blur built-in function
# Averaging: Convolving image with normalized box filter
# Convolution: Mathematical operation on 2 functions which produces
third function.
# Normalized box filter having size 3 x 3 would be:
# (1/9)  [[1, 1, 1],
#           [1, 1, 1],
#           [1, 1, 1]]
blur = cv2.blur(image, (9,9)) # (9 x 9) filter is used
```

6. Display the blurred image:

```
cv2.imshow('Blurred', blur)
```

7. Wait until any key is pressed:

```
cv2.waitKey(0)
```

8. Execute the pixel level action with the sharpening operation:

```
# Sharpening images: Emphasizes edges in an image
kernel = np.array([[-1,-1,-1],
                  [-1,9,-1],
                  [-1,-1,-1]])
# If we don't normalize to 1, image would be brighter or darker
# respectively
# cv2.filter2D is the built-in function used for sharpening images
# cv2.filter2D(image, ddepth, kernel)
# ddepth = -1, sharpened images will have same depth as original
# image
sharpened = cv2.filter2D(image, -1, kernel)
```

9. Display the sharpened image:

```
cv2.imshow('Sharpened', sharpened)
```

10. Wait until any key is pressed:

```
cv2.waitKey(0)
```

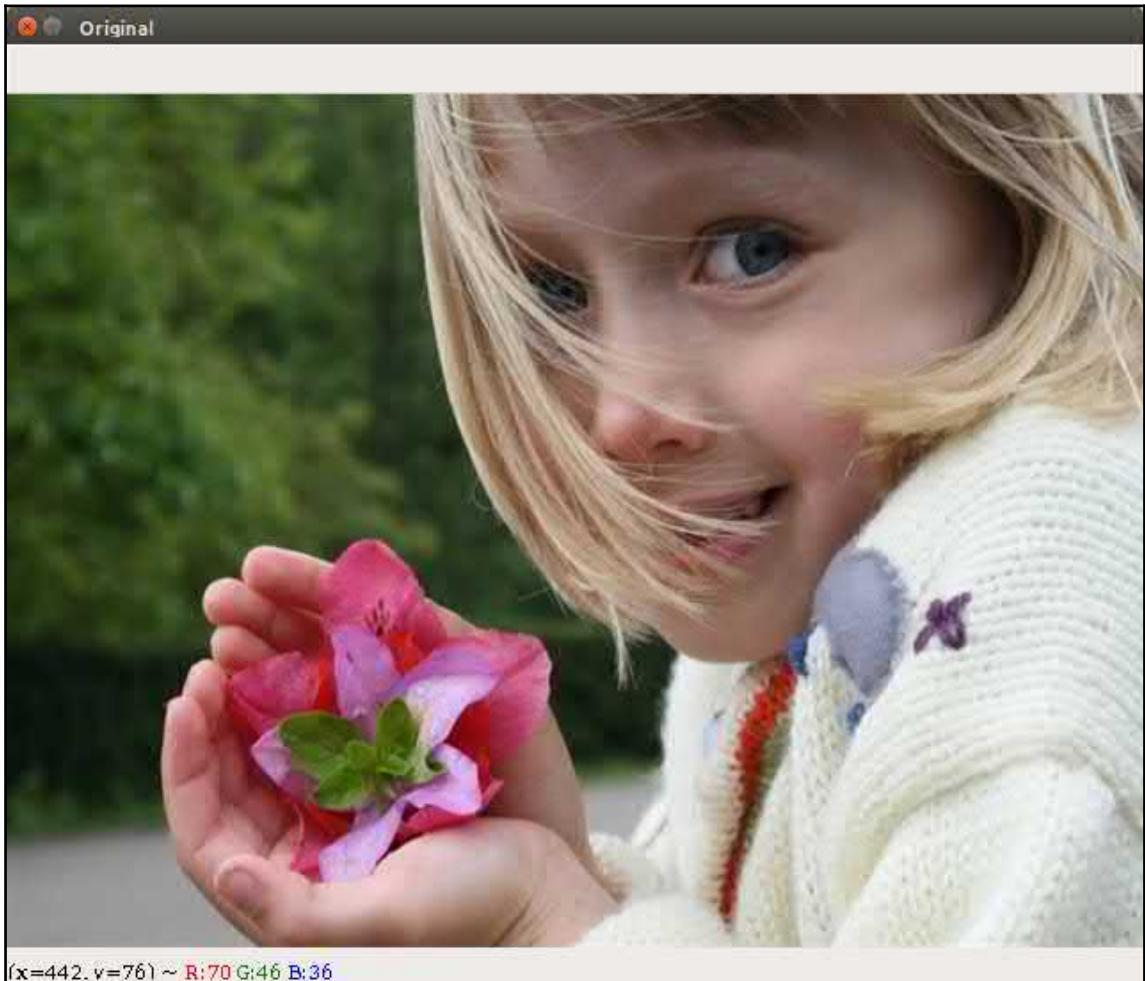
11. Terminate the program execution:

```
# Close all windows
cv2.destroyAllWindows()
```

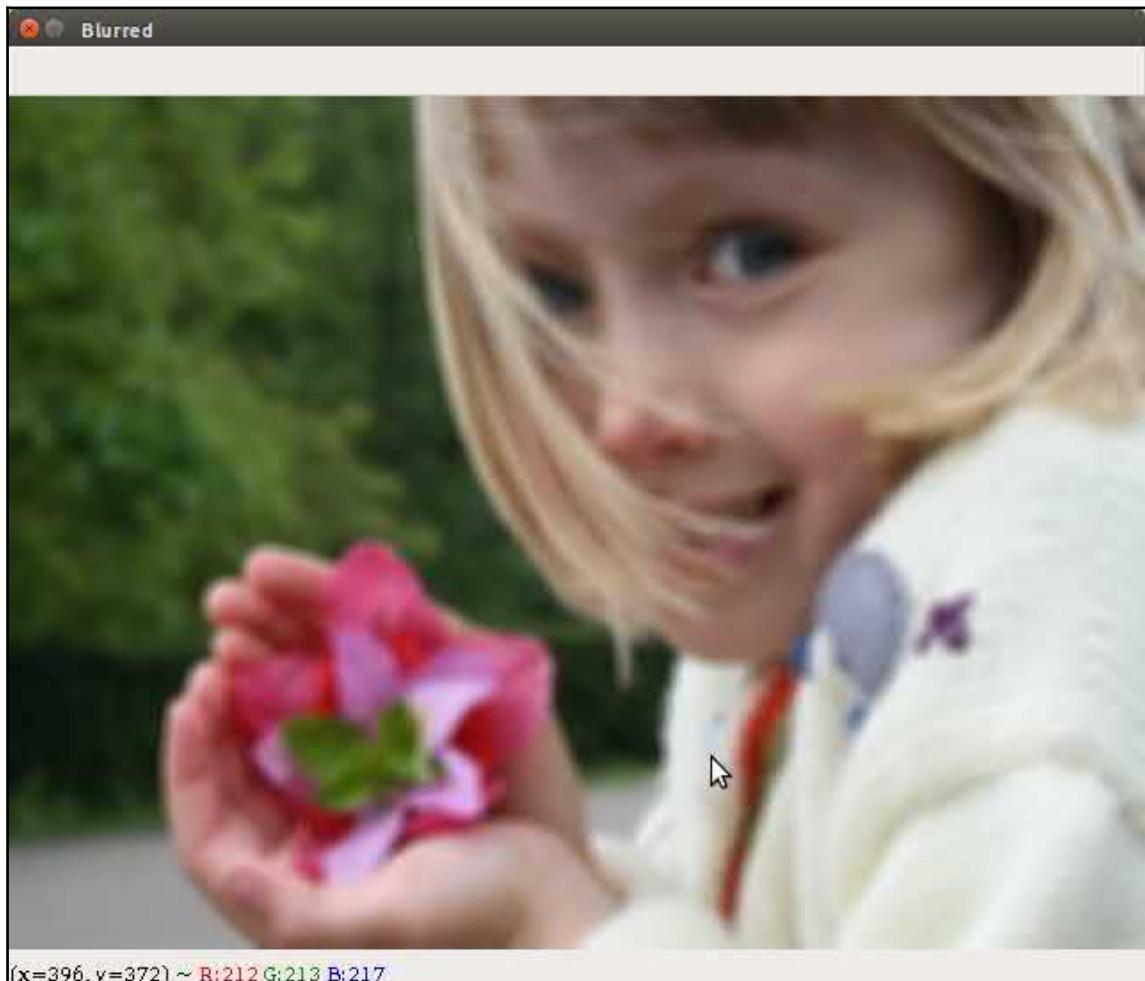
12. The command used to execute the `Blurring_Sharpener.py` Python program file is shown here:

```
manju@manju-HP-Notebook:~/Documents$ python Blurring_Sharpener.py
```

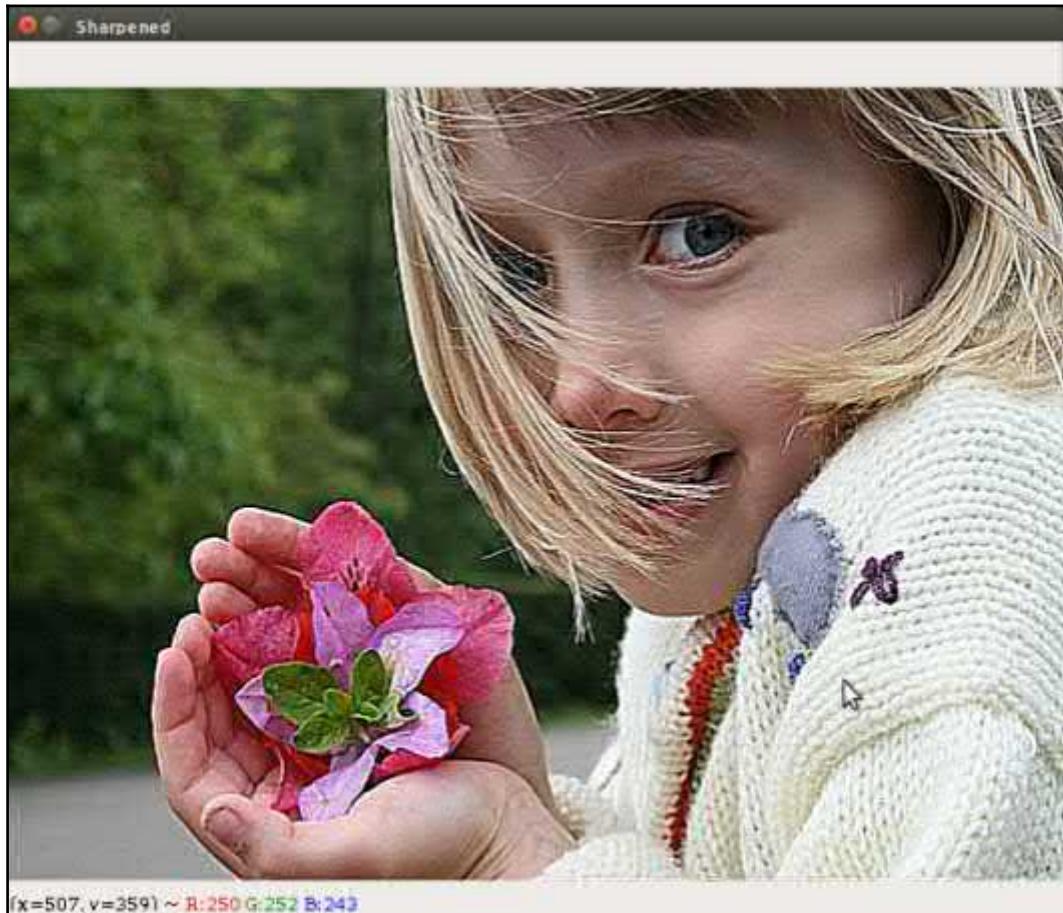
13. The input image used to execute the `Blurring_Sharpening.py` file is shown here:



14. The blurred image obtained after executing the `Blurring_Sharpener.py` file is shown here:



15. The sharpened image obtained after executing the `Blurring_Sharpener.py` file is shown here:



Detecting edges in images

Edge detection is used to detect the borders in images. It provides the details regarding the shape and the region properties. This includes perimeter, major axis size, and minor axis size.

How to do it...

1. Import the necessary packages:

```
import sys
import cv2
import numpy as np
```

2. Read the input image:

```
in_file = sys.argv[1]
image = cv2.imread(in_file, cv2.IMREAD_GRAYSCALE)
```

3. Implement the Sobel edge detection scheme:

```
horizontal_sobel = cv2.Sobel(image, cv2.CV_64F, 1, 0, ksize=5)
vertical_sobel = cv2.Sobel(image, cv2.CV_64F, 0, 1, ksize=5)
laplacian_img = cv2.Laplacian(image, cv2.CV_64F)
canny_img = cv2.Canny(image, 30, 200)
```

4. Display the input image and its corresponding output:

```
cv2.imshow('Original', image)
cv2.imshow('horizontal Sobel', horizontal_sobel)
cv2.imshow('vertical Sobel', vertical_sobel)
cv2.imshow('Laplacian image', laplacian_img)
cv2.imshow('Canny image', canny_img)
```

5. Wait for the instruction from the operator:

```
cv2.waitKey()
```

6. Display the input image and the corresponding results:

```
cv2.imshow('Original', image)
cv2.imshow('horizontal Sobel', horizontal_sobel)
cv2.imshow('vertical Sobel', vertical_sobel)
cv2.imshow('Laplacian image', laplacian_img)
cv2.imshow('Canny image', canny_img)
```

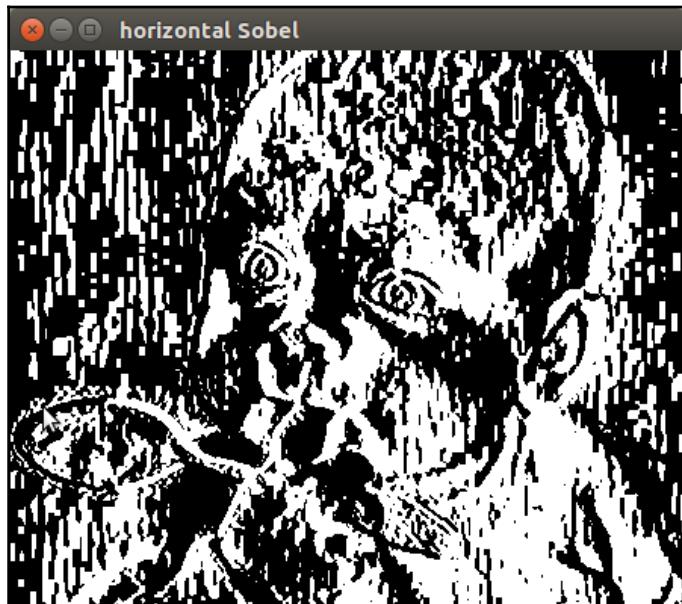
7. Wait for the instruction from the operator:

```
cv2.waitKey()
```

8. The command used to execute the Detecting_edges.py Python program file, along with the input image (baby.jpg), is shown here:

```
manju@manju-HP-Notebook:~/Documents$ python Detecting_edges.py baby.jpg
```

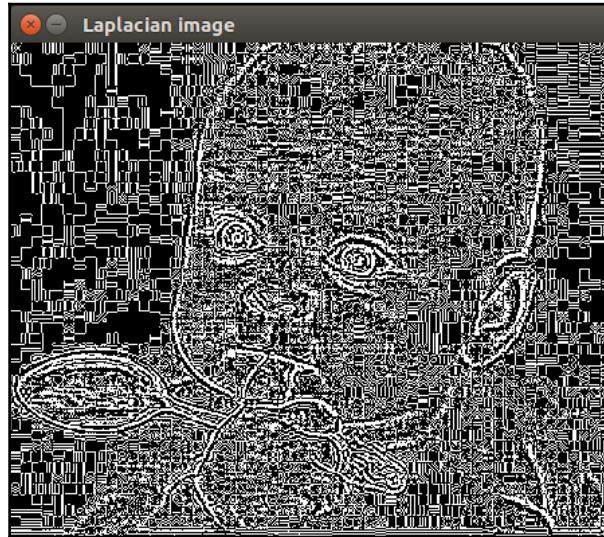
9. The input image and the horizontal Sobel filter output obtained after executing the Detecting_edges.py file is shown here:



10. The vertical Sobel filter output and the Laplacian image output obtained after executing the Detecting_edges.py file is shown here:



Following is the Laplacian image output:



11. The Canny edge detection output obtained after executing the Detecting_edges.py file is shown here:



How it works...

Readers can refer to the following document to learn what edge detection is and its impact on test pictures:

<http://citeseerx.ist.psu.edu/viewdoc/summary?doi=10.1.1.301.927>

See also

Please refer to the following document:

- https://www.tutorialspoint.com/dip/concept_of_edge_detection.htm

Histogram equalization

Histogram equalization is used to enhance the visibility and the contrast of images. It is performed by varying the image intensities. These procedures are clearly described here.

How to do it...

1. Import the necessary packages:

```
import sys
import cv2
import numpy as np
```

2. Load the input image:

```
in_file = sys.argv[1]
image = cv2.imread(in_file)
```

3. Convert the RGB image into grayscale:

```
image_gray = cv2.cvtColor(image, cv2.COLOR_BGR2GRAY)
cv2.imshow('Input grayscale image', image_gray)
```

4. Regulate the histogram of the grayscale image:

```
image_gray_histoeq = cv2.equalizeHist(image_gray)
cv2.imshow('Histogram equalized - grayscale image',
           image_gray_histoeq)
```

5. Regulate the histogram of the RGB image:

```
image_yuv = cv2.cvtColor(image, cv2.COLOR_BGR2YUV)
image_yuv[:, :, 0] = cv2.equalizeHist(image_yuv[:, :, 0])
image_histoeq = cv2.cvtColor(image_yuv, cv2.COLOR_YUV2BGR)
```

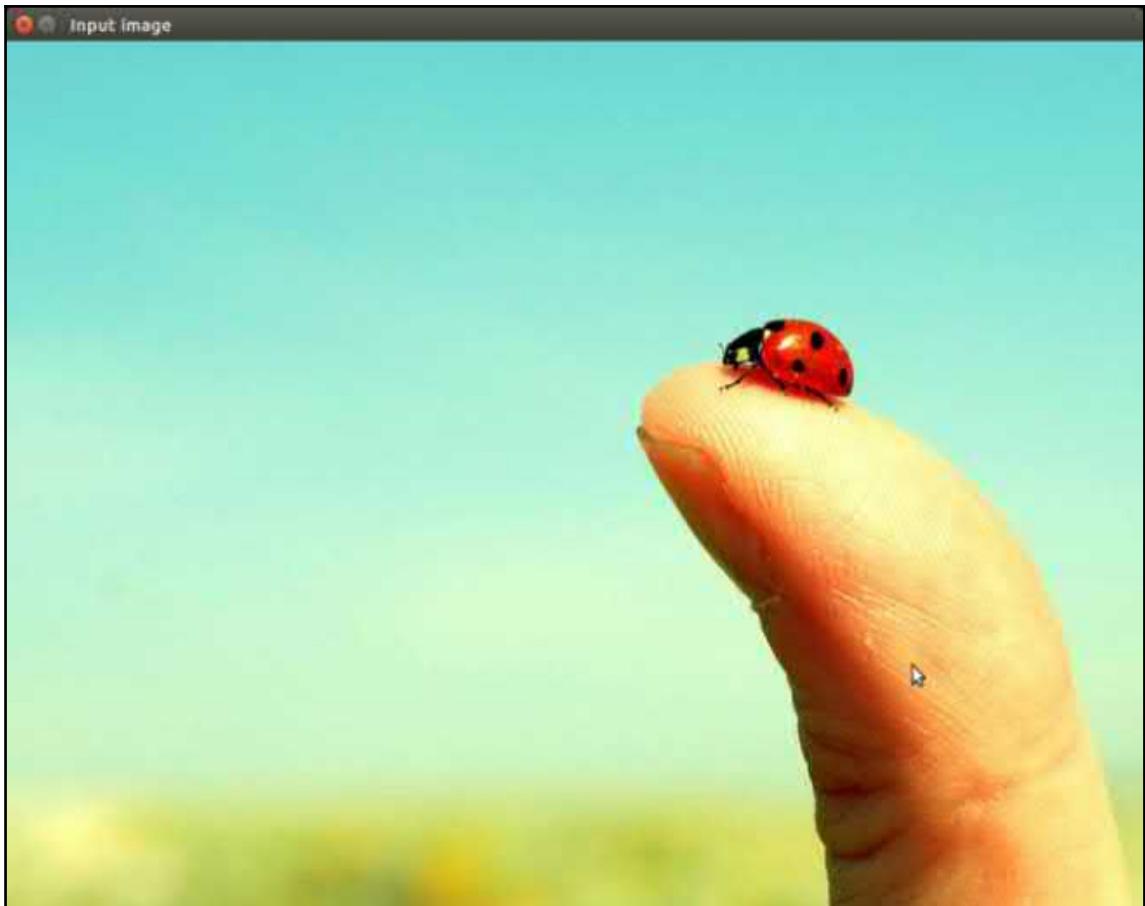
6. Display the output image:

```
cv2.imshow('Input image', image)
cv2.imshow('Histogram equalized - color image', image_histoeq)
cv2.waitKey()
```

7. The command used to execute the `histogram.py` Python program file, along with the input image (`finger.jpg`), is shown here:

```
manju@manju-HP-Notebook:~/Documents$ python histogram.py finger.jpg
```

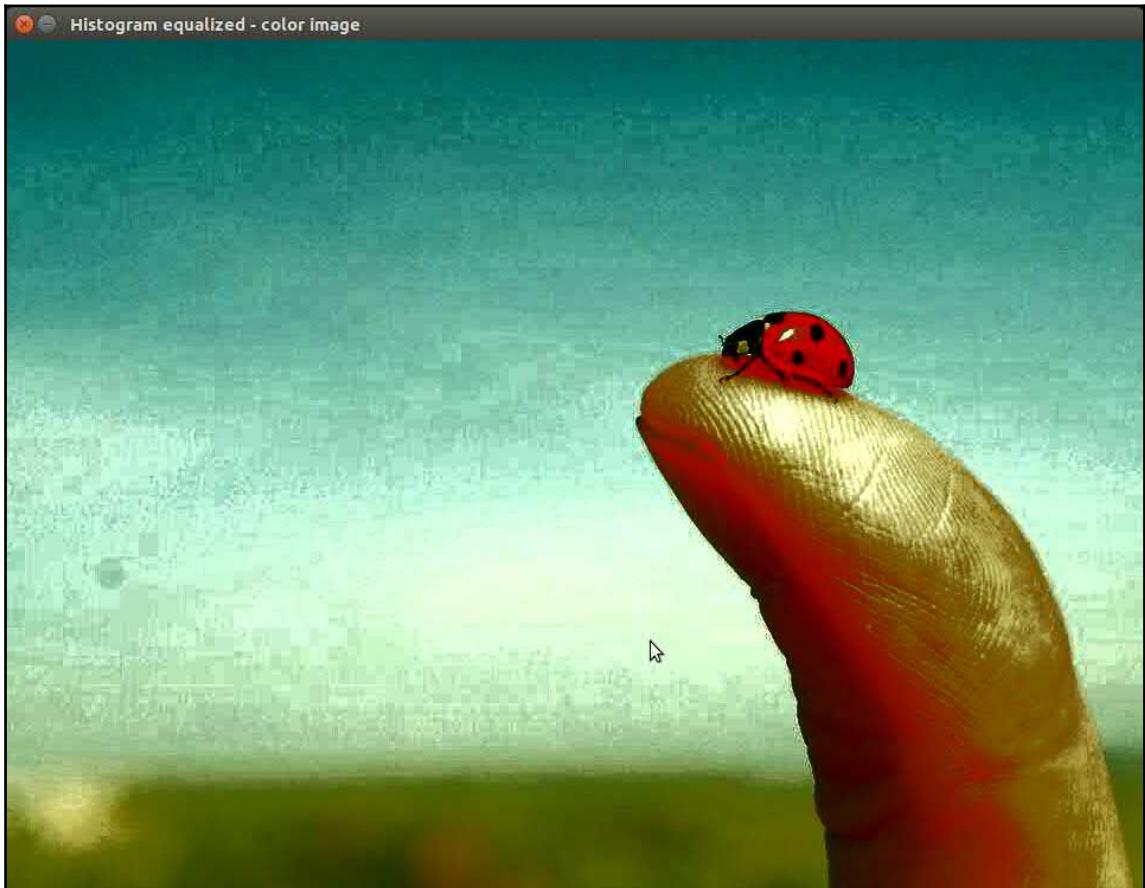
8. The input image used to execute the `histogram.py` file is shown here:



9. The histogram equalized grayscale image obtained after executing the `histogram.py` file is shown here:



10. The histogram equalized color image obtained after executing the `histogram.py` file is shown here:



Detecting corners in images

Corners are borders in images used to extract special features that infer the content of an image. Corner detection is frequently used in image registration, video tracking, image mosaics, motion detection, 3D modelling, panorama stitching, and object recognition.

How to do it...

1. Import the necessary packages:

```
import sys
import cv2
import numpy as np
```

2. Load the input image:

```
in_file = sys.argv[1]
image = cv2.imread(in_file)
cv2.imshow('Input image', image)
image_gray1 = cv2.cvtColor(image, cv2.COLOR_BGR2GRAY)
image_gray2 = np.float32(image_gray1)
```

3. Implement the Harris corner detection scheme:

```
image_harris1 = cv2.cornerHarris(image_gray2, 7, 5, 0.04)
```

4. Dilate the input image and construct the corners:

```
image_harris2 = cv2.dilate(image_harris1, None)
```

5. Implement image thresholding:

```
image[image_harris2 > 0.01 * image_harris2.max()] = [0, 0, 0]
```

6. Display the input image:

```
cv2.imshow('Harris Corners', image)
```

7. Wait for the instruction from the operator:

```
cv2.waitKey()
```

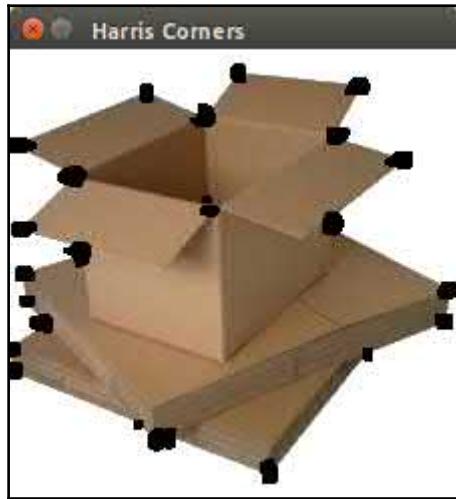
8. The command used to execute the Detecting_corner.py Python program file, along with the input image (box.jpg), is shown here:

```
manju@manju-HP-Notebook:~/Documents$ python Detecting_corner.py box.jpg
```

9. The input image used to execute the `Detecting_corner.py` file is shown here:



10. **Harris Corners** obtained after executing the `Detecting_corner.py` file are shown here:



In order to learn how it works for an input image, refer to the following:

- Image corner detection involves finding the edges/corners in the given picture. It can be used to extract the vital shape features from grayscale and RGB pictures. Refer to this survey paper on edge and corner detection:

[https://pdfs.semanticscholar.org/24dd/
6c2c08f5601e140aad5b9170e0c7485f6648.pdf](https://pdfs.semanticscholar.org/24dd/6c2c08f5601e140aad5b9170e0c7485f6648.pdf).

7

Creating 3D Graphics

In this chapter, we will cover the following topics:

- Getting started with 3D coordinates and vertices
- Creating and importing 3D models
- Creating a 3D world to explore
- Building 3D maps and mazes

Introduction

The chip at the heart of the original Raspberry Pi (a **Broadcom BCM2835** processor) was originally designed to be a **Graphical Processing Unit (GPU)** for mobile and embedded applications. The ARM core that drives most of Raspberry Pi's functionality was added because some extra space was available on the chip; this enabled this powerful GPU to be used as a **System-on-Chip (SoC)** solution.

An SoC is an integrated service microchip with all the necessary electronic circuits and parts of a computer or electronic system, it is used in smartphones or wearable computers, on a single **integrated circuit (IC)**.

As you can imagine, if that original ARM core (**ARM1176JZF-S**, which is the **ARMv6** architecture) consisted of only a small part of the chip on Raspberry Pi, you would be right in thinking that the GPU must perform rather well.



The processor at the heart of Raspberry Pi 3 has been upgraded (to a **Broadcom BCM2837** processor); it now contains four ARM cores (**Cortex A53 ARMv8A**), each of which are more powerful than the original **ARMv6**. Coupled with the same GPU from the previous generation, Raspberry Pi 3 is far better equipped to perform the calculations required to build 3D environments. However, although Raspberry Pi 3 will load the examples faster, once the 3D models are generated, both versions of the chip perform just as well.

The **VideoCore IV GPU** consists of 48 purpose-built processors, with some providing support for 1080p high-definition encoding and decoding of video, while others support **OpenGL ES 2.0**, which provides fast calculations for 3D graphics. It has been said that its graphics processing power is equivalent to that of an Apple iPhone 4S and the original Microsoft Xbox. This is even more apparent if you run **Quake 3** or **OpenArena** on Raspberry Pi (go to <http://www.raspberrypi.org/openarena-for-raspberry-pi> for details).

In this chapter, I hope to show you that while you can achieve a lot by performing operations using the ARM side of Raspberry Pi, if you venture to the side where the GPU is hidden, you may see that there is even more to this little computer than what first appears.

The **pi3d** library created by the **pi3d** team (Patrick Gaunt, Tom Swirly, Tim Skillman, and others) provides a way to put the GPU to work by creating 3D graphics.

The **pi3d** Wiki and documentation pages can be found at the following link: <http://pi3d.github.io/html/index.html>.

The support/development group can be found at the following link: <https://groups.google.com/forum/#!forum/pi3d>.

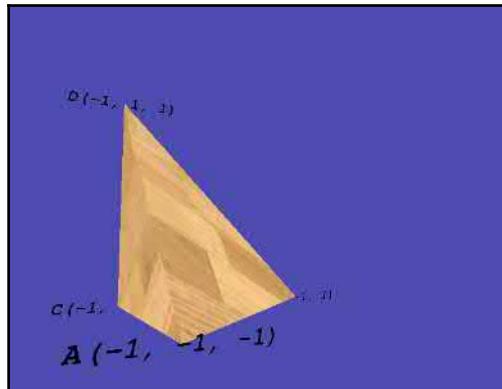
The library contains many features, so it will not be possible to cover everything that is available in the following examples. It is recommended that you also take some time to try out the **pi3d** demos. To discover more options for the creation and handling of the 3D graphics, you can have a look through some of the Python modules which make up the library itself (described in the documentation or the code on GitHub at <https://github.com/pi3d/pi3d.github.com>). It is hoped that this chapter will introduce you to enough concepts to illustrate some of the raw potential available to you.

Getting started with 3D coordinates and vertices

The world around us is three-dimensional, so in order to simulate parts of the world, we can create a 3D representation and display it on our 2D screen.

Raspberry Pi enables us to simulate a 3D space, place 3D objects within it, and observe them from a selected viewpoint. We will use the GPU to produce a representation of the 3D view as a 2D image to display it on the screen.

The following example will show you how we can use `pi3d` (an OpenGL ES library for Raspberry Pi) to place a single 3D object and display it within the 3D space. We will then allow the mouse to rotate the view around the object:



Single 3D object

Getting ready

Raspberry Pi must be directly connected to a display, either via the HDMI or an analog video output. The 3D graphics rendered by the GPU will only be displayed on a local display, even if you are connecting to Raspberry Pi remotely over a network. You will also need to use a locally connected mouse for control (however, keyboard control does work via a SSH connection).

The first time we use `pi3d`, we will need to download and install it via the following steps:

1. The `pi3d` library uses Pillow, a version of the Python Imaging Library that is compatible with Python 3, to import graphics used in models (such as textures and backgrounds).

The installation of Pillow has been covered in the *Getting ready* section of Chapter 3, *Using Python for Automation and Productivity*.

The commands for the installation are shown in the following code (if you've installed them before, it will skip them and continue):

```
sudo apt-get update
sudo apt-get install python3-pip
sudo apt-get install libjpeg-dev
sudo pip-3.2 install pillow
```

2. We can now use pip to install `pi3d` using the following command:

```
sudo pip-3.2 install pi3d
```

The `pi3d` team is continuously developing and improving the library; if you are experiencing problems, it may mean that a new release is not compatible with the previous ones.

You can also check in the Appendix, *Hardware and Software List*, to confirm which version of `pi3d` you have and, if required, install the same version listed. Alternatively, contact the `pi3d` team via the Google group; they will be happy to help!



Obtain `pi3d` demos from the GitHub site, as shown in the following command lines. You will need around 90 MB of free space to download and extract the files:

```
cd ~
wget
https://github.com/pi3d/pi3d_demos/archive/master.zip
unzip master.zip
rm master.zip
```

You will find that the demos have been unpacked to `pi3d_demos-master`.

By default, the demos are expected to be located at `home/pi/pi3d`; therefore, we will rename this directory `pi3d`, as shown in the following command:

```
mv pi3d_demos-master pi3d
```

3. Finally, check the Raspberry Pi memory split. Run `raspi-config` (`sudo raspi-config`) and ensure that your memory split is set to 128. (You should only need to do this if you have changed it in the past, as 128 MB is the default.) This ensures that you have plenty of RAM allocated for the GPU, so it will be able to handle lots of 3D objects if required.
4. Test if everything is working properly. You should now be able to run any of the scripts in the `pi3d_demos-master` directory. See the `pi3d` Wiki pages for details on how they function (<http://pi3d.github.io/html/ReadMe.html>). To get the best performance, it is recommended that the scripts are run from the command prompt (without loading the desktop):

```
cd pi3d
python3 Raspberry_Rain.py
```

The `pi3d.Keyboard` object also supports keyboard control via SSH (see the *Connecting remotely to Raspberry Pi over the network using SSH (and X11 forwarding)* section of Chapter 1, *Getting Started with a Raspberry Pi 3 Computer*).



Configure the setup for your own scripts. Since we will use some of the textures and models from the demos, it is recommended that you create your scripts within the `pi3d` directory. If you have a username that's different from the default Pi account, you will need to adjust `/pi3d/demo.py`. Replace the `USERNAME` part with your own username by editing the file:

```
nano ~/pi3d/demo.py

import sys

sys.path.insert(1, '/home/USERNAME/pi3d')
```

If you want to relocate your files somewhere else, ensure that you add a copy of `demo.py` in the folder with the correct path to any resource files you require.

How to do it...

Create the following 3dObject.py script:

```
#!/usr/bin/python3
"""
Create a 3D space with a Tetrahedron inside and rotate the
view around using the mouse.
"""

from math import sin, cos, radians

import demo
import pi3d

KEY = {'ESC':27, 'NONE':-1}

DISPLAY = pi3d.Display.create(x=50, y=50)
#capture mouse and key presses
mykeys = pi3d.Keyboard()
mymouse = pi3d.Mouse(restrict = False)
mymouse.start()

def main():
    CAMERA = pi3d.Camera.instance()
    tex = pi3d.Texture("textures/stripwood.jpg")
    flatsh = pi3d.Shader("uv_flat")

    #Define the coordinates for our shape (x,y,z)
    A = (-1.0,-1.0,-1.0)
    B = (1.0,-1.0,1.0)
    C = (-1.0,-1.0,1.0)
    D = (-1.0,1.0,1.0)
    ids = ["A", "B", "C", "D"]
    coords = [A,B,C,D]
    myTetra = pi3d.Tetrahedron(x=0.0, y=0.0, z=0.0,
                                corners=(A,B,C,D))
    myTetra.set_draw_details(flatsh,[tex])
    # Load ttf font and set the font to black
    arialFont = pi3d.Font("fonts/FreeMonoBoldOblique.ttf",
                          "#000000")

    mystring = []
    #Create string objects to show the coordinates
    for i,pos in enumerate(coords):
        mystring.append(pi3d.String(font=arialFont,
                                    string=ids[i]+str(pos),
                                    x=pos[0], y=pos[1], z=pos[2])))
    mystring.append(pi3d.String(font=arialFont,
                                string=ids[i]+str(pos),
```

```
        x=pos[0], y=pos[1],z=pos[2], ry=180))
for string in mystring:
    string.set_shader(flatsh)

camRad = 4.0 # radius of camera position
rot = 0.0 # rotation of camera
tilt = 0.0 # tilt of camera
k = KEY['NONE']
omx, omy = mymouse.position()
# main display loop
while DISPLAY.loop_running() and not k == KEY['ESC']:
    k = mykeys.read()
    mx, my = mymouse.position()
    rot -= (mx-omx)*0.8
    tilt += (my-omy)*0.8
    omx = mx
    omy = my

    CAMERA.reset()
    CAMERA.rotate(-tilt, rot, 0)
    CAMERA.position((camRad * sin(radians(rot)) *
                      cos(radians(tilt)),
                      camRad * sin(radians(tilt)),
                      -camRad * cos(radians(rot)) *
                      cos(radians(tilt))))
    #Draw the Tetrahedron
    myTetra.draw()
    for string in mystring:
        string.draw()

try:
    main()
finally:
    mykeys.close()
    mymouse.stop()
    DISPLAY.destroy()
    print("Closed Everything. END")
#End
```

To run the script, use `python3 3dObject.py`.

How it works...

We import the `math` modules (for angle calculations used to control the view based on mouse movements). We also import the `demo` module, which just provides the path to the **shaders** and **textures** in this example.

We start by defining some key elements that will be used by `pi3d` to generate and display our object. The space in which we shall place our object is the `pi3d.Display` object; this defines the size of the space and initializes the screen to generate and display OpenGL ES graphics.

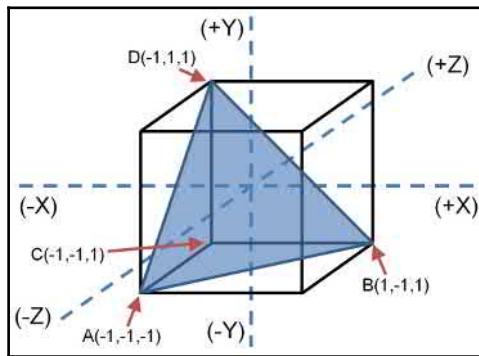
Next, we define a `pi3d.Camera` object, which will allow us to define how we view the object within our space. To render our object, we define a texture to be applied to the surface and a shader that will apply the texture to the object. The shader is used to apply all the effects and lighting to the object, and it is coded to use the GPU's OpenGL ES core instead of the ARM processor.

We define the `keyboard` and `mouse` object using `pi3d.keyboard()` and `pi3d.mouse()` so that we can respond to the keyboard and mouse input. The `restrict` flag of the `mouse` object allows the absolute mouse position to continue past the screen limits (so we can continuously rotate our 3D object). The main loop, when running, will check if the *Esc* key is pressed and will then close everything down (including calling `DISPLAY.destroy()` to release the screen). We use the `try: finally:` method to ensure that the display is closed correctly, even if there is an exception within `main()`.

The mouse movement is collected in the main display loop using `mymouse.position()`, which returns the *x* and *y* coordinates. The difference in the *x* and *y* movement is used to rotate around the object.

The mouse movements determine the position and angle of the camera. Any adjustment to the forward/backward position of the mouse is used to move it over or under the object and change the angle of the camera (using `tilt`) so it remains pointing at the object. Similarly, any sideways movement will move the camera around the object using the `CAMERA.reset()` function. This ensures that the display updates the camera view with the new position, `CAMERA.rotate()`, to change the angle, and uses `CAMERA.position()` to move the camera to a position around the object, `camRad` units away from its center.

We will draw a three-dimensional object called a **tetrahedron**, a shape made up of four triangles to form a pyramid with a triangular base. The four corners of the shape (three around the base and one at the top) will be defined by the three-dimensional coordinates **A**, **B**, **C**, and **D**, as shown in the following diagram:



The tetrahedron placed within the 3D coordinates

The `pi3d.Tetrahedron` object is defined by specifying *x*, *y*, and *z* coordinates of four points to position it in the space and then specify the corners that will be joined to form the four triangles that make up the shape.

Using `set_draw_details(flatsh, [text])`, we apply the shader(s) we wish to use and the texture(s) for the object. In our example, we are just using a single texture, but some shaders can use several textures for complex effects.

To help highlight where the coordinates are, we will add some `pi3d.String` objects by setting the string text to specify the ID and coordinates next to them and placing it at the required location. We will create two string objects for each location, one facing forward and another facing backward (`ry=180` rotates the object by 180 degrees on the *y* axis). The `pi3d.String` objects are single-sided, so if we only had one side facing forward, it wouldn't be visible from behind when the view was rotated and would just disappear (plus, if it was visible, the text would be backwards anyway). Again, we use the `flatsh` shader to render it using the `set_shader()` string object.

All that is left to do now is to draw our tetrahedron and the string objects while checking for any keyboard events. Each time the `while` loop completes, `DISPLAY.loop_running()` is called, which will update the display with any adjustments to the camera as required.

There's more...

In addition to introducing how to draw a basic object within the 3D space, the preceding example makes use of the following four key elements used in 3D graphics programming.

Camera

The camera represents our view in the 3D space; one way to explore and see more of the space is by moving the camera. The `Camera` class is defined as follows:

```
pi3d.Camera.Camera(at=(0, 0, 0), eye=(0, 0, -0.1),
                    lens=None, is_3d=True, scale=1.0)
```

The camera is defined by providing two locations, one to look at (usually the object we wish to see, defined by `at`) and another to look from (the object's position, defined by `eye`). Other features of the camera, such as its field of view (`lens`) and so on, can be adjusted or used with the default settings.



If we didn't define a camera in our display, a default one will be created that points at the origin (the center of the display, that is, $0, 0, 0$), positioned slightly in front of it $(0, 0, -0.1)$.

See the `pi3d` documentation regarding the camera module for more details.

Shaders

Shaders are very useful as they allow a lot of the complex work required to apply textures and lighting to an object by offloading the task to the more powerful GPU in Raspberry Pi. The `Shader` class is defined as follows:

```
class pi3d.Shader.Shader(shfile=None, vshader_source=None,
                           fshader_source=None)
```

This allows you to specify a shader file (`shfile`) and specific vertex and fragment shaders (if required) within the file.

There are several shaders included in the `pi3d` library, some of which allow multiple textures to be used for reflections, close-up details, and transparency effects. The implementation of the shader will determine how the lights and textures are applied to the object (and in some cases, such as `uv_flat`, the shader will ignore any lighting effects).

The shader files are listed in the `pi3dshaders` directory. Try experimenting with different shaders, such as `mat_reflect`, which will ignore the textures/fonts but still apply the lighting effects, or `uv_toon`, which will apply a cartoon effect to the texture.

Each shader consists of two files, `vs` (vertex shader) and `fs` (fragment shader), written in C-like code. They work together to apply the effects to the object as desired. The vertex shader is responsible for mapping the 3D location of the vertices to the 2D display. The fragment shader (sometimes called the pixel shader) is responsible for applying lighting and texture effects to the pixels themselves. The construction and operation of these shaders is well beyond the scope of this chapter, but there are several example shaders that you can compare, change, and experiment with within the `pi3dshaders` directory.

Lights

Lighting is very important in a 3D world; it could range from simple general lighting (as used in our example) to multiple lights angled from different directions providing different strengths and colors. How lights interact with objects and the effects they produce will be determined by the textures and shaders used to render them.

Lights are defined by their direction, their color and brightness, and also by an ambient light to define the background (non-directional) light. The `Light` class is defined as follows:

```
class pi3d.Light (lightpos=(10, -10, 20),
                  lightcol=(1.0, 1.0, 1.0),
                  lightamb=(0.1, 0.1, 0.2))
```

By default, the display will define a light that has the following properties:

- `lightpos=(10, -10, 20)`: This is a light that shines from the front of the space (near the top-left side) down towards the back of the space (towards the right)
- `lightcol=(1.0, 1.0, 1.0)`: This is a bright, white, directional light (the direction is defined in the preceding dimension, and it is the color defined by the RGB values 1.0, 1.0, 1.0)
- `lightamb=(0.1, 0.1, 0.2)`: This is overall a dull, slightly bluish light



Textures

Textures are able to add realism to an object by allowing fine detail to be applied to the object's surface; this could be an image of bricks for a wall or a person's face displayed on the character. When a texture is used by the shader, it can often be rescaled and reflection can be added to it; some shaders even allow you to apply surface detail.



We can apply multiple textures to an object to combine them and produce different effects; it will be up to the shader to determine how they are applied.

Creating and importing 3D models

Creating complex shapes directly from code can often be cumbersome and time-consuming. Fortunately, it is possible to import prebuilt models into your 3D space.

It is even possible to use graphical 3D modeling programs to generate models and then export them as a suitable format for you to use. This example produces a Newell Teapot in the Raspberry Pi theme, as shown in the following screenshot:



Newell Raspberry Pi teapot

Getting ready

We shall use 3D models of a teapot (both `teapot.obj` and `teapot.mdl`) located in `pi3dmodels`.



Modeling a teapot is the traditional 3D equivalent of displaying *Hello World*. Computer graphics researcher Martin Newell first created the Newell Teapot in 1975 as a basic test model for his work. The Newell Teapot soon became the standard model to quickly check if a 3D rendering system was working correctly (it even appeared in *Toy Story* and a 3D episode of *The Simpsons*).

Other models are available in the `pi3dmodels` directory (`monkey.obj`/`mdl`, which has been used later on, is available in the book's resource files).

How to do it...

Create and run the following `3dModel.py` script:

```
#!/usr/bin/python3
""" Wavefront obj model loading. Material properties set in
    mtl file. Uses the import pi3d method to load *everything*
"""
import demo
import pi3d
from math import sin, cos, radians

KEY = {'ESC':27, 'NONE':-1}

# Setup display and initialise pi3d
DISPLAY = pi3d.Display.create()
#capture mouse and key presses
mykeys = pi3d.Keyboard()
mymouse = pi3d.Mouse(restrict = False)
mymouse.start()

def main():
    #Model textures and shaders
    shader = pi3d.Shader("uv_reflect")
    bumptex = pi3d.Texture("textures/floor_nm.jpg")
    shinetex = pi3d.Texture("textures/stars.jpg")
    # load model
    #mymodel = pi3d.Model(file_string='models/teapot.obj', z=10)
    mymodel = pi3d.Model(file_string='models/monkey.obj', z=10)
```

```
mymodel.set_shader(shader)
mymodel.set_normal_shine(bumptex, 4.0, shinetex, 0.5)

#Create environment box
flatsh = pi3d.Shader("uv_flat")
ectex = pi3d.loadECfiles("textures/ecubes","sbox")
mycube = pi3d.EnvironmentCube(size=900.0, maptype="FACES",
                               name="cube")
mycube.set_draw_details(flatsh, ectex)
CAMERA = pi3d.Camera.instance()
rot = 0.0 # rotation of camera
tilt = 0.0 # tilt of camera
k = KEY['NONE']
omx, omy = mymouse.position()
while DISPLAY.loop_running() and not k == KEY['ESC']:
    k = mykeys.read()
    #Rotate camera - camera steered by mouse
    mx, my = mymouse.position()
    rot -= (mx-omx)*0.8
    tilt += (my-omy)*0.8
    omx = mx
    omy = my
    CAMERA.reset()
    CAMERA.rotate(tilt, rot, 0)
    #Rotate object
    mymodel.rotateIncY(2.0)
    mymodel.rotateIncZ(0.1)
    mymodel.rotateIncX(0.3)
    #Draw objects
    mymodel.draw()
    mycube.draw()

try:
    main()
finally:
    mykeys.close()
    mymouse.stop()
    DISPLAY.destroy()
    print("Closed Everything. END")
#End
```

How it works...

Like the `3dObject.py` example, we define the `DISPLAY` shader (this time using `uv_reflect`) and some additional textures—`bumptex` (`floor_nm.jpg`) and `shinetex` (`stars.jpg`)—to use later. We define a model that we want to import, placing it at `z=10` (if no coordinates are given, it will be placed at `(0, 0, 0)`). Since we do not specify a camera position, the default will place it within the view (see the section regarding the camera for more details).

We apply the shader using the `set_shader()` function. Next, we add some textures and effects using `bumptex` as a surface texture (scaled by 4). We apply an extra shiny effect using `shinetex` and apply a reflection strength of 0.5 (the strength ranges from 0.0, the weakest, to 1.0, the strongest) using the `set_normal_shine()` function. If you look closely at the surface of the model, the `bumptex` texture provides additional surface detail and the `shinetex` texture can be seen as the reflection on the surface.

To display our model within something more interesting than a default blue space, we will create an `EnvironmentCube` object. This defines a large space that has a special texture applied to the inside space (in this instance, it will load the `sbox_front/back/bottom/left` and `sbox_right` images from the `texturescubes` directory), so it effectively encloses the objects within. The result is that you get a pleasant backdrop for your object.

Again, we define a default `CAMERA` object with `rot` and `tilt` variables to control the view. Within the `DISPLAY.loop_running()` section, we can control the view of the `CAMERA` object using the mouse and rotate the model on its axis at different rates to let it spin and show all its sides (using the `RotateIncX/Y/Z()` function to specify the rate of rotation). Finally, we ensure that the `DISPLAY` is updated by drawing the model and the environment cube.

There's more...

We can create a wide range of objects to place within our simulated environment. `pi3d` provides methods to import our own models and apply multiple textures to them.

Creating or loading your own objects

If you wish to use your own models in this example, you shall need to create one in the correct format; `pi3d` supports **obj** (wavefront object files) and **egg** (Panda3D).

An excellent, free, 3D modeling program is called **Blender** (available at <http://www.blender.org>). There are lots of examples and tutorials on their website to get you started with basic modeling (<http://www.blender.org/education-help/tutorials>).

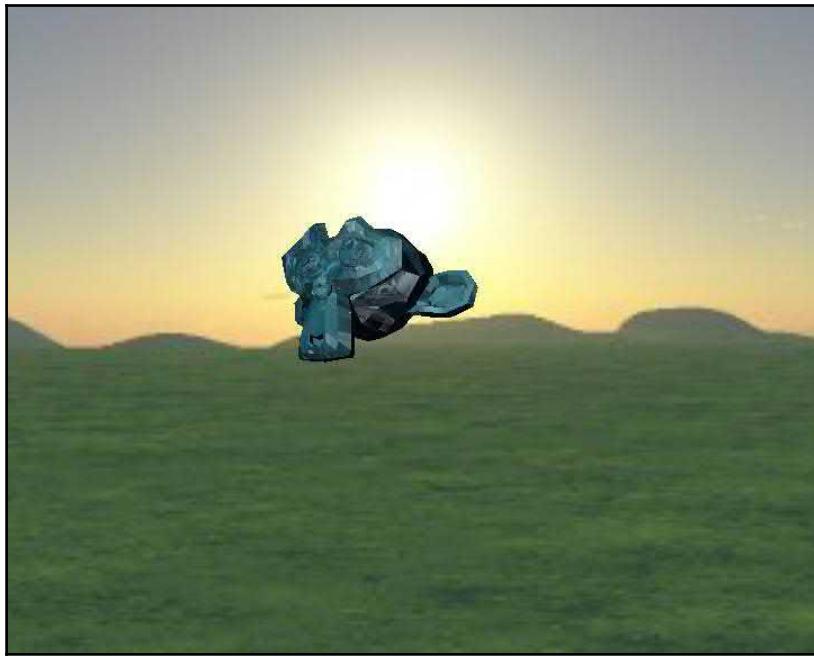
The `pi3d` model support is limited and will not support all the features that Blender can embed in an exported model, for example, deformable meshes. Therefore, only basic multipart models are supported. There are a few steps required to simplify the model so it can be loaded by `pi3d`.

To convert an `.obj` model to use it with `pi3d`, proceed with the following steps:

1. Create or load a model in Blender—try starting with a simple object before attempting more complex models.
2. Select each **Object** and switch to **Edit** mode (press `Tab`).
3. Select all vertices (press `A`) and uv-map them (press `U` and then select **Unwrap**).
4. Return to **Object** mode (press `Tab`).
5. Export it as **obj** – from the **File** menu at the top, select **Export**, and then select **Wavefront (.obj)**. Ensure that **Include Normals** is also checked in the list of options in the bottom-left list.
6. Click on **Save** and place the `.obj` and `.mtl` files in the `pi3dmodels` directory, and ensure that you update the script with the model's filename, as follows:

```
mymodel = pi3d.Model(file_string='models/monkey.obj',
                      name='monkey', z=4)
```

When you run your updated script, you will see your model displayed in the 3D space. For example, the `monkey` `.obj` model is shown in the following screenshot:



A monkey head model created in Blender and displayed by pi3d

Changing the object's textures and .mtl files

The texture that is applied to the surface of the model is contained within the `.mtl` file of the model. This file defines the textures and how they are applied as set by the modeling software. Complex models may contain multiple textures for various parts of the object.

If no material is defined, the first texture in the shader is used (in our example, this is the `bumptex` texture). To add a new texture to the object, add (or edit) the following line in the `.mtl` file (that is, to use `water.jpg`):

```
map_Kd ../../textures/water.jpg
```

More information about `.mtl` files and `.obj` files can be found at the following Wikipedia link: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Wavefront_.obj_file.

Taking screenshots

The `pi3d` library includes a useful screenshot function to capture the screen in a `.jpg` or `.png` file. We can add a new key event to trigger it and call `pi3d.screenshot("filename.jpg")` to save an image (or use a counter to take multiple screenshots), as shown in the following code:

```
shotnum = 0 #Set counter to 0
while DISPLAY.loop_running():

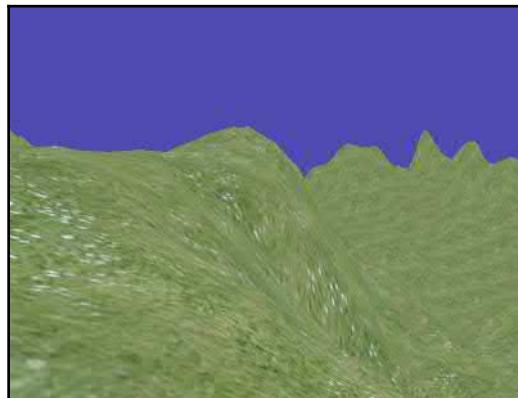
    ...
    if inputs.key_state("KEY_P"):
        while inputs.key_state("KEY_P"):
            inputs.do_input_events()          # wait for key to go up
            pi3d.screenshot("Screenshot%04d.jpg"% ( shotnum ))
            shotnum += 1
    ...

    ...
```

Creating a 3D world to explore

Now that we are able to create models and objects within our 3D space, as well as generate backgrounds, we may want to create a more interesting environment within which to place them.

3D terrain maps provide an elegant way to define very complex landscapes. The terrain is defined using a grayscale image to set the elevation of the land. The following example shows how we can define our own landscape and simulate flying over it, or even walk on its surface:



A 3D landscape generated from a terrain map

Getting ready

You will need to place the `Map.png` file (available in the book resource files) in the `pi3d/textures` directory of the `pi3d` library. Alternatively, you can use one of the elevation maps already present—replace the reference to `Map.png` with another one of the elevation maps, such as `testislands.jpg`.

How to do it...

Create the following `3dWorld.py` script:

```
#!/usr/bin/python3
from __future__ import absolute_import, division
from __future__ import print_function, unicode_literals
""" An example of generating a 3D environment using a elevation map
"""
from math import sin, cos, radians
import demo
import pi3d

KEY = {'R':114, 'S':115, 'T':116, 'W':119, 'ESC':27, 'NONE':-1}

DISPLAY = pi3d.Display.create(x=50, y=50)
#capture mouse and key presses
mykeys = pi3d.Keyboard()
mymouse = pi3d.Mouse(restrict = False)
mymouse.start()

def limit(value,min,max):
    if (value < min):
        value = min
    elif (value > max):
        value = max
    return value

def main():
    CAMERA = pi3d.Camera.instance()
    tex = pi3d.Texture("textures/grass.jpg")
    flatsh = pi3d.Shader("uv_flat")
    # Create elevation map
    mapwidth,mapdepth,mapheight = 200.0,200.0,50.0
    mymap = pi3d.ElevationMap("textures/Map.png",
                               width=mapwidth, depth=mapdepth, height=mapheight,
                               divx=128, divy=128, ntiles=20)
    mymap.set_draw_details(flatsh, [tex], 1.0, 1.0)
```

```
rot = 0.0 # rotation of camera
tilt = 0.0 # tilt of camera
height = 20
viewheight = 4
sky = 200
xm,ym,zm = 0.0,height,0.0
k = KEY['NONE']
omx, omy = mymouse.position()
onGround = False
# main display loop
while DISPLAY.loop_running() and not k == KEY['ESC']:
    CAMERA.reset()
    CAMERA.rotate(-tilt, rot, 0)
    CAMERA.position((xm,ym,zm))
    mymap.draw()
    mx, my = mymouse.position()
    rot -= (mx-omx)*0.8
    tilt += (my-omy)*0.8
    omx = mx
    omy = my

    #Read keyboard keys
    k = mykeys.read()
    if k == KEY['W']:
        xm -= sin(radians(rot))
        zm += cos(radians(rot))
    elif k == KEY['S']:
        xm += sin(radians(rot))
        zm -= cos(radians(rot))
    elif k == KEY['R']:
        ym += 2
        onGround = False
    elif k == KEY['T']:
        ym -= 2
        ym -= 0.1 #Float down!
    #Limit the movement
    xm = limit(xm,-(mapwidth/2),mapwidth/2)
    zm = limit(zm,-(mapdepth/2),mapdepth/2)
    if ym >= sky:
        ym = sky
    #Check onGround
    ground = mymap.calcHeight(xm, zm) + viewheight
    if (onGround == True) or (ym <= ground):
        ym = mymap.calcHeight(xm, zm) + viewheight
        onGround = True

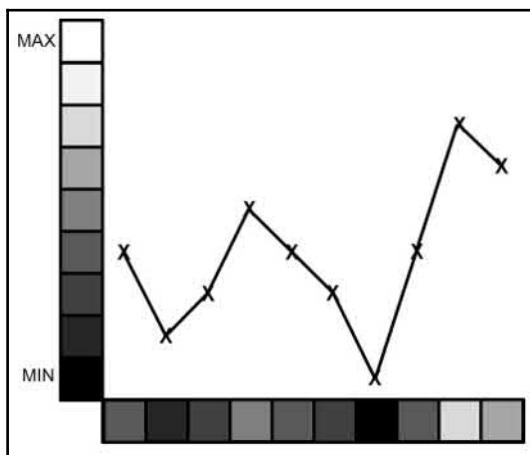
try:
    main()
```

```
finally:  
    mykeys.close()  
    mymouse.stop()  
    DISPLAY.destroy()  
    print ("Closed Everything. END")  
#End
```

How it works...

Once we have defined the display, camera, textures, and shaders that we are going to use, we can define the `ElevationMap` object.

It works by assigning a height to the terrain image based on the pixel value of the selected points of the image. For example, a single line of an image will provide a slice of the `ElevationMap` object and a row of elevation points on the 3D surface:



Mapping the map.png pixel shade to the terrain height

We create an `ElevationMap` object by providing the filename of the image we will use for the gradient information (`textures/Map.png`), and we also create the dimensions of the map (`width`, `depth`, and `height`—which is how high the white spaces will be compared to the black spaces):



ElevationMap object

The `Map.png` texture provides an example terrain map, which is converted into a three-dimensional surface.

We also specify `divx` and `divy`, which determine how much detail of the terrain map is used (how many points from the terrain map are used to create the elevation surface). Finally, `ntiles` specifies that the texture used will be scaled to fit 20 times across the surface.

Within the main `DISPLAY.loop_running()` section, we will control the camera, draw `ElevationMap`, respond to inputs, and limit movements in our space.

As before, we use a `Keyboard` object to capture mouse movements and translate them to control the camera. We will also use `mykeys.read()` to determine if `W`, `S`, `R`, and `T` have been pressed, which allow us to move forward and backwards, as well as rise up and down.

To allow easy conversion between the values returned from the and their equivalent meaning, we will use a Python dictionary:



```
KEY =  
{'R':114, 'S':115, 'T':116, 'W':119, 'ESC':27, 'NONE':-1}
```

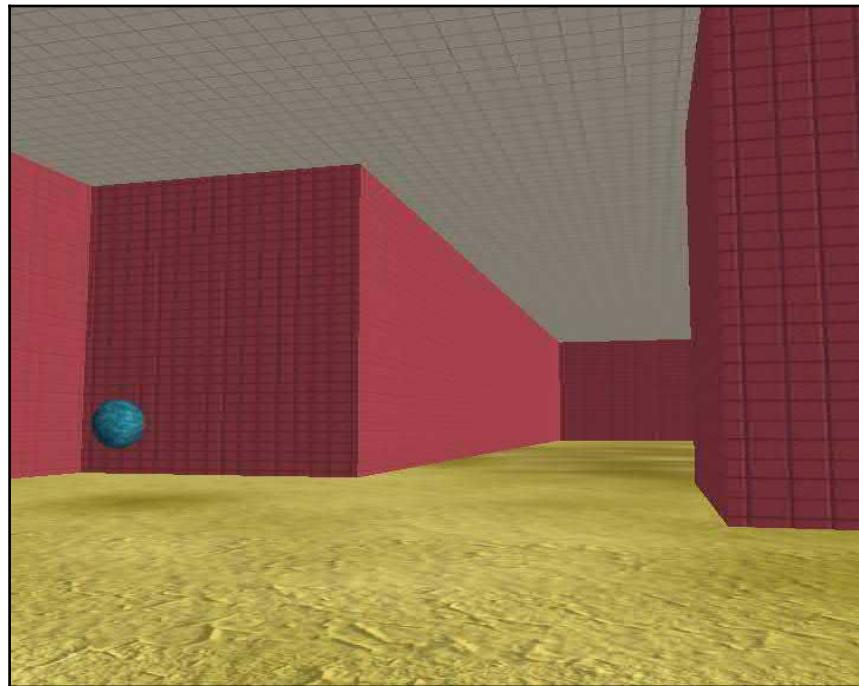
The dictionary provides an easy way to translate between a given value and the resulting string. To access a key's value, we use `KEY['W']`. We also used a dictionary in [Chapter 3, Using Python for Automation and Productivity](#), to translate between the image EXIF tag names and IDs.

To ensure that we do not fall through the surface of the `ElevationMap` object when we move over it, we can use `mymap.calcHeight()` to provide us with the height of the terrain at a specific location (`x, y, z`). We can either follow the ground by ensuring the camera is set to equal this, or fly through the air by just ensuring that we never go below it. When we detect that we are on the ground, we ensure that we remain on the ground until we press `R` to rise again.

Building 3D maps and mazes

We've seen that the `pi3d` library can be used to create lots of interesting objects and environments. Using some of the more complex classes (or by constructing our own), whole custom spaces can be designed for the user to explore.

In the following example, we use a special module called **Building**, which has been designed to allow you to construct a whole building using a single image file to provide the layout:



Exploring the maze and finding the sphere that marks the exit

Getting ready

You will need to ensure that you have the following files in the `pi3d/textures` directory:

- `squareblocksred.png`
- `floor.png`
- `inside_map0.png, inside_map1.png, inside_map2.png`

These files are available as part of the book's resources placed in `Chapter07/resources/resource_filestextures`.

How to do it...

Let's run the following `3dMaze.py` script by performing the following steps:

1. First, we set up the keyboard, mouse, display, and settings for the model using the following code:

```
#!/usr/bin/python3
"""Small maze game, try to find the exit
"""

from math import sin, cos, radians
import demo
import pi3d
from pi3d.shape.Building import Building, SolidObject
from pi3d.shape.Building import Size, Position

KEY = {'A':97,'D':100,'H':104,'R':114,'S':115,'T':116,
       'W':119,'ESC':27,'APOST':39,'SLASH':47,'NONE':-1}

# Setup display and initialise pi3d
DISPLAY = pi3d.Display.create()
#capture mouse and key presses
mykeys = pi3d.Keyboard()
mymouse = pi3d.Mouse(restrict = False)

#Load shader
shader = pi3d.Shader("uv_reflect")
flatsh = pi3d.Shader("uv_flat")
# Load textures
ceilingimg = pi3d.Texture("textures/squareblocks4.png")
wallimg = pi3d.Texture("textures/squareblocksred.png")
floorimg = pi3d.Texture("textures/dunes3_512.jpg")
bumpimg = pi3d.Texture("textures/mudnormal.jpg")
startimg = pi3d.Texture("textures/rock1.jpg")
endimg = pi3d.Texture("textures/water.jpg")
# Create elevation map
mapwidth = 1000.0
mapdepth = 1000.0
#We shall assume we are using a flat floor in this example
mapheight = 0.0
mymap = pi3d.ElevationMap(mapfile="textures/floor.png",
                           width=mapwidth, depth=mapdepth, height=mapheight,
                           divx=64, divy=64)
mymap.set_draw_details(shader,[floorimg, bumpimg],128.0, 0.0)
levelList = ["textures/inside_map0.png","textures/inside_map1.png",
             "textures/inside_map2.png"]
avhgt = 5.0
```

```

aveyelevel = 4.0
MAP_BLOCK = 15.0
aveyeleveladjust = aveyelevel - avhgt/2
PLAYERHEIGHT = (mymap.calcHeight(5, 5) + avhgt/2)
#Start the player in the top-left corner
startpos = [(8*MAP_BLOCK),PLAYERHEIGHT,(8*MAP_BLOCK)]
endpos = [0,PLAYERHEIGHT,0] #Set the end pos in the centre
person = SolidObject("person", Size(1, avhgt, 1),
                      Position(startpos[0],startpos[1],startpos[2]), 1)
#Add spheres for start and end, end must also have a solid object
#so we can detect when we hit it
startobject = pi3d.Sphere(name="start",x=startpos[0],
                           y=startpos[1]+avhgt,z=startpos[2])
startobject.set_draw_details(shader, [startimg, bumpimg],
                             32.0, 0.3)
endobject = pi3d.Sphere(name="end",x=endpos[0],
                        y=endpos[1],z=endpos[2])
endobject.set_draw_details(shader, [endimg, bumpimg], 32.0, 0.3)
endSolid = SolidObject("end", Size(1, avhgt, 1),
                       Position(endpos[0],endpos[1],endpos[2]), 1)

mazeScheme = {"#models": 3,
              (1,None): [[["C",2]]],      #white cell : Ceiling
              (0,1,"edge"): [[["W",1]]],  #white cell on edge next
                                # black cell : Wall
              (1,0,"edge"): [[["W",1]]],  #black cell on edge next
                                # to white cell : Wall
              (0,1):[[["W",0]]]}        #white cell next
                                # to black cell : Wall

details = [[shader, [wallimg], 1.0, 0.0, 4.0, 16.0],
           [shader, [wallimg], 1.0, 0.0, 4.0, 8.0],
           [shader, [ceilingimg], 1.0, 0.0, 4.0, 4.0]]

arialFont = pi3d.Font("fonts/FreeMonoBoldOblique.ttf",
                      "#ffffff", font_size=10)

```

2. We then create functions to allow us to reload the levels and display messages to the player using the following code:

```

def loadLevel(next_level):
    print(">>> Please wait while maze is constructed...")
    next_level=next_level%len(levelList)
    building = pi3d.Building(levelList[next_level], 0, 0, mymap,
                              width=MAP_BLOCK, depth=MAP_BLOCK, height=30.0,
                              name="", draw_details=details, yoff=-15, scheme=mazeScheme)
    return building

```

```
def showMessage(text, rot=0):
    message = pi3d.String(font=arialFont, string=text,
                          x=endpos[0], y=endpos[1]+(avhgt/4),
                          z=endpos[2], sx=0.05, sy=0.05, ry=-rot)
    message.set_shader(flatsh)
    message.draw()
```

3. Within the main function, we set up the 3D environment and draw all of the objects using the following code:

```
def main():
    #Load a level
    level=0
    building = loadLevel(level)
    lights = pi3d.Light(lightpos=(10, -10, 20),
                         lightcol =(0.7, 0.7, 0.7),
                         lightamb=(0.7, 0.7, 0.7))
    rot=0.0
    tilt=0.0
    #capture mouse movements
    mymouse.start()
    omx, omy = mymouse.position()

    CAMERA = pi3d.Camera.instance()
    while DISPLAY.loop_running() and not
          inputs.key_state("KEY_ESC"):
        CAMERA.reset()
        CAMERA.rotate(tilt, rot, 0)
        CAMERA.position((person.x(), person.y(),
                         person.z() - aveyeleveladjust))
        #draw objects
        person.drawAll()
        building.drawAll()
        mymap.draw()
        startobject.draw()
        endobject.draw()
        #Apply the light to all the objects in the building
        for b in building.model:
            b.set_light(lights, 0)
        mymap.set_light(lights, 0)

        #Get mouse position
        mx, my = mymouse.position()
        rot -= (mx-omx)*0.8
        tilt += (my-omy)*0.8
        omx = mx
        omy = my
```

```
xm = person.x()
ym = person.y()
zm = person.z()
```

4. Finally, we monitor for key presses, handle any collisions with objects, and move within the maze as follows:

```
#Read keyboard keys
k = mykeys.read()
if k == KEY['APOST']: #' Key
    tilt -= 2.0
elif k == KEY['SLASH']: #/ Key
    tilt += 2.0
elif k == KEY['A']:
    rot += 2.0
elif k == KEY['D']:
    rot -= 2.0
elif k == KEY['H']:
    #Use point_at as help - will turn the player to face
    # the direction of the end point
    tilt, rot = CAMERA.point_at([endobject.x(), endobject.y(),
                                endobject.z()])
elif k == KEY['W']:
    xm -= sin(radians(rot))
    zm += cos(radians(rot))
elif k == KEY['S']:
    xm += sin(radians(rot))
    zm -= cos(radians(rot))

NewPos = Position(xm, ym, zm)
collisions = person.CollisionList(NewPos)
if collisions:
    #If we reach the end, reset to start position!
    for obj in collisions:
        if obj.name == "end":
            #Required to remove the building walls from the
            # solidobject list
            building.remove_walls()
            showMessage("Loading Level", rot)
            DISPLAY.loop_running()
            level+=1
            building = loadLevel(level)
            showMessage("")
            person.move(Position(startpos[0], startpos[1],
                                startpos[2]))
    else:
        person.move (NewPos)
```

```
try:  
    main()  
finally:  
    mykeys.close()  
    mymouse.stop()  
    DISPLAY.destroy()  
    print("Closed Everything. END")  
#End
```

How it works...

We define many of the elements we used in the preceding examples, such as the display, textures, shaders, font, and lighting. We also define the objects, such as the building itself, the `ElevationMap` object, as well as the start and end points of the maze. We also use `SolidObjects` to help detect movement within the space. See the *Using SolidObjects to detect collisions* subsection in the *There's more...* section of this recipe for more information.

Finally, we create the actual `Building` object based on the selected map image (using the `loadLevel()` function) and locate the camera (which represents our first person viewpoint) at the start. See the *The Building module* subsection in the *There's more...* section of this recipe for more information.

Within the `main` loop, we draw all the objects in our space and apply the lighting effects. We will also monitor for movement in the mouse (to control the tilt and rotation of the camera) or the keyboard to move the player (or exit/provide help).

The controls are as follows:

- **Mouse movement:** This changes the camera tilt and rotation.
- **' or / key:** This changes the camera to tilt either downwards or upwards.
- **A or D:** This changes the camera to rotate from left to right or vice versa.
- **W or S:** This moves the player forwards or backwards.
- **H:** This helps the player by rotating them to face the end of the maze. The useful `CAMERA.point_at()` function is used to quickly rotate and tilt the camera's viewpoint towards the provided coordinates (the end position).

Whenever the player moves, we check if the new position (`NewPos`) collides with another `SolidObject` using `CollisionList(NewPos)`. The function will return a list of any other `SolidObjects` that overlap the coordinates provided.

If there are no SolidObjects in the way, we make the player move; otherwise, we check to see if one of the SolidObject's names is the `end` object, in which case we have reached the end of the maze.

When the player reaches the end, we remove the walls from the old Building object and display a loading message. If we don't remove the walls, all of the SolidObjects belonging to the previous Building will still remain, creating invisible obstacles in the next level.

We will use the `showMessage()` function to inform the user that the next level will be loaded soon (since it can take a while for the building object to be constructed). We need to ensure that we call `DISPLAY.loop_running()` after we draw the message. This ensures it is displayed on the screen before we start loading the level (after which the person will be unable to move while loading takes place). We need to ensure that the message is always facing the player, regardless of which of their sides collides with the `end` object, by using the camera rotation (`rot`) for its angle:



When the exit ball is found, the next level is loaded

When the next level in the list has been loaded (or the first level has been loaded again when all the levels have been completed), we replace the message with a blank one to remove it and reset the person's position back to the start.

You can design and add your own levels by creating additional map files (20 x 20 PNG files with walls marked out with black pixels and walkways in white) and listing them in `levelList`. The player will start at the top-left corner of the map, and the exit is placed at the center.

You will notice that loading the levels can take quite a long time; this is the relatively slow ARM processor in Raspberry Pi performing all the calculations required to construct the maze and locate all the components. As soon as the maze has been built, the more powerful GPU takes over, which results in fast and smooth graphics as the player explores the space.



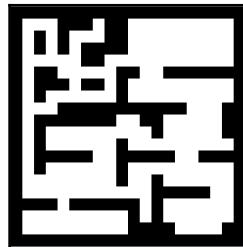
This recipe demonstrates the difference between the original Raspberry Pi processor and Raspberry Pi 2. Raspberry Pi 2 takes around 1 minute 20 seconds to load the first level, while the original Raspberry Pi can take up to 4 minutes 20 seconds. Raspberry Pi 3 takes a stunning 4 seconds to load the same level.

There's more...

The preceding example creates a building for the player to explore and interact with. In order to achieve this, we use the `Building` module of `pi3d` to create a building and use `SolidObject` to detect collisions.

The Building module

The `pi3d.Building` module allows you to define a whole level or floor of a building using map files. Like the terrain maps used in the preceding example, the color of the pixels will be converted into different parts of the level. In our case, black is for the walls and white is used for the passages and halls, complete with ceilings:



The building layout is defined by the pixels in the image

The sections built by the `Building` object are defined by the Scheme used. The Scheme is defined by two sections, by the number of models, and then by the definitions for various aspects of the model, as seen in the following code:

```
mazeScheme = {"#models": 3,
(1,None): [[["C",2]]],           #white cell : Ceiling
(0,1,"edge"): [[["W",1]]],       #white cell on edge by black cell : Wall
(1,0,"edge"): [[["W",1]]],       #black cell on edge by white cell : Wall
(0,1):[[["W",0]]]}             #white cell next to black cell : Wall
```

The first **tuple** defines the type of cell/square that the selected model should be applied to. Since there are two pixel colors in the map, the squares will either be black (0) or white (1). By determining the position and type of a particular cell/square, we can define which models (wall, ceiling, or roof) we want to apply.

We can define three main types of cell/square location:

- **A whole square (1, None):** This is a white cell representing open space in the building.
- **One cell bordering another, on the edge (0,1,"edge"):** This is a black cell next to a white one on the map edge. This also includes `(1, 0, "edge")`. This will represent the outer wall of the building.
- **Any black cell that is next to a white cell (0,1):** This will represent all of the internal walls of the building.

Next, we allocate a type of object(s) to be applied for that type (`W` or `C`):

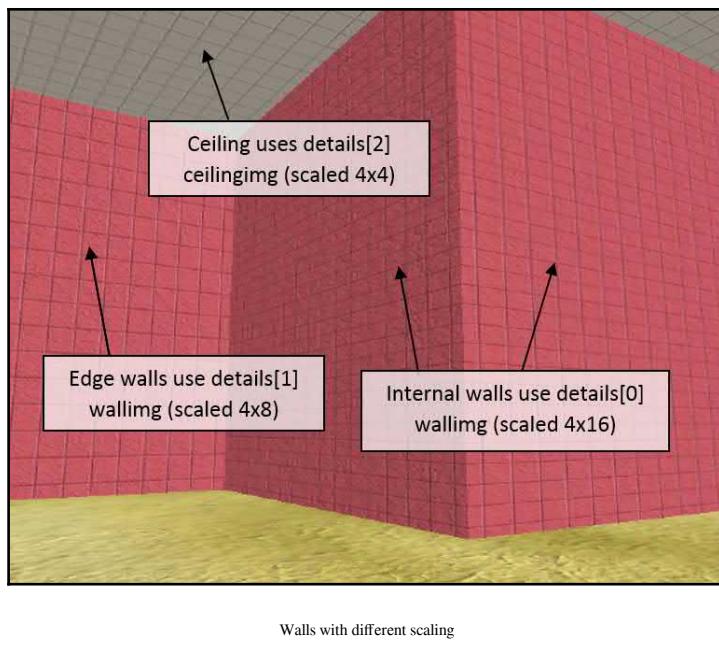
- **Wall (W):** This is a vertical wall that is placed between the specified cells (such as between black and white cells).
- **Ceiling (C):** This is a horizontal section of the ceiling to cover the current cell.
- **Roof (R):** This is an additional horizontal section that is placed slightly above the ceiling to provide a roofing effect. It is typically used for buildings that may need to be viewed from the outside (this is not used in our example).
- **Ceiling Edge (CE):** This is used to join the ceiling sections to the roof around the edges of the building (it is not used in our example since ours is an indoor model).

Finally, we specify the model that will be used for each object. We are using three models in this example (normal walls, walls on an edge, and the ceiling), so we can define the model used by specifying 0, 1, or 2.

Each of the models are defined in the `details` array, which allows us to set the required textures and shaders for each one (this contains the same information that would normally be set by the `.set_draw_details()` function), as shown in the following code:

```
details = [[shader, [wallimg], 1.0, 0.0, 4.0, 16.0],  
          [shader, [wallimg], 1.0, 0.0, 4.0, 8.0],  
          [shader, [ceilingimg], 1.0, 0.0, 4.0, 4.0]]
```

In our example, the inside walls are allocated to the `wallimg` texture (`textures/squareblocksred.png`) and the ceilings are allocated to the `ceilingimg` texture (`textures/squareblocks4.png`). You may be able to note from the following screenshot that we can apply different texture models (in our case, a slightly different scaling) to the different types of blocks. The walls that border the outside of the maze (with the edge identifier) will use the `wallimg` model texture scaled by 4 x 8 (`details[1]`) while the same model texture will be scaled 4 x 16 for the internal walls (`details[0]`):



Walls with different scaling

Both `scheme` and `draw_details` are set when the `pi3d.Building` object is created, as shown in the following code:

```
building = pi3d.Building(levelList[next_level], 0, 0, mymap,  
width=MAP_BLOCK, depth=MAP_BLOCK, height=30.0, name="",  
draw_details=details, yoff=-15, scheme=mazeScheme)
```

Using the map file (`levelList[next_level]`), the scheme (`mazeScheme`), and draw details (`details`), the entire building is created within the environment:



An overhead view of the 3D maze we created

Although we use just black and white in this example, other colored pixels can also be used to define additional block types (and therefore different textures, if required). If another color (such as gray) is added, the indexing of the color mapping is shifted so that black blocks are referenced as 0, the new colored blocks as 1, and the white blocks as 2. See the **Silo** example in the `pi3d` demos for details.



We also need to define an `ElevationMap` object: `mymap`. The `pi3d.Building` module makes use of the `ElevationMap` object's `calcHeight()` function to correctly place the walls on top of the `ElevationMap` object's surface. In this example, we will apply a basic `ElevationMap` object using `textures/floor.png`, which will generate a flat surface that the `Building` object will be placed on.

Using SolidObjects to detect collisions

In addition to the `Building` object, we will define an object for the player and also define two objects to mark the start and end points of the maze. Although the player's view is the first person viewpoint (that is, we don't actually see them since the view is effectively through their eyes), we need to define a `SolidObject` to represent them.

A `SolidObject` is a special type of invisible object that can be checked to determine if the space that would be occupied by one `SolidObject` has overlapped another. This will allow us to use `person.CollisionList(NewPos)` to get a list of any other `SolidObjects` that the `person` object will be in contact with at the `NewPos` position. Since the `Building` class defines `SolidObjects` for all of the parts of the `Building` object, we will be able to detect when the player tries to move through a wall (or, for some reason, the roof/ceiling) and stop them from moving through it.

We also use `SolidObjects` for the start and end locations in the maze. The place where the player starts is set as the top-left corner of the map (the white-space pixel from the top left of the map) and is marked by the `startpos` object (a small `pi3d.Sphere` with the `rock1.jpg` texture) placed above the person's head. The end of the maze is marked with another `pi3d.Sphere` object (with the `water.jpg` texture) located at the center of the map. We also define another `SolidObject` at the end so that we can detect when the player reaches it and collides with it (and load the next level).

8

Building Face Detector and Face Recognition Applications

This chapter presents the following recipes:

- Introduction to the face recognition system
- Building a face detector application
- Building a face recognition application
- Applications of a face recognition system

Introduction

In recent years, face recognition has emerged as one of the hottest research areas. A face recognition system is a computer program with the ability to detect and recognize faces. In order to recognize a person, it considers their unique facial features. Recently, it has been adopted in several security and surveillance installations to ensure safety in high-risk areas, residential zones, private and public buildings, and so on.

Building a face detector application

In this section, we discuss how human faces can be detected from webcam images. A USB webcam needs to be connected to Raspberry Pi 3 to implement real-time human face detection.

How to do it...

1. Import the necessary packages:

```
import cv2
import numpy as np
```

2. Load the face cascade file:

```
frontalface_cascade=
cv2.CascadeClassifier('haarcascade_frontalface_alt.xml')
```

3. Check whether the face cascade file has been loaded:

```
if frontalface_cascade.empty():
    raise IOError('Unable to load the face cascade classifier xml
file')
```

4. Initialize the video capture object:

```
capture = cv2.VideoCapture(0)
```

5. Define the scaling factor:

```
scale_factor = 0.5
```

6. Perform the operation until the *Esc* key is pressed:

```
# Loop until you hit the Esc key
while True:
```

7. Capture the current frame and resize it:

```
ret, frame = capture.read()
frame = cv2.resize(frame, None, fx=scale_factor, fy=scale_factor,
interpolation=cv2.INTER_AREA)
```

8. Convert the image frame into grayscale:

```
gray_image = cv2.cvtColor(frame, cv2.COLOR_BGR2GRAY)
```

9. Run the face detector on the grayscale image:

```
face_rectangle = frontalface_cascade.detectMultiScale(gray_image,
1.3, 5)
```

10. Draw the rectangles box:

```
for (x,y,w,h) in face_rectangle:  
    cv2.rectangle(frame, (x,y), (x+w,y+h), (0,255,0), 3)
```

11. Display the output image:

```
cv2.imshow('Face Detector', frame)
```

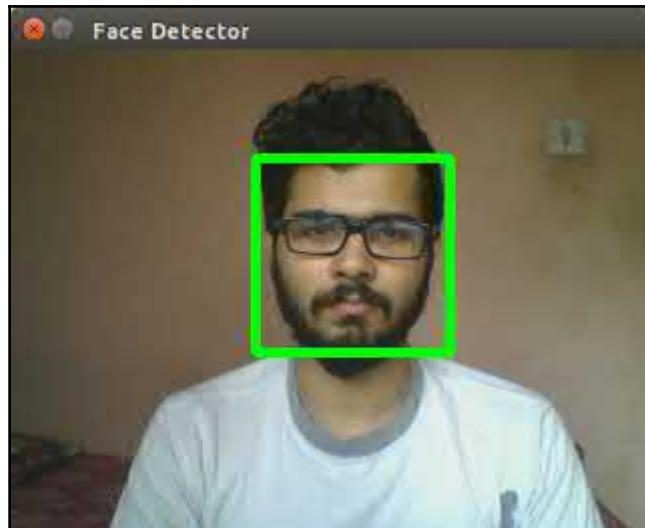
12. Check whether the *Esc* key has been pressed for operation termination:

```
a = cv2.waitKey(1)  
if a == 10:  
    break
```

13. Stop the video capturing and terminate the operation:

```
capture.release()  
cv2.destroyAllWindows()
```

The result obtained in the human face detection system is shown here:



Building a face recognition application

Face recognition is a technique that is performed after face detection. The detected human face is compared with the images stored in the database. It extracts features from the input image and matches them with human features stored in the database.

How to do it...

1. Import the necessary packages:

```
import cv2
import numpy as np
from sklearn import preprocessing
```

2. Load the encoding and decoding task operators:

```
class LabelEncoding(object):
    # Method to encode labels from words to numbers
    def encoding_labels(self, label_wordings):
        self.le = preprocessing.LabelEncoder()
        self.le.fit(label_wordings)
```

3. Implement word-to-number conversion for the input label:

```
def word_to_number(self, label_wordings):
    return int(self.le.transform([label_wordings])[0])
```

4. Convert the input label from a number to word:

```
def number_to_word(self, label_number):
    return self.le.inverse_transform([label_number])[0]
```

5. Extract images and labels from the input path:

```
def getting_images_and_labels(path_input):
    label_wordings = []
```

6. Iterate the procedure for the input path and append the files:

```
for roots, dirs, files in os.walk(path_input):
    for fname in (x for x in files if x.endswith('.jpg')):
        fpath = os.path.join(roots, fname)
        label_wordings.append(fpath.split('/')[-2])
```

7. Initialize the variables and parse the input register:

```
images = []
le = LabelEncoding()
le.encoding_labels(label_wordings)
labels = []
# Parse the input directory
for roots, dirs, files in os.walk(path_input):
    for fname in (x for x in files if x.endswith('.jpg')):
        fpath = os.path.join(roots, fname)
```

8. Read the grayscale image:

```
img = cv2.imread(fpath, 0)
```

9. Extract the label:

```
names = fpath.split('/')[-2]
```

10. Perform face detection:

```
face = faceCascade.detectMultiScale(img, 1.1, 2,
minSize=(100,100))
```

11. Iterate the procedure with face rectangles:

```
for (x, y, w, h) in face:
    images.append(img[y:y+h, x:x+w])
    labels.append(le.word_to_number(names))
return images, labels, le
if __name__=='__main__':
    path_cascade = "haarcascade_frontalface_alt.xml"
    train_img_path = 'faces_dataset/train'
    path_img_test = 'faces_dataset/test'
```

12. Load the face cascade file:

```
faceCascade = cv2.CascadeClassifier(path_cascade)
```

13. Initialize face detection with local binary patterns:

```
face_recognizer = cv2.createLBPHFaceRecognizer()
```

14. Extract the face features from the training face dataset:

```
imgs, labels, le = getting_images_and_labels(train_img_path)
```

15. Train the face detection system:

```
print "nTraining..."  
face_recognizer.train(imgs, np.array(labels))
```

16. Test the face detection system:

```
print 'nPerforming prediction on test images...'  
flag_stop = False  
for roots, dirs, files in os.walk(path_img_test):  
    for fname in (x for x in files if x.endswith('.jpg')):  
        fpath = os.path.join(roots, fname)
```

17. Validate the face recognition system:

```
predicting_img = cv2.imread(fpath, 0)  
    # Detect faces  
face = faceCascade.detectMultiScale(predicting_img, 1.1,  
                                    2, minSize=(100,100))  
    # Iterate through face rectangles  
for (x, y, w, h) in face:  
    # Predict the output  
    index_predicted, config = face_recognizer.predict(  
predicting_img[y:y+h, x:x+w])  
    # Convert to word label  
    person_predicted = le.number_to_word(index_predicted)  
    # Overlay text on the output image and display it  
    cv2.putText(predicting_img, 'Prediction: ' +  
person_predicted,  
                (10,60), cv2.FONT_HERSHEY_SIMPLEX, 2,  
(255,255,255), 6)  
    cv2.imshow("Recognizing face", predicting_img)  
    a = cv2.waitKey(0)  
    if a == 27:  
        flag = True  
        break  
    if flag_stop:  
        break
```

The face recognition output obtained is shown here:



How it works...

Face recognition systems are widely used to implement personal security systems. Readers can refer to the article *The system of face detection based on OpenCV* at <http://ieeexplore.ieee.org/document/6242980/>.

See also *Study of Face Detection Algorithm for Real-time Face Detection System* at <http://ieeexplore.ieee.org/document/5209668>.

See also

Please refer to the following articles:

- <http://www.ex-sight.com/technology.htm>
- <https://www.eurotech.com/en/products/devices/face+recognition+systems>
- <https://arxiv.org/ftp/arxiv/papers/1403/1403.0485.pdf>

Applications of a face recognition system

Face recognition is widely used in security, healthcare, and marketing. Industries are developing novel face recognition systems using deep learning to recognize fraud, identify the difference between human faces and photographs, and so on. In healthcare, face recognition, combined with other computer vision algorithms, is used to detect facial skin diseases.

9

Using Python to Drive Hardware

In this chapter, we will cover the following topics:

- Controlling an LED
- Responding to a button
- The controlled shutdown button
- The GPIO keypad input
- Multiplexed color LEDs
- Writing messages using persistence of vision

Introduction

One of the key features of a Raspberry Pi computer that sets it apart from most other home/office computers is that it has the ability to directly interface with other hardware. The **general-purpose input/output (GPIO)** pins on the Raspberry Pi can control a wide range of low-level electronics, from **light-emitting diodes (LEDs)** to switches, sensors, motors, servos, and even extra displays.

This chapter will focus on connecting the Raspberry Pi with some simple circuits and getting to grips with using Python to control and respond to the connected components.

The Raspberry Pi hardware interface consists of 40 pins located along one side of the board.

The GPIO pins and their layout will vary slightly according to the particular model you have.



The Raspberry Pi 3, Raspberry Pi 2, and Raspberry Pi B+ all have the same 40-pin layout.

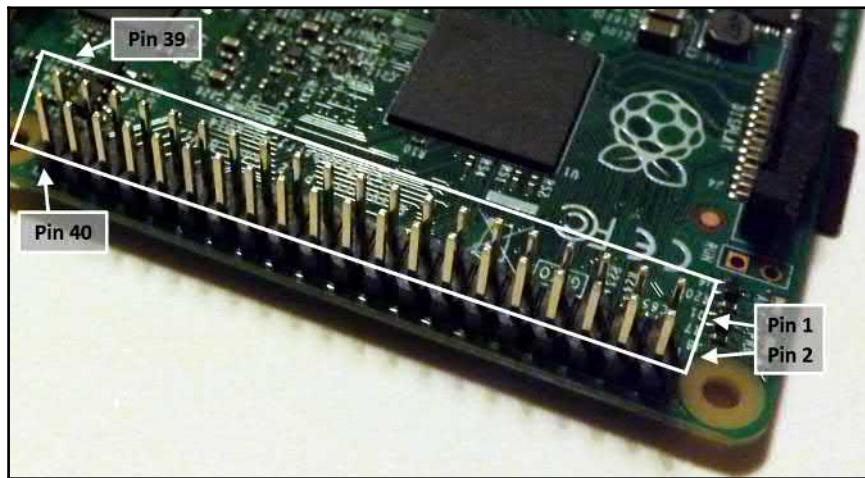
The older Raspberry Pi 1 models (nonplus types) have a 26-pin header, which is the same as the 1-26 pins of the newer models.

Function	GPIO.BOARD		Function
3V3	1	2	5V
SDA1 ARM	3	4	5V
SCL1 ARM	5	6	GND
	7	8	TX
GND	9	10	RX
SPI1 CE1	11	12	PWM0/SPI1 CEO
	13	14	GND
	15	16	
3v3	17	18	
SPI0 MOSI	19	20	GND
SPI0 MISO	21	22	
SPI0 SCLK	23	24	SPI0 CEO
GND	25	26	SPI0 CE1
SDA0 VC	27	28	SCLO VC
	29	30	GND
	31	32	PWM0
PWM1	33	34	GND
SPI1 MISO/PWM1	35	36	SPI1 CE2
	37	38	SPI1 MOSI
GND	39	40	SPI1 SCLK

Raspberry Pi 2, Raspberry Pi B+, and Raspberry Pi Model Plus GPIO header pins (pin functions)

The layout of the connector is shown in the preceding diagram; the pin numbers are shown as seen from pin 1 of the GPIO header.

Pin 1 is at the end that is nearest to the SD card, as shown in the following photo:



The Raspberry Pi GPIO header location

Care should be taken when using the GPIO header, since it also includes power pins (3V3 and 5 V), as well as **ground (GND)** pins. All of the GPIO pins can be used as standard GPIO, but several also have special functions; these are labeled and highlighted with different colors.



It is common for engineers to use a 3V3 notation to specify values in schematics in order to avoid using decimal places that could easily be missed (using 33V rather than 3.3V would cause severe damage to the circuitry). The same can be applied to the values of other components, such as resistors, for example, 1.2K ohms can be written as 1K2 ohms.

The **TX** and **RX** pins are used for serial communications, and with the aid of a voltage-level converter, information can be transferred via a serial cable to another computer or device.

We also have the **SDA** and **SCL** pins, which are able to support a two-wire bus communication protocol called **I²C** (there are two I²C channels on Raspberry Pi 3 and Model Plus boards: **channel 1 ARM**, which is for general use, and **channel 0 VC**, which is typically used for identifying **hardware attached on top (HAT)** modules). There are also the **SPI MOSI**, **SPI MISO**, **SPI SCLK**, **SPI CE0**, and **SPI CE1** pins, which support another type of bus protocol called **SPI** for high-speed data. Finally, we have the **PWM0/1** pin, which allows a **pulse-width modulation** signal to be generated, which is useful for servos and generating analog signals.

However, we will focus on using just the standard GPIO functions in this chapter. The GPIO pin layout is shown in the following diagram:

GPIO.BCM	Function	GPIO.BOARD	Function	GPIO.BCM
<50mA	3V3	1 2	SV	
BCM GPIO02	SDA1 ARM	3 4	SV	
BCM GPIO03	SCL1 ARM	5 6	GND	
BCM GPIO04		7 8	TX	BCM GPIO14
	GND	9 10	RX	BCM GPIO15
BCM GPIO17	SPI1 CE1	11 12	PWM0/SPI1 CEO	BCM GPIO18
BCM GPIO27		13 14	GND	
BCM GPIO22		15 16		BCM GPIO23
<50mA	3v3	17 18		BCM GPIO24
BCM GPIO10	SPI0 MOSI	19 20	GND	
BCM GPIO9	SPI0 MISO	21 22		BCM GPIO25
BCM GPIO11	SPI0 SCLK	23 24	SPI0 CEO	BCM GPIO08
	GND	25 26	SPI0 CE1	BCM GPIO07
BCM GPIO00	SDA0 VC	27 28	SCL0 VC	BCM GPIO01
BCM GPIO05		29 30	GND	
BCM GPIO06		31 32	PWM0	BCM GPIO 12
BCM GPIO13	PWM1	33 34	GND	
BCM GPIO19	SPI1 MISO/PWM1	35 36	SPI1 CE2	BCM GPIO16
BCM GPIO26		37 38	SPI1 MOSI	BCM GPIO20
	GND	39 40	SPI1 SCLK	BCM GPIO21

Raspberry Pi GPIO header pins (GPIO.BOARD and GPIO.BCM)

The Raspberry Pi Rev 2 (pre-July 2014) has the following differences compared to the Raspberry Pi 2 GPIO layout:

- 26-GPIO-pin header (matching the first 26 pins).
- An additional secondary set of eight holes (P5) located next to the pin header. The details are as follows:

GPIO.BCM	Function	GPIO.BOARD	Function	GPIO.BCM
<50mA	3V3	2 1	SV	
BCM GPIO29	SCL0 VC	4 3	SDA0	BCM GPIO28
BCM GPIO31		6 5		BCM GPIO23
	GND	8 7	GND	

Raspberry Pi Rev 2 P5 GPIO header pins

- The original Raspberry Pi Rev 1 (pre-October 2012) has only 26 GPIO pins in total, (matching the first 26 pins of the current Raspberry Pi, except for the following details:

GPIO.BCM	Function	GPIO.BOARD
BCM GPIO00	SDA0	3
BCM GPIO01	SCL0	5
BCM GPIO21		13

Raspberry Pi Rev 1 GPIO header differences

The `RPi.GPIO` library can reference the pins on the Raspberry Pi using one of two systems. The numbers shown in the center refer to the physical position of the pins, and are also the numbers referenced by the `RPi.GPIO` library when in **GPIO.BOARD** mode. The numbers on the outside (**GPIO.BCM**) are the actual reference numbers of the physical ports of the processor that indicate which of the pins are wired (which is why they are not in any specific order). They are used when the mode is set to **GPIO.BCM**, and they allow control of the GPIO header pins as well as any peripherals connected to other GPIO lines. This includes the LED on the add-on camera on BCM GPIO 4 and the status LED on the board. However, this can also include the GPIO lines used for reading/writing to the SD card, which would cause serious errors if interfered with.

If you use other programming languages to access the GPIO pins, the numbering scheme may be different, so it will be helpful if you are aware of the BCM GPIO references, which refer to the physical GPIO ports of the processor.



Be sure to check out the Appendix, *Hardware and Software List*, which lists all the items used in this chapter and the places that you can obtain them from.

Controlling an LED

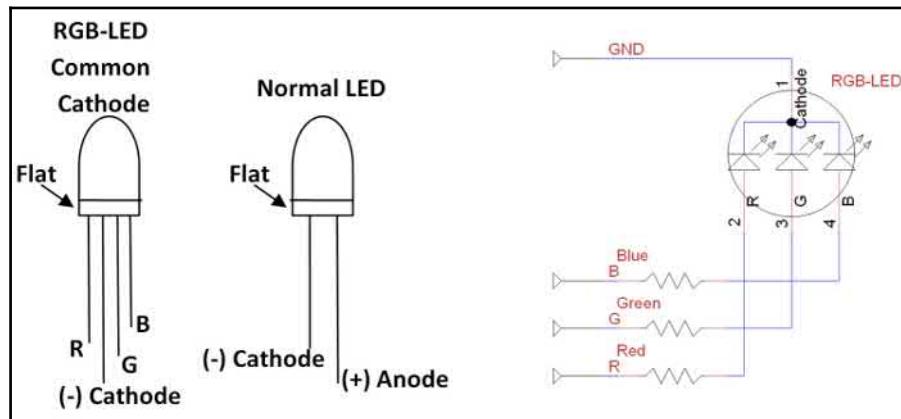
The hardware equivalent of `Hello world` is an LED flash, which is a great test to ensure that everything is working and that you have wired it correctly. To make it a little more interesting, I've suggested using a **red, blue, and green** (RGB) LED, but feel free to use separate LEDs if that is all you have available.

Getting ready

You will need the following equipment:

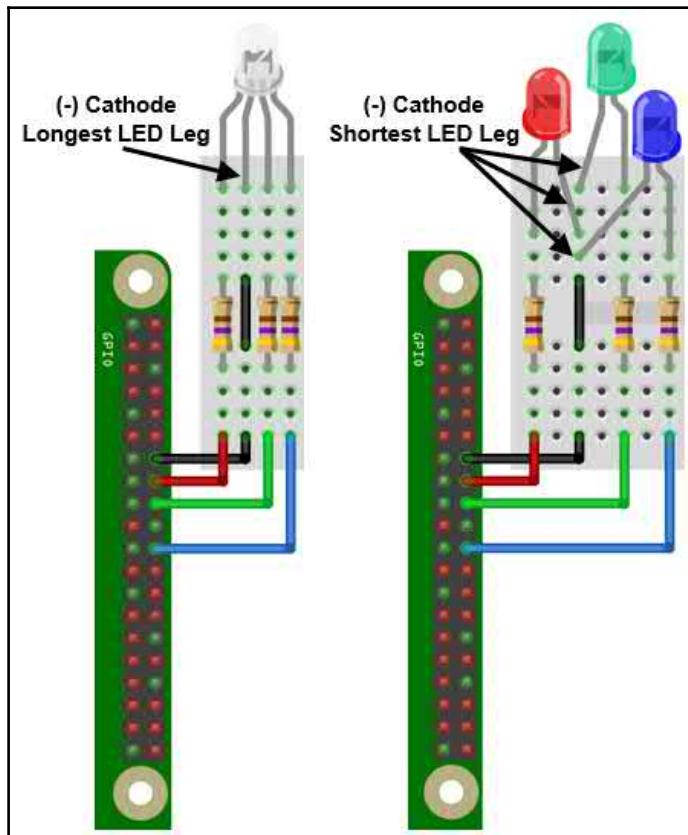
- 4 x DuPont female-to-male patch wires
- Mini breadboard (170 tie points) or a larger one
- RGB LED (common cathode)/3 standard LEDs (ideally red, green, and blue)
- Breadboard wire (solid core)
- 3 x 470 ohm resistors

Each of the preceding components shouldn't cost many dollars and can be reused for other projects afterwards. The breadboard is a particularly useful item that allows you to try out your own circuits without needing to solder them:



Diagrams of an RGB LED, a standard LED, and an RGB circuit

The following diagram shows the breadboard circuitry:



The wiring of an RGB LED/standard LEDs connected to the GPIO header



There are several different kinds of RGB LEDs available, so check the datasheet of your component to confirm the pin order and type you have. Some are RGB, so ensure that you wire accordingly or adjust the `RGB_pin` settings in the code. You can also get common anode variants, which will require the anode to be connected to 3V3 (GPIO-pin 1) for it to light up (and they will also require `RGB_ENABLE` and `RGB_DISABLE` to be set to 0 and 1 respectively).

The breadboard and component diagrams of this book have been created using a free tool called **Fritzing** (www.fritzing.org); it is great for planning your own Raspberry Pi projects.

How to do it...

1. Create the ledtest.py script as follows:

```
#!/usr/bin/python3
#ledtest.py
import time
import RPi.GPIO as GPIO
# RGB LED module
#HARDWARE SETUP
# GPIO
# 2 [=====XRG=B==] 26 [=====] 40
# 1 [=====] 25 [=====] 39
# X=GND R=Red G=Green B=Blue
#Setup Active States
#Common Cathode RGB-LED (Cathode=Active Low)
RGB_ENABLE = 1; RGB_DISABLE = 0

#LED CONFIG - Set GPIO Ports
RGB_RED = 16; RGB_GREEN = 18; RGB_BLUE = 22
RGB = [RGB_RED,RGB_GREEN,RGB_BLUE]

def led_setup():
    #Setup the wiring
    GPIO.setmode(GPIO.BOARD)
    #Setup Ports
    for val in RGB:
        GPIO.setup(val,GPIO.OUT)

def main():
    led_setup()
    for val in RGB:
        GPIO.output(val,RGB_ENABLE)
        print("LED ON")
        time.sleep(5)
        GPIO.output(val,RGB_DISABLE)
        print("LED OFF")

try:
    main()
finally:
    GPIO.cleanup()
    print("Closed Everything. END")
#End
```

2. The `RPi.GPIO` library will require `sudo` permissions to access the GPIO pin hardware, so you will need to run the script using the following command:

```
sudo python3 ledtest.py
```

When you run the script, you should see the red, green, and blue parts of the LED (or each LED, if you're using separate ones) light up in turn. If not, double-check your wiring or confirm that the LED is working by temporarily connecting the red, green, or blue wire to the 3V3 pin (pin 1 of the GPIO header).



The `sudo` command is required for most hardware-related scripts because it isn't normal for users to directly control hardware at such a low level. For example, setting or clearing a control pin that is part of the SD card controller could corrupt data being written to it. Therefore, for security purposes, superuser permissions are required to stop programs from using hardware by accident (or with malicious intent).

How it works...

To access the GPIO pins using Python, we import the `RPi.GPIO` library, which allows direct control of the pins through the module functions. We also require the `time` module to pause the program for a set number of seconds.

We then define values for the LED wiring and active states (see *Controlling the GPIO current* segment in the *There's more...* section of this recipe).

Before the GPIO pins are used by the program, we need to set them up by specifying the numbering method—`GPIO.BOARD`—and the direction—`GPIO.OUT` or `GPIO.IN` (in this case, we set all the RGB pins to outputs). If a pin is configured as an output, we will be able to set the pin state; similarly, if it is configured as an input, we will be able to read the pin state.

Next, we control the pins using `GPIO.output()` by stating the number of the GPIO pin and the state we want it to be in (1 = high/on and 0 = low/off). We switch each LED on, wait five seconds, and then switch it back off.

Finally, we use `GPIO.cleanup()` to return the GPIO pins back to their original default state and release control of the pins for use by other programs.

There's more...

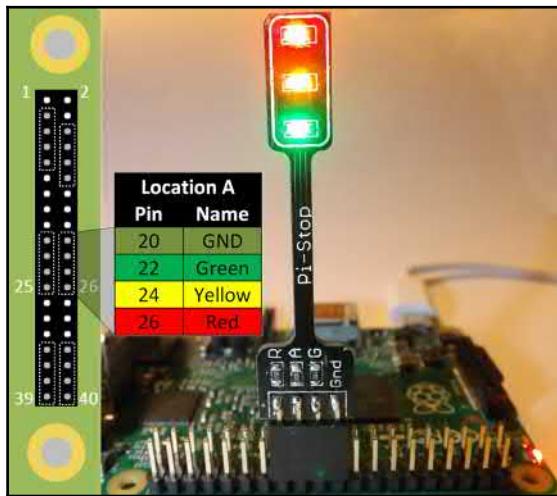
Using the GPIO pins on the Raspberry Pi must be done with care since these pins are directly connected to the main processor of the Raspberry Pi without any additional protection. Caution must be used as any incorrect wiring will probably damage the Raspberry Pi processor and cause it to stop functioning altogether.

Alternatively, you could use one of the many modules available that plug directly into the GPIO header pins (reducing the chance of wiring mistakes):



For example, the Pi-Stop is a simple pre-built LED board that simulates a set of traffic lights, designed to be a stepping stone for those who are interested in controlling hardware but want to avoid the risk of damaging their Raspberry Pi. After the basics have been mastered, it also makes an excellent indicator to aid debugging.

Just ensure that you update the `LED_CONFIG` pin references in the `ledtest.py` script to reference the pin layout and location used for the hardware you are using.



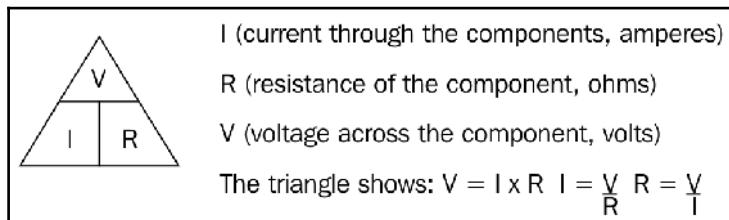
See the Appendix, *Hardware and Software List*, for a list of Raspberry Pi hardware retailers.

Controlling the GPIO current

Each GPIO pin is only able to handle a certain current before it burns out (a maximum of 16 mA from a single pin or 30 mA in total), and similarly, the RGB LED should be limited to no more than 100 mA. By adding a resistor before or after an LED, we will be able to limit the current that will be passed through it and control how bright it is (more current will equal a brighter LED).

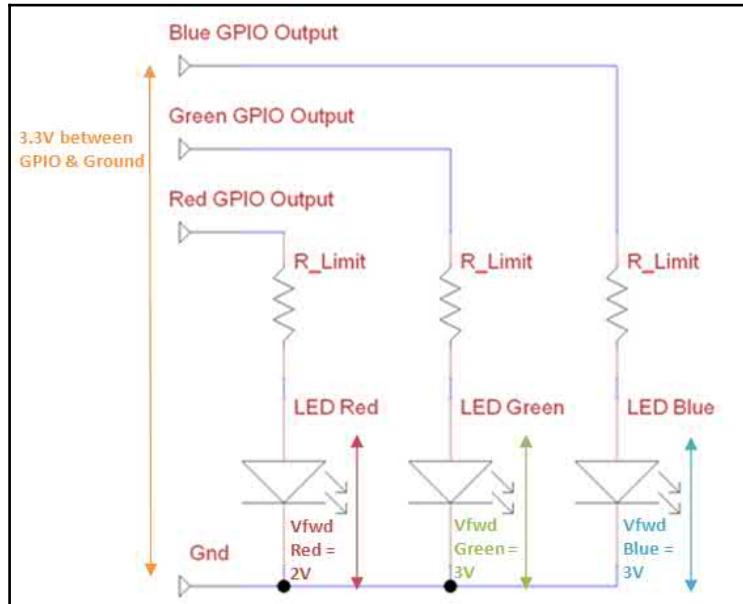
Since we may wish to power more than one LED at a time, we typically aim to set the current as low as we can get away with while still providing enough power to light up the LED.

We can use Ohm's law to tell us how much resistance to use to provide a particular current. The law is as shown in the following diagram:



Ohm's law: The relationship between the current, resistance, and voltage in electrical circuits

We will aim for a minimum current (3 mA) and maximum current (16 mA), while still producing a reasonably bright light from each of the LEDs. To get a balanced output for the RGB LEDs, I tested different resistors until they provided a near white light (when viewed through a card). A 470 ohm resistor was selected for each one (your LEDs may differ slightly):



Resistors are needed to limit the current that passes through the LEDs

The voltage across the resistor is equal to the GPIO voltage ($V_{gpio} = 3.3V$) minus the voltage drop on the particular LED (V_{fwd}); we can then use this resistance to calculate the current used by each of the LEDs, as shown in the following formulas:

$$V_{R_Limit} = (V_{gpio} - V_{fwd})$$

$$I = \frac{V_{R_Limit}}{R} = \frac{(3.3-2)}{470} = \frac{1.3}{470} = 2.8\text{mA for the Red LED}$$

$$I = \frac{V_{R_Limit}}{R} = \frac{(3.3-3)}{470} = \frac{0.3}{470} = 0.64\text{mA each for the Green and Blue LEDs}$$

We can calculate the current drawn by each of the LEDs

Responding to a button

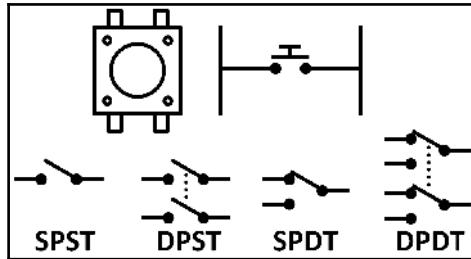
Many applications using the Raspberry Pi require that actions are activated without requiring a keyboard and screen to be attached to it. The GPIO pins provide an excellent way for the Raspberry Pi to be controlled by your own buttons and switches without a mouse/keyboard and screen.

Getting ready

You will need the following equipment:

- 2 x DuPont female-to-male patch wires
- Mini breadboard (170 tie points) or a larger one
- Push-button switch (momentary close) or a wire connection to make/break the circuit
- Breadboard wire (solid core)
- 1K ohm resistor

The switches are as shown in the following diagram:



The push-button switch and other types of switch

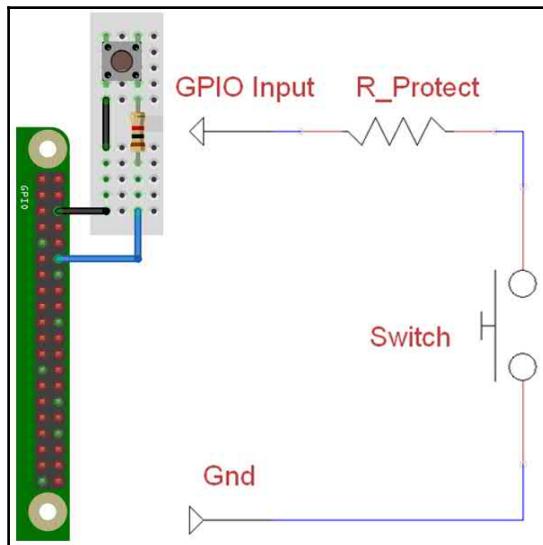
The switches used in the following examples are **single-pole, single-throw (SPST)**, momentary close, push-button switches. **Single pole (SP)** means that there is one set of contacts that makes a connection. In the case of the push switch used here, the legs on each side are connected together with a single-pole switch in the middle. A **double-pole (DP)** switch acts just like a SP switch, except that the two sides are separated electrically, allowing you to switch two separate components on/off at the same time.



Single throw (ST) means the switch will make a connection with just one position; the other side will be left open. **Double throw (DT)** means both positions of the switch will connect to different parts.

Momentary close means that the button will close the switch when pressed and automatically open it when released. A **latched** push-button switch will remain closed until it is pressed again.

Trying a speaker or headphone with Raspberry Pi



The layout of the button circuit

We will use sound in this example, so you will also need speakers or headphones attached to the audio socket of the Raspberry Pi.

You will need to install a program called `flite` using the following command, which will let us make the Raspberry Pi talk:

```
sudo apt-get install flite
```

After it has been installed, you can test it with the following command:

```
sudo flite -t "hello I can talk"
```

If it is a little too quiet (or too loud), you can adjust the volume (0-100 percent) using the following command:

```
amixer set PCM 100%
```

How to do it...

Create the `btntest.py` script as follows:

```
#!/usr/bin/python3
#btntest.py
import time
import os
import RPi.GPIO as GPIO
#HARDWARE SETUP
# GPIO
# 2 [==X==1=====] 26 [=====] 40
# 1 [=====] 25 [=====] 39
#Button Config
BTN = 12

def gpio_setup():
    #Setup the wiring
    GPIO.setmode(GPIO.BOARD)
    #Setup Ports
    GPIO.setup(BTN,GPIO.IN,pull_up_down=GPIO.PUD_UP)

def main():
    gpio_setup()
    count=0
    btn_closed = True
    while True:
        btn_val = GPIO.input(BTN)
        if btn_val and btn_closed:
            count+=1
            print(count)
```

```
    print("OPEN")
    btn_closed=False
elif btn_val==False and btn_closed==False:
    count+=1
    print("CLOSE %s" % count)
    os.system("flite -t '%s'" % count)
    btn_closed=True
time.sleep(0.1)

try:
    main()
finally:
    GPIO.cleanup()
    print("Closed Everything. END")
#End
```

How it works...

As in the previous recipe, we set up the GPIO pin as required, but this time as an input, and we also enable the internal pull-up resistor (see *Pull-up and pull-down resistor circuits* in the *There's more...* section of this recipe for more information) using the following code:

```
GPIO.setup(BTN,GPIO.IN,pull_up_down=GPIO.PUD_UP)
```

After the GPIO pin is set up, we create a loop that will continuously check the state of `BTN` using `GPIO.input()`. If the value returned is `false`, the pin has been connected to 0V (ground) through the switch, and we will use `flite` to count out loud for us each time the button is pressed.

Since we have called the `main` function from within a `try/finally` condition, it will still call `GPIO.cleanup()` even if we close the program using *Ctrl + Z*.



We use a short delay in the loop; this ensures that any noise from the contacts on the switch is ignored. This is because when we press the button, there isn't always perfect contact as we press or release it, and it may produce several triggers if we press it again too quickly. This is known as **software debouncing**; we ignore the bounce in the signal here.

There's more...

The Raspberry Pi GPIO pins must be used with care; voltages used for inputs should be within specific ranges, and any current drawn from them should be minimized using protective resistors.

Safe voltages

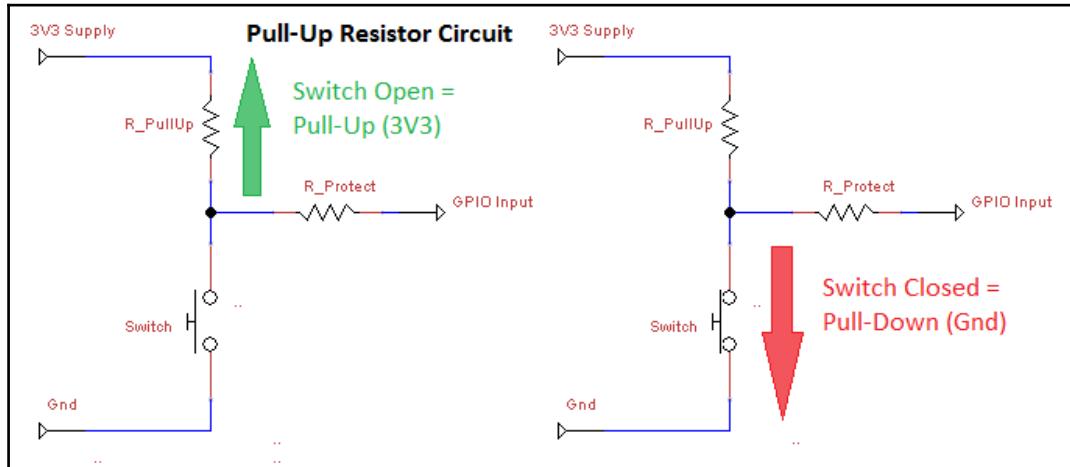
We must ensure that we only connect inputs that are between 0 (ground) and 3V3. Some processors use voltages between 0V and 5V, so extra components are required to interface safely with them. Never connect an input or component that uses 5V unless you are certain it is safe, or you will damage the GPIO ports of the Raspberry Pi.

Pull-up and pull-down resistor circuits

The previous code sets the GPIO pins to use an internal pull-up resistor. Without a pull-up resistor (or pull-down resistor) on the GPIO pin, the voltage is free to float somewhere between 3V3 and 0V, and the actual logical state remains undetermined (sometimes 1 and sometimes 0).

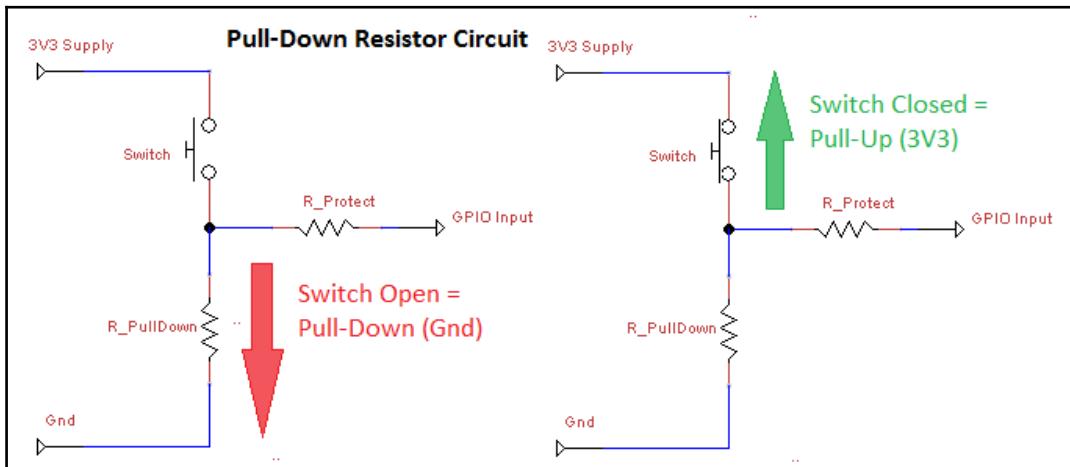
Raspberry Pi's internal pull-up resistors are 50K ohm-65K ohm, and the pull-down resistors are 50K ohm-65K ohm. External pull-up/pull-down resistors are often used in GPIO circuits (as shown in the following diagram), typically using 10K ohm or larger for similar reasons (giving a very small current draw when they are not active).

A pull-up resistor allows a small amount of current to flow through the GPIO pin and will provide a high voltage when the switch isn't pressed. When the switch is pressed, the small current is replaced by the larger one flowing to 0V, so we get a low voltage on the GPIO pin instead. The switch is active low and logic 0 when pressed. It works as shown in the following diagram:



A pull-up resistor circuit

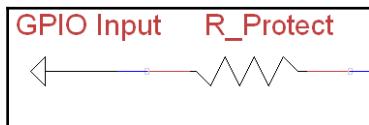
Pull-down resistors work in the same way, except the switch is active high (the GPIO pin is logic 1 when pressed). It works as shown in the following diagram:



A pull-down resistor circuit

Protection resistors

In addition to the switch, the circuit includes a resistor in series with the switch to protect the GPIO pin, as shown in the following diagram:



A GPIO protective current-limiting resistor

The purpose of the protection resistor is to protect the GPIO pin if it is accidentally set as an output rather than an input. Imagine, for instance, that we have our switch connected between the GPIO and ground. Now the GPIO pin is set as an output and switched on (driving it to 3V3) as soon as we press the switch, without a resistor present, the GPIO pin will be directly connected to 0V. The GPIO will still try to drive it to 3V3; this will cause the GPIO pin to burn out (since it will use too much current to drive the pin to the high state). If we use a 1K ohm resistor here, the pin is able to be driven high using an acceptable amount of current ($I = V/R = 3.3/1K = 3.3\text{ mA}$).

A controlled shutdown button

The Raspberry Pi should always be shut down correctly to avoid the SD card being corrupted (by losing power while performing a write operation to the card). This can pose a problem if you don't have a keyboard or screen connected (you might be running an automated program or controlling it remotely over a network and forget to turn it off) as you can't type the command or see what you are doing. By adding our own buttons and LED indicator, we can easily command a shutdown and reset, and then start up again to indicate when the system is active.

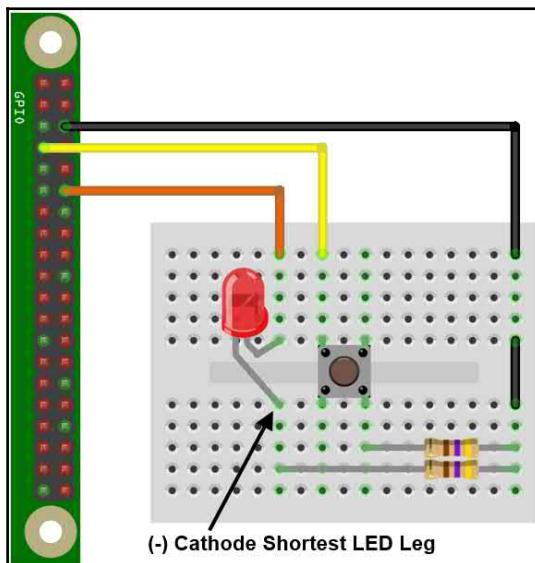
Getting ready

You will need the following equipment:

- 3 x DuPont female-to-male patch wires
- Mini breadboard (170 tie points) or a larger one
- Push-button switch (momentary close)

- General-purpose LED
- 2 x 470 ohm resistors
- Breadboard wire (solid core)

The entire layout of the shutdown circuit will look as shown in the following figure:



The controlled shutdown circuit layout

How to do it...

1. Create the `shtdwn.py` script as follows:

```
#!/usr/bin/python3
#shtdwn.py
import time
import RPi.GPIO as GPIO
import os

# Shutdown Script
DEBUG=True #Simulate Only
SNDON=True
#HARDWARE SETUP
# GPIO
# 2 [==X==L=====] 26 [=====] 40
```

```
# 1 [====1=====] 25 [=====] 39

#BTN CONFIG - Set GPIO Ports
GPIO_MODE=GPIO.BOARD
SHTDWN_BTN = 7 #1
LED = 12          #L

def gpio_setup():
    #Setup the wiring
    GPIO.setmode(GPIO_MODE)
    #Setup Ports
    GPIO.setup(SHTDWN_BTN,GPIO.IN,pull_up_down=GPIO.PUD_UP)
    GPIO.setup(LED,GPIO.OUT)

def doShutdown():
    if(DEBUG):print("Press detected")
    time.sleep(3)
    if GPIO.input(SHTDWN_BTN):
        if(DEBUG):print("Ignore the shutdown (<3sec)")
    else:
        if(DEBUG):print ("Would shutdown the RPi Now")
        GPIO.output(LED,0)
        time.sleep(0.5)
        GPIO.output(LED,1)
        if(SNDON):os.system("flite -t 'Warning commencing power down 3
2 1'")
        if(DEBUG==False):os.system("sudo shutdown -h now")
        if(DEBUG):GPIO.cleanup()
        if(DEBUG):exit()

def main():
    gpio_setup()
    GPIO.output(LED,1)
    while True:
        if(DEBUG):print("Waiting for >3sec button press")
        if GPIO.input(SHTDWN_BTN)==False:
            doShutdown()
        time.sleep(1)

    try:
        main()
    finally:
        GPIO.cleanup()
        print("Closed Everything. END")
    #End
```

2. To get this script to run automatically (once we have tested it), we can place the script in the `~/bin` (we can use `cp` instead of `mv` if we just want to copy it) and add it to `crontab` with the following code:

```
mkdir ~/bin  
mv shtdwn.py ~/bin/shtdwn.py  
crontab -e
```

3. At the end of the file, we add the following code:

```
@reboot sudo python3 ~/bin/shtdwn.py
```

How it works...

This time, when we set up the GPIO pin, we define the pin connected to the shutdown button as an input and the pin connected to the LED as an output. We turn the LED on to indicate that the system is running.

By setting the `DEBUG` flag to `True`, we can test the functionality of our script without causing an actual shutdown (by reading the terminal messages); we just need to ensure that we set `DEBUG` to `False` when using the script for real.

We enter a `while` loop and check the pin every second to see whether the GPIO pin is set to `LOW` (that is, to check whether the switch has been pressed); if so, we enter the `doShutdown()` function.

The program will wait for three seconds and then test again to see whether the button is still being pressed. If the button is no longer being pressed, we return to the previous `while` loop. However, if it is still being pressed after three seconds, the program will flash the LED and trigger the shutdown (and also provide an audio warning using `flite`).

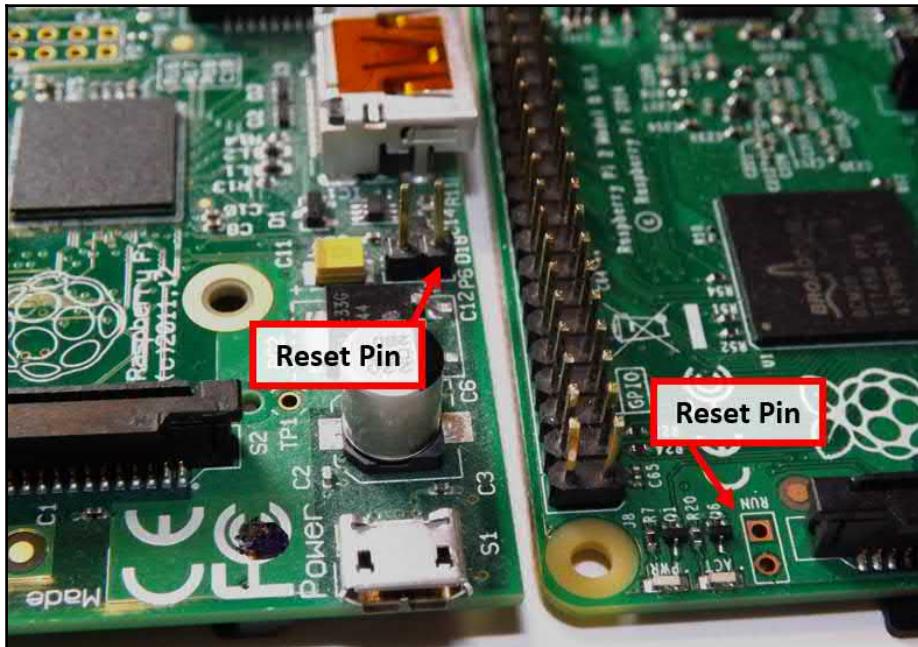
When we are happy with how the script is operating, we can disable the `DEBUG` flag (by setting it to `False`) and add the script to `crontab`. `crontab` is a special program that runs in the background and allows us to schedule (at specific times, dates, or periodically) programs and actions when the system is started (`@reboot`). This allows the script to be started automatically every time the Raspberry Pi is powered up. When we press and hold the shutdown button for more than three seconds, it safely shuts down the system and enters a low power state (the LED switches off just before this, indicating that it is safe to remove the power shortly after). To restart the Raspberry Pi, we briefly remove the power; this will restart the system, and the LED will light up when the Raspberry Pi has loaded.

There's more...

We can extend this example further using the reset header by adding extra functionality and making use of additional GPIO connections (if available).

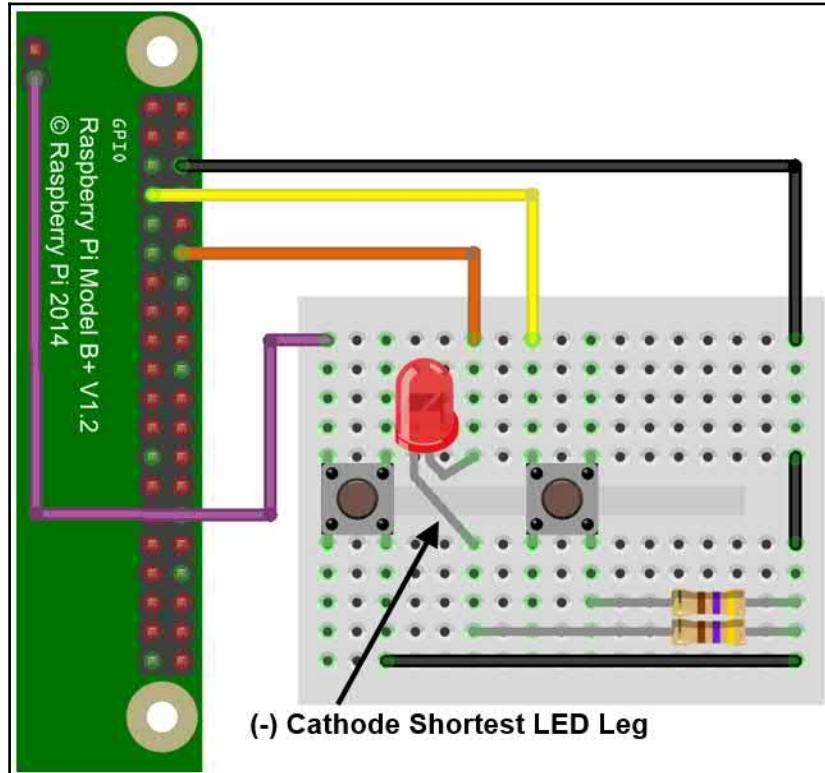
Resetting and rebooting Raspberry Pi

The Raspberry Pi has holes for mounting a reset header (marked **RUN** on the Raspberry Pi 3/2 and **P6** on the Raspberry Pi 1 Model A and Model B Rev 2). The reset pin allows the device to be reset using a button rather than removing the micro USB connector each time to cycle the power:



Raspberry Pi reset headers - on the left, Raspberry Pi Model A/B (Rev2), and on the right, Raspberry Pi 3

To make use of it, you will need to solder a wire or pin header to the Raspberry Pi and connect a button to it (or briefly touch a wire between the two holes each time). Alternatively, we can extend our previous circuit, as shown in the following diagram:



The controlled shutdown circuit layout and reset button

We can add this extra button to our circuit, which can be connected to the reset header (this is the hole nearest the middle on the Raspberry Pi 3 or closest to the edge on other models). This pin, when temporarily pulled low by connecting to ground (such as the hole next to it or by another ground point, such as pin 6 of the GPIO header), will reset the Raspberry Pi and allow it to boot up again following a shutdown.

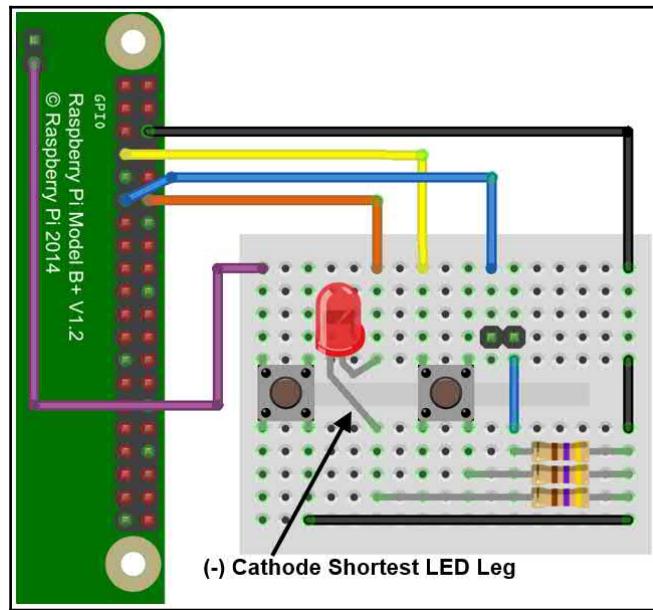
Adding extra functions

Since we now have the script monitoring the shutdown button all the time, we can add extra buttons/switches/jumpers to be monitored at the same time. This will allow us to trigger specific programs or set up particular states just by changing the inputs. The following example allows us to easily switch between automatic DHCP networking (the default networking setup) and using a direct IP address, as used in the *Networking directly to a laptop or computer* recipe of Chapter 1, *Getting Started with a Raspberry Pi 3 Computer*, for direct LAN connections.

Add the following components to the previous circuit:

- A 470 ohm resistor
 - Two pin headers with a jumper connector (or, optionally, a switch)
 - Breadboard wire (solid core)

After adding the preceding components, our controlled shutdown circuit now looks as follows:



The controlled shutdown circuit layout, reset button, and jumper pins

In the previous script, we add an additional input to detect the status of the LAN_SWA pin (the jumper pins we added to the circuit) using the following code:

```
LAN_SWA = 11      #2
```

Ensure that it is set up as an input (with a pull-up resistor) in the `gpio_setup()` function using the following code:

```
GPIO.setup(LAN_SWA,GPIO.IN,pull_up_down=GPIO.PUD_UP)
```

Add a new function to switch between the LAN modes and read out the new IP address. The `doChangeLAN()` function checks whether the status of the LAN_SWA pin has changed since the last call, and if so, it sets the network adapter to DHCP or sets the direct LAN settings accordingly (and uses `flite` to speak the new IP setting, if available). Finally, the LAN being set for direct connection causes the LED to flash slowly while that mode is active. Use the following code to do this:

```
def doChangeLAN(direct):
    if(DEBUG):print("Direct LAN: %s" % direct)
    if GPIO.input(LAN_SWA) and direct==True:
        if(DEBUG):print("LAN Switch OFF")
        cmd="sudo dhclient eth0"
        direct=False
        GPIO.output(LED,1)
    elif GPIO.input(LAN_SWA)==False and direct==False:
        if(DEBUG):print("LAN Switch ON")
        cmd="sudo ifconfig eth0 169.254.69.69"
        direct=True
    else:
        return direct
    if(DEBUG==False):os.system(cmd)
    if(SNDON):os.system("hostname -I | flite")
    return direct
```

Add another function, `flashled()`, which will just toggle the state of the LED each time it is called. The code for this function is as follows:

```
def flashled(ledon):
    if ledon:
        ledon=False
    else:
        ledon=True
    GPIO.output(LED,ledon)
    return ledon
```

Finally, we adjust the main loop to also call `doChangeLAN()` and use the result to decide whether we call `flashled()` using `ledon` to keep track of the LED's previous state each time. The `main()` function should now be updated as follows:

```
def main():
    gpi0_setup()
    GPO.output(LED, 1)
    directlan=False
    ledon=True
    while True:
        if(DEBUG):print("Waiting for >3sec button press")
        if GPO.input(SHTDWN_BTN)==False:
            doShutdown()
            directlan= doChangeLAN(directlan)
        if directlan:
            flashled(ledon)
        time.sleep(1)
```

The GPIO keypad input

We have seen how we can monitor inputs on the GPIO to launch applications and control the Raspberry Pi; however, sometimes we need to control third-party programs. Using the `uInput` library, we can emulate key presses from a keyboard (or even mouse movement) to control any program using our own custom hardware.

For more information about using `uInput`, visit <http://tjjr.fi/sw/python-uinput/>.

Getting ready

Perform the following steps to install `uInput`:

1. First, we need to download `uInput`.

You will need to download the `uInput` Python library from GitHub (~50 KB) using the following commands:

```
wget
https://github.com/tuomasjjrasanen/python-uinput/archive/master.zip
unzip master.zip
```

The library will unzip to a directory called `python-uinput-master`.

2. Once completed, you can remove the ZIP file using the following command:

```
rm master.zip
```

3. Install the required packages using the following commands (if you have installed them already, the apt-get command will ignore them):

```
sudo apt-get install python3-setuptools python3-dev  
sudo apt-get install libudev-dev
```

4. Compile and install uInput using the following commands:

```
cd python-uinput-master  
sudo python3 setup.py install
```

5. Finally, we load the new uinput kernel module using the following command:

```
sudo modprobe uinput
```

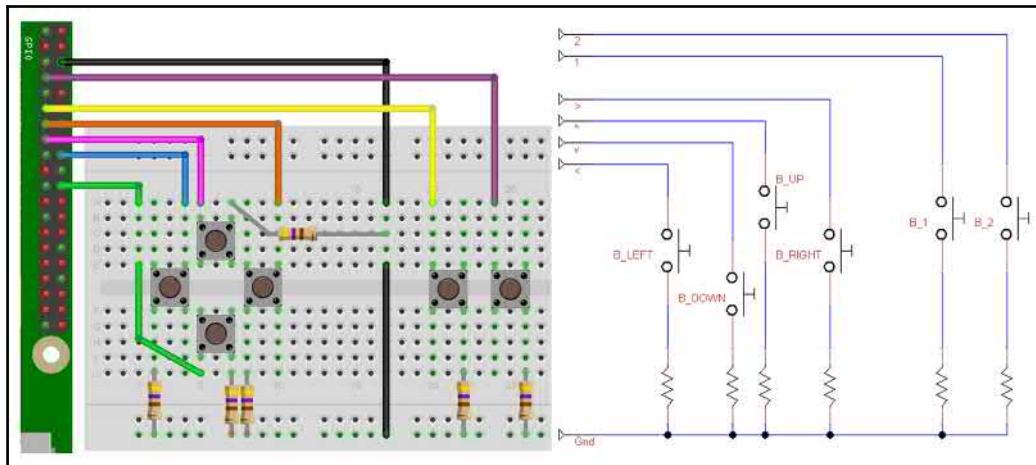
To ensure it is loaded upon startup, we can add `uinput` to the `modules` file using the following command:

```
sudo nano /etc/modules
```

Put `uinput` on a new line in the file and save it (*Ctrl + X, Y*).

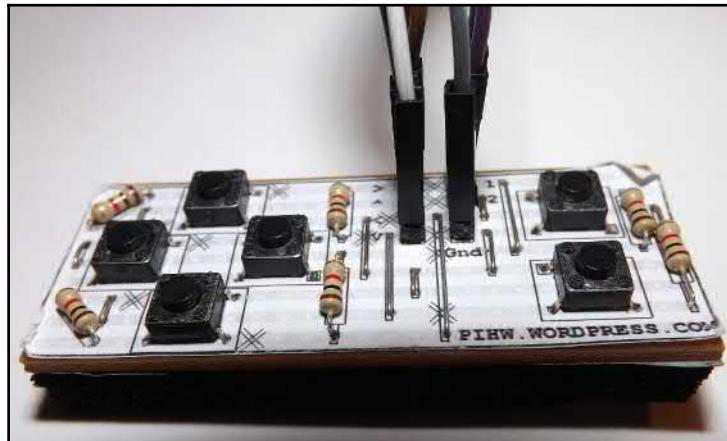
6. Create the following circuit using the following equipment:

- Breadboard (half-sized or larger)
- 7 x DuPont female-to-male patch wires
- Six push buttons
- 6 x 470 ohm resistors
- Breadboarding wire (solid core)



GPIO keypad circuit layout

The keypad circuit can also be built into a permanent circuit by soldering the components into a Vero prototype board (also known as a stripboard), as shown in the following photo:



GPIO keypad Pi hardware module

This circuit is available as a solder-yourself kit from PiHardware.com.



7. Connect the circuit to the Raspberry Pi GPIO pins by matching the appropriate buttons with the appropriate pins, as shown in the following table:

	Button	GPIO pin
GND		6
v	B_DOWN	22
<	B_LEFT	18
^	B_UP	15
>	B_RIGHT	13
1	B_1	11
2	B_2	7

How to do it...

Create a `gpiokeys.py` script as follows:

```
#!/usr/bin/python3
#gpiokeys.py
import time
import RPi.GPIO as GPIO
import uinput

#HARDWARE SETUP
# GPIO
# 2 [==G=====<=V==] 26 [=====] 40
# 1 [==2=1>^=====] 25 [=====] 39
B_DOWN = 22      #V
B_LEFT = 18      #<
B_UP = 15        #^
B_RIGHT = 13     #>
B_1 = 11         #1
B_2 = 7          #2

DEBUG=True
BTN = [B_UP,B_DOWN,B_LEFT,B_RIGHT,B_1,B_2]
MSG = ["UP", "DOWN", "LEFT", "RIGHT", "1", "2"]

#Setup the DPad module pins and pull-ups
def dpad_setup():
    #Set up the wiring
```

```
GPIO.setmode(GPIO.BOARD)
# Setup BTN Ports as INPUTS
for val in BTN:
    # set up GPIO input with pull-up control
    #(pull_up_down can be:
    #    PUD_OFF, PUD_UP or PUD_DOWN, default PUD_OFF)
    GPIO.setup(val, GPIO.IN, pull_up_down=GPIO.PUD_UP)

def main():
    #Setup uinput
    events = (uinput.KEY_UP,uinput.KEY_DOWN,uinput.KEY_LEFT,
              uinput.KEY_RIGHT,uinput.KEY_ENTER,uinput.KEY_ENTER)
    device = uinput.Device(events)
    time.sleep(2) # seconds
    dpad_setup()
    print("DPad Ready!")

btn_state=[False,False,False,False,False]
key_state=[False,False,False,False,False]
while True:
    #Catch all the buttons pressed before pressing the related keys
    for idx, val in enumerate(BTN):
        if GPIO.input(val) == False:
            btn_state[idx]=True
        else:
            btn_state[idx]=False

    #Perform the button presses/releases (but only change state once)
    for idx, val in enumerate(btn_state):
        if val == True and key_state[idx] == False:
            if DEBUG:print (str(val) + ":" + MSG[idx])
            device.emit(events[idx], 1) # Press.
            key_state[idx]=True
        elif val == False and key_state[idx] == True:
            if DEBUG:print (str(val) + "://" + MSG[idx])
            device.emit(events[idx], 0) # Release.
            key_state[idx]=False

    time.sleep(.1)
try:
    main()
finally:
    GPIO.cleanup()
#End
```

How it works...

First, we import `uinput` and define the wiring of the keypad buttons. For each of the buttons in `BTN`, we enable them as inputs, with internal pull-ups enabled.

Next, we set up `uinput`, defining the keys we want to emulate and adding them to the `uinput.Device()` function. We wait a few seconds to allow `uinput` to initialize, set the initial button and key states, and start our `main` loop.

The `main` loop is split into two sections: the first section checks through the buttons and records the states in `btn_state`, and the second section compares the `btn_state` with the current `key_state` array. This way, we can detect a change in `btn_state` and call `device.emit()` to toggle the state of the key.

To allow us to run this script in the background, we can run it with `&`, as shown in the following command:

```
sudo python3 gpiokey.py &
```

The `&` character allows the command to run in the background, so we can continue with the command line to run other programs. You can use `fg` to bring it back to the foreground, or `%1`, `%2`, and so on if you have several commands running. Use `jobs` to get a list.



You can even put a process/program on hold to get to Command Prompt by pressing `Ctrl + Z` and then resume it with `bg` (which will let it run in the background).

You can test the keys using the game created in the *Creating an overhead scrolling game* recipe in Chapter 5, *Creating Games and Graphics*, which you can now control using your GPIO directional pad. Don't forget that if you are connecting to the Raspberry Pi remotely, any key presses will only be active on the locally connected screen.

There's more...

We can do more using `uinput` to provide hardware control for other programs, including those that require mouse input.

Generating other key combinations

You can create several different key mappings in your file to support different programs. For instance, the `events_z80` key mapping would be useful for a spectrum emulator, such as **Fuse** (browse to <http://raspi.tv/2012/how-to-install-fuse-zx-spectrum-emulator-on-raspberry-pi> for more details). The `events_omx` key mappings are suitable for controlling video played through the OMXPlayer using the following command:

```
omxplayer filename.mp4
```

You can get a list of keys supported by `omxplayer` by using the `-k` parameter.

Replace the line that defines the `events` list with a new key mapping, and select different ones by assigning them to `events` using the following code:

```
events_dpad = (uinput.KEY_UP,uinput.KEY_DOWN,uinput.KEY_LEFT,
               uinput.KEY_RIGHT,uinput.KEY_ENTER,uinput.KEY_ENTER)
events_z80 = (uinput.KEY_Q,uinput.KEY_A,uinput.KEY_O,
              uinput.KEY_P,uinput.KEY_M,uinput.KEY_ENTER)
events_omx = (uinput.KEY_EQUAL,uinput.KEY_MINUS,uinput.KEY_LEFT,
              uinput.KEY_RIGHT,uinput.KEY_P,uinput.KEY_Q)
```

You can find all the `KEY` definitions in the `input.h` file; you can view it using the `less` command (press `Q` to exit), as shown in the following command:

```
less /usr/include/linux/input.h
```

Emulating mouse events

The `uinput` library can emulate mouse and joystick events, as well as keyboard presses. To use the buttons to simulate a mouse, we can adjust the script to use mouse events (as well as defining `mousemove` to set the step size of the movement) using the following code:

```
MSG = ["M_UP","M_DOWN","M_LEFT","M_RIGHT","1","Enter"]
events_mouse=(uinput.REL_Y,uinput.REL_Y, uinput.REL_X,
              uinput.REL_X,uinput.BTN_LEFT,uinput.BTN_RIGHT)
mousemove=1
```

We also need to modify the button handling to provide continuous movement, as we don't need to keep track of the state of the keys for the mouse. To do so, use the following code:

```
#Perform the button presses/releases
#(but only change state once)
for idx, val in enumerate(btn_state):
```

```
if MSG[idx] == "M_UP" or MSG[idx] == "M_LEFT":  
    state = -mousemove  
else:  
    state = mousemove  
if val == True:  
    device.emit(events[idx], state) # Press.  
elif val == False:  
    device.emit(events[idx], 0) # Release.  
time.sleep(0.01)
```

Multiplexed color LEDs

The next example in this chapter demonstrates that some seemingly simple hardware can produce some impressive results if controlled with software. For this, we will go back to using RGB LEDs. We will use five RGB LEDs that are wired so that we only need to use eight GPIO pins to control their red, green, and blue elements using a method called **hardware multiplexing** (see the *Hardware multiplexing* subsection in the *There's more...* section of this recipe).

Getting ready

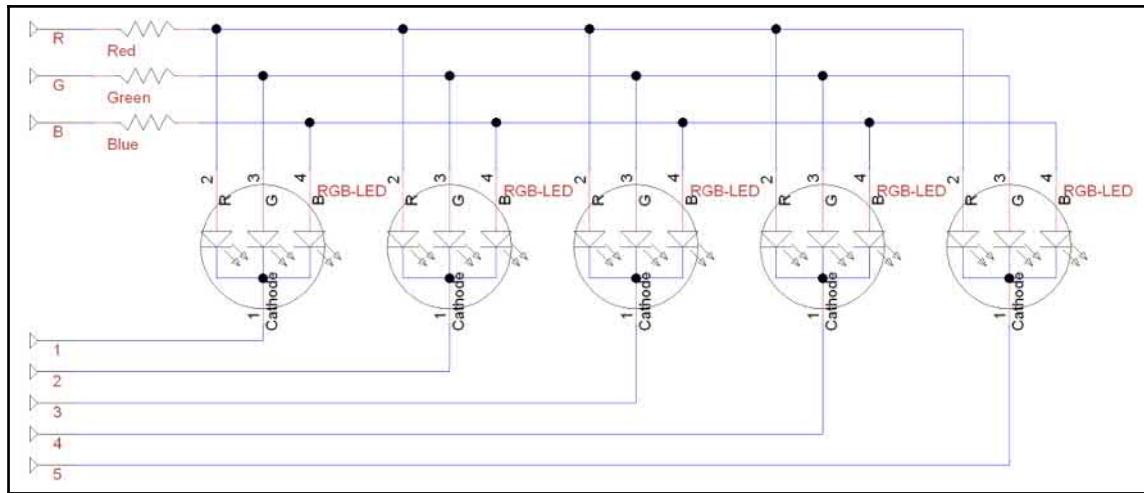
You will need the RGB LED module shown in the following picture:



The RGB LED module from PiHardware.com

As you can see in the preceding photo, the RGB LED module from <http://pihardware.com/> comes with GPIO pins and a DuPont female-to-female cable for connecting it. Although there are two sets of pins labelled from 1 to 5, only one side needs to be connected.

Alternatively, you can recreate your own with the following circuit using five common cathode RGB LEDs, 3 x 470 ohm resistors, and a Vero prototype board (or large breadboard). The circuit will look as shown in the following diagram:



Circuit diagram for the RGB LED module



Strictly speaking, we should use 15 resistors in this circuit (one for each RGB LED element), which will avoid interference from LEDs sharing the same resistor, and will also prolong the life of the LEDs themselves if switched on together. However, there is only a slight advantage in using this, particularly since we intend to drive each RGB LED independently of the other four to achieve multi-color effects.

You will need to connect the circuit to the Raspberry Pi GPIO header as follows:

RGB LED					1	2	3	4							
Rpi GPIO pin	2	4	6	8	10	12	14	16	18	20	22	24	26	28	30
Rpi GPIO pin	1	3	5	7	9	11	13	15	17	19	21	23	25	27	29
RGB LED				5		R	G	B							

How to do it...

Create the `rgbled.py` script and perform the following steps:

1. Import all the required modules and define the values to be used with the help of the following code:

```
#!/usr/bin/python3
#rgbled.py
import time
import RPi.GPIO as GPIO

#Setup Active states
#Common Cathode RGB-LEDs (Cathode=Active Low)
LED_ENABLE = 0; LED_DISABLE = 1
RGB_ENABLE = 1; RGB_DISABLE = 0
#HARDWARE SETUP
# GPIO
# 2 [=====1=23=4==] 26 [=====] 40
# 1 [==5=RGB=====] 25 [=====] 39
#LED CONFIG - Set GPIO Ports
LED1 = 12; LED2 = 16; LED3 = 18; LED4 = 22; LED5 = 7
LED = [LED1,LED2,LED3,LED4,LED5]
RGB_RED = 11; RGB_GREEN = 13; RGB_BLUE = 15
RGB = [RGB_RED,RGB_GREEN,RGB_BLUE]
#Mixed Colors
RGB_CYAN = [RGB_GREEN,RGB_BLUE]
RGB_MAGENTA = [RGB_RED,RGB_BLUE]
RGB_YELLOW = [RGB_RED,RGB_GREEN]
RGB_WHITE = [RGB_RED,RGB_GREEN,RGB_BLUE]
RGB_LIST = [RGB_RED,RGB_GREEN,RGB_BLUE,RGB_CYAN,
            RGB_MAGENTA,RGB_YELLOW,RGB_WHITE]
```

2. Define functions to set up the GPIO pins using the following code:

```
def led_setup():
    '''Setup the RGB-LED module pins and state.'''
    #Set up the wiring
    GPIO.setmode(GPIO.BOARD)
    # Setup Ports
    for val in LED:
        GPIO.setup(val, GPIO.OUT)
    for val in RGB:
        GPIO.setup(val, GPIO.OUT)
    led_clear()
```

3. Define our utility functions to help control the LEDs using the following code:

```
def led_gpiicontrol(pins,state):
    '''This function will control the state of
    a single or multiple pins in a list.'''
    #determine if "pins" is a single integer or not
    if isinstance(pins,int):
        #Single integer - reference directly
        GPIO.output(pins,state)
    else:
        #if not, then cycle through the "pins" list
        for i in pins:
            GPIO.output(i,state)

def led_activate(led,color):
    '''Enable the selected led(s) and set the required color(s)
    Will accept single or multiple values'''
    #Enable led
    led_gpiicontrol(led,LED_ENABLE)
    #Enable color
    led_gpiicontrol(color,RGB_ENABLE)

def led_deactivate(led,color):
    '''Deactivate the selected led(s) and set the required
    color(s) will accept single or multiple values'''
    #Disable led
    led_gpiicontrol(led,LED_DISABLE)
    #Disable color
    led_gpiicontrol(color,RGB_DISABLE)
def led_time(led, color, timeon):
    '''Switch on the led and color for the timeon period'''
    led_activate(led,color)
    time.sleep(timeon)
    led_deactivate(led,color)

def led_clear():
    '''Set the pins to default state.'''
    for val in LED:
        GPIO.output(val, LED_DISABLE)
    for val in RGB:
        GPIO.output(val, RGB_DISABLE)

def led_cleanup():
    '''Reset pins to default state and release GPIO'''
    led_clear()
    GPIO.cleanup()
```

4. Create a test function to demonstrate the functionality of the module:

```
def main():
    '''Directly run test function.
    This function will run if the file is executed directly'''
    led_setup()
    led_time(LED1,RGB_RED,5)
    led_time(LED2,RGB_GREEN,5)
    led_time(LED3,RGB_BLUE,5)
    led_time(LED,RGB_MAGENTA,2)
    led_time(LED,RGB_YELLOW,2)
    led_time(LED,RGB_CYAN,2)

    if __name__=='__main__':
        try:
            main()
        finally:
            led_cleanup()
#End
```

How it works...

To start with, we define the hardware setup by defining the states required to **Enable** and **Disable** the LED depending on the type of RGB LED (common cathode) used. If you are using a common anode device, just reverse the **Enable** and **Disable** states.

Next, we define the GPIO mapping to the pins to match the wiring we did previously.

We also define some basic color combinations by combining red, green, and/or blue together, as shown in the following diagram:

Red Green Blue	000	001	010	011	100	101	110	111
LED State	OFF	Blue	Green	Cyan	Red	Magenta	Yellow	White

LED color combinations

We define a series of useful functions, the first being `led_setup()`, which will set the GPIO numbering to `GPIO.BOARD` and define all the pins that are to be used as outputs. We also call a function named `led_clear()`, which will set the pins to the default state with all the pins disabled.



This means that the LED pins, 1-5 (the common cathode on each LED), are set to HIGH, while the RGB pins (the separate anodes for each color) are set to LOW.

We create a function called `led_gpiocontrol()` that will allow us to set the state of one or more pins. The `isinstance()` function allows us to test a value to see whether it matches a particular type (in this case, a single integer); then we can either set the state of that single pin or iterate through the list of pins and set each one.

Next, we define two functions, `led_activate()` and `led_deactivate()`, which will enable and disable the specified LED and color. Finally, we define `led_time()`, which will allow us to specify an LED, color, and time to switch it on for.

We also create `led_cleanup()` to reset the pins (and LEDs) to the default values and call `GPIO.cleanup()` to release the GPIO pins in use.

This script is intended to become a library file, so we will use the `if __name__ == '__main__'` check to only run our test code when running the file directly:

By checking the value of `__name__`, we can determine whether the file was run directly (it will equal `__main__`) or whether it was imported by another Python script.



This allows us to define a special test code that is only executed when we directly load and run the file. If we include this file as a module in another script, then this code will not be executed.

As before, we will use `try/finally` to allow us to always perform cleanup actions, even if we exit early.

To test the script, we will set the LEDs to light up in various colors, one after another.

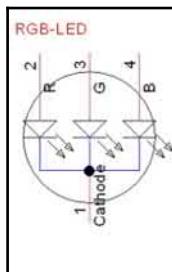
There's more...

We can create a few different colors by switching on one or more parts of the RGB LED at a time. However, with some clever programming, we can create a whole spectrum of colors. Also, we can display different colors on each LED, seemingly at the same time.

Hardware multiplexing

An LED requires a high voltage on the anode side and a lower voltage on the cathode side in order to light up. The RGB LEDs used in the circuit are common cathodes, so we must apply a high voltage (3V3) on the RGB pins and a low voltage (0V) on the cathode pin (wired to pins 1 to 5 for each of the LEDs).

The cathode and RGB pin states are as follows:



Cathode (1-5)	RGB Pins	Result	Status
HIGH	HIGH	LED OFF	LED "Disabled"
HIGH	LOW	LED OFF	
LOW	HIGH	LED ON	LED "Enabled"
LOW	LOW	LED OFF	

Cathode and RGB pin states

Therefore, we can enable one or more of the RGB pins, but still control which of the LEDs are lit. We enable the pins of the LEDs we want to light up and disable the ones we don't. This allows us to use far fewer pins than we would need to control each of the 15 RGB lines separately.

Displaying random patterns

We can add new functions to our library to produce different effects, such as generating random colors. The following function uses `randint()` to get a value between 1 and the number of colors. We ignore any values that are over the number of the available colors so that we can control how often the LEDs are switched off. Perform the following steps to add the required functions:

1. Add the `randint()` function from the `random` module to the `rgbled.py` script using the following code:

```
from random import randint
```

2. Now add `led_rgbrandom()` using the following code:

```
def led_rgbrandom(led,period,colors):
    ''' Light up the selected led, for period in seconds,
    in one of the possible colors. The colors can be
```

```
    1 to 3 for RGB, or 1-6 for RGB plus combinations,
    1-7 includes white. Anything over 7 will be set as
    OFF (larger the number more chance of OFF).'''  
value = randint(1,colors)  
if value < len(RGB_LIST):  
    led_time(led,RGB_LIST[value-1],period)
```

3. Use the following commands in the `main()` function to create a series of flashing LEDs:

```
for i in range(20):  
    for j in LED:  
        #Select from all, plus OFF  
        led_rgbrandom(j,0.1,20)
```

Mixing multiple colors

Until now, we have only displayed a single color at a time on one or more of the LEDs. If you consider how the circuit is wired up, you might wonder how we can get one LED to display one color and another a different one at the same time. The simple answer is that we don't need to—we just do it quickly!

All we need to do is display one color at a time, but change it back and forth, so quickly that the color looks like a mix of the two (or even a combination of the three red/green/blue LEDs). Fortunately, this is something that computers such as the Raspberry Pi can do very easily, even allowing us to combine the RGB elements to make multiple shades of colors across all five LEDs. Perform the following steps to mix the colors:

1. Add combo color definitions to the top of the `rgbled.py` script, after the definition of the mixed colors, using the following code:

```
#Combo Colors  
RGB_AQUA = [RGB_CYAN,RGB_GREEN]  
RGB_LBLUE = [RGB_CYAN,RGB_BLUE]  
RGB_PINK = [RGB_MAGENTA,RGB_RED]  
RGB_PURPLE = [RGB_MAGENTA,RGB_BLUE]  
RGB_ORANGE = [RGB_YELLOW,RGB_RED]  
RGB_LIME = [RGB_YELLOW,RGB_GREEN]  
RGB_COLORS = [RGB_LIME,RGB_YELLOW,RGB_ORANGE,RGB_RED,  
              RGB_PINK,RGB_MAGENTA,RGB_PURPLE,RGB_BLUE,  
              RGB_LBLUE,RGB_CYAN,RGB_AQUA,RGB_GREEN]
```

The preceding code will provide the combination of colors needed to create our shades, with `RGB_COLORS` providing a smooth progression through the shades.

2. Next, we need to create a function called `led_combo()` to handle single or multiple colors. The code for the function will be as follows:

```
def led_combo(pins,colors,period):  
    #determine if "colors" is a single integer or not  
    if isinstance(colors,int):  
        #Single integer - reference directly  
        led_time(pins,colors,period)  
    else:  
        #if not, then cycle through the "colors" list  
        for i in colors:  
            led_time(pins,i,period)
```

3. Now we can create a new script, `rgbledrainbow.py`, to make use of the new functions in our `rgbled.py` module. The `rgbledrainbow.py` script will be as follows:

```
#!/usr/bin/python3  
#rgbledrainbow.py  
import time  
import rgbled as RGBLED  
  
def next_value(number,max):  
    number = number % max  
    return number  
  
def main():  
    print ("Setup the RGB module")  
    RGBLED.led_setup()  
  
    # Multiple LEDs with different Colors  
    print ("Switch on Rainbow")  
    led_num = 0  
    col_num = 0  
    for l in range(5):  
        print ("Cycle LEDs")  
        for k in range(100):  
            #Set the starting point for the next set of colors  
            col_num = next_value(col_num+1,len(RGBLED.RGB_COLORS))  
            for i in range(20): #cycle time  
                for j in range(5): #led cycle  
                    led_num = next_value(j,len(RGBLED.LED))  
                    led_color = next_value(col_num+led_num,  
                                           len(RGBLED.RGB_COLORS))
```

```
RGBLED.led_combo(RGBLED.LED[led_num],  
                  RGBLED.RGB_COLORS[led_color],0.001)  
  
print ("Cycle COLORS")  
for k in range(100):  
    #Set the next color  
    col_num = next_value(col_num+1,len(RGBLED.RGB_COLORS))  
    for i in range(20): #cycle time  
        for j in range(5): #led cycle  
            led_num = next_value(j,len(RGBLED.LED))  
            RGBLED.led_combo(RGBLED.LED[led_num],  
                              RGBLED.RGB_COLORS[col_num],0.001)  
print ("Finished")  
  
if __name__=='__main__':  
    try:  
        main()  
    finally:  
        RGBLED.led_cleanup()  
#End
```

The `main()` function will first cycle through the LEDs, setting each color from the `RGB_COLORS` array on all the LEDs. Then, it will cycle through the colors, creating a rainbow effect across the LEDs:



Cycling through multiple colors on the five RGB LEDs

Writing messages using persistence of vision

Persistence of vision (POV) displays can produce an almost magical effect, displaying images in the air by moving a line of LEDs back and forth very quickly or around in circles. The effect works because your eyes are unable to adjust fast enough to separate out the individual flashes of light, and so you observe a merged image (the message or picture being displayed):



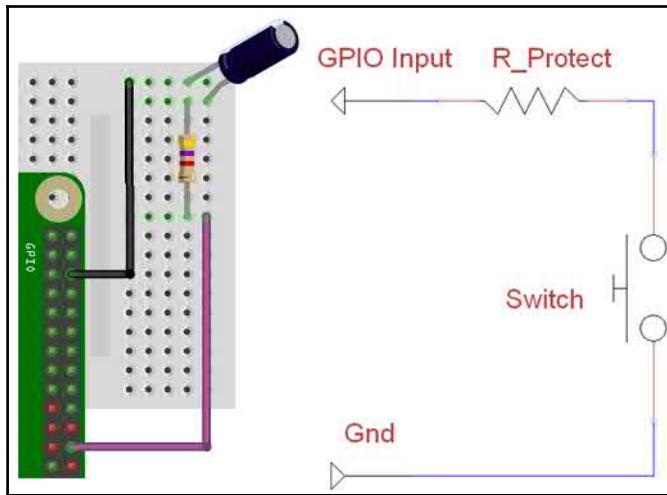
Persistence of vision using RGB LEDs

Getting ready

This recipe uses the RGB LED kit used in the previous recipe; you will also need the following additional items:

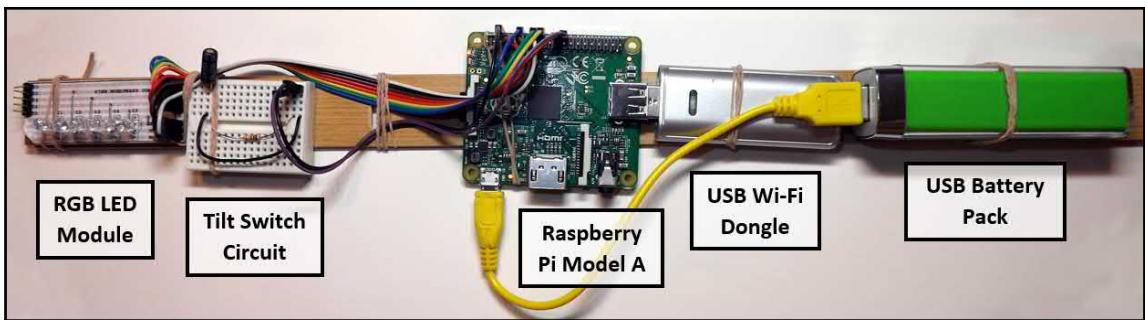
- Breadboard (half-sized or larger)
- 2 x DuPont female-to-male patch wires
- Tilt switch (the ball-bearing type is suitable)
- 1 x 470 ohm resistor (R_Protect)
- Breadboard wire (solid core)

The tilt switch should be added to the RGB LED (as described in the *Getting ready* section of the *Multiplexed color LEDs* recipe). The tilt switch is wired as follows:



The tilt switch is connected to GPIO Input (GPIO pin 24) and Gnd (GPIO pin 6)

To reproduce the POV image, you will need to be able to quickly move the LEDs and tilt the switch back and forth. Note how the tilt switch is mounted angled to the side, so the switch will open when moved to the left. It is recommended that the hardware is mounted onto a length of wood or similar piece of equipment. You can even use a portable USB battery pack along with a Wi-Fi dongle to power and control the Raspberry Pi through a remote connection (see the *Connecting Remotely to the Raspberry Pi over the Network using SSH (and X11 forwarding)* recipe in Chapter 1, *Getting Started with a Raspberry Pi 3 Computer*, for details):



Persistence of vision hardware setup

You will also need the completed `rgbled.py` file, which we will extend further in the *How to do it...* section.

How to do it...

1. Create a script called `tilt.py` to report the state of the tilt switch:

```
#!/usr/bin/python3
#tilt.py
import RPi.GPIO as GPIO
#HARDWARE SETUP
# GPIO
# 2 [=====T=] 26 [=====] 40
# 1 [=====] 25 [=====] 39
#Tilt Config
TILT_SW = 24

def tilt_setup():
    #Setup the wiring
    GPIO.setmode(GPIO.BOARD)
    #Setup Ports
    GPIO.setup(TILT_SW,GPIO.IN,pull_up_down=GPIO.PUD_UP)

def tilt_moving():
    #Report the state of the Tilt Switch
    return GPIO.input(TILT_SW)

def main():
    import time
    tilt_setup()
    while True:
        print("TILT %s"% (GPIO.input(TILT_SW)))
        time.sleep(0.1)

if __name__=='__main__':
    try:
        main()
    finally:
        GPIO.cleanup()
        print("Closed Everything. END")
#End
```

2. You can test the script by running it directly with the following command:

```
sudo python3 tilt.py
```

3. Add the following `rgbled_pov()` function to the `rgbled.py` script we created previously; this will allow us to display a single line of our image:

```
def rgbled_pov(led_pattern,color,ontime):  
    '''Disable all the LEDs and re-enable the LED pattern in the  
    required color'''  
    led_deactivate(LED,RGB)  
    for led_num,col_num in enumerate(led_pattern):  
        if col_num >= 1:  
            led_activate(LED[led_num],color)  
    time.sleep(ontime)
```

4. We will now create the following file, called `rgbledmessage.py`, to perform the required actions to display our message. First, we will import the modules used: the updated `rgbled` module, the new `tilt` module, and the Python `os` module. Initially, we set `DEBUG` to `True`, so the Python terminal will display additional information while the script is running:

```
#!/usr/bin/python3  
# rgbledmessage.py  
import rgbled as RGBLED  
import tilt as TILT  
import os  
  
DEBUG = True
```

5. Add a `readMessageFile()` function to read the content of the `letters.txt` file and then add `processFileContent()` to generate a **Python dictionary** of the LED patterns for each letter:

```
def readMessageFile(filename):  
    assert os.path.exists(filename), 'Cannot find the message file:  
    %s' % (filename)  
    try:  
        with open(filename, 'r') as theFile:  
            fileContent = theFile.readlines()  
    except IOError:  
        print("Unable to open %s" % (filename))  
    if DEBUG:print ("File Content START:")  
    if DEBUG:print (fileContent)  
    if DEBUG:print ("File Content END")  
    dictionary = processFileContent(fileContent)  
    return dictionary  
  
def processFileContent(content):  
    letterIndex = [] #Will contain a list of letters stored in the
```

```
file
letterList = [] #Will contain a list of letter formats
letterFormat = [] #Will contain the format of each letter
firstLetter = True
nextLetter = False
LETTERDIC={}
#Process each line that was in the file
for line in content:
    # Ignore the # as comments
    if '#' in line:
        if DEBUG:print ("Comment: %s"%line)
    #Check for " in the line = index name
    elif '"' in line:
        nextLetter = True
        line = line.replace('"','') #Remove " characters
        LETTER=line.rstrip()
        if DEBUG:print ("Index: %s"%line)
    #Remaining lines are formatting codes
    else:
        #Skip firstLetter until complete
        if firstLetter:
            firstLetter = False
            nextLetter = False
            lastLetter = LETTER
        #Move to next letter if needed
        if nextLetter:
            nextLetter = False
            LETTERDIC[lastLetter]=letterFormat[:]
            letterFormat[:] = []
            lastLetter = LETTER
        #Save the format data
        values = line.rstrip().split(' ')
        row = []
        for val in values:
            row.append(int(val))
        letterFormat.append(row)
LETTERDIC[lastLetter]=letterFormat[:]
#Show letter patterns for debugging
if DEBUG:print ("LETTERDIC: %s" %LETTERDIC)
if DEBUG:print ("C: %s"%LETTERDIC['C'])
if DEBUG:print ("O: %s"%LETTERDIC['O'])
return LETTERDIC
```

6. Add a `createBuffer()` function, which will convert a message into a series of LED patterns for each letter (assuming the letter is defined by the `letters.txt` file):

```
def createBuffer(message,dictionary):  
    buffer=[]  
    for letter in message:  
        try:  
            letterPattern=dictionary[letter]  
        except KeyError:  
            if DEBUG:print("Unknown letter %s: use _"%letter)  
            letterPattern=dictionary['_']  
        buffer=addLetter(letterPattern,buffer)  
    if DEBUG:print("Buffer: %s"%buffer)  
    return buffer  
  
def addLetter(letter,buffer):  
    for row in letter:  
        buffer.append(row)  
    buffer.append([0,0,0,0,0])  
    buffer.append([0,0,0,0,0])  
    return buffer
```

7. Next, we define a `displayBuffer()` function to display the LED patterns using the `rgbled_pov()` function in the `rgbled` module:

```
def displayBuffer(buffer):  
    position=0  
    while(1):  
        if(TILT.tilt_moving()==False):  
            position=0  
        elif (position+1)<len(buffer):  
            position+=1  
            if DEBUG:print("Pos:%s ROW:%s"%(position,buffer[position]))  
            RGBLED.rgbled_pov(buffer[position],RGBLED.RGB_GREEN,0.001)  
            RGBLED.rgbled_pov(buffer[position],RGBLED.RGB_BLUE,0.001)
```

8. Finally, we create a `main()` function to perform each of the required steps:

1. Set up the hardware components (RGB LEDs and the tilt switch).
2. Read the `letters.txt` file.
3. Define the dictionary of LED letter patterns.
4. Generate a buffer to represent the required message.
5. Display the buffer using the `rgbled` module and control it with the `tilt` module:

```
def main():
    RGBLED.led_setup()
    TILT.tilt_setup()
    dict=readMessageFile('letters.txt')
    buffer=createBuffer('_COOKBOOK_',dict)
    displayBuffer(buffer)
    if __name__=='__main__':
        try:
            main()
        finally:
            RGBLED.led_cleanup()
            print("Closed Everything. END")
#End
```

9. Create the following file, called `letters.txt`, to define the LED patterns needed to display the example '`_COOKBOOK_`' message. Note that this file only needs to define a pattern for each unique letter or symbol in the message:

```
#COOKBOOK
"C"
0 1 1 1 0
1 0 0 0 1
1 0 0 0 1
1 "O"
0 1 1 1 0
1 0 0 0 1
1 0 0 0 1
0 1 1 1 0
1 "K"
1 1 1 1 1
0 1 0 1 0
1 0 0 0 1
1 "B"
1 1 1 1 1
1 0 1 0 1
0 1 0 1 0
1 "_"
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
```

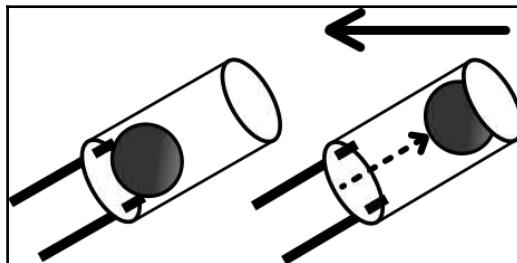
How it works...

The first function, `readMessageFile()`, will open and read the contents of a given file. This will then use `processFileContent()` to return a Python dictionary containing the corresponding patterns for the letters defined in the file provided. Each line in the file is processed, ignoring any line containing a # character and checking for " characters to indicate the name of the LED pattern that follows after. After the file has been processed, we end up with a Python dictionary that contains LED patterns for the '_', 'C', 'B', 'K', and 'O' characters:

```
'_': [[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]]  
'C': [[0, 1, 1, 1, 0], [1, 0, 0, 0, 1], [1, 0, 0, 0, 1]]  
'B': [[1, 1, 1, 1, 1], [1, 0, 1, 0, 1], [0, 1, 0, 1, 0]]  
'K': [[1, 1, 1, 1, 1], [0, 1, 0, 1, 0], [1, 0, 0, 0, 1]]  
'O': [[0, 1, 1, 1, 0], [1, 0, 0, 0, 1], [1, 0, 0, 0, 1], [0, 1, 1, 1, 0]]]
```

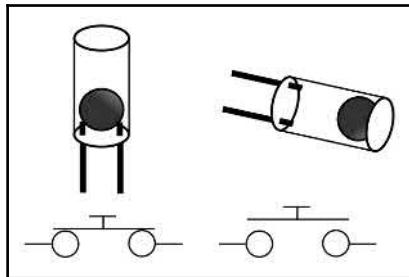
Now that we have a selection of letters to choose from, we can create a sequence of LED patterns using the `createBuffer()` function. As the name suggests, the function will build up a buffer of LED patterns by looking up each letter in the message and adding the related pattern row by row. If a letter isn't found in the dictionary, then a space will be used instead.

Finally, we now have a list of LED patterns ready to display. To control when we start the sequence, we will use the TILT module and check the status of the tilt switch:



The tilt switch position when not moving (left) and moving (right)

The tilt switch consists of a small ball bearing enclosed in a hollow, insulated cylinder; the connection between the two pins is closed when the ball is resting at the bottom of the cylinder. The tilt switch is open when the ball is moved to the other end of the cylinder, out of contact of the pins:



The tilt switch circuit with the switch closed and with the switch open

The tilt switch circuit shown previously will allow GPIO pin 24 to be connected to the ground when the switch is closed. Then, if we read the pin, it will return `False` when it is at rest. By setting the GPIO pin as an input and enabling the internal pull-up resistor, when the tilt switch is open, it will report `True`.

If the tilt switch is open (reporting `True`), then we will assume the unit is being moved and begin displaying the LED sequences, incrementing the current position each time we display a row of the LED pattern. Just to make the pattern a little more colorful (just because we can!) we repeat each row in another color. As soon as the `TILT.tilt_moving()` function reports that we have stopped moving or that we are moving in the opposite direction, we will reset the current position, ready to start the whole pattern all over again:



The message is displayed by the RGB LEDs - here, we are using green and blue together

When the RGB LED module and tilt switch are moved back and forth, we should see the message displayed in the air!

Try experimenting with different color combinations, speeds, and arm waviness to see what effects you can produce. You could even create a similar setup mounted on a wheel to produce a continuous POV effect.

10

Sensing and Displaying Real-World Data

In this chapter, we will cover the following topics:

- Using devices with the I²C bus
- Reading analog data using an analog-to-digital converter
- Logging and plotting data
- Extending the Raspberry Pi GPIO with an I/O expander
- Capturing data in an SQLite database
- Viewing data from your own web server
- Sensing and sending data to online services

Introduction

In this chapter, we will learn how to collect analog data from the real world and process it so we can display, log, graph, and share the data and make use of it in our programs.

We will extend the capabilities of the Raspberry Pi by interfacing with **analog-to-digital converters (ADCs)**, LCD alphanumeric displays, and digital port expanders using Raspberry Pi's GPIO connections.



Be sure to check out Appendix, *Hardware and Software List*, which lists all the items used in this chapter and the places you can obtain them from.

Using devices with the I²C bus

Raspberry Pi can support several higher-level protocols that a wide range of devices can easily be connected to. In this chapter, we shall focus on the most common bus, called **I-squared-C (I²C)**. It provides a medium-speed bus for communicating with devices over two wires. In this section, we shall use I²C to interface with an 8-bit ADC. This device will measure an analog signal, convert it to a relative value between 0 and 255, and send the value as a digital signal (represented by 8-bits) over the I²C bus to the Raspberry Pi.

The advantages of I²C can be summarized as follows:

- Maintains a low pin/signal count, even with numerous devices on the bus
- Adapts to the needs of different slave devices
- Readily supports multiple masters
- Incorporates ACK/NACK functionality for improved error handling

Getting ready

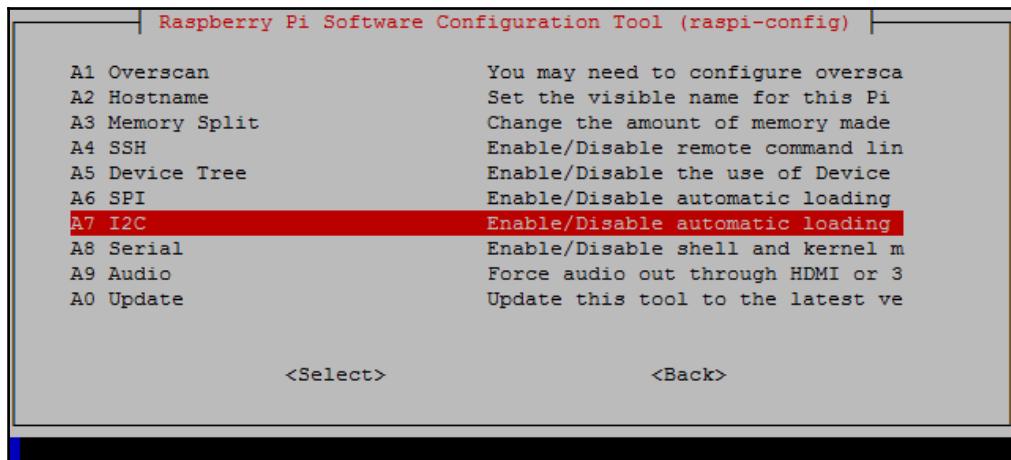
The I²C bus is not enabled in all Raspberry Pi images; therefore, we need to enable the module and install some supporting tools. Newer versions of Raspbian use **device trees** to handle hardware peripherals and drivers.

In order to make use of the I²C bus, we need to enable the ARM I²C in the `bootconfig.txt` file.

You can do this automatically using the following command:

```
sudo raspi-config
```

Select **Advanced Options** from the menu and then select **I²C**, as shown in the following screenshot. When asked, select **Yes** to enable the interface and then click **Yes** to load the module by default:



The raspi-config menu

From the menu, select **I2C** and select **Yes** to enable the interface and to load the module by default.



The `raspi-config` program enables the `I2C_ARM` interface by altering `/boot/config.txt` to include `dtparam=i2c_arm=on`. The other bus (`I2C_VC`) is typically reserved for interfacing with Raspberry Pi HAT add-on boards (to read the configuration information from the on-board memory devices); however, you can enable this using `dtparam=i2c_vc=on`.

If you wish, you can also enable the SPI using the `raspi-config` list, which is another type of bus (we will look at this in more detail in [Chapter 13, Interfacing with Technology](#)).

Next, we should include the I^2C module to be loaded upon turning the Raspberry Pi on, as follows:

```
sudo nano /etc/modules
```

Add the following on separate lines and save (*Ctrl + X, Y, Enter*):

```
i2c-dev  
i2c-bcm2708
```

Similarly, we can also enable the SPI module by adding `spi-bcm2708`.

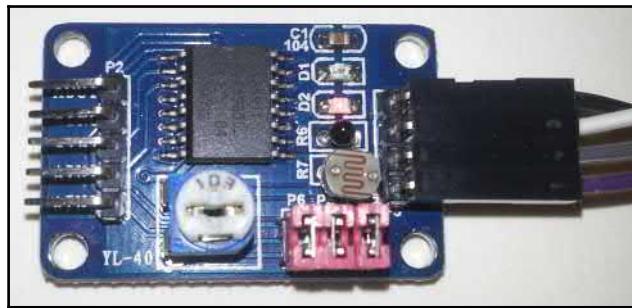
Next, we will install some tools to use I²C devices directly from the command line, as follows:

```
sudo apt-get update  
sudo apt-get install i2c-tools
```

Finally, shut down the Raspberry Pi before attaching the hardware in order to allow the changes to be applied, as follows:

```
sudo halt
```

You will need a PCF8591 module (retailers of these are listed in the Appendix, *Hardware and Software List*) or you can obtain the PCF8591 chip separately and build your own circuit (see the *There's more...* section for details on the circuit):



The PCF8591 ADC and sensor module from dx.com

Connect the **GND**, **VCC**, **SDA**, and **SCL** pins to the Raspberry Pi GPIO header as follows:

I ² C Device	Raspberry Pi GPIO		I ² C Device
VCC	1	2	
SDA	3	4	
SCL	5	6	GND

I²C connections on the Raspberry Pi GPIO header



You can use the same I²C tools/code with other I²C devices by studying the datasheet of the device to find out what messages to send/read and which registers are used to control your device.

How to do it...

1. The `i2cdetect` command is used to detect the I²C devices (the `--y` option skips any warnings about possible interference with other hardware that could be connected to the I²C bus). The following commands are used to scan both the buses:

```
sudo i2cdetect -y 0
sudo i2cdetect -y 1
```

2. Depending on your Raspberry Pi board revision, the address of the device should be listed on bus 0 (for Model B Rev1 boards) or bus 1 (for Raspberry Pi 2 and 3, and Raspberry Pi 1 Model A and Model B Revision 2). By default, the PCF8591 address is 0x48:

I ² C bus number to use	Bus 00	Bus 11
Raspberry Pi 2 and 3	HAT ID (I2C_VC)	GPIO (I2C_ARM)
Model A and Model B Revision 2	P5	GPIO
Model B Revision 1	GPIO	N/A

3. The following screenshot shows the output of `i2cdetect`:

```
pi@raspberrypi:~$ sudo i2cdetect -y 0
      0  1  2  3  4  5  6  7  8  9  a  b  c  d  e  f
00: -----
10: -----
20: -----
30: -----
40: -----
50: -----
60: -----
70: -----
pi@raspberrypi:~$ sudo i2cdetect -y 1
      0  1  2  3  4  5  6  7  8  9  a  b  c  d  e  f
00: -----
10: -----
20: -----
30: -----
40: -----
50: -----
60: -----
70: ----- 48
pi@raspberrypi:~$
```

The PCF8591 address (48) is displayed here on bus 1

If nothing is listed, shut down and double-check your connections (the ADC module from www.dx.com will switch on a red LED when powered).

If you receive an error stating that the `/dev/i2c1` bus doesn't exist, you can perform the following checks:

- Ensure that the `/etc/modprobe.d/raspi-blacklist.conf` file is empty (that is, that the modules haven't been blacklisted), using the following command to view the file:

```
sudo nano /etc/modprobe.d/raspi-blacklist.conf
```



- If there is anything in the file (such as `blacklist i2c-bcm2708`), remove it and save
- Check `/boot/config` and ensure there isn't a line that contains `device_tree_param=` (this will disable support for the new device tree configurations and disable support for some Raspberry Pi HAT add-on boards)
- Check whether the modules have been loaded by using `lsmod` and look for `i2c-bcm2708` and `i2c_dev`

4. Using the detected bus number (0 or 1) and the device address (0x48), use `i2cget` to read from the device (after a power up or channel change, you will need to read the device twice to see the latest value), as follows:

```
sudo i2cget -y 1 0x48
sudo i2cget -y 1 0x48
```

5. To read from channel 1 (this is the temperature sensor on the module), we can use `i2cset` to write 0x01 to the PCF8591 control register. Again, use two reads to get a new sample from channel 1, as follows:

```
sudo i2cset -y 1 0x48 0x01
sudo i2cget -y 1 0x48
sudo i2cget -y 1 0x48
```

6. To cycle through each of the input channels, use `i2cset` to set the control register to 0x04, as follows:

```
sudo i2cset -y 1 0x48 0x04
```

7. We can also control the AOUT pin using the following command to set it fully on (lighting up the LED D1):

```
sudo i2cset -y 1 0x48 0x40 0xff
```

8. Finally, we can use the following command to set it fully off (switching off the LED D1):

```
sudo i2cset -y 1 0x48 0x40 0x00
```

How it works...

The first read from the device after it has been switched on will return 0x80 and will also trigger the new sample from channel 0. If you read it a second time, it will return the sample previously read and generate a fresh sample. Each reading will be an 8-bit value (ranging from 0 to 255), representing the voltage to VCC (in this case, 0 V to 3.3 V). On the www.dx.com module, channel 0 is connected to a light sensor, so if you cover up the module with your hand and resend the command, you will observe a change in the values (darker means a higher value and lighter means a lower one). You will find that the readings are always one behind; this is because, as it returns the previous sample, it captures the next sample.

We use the following command to specify a particular channel to read:

```
sudo i2cset -y 1 0x48 0x01
```

This changes the channel that is read to channel 1 (this is marked as **AIN1** on the module). Remember, you will need to perform two reads before you see data from the newly selected channel. The following table shows the channels and pin names, as well as which jumper connectors enable/disable each of the sensors:

Channel	0	1	2	3
Pin Name	AIN0	AIN1	AIN2	AIN3
Sensor	Light-Dependent Resistor	Thermistor	External Pin	Potentiometer
Jumper	P5	P4		P6

Next, we control the AOOUT pin by setting the analog output enable flag (bit 6) of the control register and using the next value to set the analog voltage (0V-3.3V, 0x00-0xFF), as follows:

```
sudo i2cset -y 1 0x48 0x40 0xff
```

Finally, you can set bit 2 (0x04) to auto increment and cycle through the input channels as follows:

```
sudo i2cset -y 1 0x48 0x04
```

Each time you run `i2cget -y 1 0x48`, the next channel will be selected, starting with channel AIN0, then running from AIN1 through to AIN3 and back to AIN0 again.

To understand how to set a particular bit in a value, it helps to look at the binary representation of the number. The 8-bit value `0x04` can be written as `b0000 0100` in binary (`0x` indicates the value is written in hexadecimal, or hex, and `b` indicates a binary number).



Bits within binary numbers are counted from right to left, starting with 0 - that is, MSB 7 6 5 4 3 2 1 0 LSB.

Bit 7 is known as the **most significant bit (MSB)** and bit 0 is known as the **least significant bit (LSB)**. Therefore, by setting bit 2, we end up with `b0000 0100` (which is `0x04`).

There's more...

The I²C bus allows us to easily connect multiple devices using only a few wires. The PCF8591 chip can be used to connect your own sensors to the module or just the chip.

Using multiple I²C devices

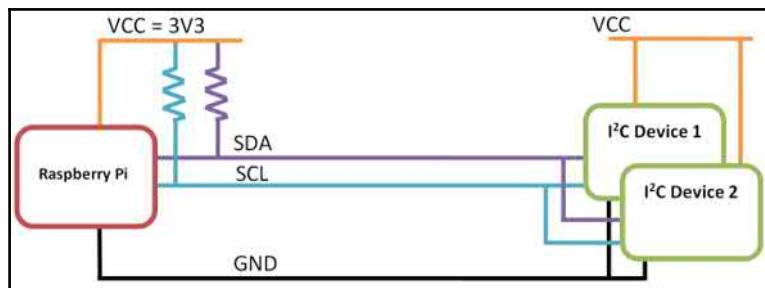
All commands on the I²C bus are addressed to a specific I²C device (many have the option to set some pins high or low to select additional addresses and allow multiple devices to exist on the same bus). Each device must have a unique address so that only one device will respond at any one time. The PCF8591 starting address is `0x48`, with additional addresses selectable by the three address pins to `0x4F`. This allows up to eight PCF8591 devices to be used on the same bus.



If you decide to use the I²C_VC bus that is located on GPIO pins 27 and 2828 (or on the P5 header on Model A and Revision 2 Model B devices), you may need to add a 1k8 ohm pull-up resistor between the I²C lines and 3.3 V. These resistors are already present on the I²C bus on the GPIO connector. However, some I²C modules, including the PCF8591 module, have their own resistors fitted, so it will work without the extra resistors.

I²C bus and level shifting

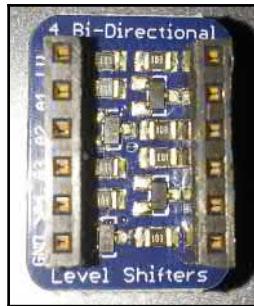
The I²C bus consists of two wires, one data (SDA), and one clock (SCL). Both are passively pulled to VCC (on the Raspberry Pi, this is 3.3 V) with pull-up resistors. The Raspberry Pi will control the clock by pulling it low every cycle and the data line can be pulled low by Raspberry Pi to send commands or by the connected device to respond with data:



The Raspberry Pi I²C pins include pull-up resistors on SDA and SCL

Since the slave devices can only pull the data line to GND, the device may be powered by 3.3 V or even 5 V without the risk of driving the GPIO pins too high (remember that the Raspberry Pi GPIO is not able to handle voltages over 3.3 V). This should work as long as the I²C bus of the device can recognize the logic maximum a 3.3 V rather than 5 V. The I²C device must not have its own pull-up resistors fitted, as this will cause the GPIO pins to be pulled to the supply voltage of the I²C device.

Note that the PCF8591 module used in this chapter has resistors fitted; therefore, we must only use **VCC = 3V3**. A bidirectional logic level converter can be used to overcome any issues with logic levels. One such device is the **Adafruit I²C bidirectional logic level translator module**, which is shown in the following image:

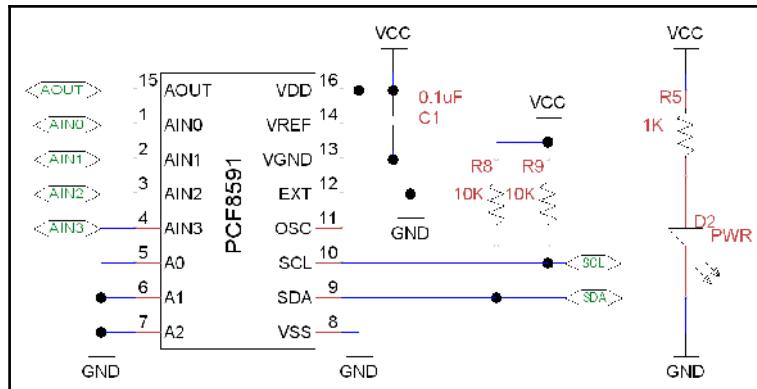


Adafruit I²C Bidirectional logic level translator module

In addition to ensuring that any logic voltages are at suitable levels for the device you are using, it will allow the bus to be extended over longer wires (the level shifter will also act as a bus repeater).

Using just the PCF8591 chip or adding alternative sensors

A circuit diagram of the PCF8591 module without the sensors attached is shown in the following diagram:

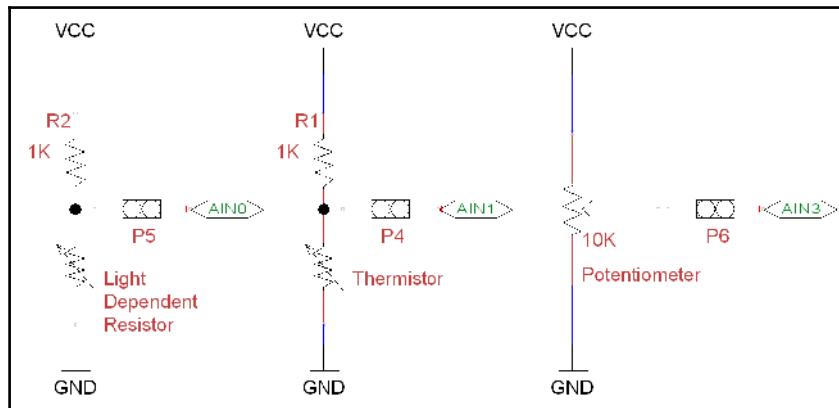


Circuit diagram of the PCF8591 module without sensor attachment

As you can see, excluding the sensors, there are only five additional components. We have a power-filtering capacitor (C1) and a power-indicating LED (D2) with a current-limiting resistor (R5), all of which are optional.

Note that the module includes two 10K pull-up resistors (R8 and R9) for SCL and SDA signals. However, since the GPIO I²C connections on the Raspberry Pi also include pull-up resistors, these are not needed on the module (and could be removed). It also means we should only connect this module to VCC = 3.3 V (if we use 5 V, then voltages on SCL and SDA will be around 3.56 V, which is too high for the Raspberry Pi GPIO pins).

The sensors on the PCF891 module are all resistive, so the voltage level that is present on the analog input will change between GND and VCC as the resistance of the sensor changes:



A potential divider circuit. This provides voltage proportional to the sensor's resistance.

The module uses a circuit known as a potential divider. The resistor at the top balances the resistance provided by the sensor at the bottom to provide a voltage that is somewhere between VCC and GND.

The output voltage (V_{out}) of the potential divider can be calculated as follows:

$$V_{out} = \frac{R_t}{(R_t + R_b)} \times VCC$$

R_t and R_b are the resistance values at the top and bottom, respectively, and VCC is the supply voltage.

The potentiometer in the module has the 10K ohm resistance split between the top and bottom, depending on the position of the adjuster. So, halfway, we have 5K ohm on each side and an output voltage of 1.65 V; a quarter of the way (clockwise), we have 2.5K ohm and 7.5K ohm, producing 0.825 V.



I haven't shown the AOUT circuit, which is a resistor and LED. However, as you will find, an LED isn't suited to indicate an analog output (except to show the on/off states).

For more sensitive circuits, you can use more complex circuits, such as a **Wheatstone bridge** (which allows the detection of very small changes in resistance), or you can use dedicated sensors that output an analog voltage based on their readings (such as a **TMP36** temperature sensor). The PCF891 also supports the differential input mode, where the input of one channel can be compared to the input of another (the resultant reading will be the difference between the two).

For more information on the PCF8591 chip, refer to the datasheet at http://www.nxp.com/documents/data_sheet/PCF8591.pdf.

Reading analog data using an analog-to-digital converter

The I²C tools (used in the previous section) are very useful for debugging I²C devices in the command line, but they are not practical for use within Python, as they would be slow and require significant overhead to use. Fortunately, there are several Python libraries that provide I²C support, allowing the efficient use of I²C to communicate with connected devices and providing easy operation.

We will use such a library to create our own Python module that will allow us to quickly and easily obtain data from the ADC device and use it in our programs. The module is designed in such a way that other hardware or data sources may be put in its place without impacting the remaining examples.

Getting ready

To use the I²C bus using Python 3, we will use *Gordon Henderson's WiringPi2* (see <http://wiringpi.com/> for more details).

The easiest way to install wiringpi2 is by using pip for Python 3. The pip is a package manager for Python that works in a similar way to apt-get. Any packages you wish to install will be automatically downloaded and installed from an online repository.

To install pip, use the following command:

```
sudo apt-get install python3-dev python3-pip
```

Then, install wiringpi2 with the following command:

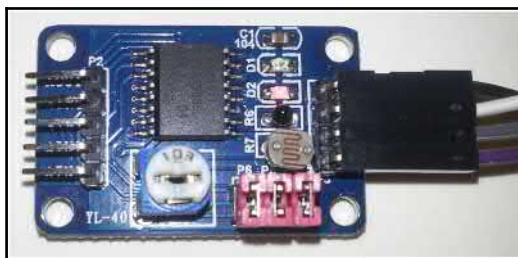
```
sudo pip-3.2 install wiringpi2
```

Once the installation has completed, you should see the following, indicating success:

```
wiringPi/wiringPi/wiringSerial.o build/temp.linux-armv6l-3.2/WiringPi/wiringPi/wiringShift.o build/temp.linux-armv6l-3.2/wiringpi_wrap.o -o build/lib.linux-armv6l-3.2/_wiringpi2.cpython-32mu.so
Successfully installed wiringpi2
Cleaning up...
pi@raspberrypi:~$ █
```

Successfully installed WiringPi2

You will need the PCF8591 module wired as it was previously used in the I²C connections of the Raspberry Pi:



I ² C Device	Raspberry Pi GPIO	I ² C Device
VCC	1	2
SDA	3	4
SCL	5	6
		GND

The PCF8591 module and pin connections to the Raspberry Pi GPIO connector

How to do it...

In the next section, we shall write a script to allow us to gather data that we will then use later on in this chapter.

Create the following script, `data_adc.py`, as follows:

1. First, import the modules and create the variables we will use, as follows:

```
#!/usr/bin/env python3
#data_adc.py
import wiringpi2
import time

DEBUG=False
LIGHT=0;TEMP=1;EXT=2;POT=3
ADC_CH=[LIGHT,TEMP,EXT,POT]
ADC_ADR=0x48
ADC_CYCLE=0x04
BUS_GAP=0.25
DATANAME=["0:Light","1:Temperature",
           "2:External","3:Potentiometer"]
```

2. Create the device class with a constructor to initialize it, as follows:

```
class device:
    # Constructor:
    def __init__(self,addr=ADC_ADR):
        self.NAME = DATANAME
        self.i2c = wiringpi2.I2C()
        self.devADC=self.i2c.setup(addr)
        pwrup = self.i2c.read(self.devADC) #flush powerup value
        if DEBUG==True and pwrup!=-1:
            print("ADC Ready")
        self.i2c.read(self.devADC) #flush first value
        time.sleep(BUS_GAP)
        self.i2c.write(self.devADC,ADC_CYCLE)
        time.sleep(BUS_GAP)
        self.i2c.read(self.devADC) #flush first value
```

3. Within the class, define a function to provide a list of channel names, as follows:

```
def getName(self):
    return self.NAME
```

4. Define another function (still as part of the class) to return a new set of samples from the ADC channels, as follows:

```
def getNew(self):  
    data=[]  
    for ch in ADC_CH:  
        time.sleep(BUS_GAP)  
        data.append(self.i2c.read(self.devADC))  
    return data
```

5. Finally, after the device class, create a test function to exercise our new device class, as follows. This is only to be run when the script is executed directly:

```
def main():  
    ADC = device(ADC_ADR)  
    print (str(ADC.getName()))  
    for i in range(10):  
        dataValues = ADC.getNew()  
        print (str(dataValues))  
        time.sleep(1)  
  
if __name__=='__main__':  
    main()  
#End
```

You can run the test function of this module using the following command:

```
sudo python3 data_adc.py
```

How it works...

We start by importing `wiringpi2` so we can communicate with our I²C device later on. We will create a class to contain the required functionality to control the ADC. When we create the class, we can initialize `wiringpi2` in such a way that it is ready to use the I²C bus (using `wiringpi2.I2C()`), and we will set up a generic I²C device with the chip's bus address (using `self.i2c.setup(0x48)`).



`wiringpi2` also has a dedicated class to use with the PCF8591 chip; however, in this case, it is more useful to use the standard I²C functionality to illustrate how any I²C device can be controlled using `wiringpi2`. By referring to the device datasheet, you can use similar commands to communicate to any connected I²C device (whether it is directly supported or not).

As before, we perform a device read and configure the ADC to cycle through the channels, but instead of `i2cget` and `i2cset`, we use the `wiringpi2` read and write functions of the `I2C` object. Once initialized, the device will be ready to read the analog signals on each of the channels.

The class will also have two member functions. The first function, `getName()`, returns a list of channel names (which we can use to correlate our data to its source) and the second function, `getNew()`, returns a new set of data from all the channels. The data is read from the ADC using the `i2c.read()` function, and since we have already put it into cycle mode, each read will be from the next channel.

As we plan to reuse this class later on, we will use the `if __name__` test to allow us to define a code to run when we execute the file directly. Within our `main()` function, we create the ADC, which is an instance of our new device class. We can choose to select a non-default address if we need to; otherwise, the default address for the chip will be used. We use the `getName()` function to print out the names of the channels and then we can collect data from the ADC (using `getNew()`) and display them.

There's more...

The following allows us to define an alternative version of the device class in `data_adc.py` so it can be used in place of the ADC module. This will allow the remaining sections of the chapter to be tried without needing any specific hardware.

Gathering analog data without hardware

If you don't have an ADC module available, there is a wealth of data available from within Raspberry Pi that you can use instead.

Create the `data_local.py` script as follows:

```
#!/usr/bin/env python3
#data_local.py
import subprocess
from random import randint
import time

MEM_TOTAL=0
MEM_USED=1
MEM_FREE=2
MEM_OFFSET=7
```

```
DRIVE_USED=0
DRIVE_FREE=1
DRIVE_OFFSET=9
DEBUG=False
DATANAME=["CPU_Load", "System_Temp", "CPU_Frequency",
          "Random", "RAM_Total", "RAM_Used", "RAM_Free",
          "Drive_Used", "Drive_Free"]

def read_loadavg():
    # function to read 1 minute load average from system uptime
    value = subprocess.check_output(
        ["awk '{print $1}' /proc/loadavg"], shell=True)
    return float(value)

def read_systemtemp():
    # function to read current system temperature
    value = subprocess.check_output(
        ["cat /sys/class/thermal/thermal_zone0/temp"],
        shell=True)
    return int(value)

def read_cpu():
    # function to read current clock frequency
    value = subprocess.check_output(
        ["cat /sys/devices/system/cpu/cpu0/cpufreq/" +
         "scaling_cur_freq"], shell=True)
    return int(value)
def read_rnd():
    return randint(0,255)

def read_mem():
    # function to read RAM info
    value = subprocess.check_output(["free"], shell=True)
    memory=[]
    for val in value.split()[MEM_TOTAL+
                                MEM_OFFSET:MEM_FREE+
                                MEM_OFFSET+1]:
        memory.append(int(val))
    return(memory)
def read_drive():
    # function to read drive info
    value = subprocess.check_output(["df"], shell=True)
    memory=[]
    for val in value.split()[DRIVE_USED+
                                DRIVE_OFFSET:DRIVE_FREE+
                                DRIVE_OFFSET+1]:
        memory.append(int(val))
    return(memory)
```

```
class device:  
    # Constructor:  
    def __init__(self,addr=0):  
        self.NAME=DATANAME  
    def getName(self):  
        return self.NAME  
  
    def getNew(self):  
        data=[]  
        data.append(read_loadavg())  
        data.append(read_systemp())  
        data.append(read_cpu())  
        data.append(read_rnd())  
        memory_ram = read_mem()  
        data.append(memory_ram[MEM_TOTAL])  
        data.append(memory_ram[MEM_USED])  
        data.append(memory_ram[MEM_FREE])  
        memory_drive = read_drive()  
        data.append(memory_drive[DRIVE_USED])  
        data.append(memory_drive[DRIVE_FREE])  
        return data  
  
    def main():  
        LOCAL = device()  
        print (str(LOCAL.getName()))  
        for i in range(10):  
            dataValues = LOCAL.getNew()  
            print (str(dataValues))  
            time.sleep(1)  
  
if __name__=='__main__':  
    main()  
#End
```

The preceding script allows us to gather system information from the Raspberry Pi using the following commands (the `subprocess` module allows us to capture the results and process them):

- CPU speed:

```
cat /sys/devices/system/cpu/cpu0/cpufreq/scaling_cur_freq
```

- CPU load:

```
awk '{print $1}' /proc/loadavg
```

- Core temperature (scaled by 1,000):

```
cat /sys/class/thermal/thermal_zone0/temp
```

- Drive info:

```
df
```

- RAM info:

```
free
```

Each data item is sampled using one of the functions. In the case of the drive and RAM information, we split the response into a list (separated by spaces) and select the items that we want to monitor (such as available memory and used drive space).

This is all packaged up to function in the same way as the `data_adc.py` file and the `device` class (so you can choose to use either in the following examples just by swapping the `data_adc` include with `data_local`).

Logging and plotting data

Now that we are able to sample and collect a lot of data, it is important that we can capture and analyze it. For this, we will make use of a Python library called `matplotlib`, which includes lots of useful tools for manipulating, graphing, and analyzing data. We will use `pyplot` (which is a part of `matplotlib`) to produce graphs of our captured data. For more information on `pyplot`, go to http://matplotlib.org/users/pyplot_tutorial.html.

It is a MATLAB-style data visualization framework for Python.

Getting ready

To use `pyplot`, we will need to install `matplotlib`.

Because of a problem with the `matplotlib` installer, performing the installation using `pip-3.2` doesn't always work correctly. The method that follows will overcome this problem by performing all the steps `pip` does manually; however, this can take over 30 minutes to complete.

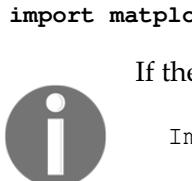


To save time, you can try the `pip` installation, which is much quicker. If it doesn't work, you can install it using the aforementioned manual method.

Use the following commands to try to install `matplotlib` using `pip`:

```
sudo apt-get install tk-dev python3-tk libpng-dev  
sudo pip-3.2 install numpy  
sudo pip-3.2 install matplotlib
```

You can confirm that `matplotlib` has been installed by running `python3` and trying to import it from the Python Terminal, as follows:



If the installation fails, it will respond with the following:

```
ImportError: No module named matplotlib
```

Otherwise, there will be no errors.

Use the following steps to install `matplotlib` manually:

1. Install the support packages as follows:

```
sudo apt-get install tk-dev python3-tk python3-dev libpng-dev  
sudo pip-3.2 install numpy  
sudo pip-3.2 install matplotlib
```

2. Download the source files from the Git repository (the command should be a single line) as follows:

```
wget https://github.com/matplotlib/matplotlib/archive/master.zip
```

3. Unzip and open the `matplotlib-master` folder that is created, as follows:

```
unzip master.zip  
rm master.zip  
cd matplotlib-master
```

4. Run the setup file to build (this will take a while) and install it as follows:

```
sudo python3 setup.py build  
sudo python3 setup.py install
```

5. Test the installation in the same way as the automated install.

We will either need the PCF8591 ADC module (and `wiringpi2`, installed as before), or we can use the `data_local.py` module from the previous section (just replace `data_adc` with `data_local` in the import section of the script). We also need to have `data_adc.py` and `data_local.py` in the same directory as the new script, depending on which you use.

How to do it...

1. Create a script called `log_adc.py`:

```
#!/usr/bin/python3  
#log_adc.c  
import time  
import datetime  
import data_adc as dataDevice  
  
DEBUG=True  
FILE=True  
VAL0=0;VAL1=1;VAL2=2;VAL3=3 #Set data order  
FORMATHEADER = "t%st%st%st%st%s"  
FORMATBODY = "%dt%st%ft%ft%ft%f"  
  
if(FILE):f = open("data.log", 'w')  
  
def timestamp():  
    ts = time.time()  
    return datetime.datetime.fromtimestamp(ts).strftime(  
        '%Y-%m-%d %H:%M:%S')  
  
def main():  
    counter=0  
    myData = dataDevice.device()  
    myDataNames = myData.getName()  
    header = (FORMATHEADER%"Time",  
              myDataNames[VAL0],myDataNames[VAL1],  
              myDataNames[VAL2],myDataNames[VAL3]))  
    if(DEBUG):print (header)  
    if(FILE):f.write(header+"\n")  
    while(1):
```

```
data = myData.getNew()
counter+=1
body = (FORMATBODY%(counter,timestamp(),
                     data[0],data[1],data[2],data[3]))
if(DEBUG):print (body)
if(FILE):f.write(body+"\n")
time.sleep(0.1)

try:
    main()
finally:
    f.close()
#End
```

2. Create a second script called `log_graph.py`, as follows:

```
#!/usr/bin/python3
#log_graph.py
import numpy as np
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt

filename = "data.log"
OFFSET=2
with open(filename) as f:
    header = f.readline().split('t')
data = np.genfromtxt(filename, delimiter='t', skip_header=1,
                     names=['sample', 'date', 'DATA0',
                            'DATA1', 'DATA2', 'DATA3'])
fig = plt.figure(1)
ax1 = fig.add_subplot(211) #numrows, numcols, fignum
ax2 = fig.add_subplot(212)
ax1.plot(data['sample'],data['DATA0'], 'r',
          label=header[OFFSET+0])
ax2.plot(data['sample'],data['DATA1'], 'b',
          label=header[OFFSET+1])
ax1.set_title("ADC Samples")
ax1.set_xlabel('Samples')
ax1.set_ylabel('Reading')
ax2.set_xlabel('Samples')
ax2.set_ylabel('Reading')

leg1 = ax1.legend()
leg2 = ax2.legend()

plt.show()
#End
```

How it works...

The first script, `log_adc.py`, allows us to collect data and write it to a log file.

We can use the ADC device by importing `data_adc` as the `dataDevice`, or we can import `data_local` to use the system data. The numbers given to `VAL0` through `VAL3` allow us to change the order of the channels (and, if using the `data_local` device, select the other channels). We can also define the format string for the header and each line in the log file (to create a file with data separated by tabs) using `%s`, `%d`, and `%f` to allow us to substitute strings, integers, and float values, as shown in the following table:

	Time	0:Light	1:Temperature	2:External	3:Potentiometer
1	2014-02-20 21:24:15	207.00000	216.00000	130.00000	255.00000
2	2014-02-20 21:24:16	207.00000	216.00000	152.00000	255.00000
3	2014-02-20 21:24:17	207.00000	216.00000	145.00000	255.00000
4	2014-02-20 21:24:18	207.00000	216.00000	123.00000	255.00000
5	2014-02-20 21:24:19	207.00000	216.00000	128.00000	255.00000

The table of data captured from the ADC sensor module

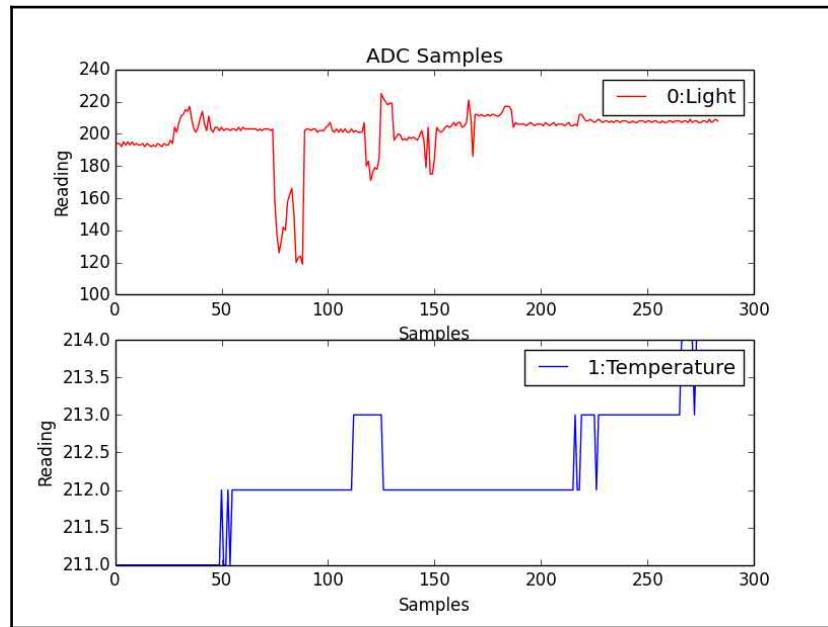
When logging in to the file (when `FILE=True`), we open `data.log` in write mode using the '`w`' option (this will overwrite any existing files; to append to a file, use '`a`').

As part of our data log, we generate `timestamp` using `time` and `datetime` to get the current **epoch time** (this is the number of milliseconds since January 1, 1970) using the `time.time()` command. We convert the value into a more friendly year-month-day hour:min:sec format using `strftime()`.

The `main()` function starts by creating an instance of our `device` class (we made this in the previous example), which will supply the data. We fetch the channel names from the `data` device and construct the header string. If `DEBUG` is set to `True`, the data is printed to the screen; if `FILE` is set to `True`, it will be written to the file.

In the main loop, we use the `getNew()` function of the device to collect data and format it to display on the screen or be logged to the file. The `main()` function is called using the `try: finally:` command, which will ensure that when the script is aborted, the file will be closed correctly.

The second script, `log_graph.py`, allows us to read the log file and produce a graph of the recorded data, as shown in the following diagram:



Graphs produced by `log_graph.py` from the light and temperature sensors

We start by opening up the log file and reading the first line; this contains the header information (which we can then use to identify the data later on). Next, we use `numpy`, a specialist Python library that extends how we can manipulate data and numbers. In this case, we use it to read in the data from the file, split it up based on the tab delimiter, and provide identifiers for each of the data channels.

We define a figure to hold our graphs, adding two subplots (located in a 2×1 grid at positions 1 and 2 in the grid - set by the values 211 and 212). Next, we define the values we want to plot, providing the x values (`data['sample']`), the y values (`data['DATA0']`), the color value ('`r`' for Red or '`b`' for Blue), and `label` (set to the heading text we read previously from the top of the file).

Finally, we set a title and the x and y labels for each subplot, enable legends (to show the labels), and display the plot (using `plt.show()`).

There's more...

Now that we have the ability to see the data we have been capturing, we can take things even further by displaying it as we sample it. This will allow us to instantly see how the data reacts to changes in the environment or stimuli. We can also calibrate our data so that we can assign the appropriate scaling to produce measurements in real units.

Plotting live data

Besides plotting data from files, we can use `matplotlib` to plot sensor data as it is sampled. To achieve this, we can use the `plot-animation` feature, which automatically calls a function to collect new data and update our plot.

Create the following script, called `live_graph.py`:

```
#!/usr/bin/python3
#live_graph.py
import numpy as np
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
import matplotlib.animation as animation
import data_local as dataDevice

PADDING=5
myData = dataDevice.device()
dispdata = []
timeplot=0
fig, ax = plt.subplots()
line, = ax.plot(dispdata)

def update(data):
    global dispdata,timeplot
    timeplot+=1
    dispdata.append(data)
    ax.set_xlim(0, timeplot)
    ymin = min(dispdata)-PADDING
    ymax = max(dispdata)+PADDING
    ax.set_ylim(ymin, ymax)
    line.set_data(range(timeplot),dispdata)
    return line

def data_gen():
    while True:
        yield myData.getNew()[1]/1000

ani = animation.FuncAnimation(fig, update,
```

```
    data_gen, interval=1000)  
plt.show()  
#End
```

We start by defining our `dataDevice` object and creating an empty array, `dispdata[]`, which will hold all the data which has been collected. Next, we define our subplot and the line we are going to plot.

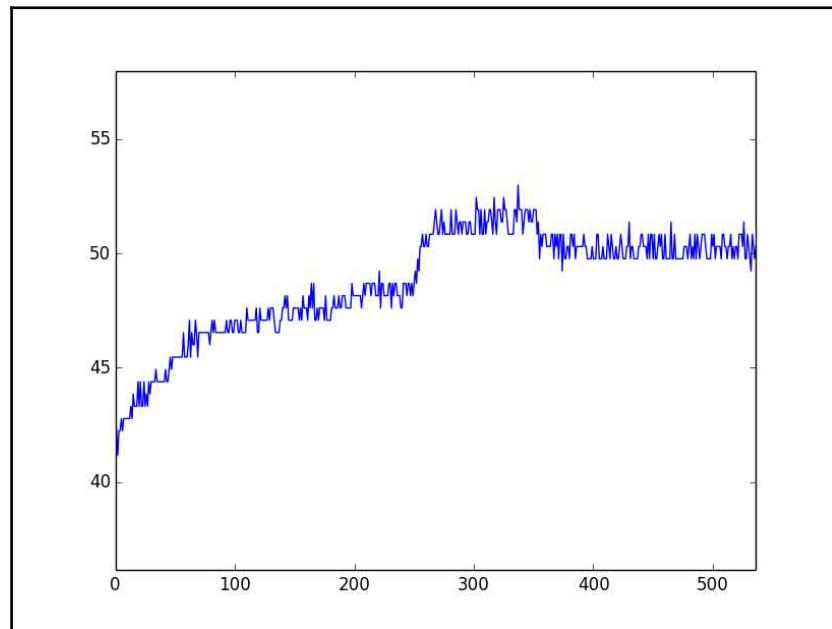
The `FuncAnimation()` function allows us to update a figure (`fig`) by defining an update function and a generator function. The generator function (`data_gen()`) will be called every interval (1,000 ms) and will produce a data value.

This example uses the core temperature reading that, when divided by 1,000, gives the actual temperature in `degC`:



To use the ADC data instead, change the import for `dataDevice` to `data_adc` and adjust the following line to use a channel other than [1] and apply a scaling that is different from 1,000:

```
yield myData.getNew()[1]/1000
```



Raspberry Pi plotting in real time

The data value is passed to the `update()` function, which allows us to add it to our `dispdata[]` array that will contain all the data values to be displayed in the plot. We adjust the `x` axis range to be near the `min` and `max` values of the data. We also adjust the `y` axis to grow as we continue to sample more data.



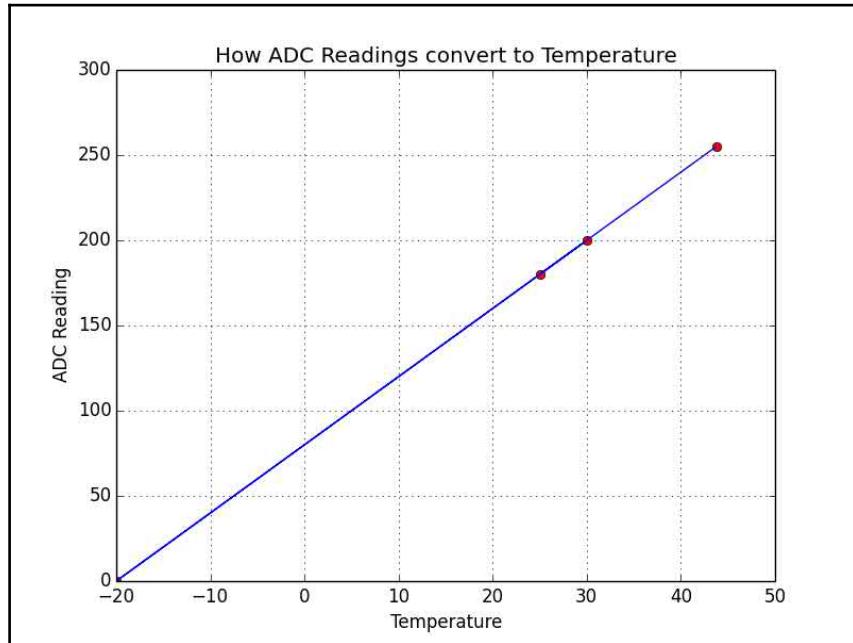
The `FuncAnimation()` function requires the `data_gen()` object to be a special type of function called a generator. A generator function produces a continuous series of values each time it is called, and can even use its previous state to calculate the next value if required. This is used to perform continuous calculations for plotting; this is why it is used here. In our case, we just want to run the same sampling function (`new_data()`) continuously so that each time it is called, it will yield a new sample.

Finally, we update the `x` and `y` axes data with our `dispdata[]` array (using the `set_data()` function), which will plot our samples against the number of seconds we are sampling. To use other data, or to plot data from the ADC, adjust the import for `dataDevice` and select the required channel (and scaling) in the `data_gen()` function.

Scaling and calibrating data

You may have noticed that it can sometimes be difficult to interpret data read from an ADC, since the value is just a number. A number isn't much help on its own; all it can tell you is that the environment is slightly hotter or slightly darker than the previous sample. However, if you can use another device to provide comparable values (such as the current room temperature), you can then calibrate your sensor data to provide more useful real-world information.

To obtain a rough calibration, we shall use two samples to create a linear fit model that can then be used to estimate real-world values for other ADC readings (this assumes the sensor itself is mostly linear in its response). The following diagram shows a linear fit graph using two readings at 25 and 30 degrees Celsius, providing estimated ADC values for other temperatures:



Samples are used to linearly calibrate temperature sensor readings

We can calculate our model using the following function:

```
def linearCal(realVal1, readVal1, realVal2, readVal2):  
    #y=Ax+C  
    A = (realVal1-realVal2) / (readVal1-readVal2)  
    C = realVal1-(readVal1*A)  
    cal = (A,C)  
    return cal
```

This will return `cal`, which will contain the model slope (`A`) and offset (`C`).

We can then use the following function to calculate the value of any reading by using the calculated `cal` values for that channel:

```
def calValue(readVal,cal = [1,0]):  
    realVal = (readVal*cal[0])+cal[1]  
    return realVal
```

For more accuracy, you can take several samples and use linear interpolation between the values (or fit the data to other, more complex mathematical models), if required.

Extending the Raspberry Pi GPIO with an I/O expander

As we have seen, making use of the higher-level bus protocols allows us to connect to more complex hardware quickly and easily. The I²C can be put to great use by using it to expand the available I/O on the Raspberry Pi, as well as providing additional circuit protection (and, in some cases, additional power to drive more hardware).

There are lots of devices available that provide I/O expansion over the I²C bus (and also SPI), but the most commonly used is a 28-pin device, MCP23017, which provides 16 additional digital input/output pins. Being an I²C device, it only requires the two signals (SCL and SDA connections, plus ground, and power) and will happily function with other I²C devices on the same bus.

We shall see how the Adafruit I²C 16x2 RGB LCD Pi Plate makes use of one of these chips to control an LCD alphanumeric display and keypad over the I²C bus (without the I/O expander, this would normally require up to 15 GPIO pins).

Boards from other manufacturers will also work. A 16x2 LCD module and I²C-to-serial interface module can be combined to have our own low cost I²C LCD module.

Getting ready

You will need the Adafruit I²C 16x2 RGB LCD Pi Plate (which also includes five keypad buttons), shown in the following photo:



Adafruit I²C 16x2 RGB LCD Pi Plate with keypad buttons

The Adafruit I²C 16x2 RGB LCD Pi Plate directly connects to the GPIO connector of Raspberry Pi.

As before, we can use the PCF8591 ADC module or use the `data_local.py` module from the previous section (use `data_adc` or `data_local` in the import section of the script). The `data_adc.py` and `data_local.py` files should be in the same directory as the new script.



The LCD Pi Plate only requires four pins (SDA, SCL, GND, and 5V); it connects over the whole GPIO header. If we want to use it with other devices, such as the PCF8591 ADC module, then something similar to a TriBorg from PiBorg (which splits the GPIO port into three) can be used to add ports.

How to do it...

1. Create the following script, called `lcd_i2c.py`:

```
#!/usr/bin/python3
#lcd_i2c.py
import wiringpi2
import time
import datetime
import data_local as dataDevice
```

```
AF_BASE=100
AF_E=AF_BASE+13;      AF_RW=AF_BASE+14;      AF_RS=AF_BASE+15
AF_DB4=AF_BASE+12;    AF_DB5=AF_BASE+11;    AF_DB6=AF_BASE+10
AF_DB7=AF_BASE+9

AF_SELECT=AF_BASE+0;  AF_RIGHT=AF_BASE+1;   AF_DOWN=AF_BASE+2
AF_UP=AF_BASE+3;      AF_LEFT=AF_BASE+4;   AF_BACK=AF_BASE+5

AF_GREEN=AF_BASE+6;   AF_BLUE=AF_BASE+7;   AF_RED=AF_BASE+8
BNK=" "*16 #16 spaces

def gpiosetup():
    global lcd
    wiringpi2.wiringPiSetup()
    wiringpi2.mcp23017Setup(AF_BASE, 0x20)
    wiringpi2.pinMode(AF_RIGHT, 0)
    wiringpi2.pinMode(AF_LEFT, 0)
    wiringpi2.pinMode(AF_SELECT, 0)
    wiringpi2.pinMode(AF_RW, 1)
    wiringpi2.digitalWrite(AF_RW, 0)
    lcd=wiringpi2.lcdInit(2,16,4,AF_RS,AF_E,
                          AF_DB4,AF_DB5,AF_DB6,AF_DB7,0,0,0,0)

def printLCD(line0="",line1 ""):
    wiringpi2.lcdPosition(lcd,0,0)
    wiringpi2.lcdPrintf(lcd,line0+BNK)
    wiringpi2.lcdPosition(lcd,0,1)
    wiringpi2.lcdPrintf(lcd,line1+BNK)

def checkBtn(idx,size):
    global run
    if wiringpi2.digitalRead(AF_LEFT):
        idx-=1
        printLCD()
    elif wiringpi2.digitalRead(AF_RIGHT):
        idx+=1
        printLCD()
    if wiringpi2.digitalRead(AF_SELECT):
        printLCD("Exit Display")
        run=False
    return idx%size

def main():
    global run
    gpiosetup()
    myData = dataDevice.device()
    myDataNames = myData.getName()
    run=True
```

```

index=0
while(run):
    data = myData.getNew()
    printLCD(myDataNames[index],str(data[index]))
    time.sleep(0.2)
    index = checkBtn(index,len(myDataNames))

main()
#End

```

- With the LCD module connected, run the script as follows:

```
sudo python3 lcd_i2c.py
```

Select the data channel you want to display using the left and right buttons and press the **SELECT** button to exit.

How it works...

The `wiringpi2` library has excellent support for I/O expander chips, like the one used for the Adafruit LCD character module. To use the Adafruit module, we need to set up the pin mapping for all the pins of MCP23017 Port A, as shown in the following table (then, we set up the I/O expander pins with an offset of 100):

Name	SELECT	RIGHT	DOWN	UP	LEFT	GREEN	BLUE	RED
MCP23017 Port A	A0	A1	A2	A3	A4	A6	A7	A8
WiringPi pin	100	101	102	103	104	106	107	108

The pin mapping for all of MCP23017 Port B's pins is as follows:

Name	DB7	DB6	DB5	DB4	E	RW	RS
MCP23017 Port B	B1	B2	B3	B4	B5	B6	B7
WiringPi pin	109	110	111	112	113	114	115

To set up the LCD screen, we initialize `wiringPiSetup()` and the I/O expander, `mcp23017Setup()`. We then specify the pin offset and bus address of the I/O expander. Next, we set all the hardware buttons as inputs (using `pinMode(pin_number, 0)`), and the RW pin of the LCD to an output. The `wiringpi2` LCD library expects the RW pin to be set to `LOW` (forcing it into read-only mode), so we set the pin to `LOW` (using `digitalWrite(AF_RW, 0)`).

We create an `lcd` object by defining the number of rows and columns of the screen and stating whether we are using a 4- or 8-bit data mode (we are using four of the eight data lines, so we will be using 4-bit mode). We also provide the pin mapping of the pins we are using (the last four are set to 0 since we are only using four data lines).

Now, we will create a function called `PrintLCD()`, which will allow us to send strings to show on each line of the display. We use `lcdPosition()` to set the cursor position on the `lcd` object for each line and then print the text for each line. We also add some blank spaces at the end of each line to ensure the full line is overwritten.

The next function, `checkBtn()`, briefly checks the left/right and select buttons to see if they have been pressed (using the `digitalRead()` function). If the left/right button has been pressed, then the index is set to the previous/next item in the array. If the **SELECT** button is pressed, then the `run` flag is set to `False` (this will exit the main loop, allowing the script to finish).

The `main()` function calls `gpioSetup()` to create our `lcd` object; then, we create our `dataDevice` object and fetch the data names. Within the main loop, we get new data; then, we use our `printLCD()` function to display the data name on the top line and the data value on the second line. Finally, we check to see whether the buttons have been pressed and set the index to our data as required.

There's more...

Using an expander chip such as the MCP23017 provides an excellent way to increase the amount of hardware connectivity to the Raspberry Pi while also providing an additional layer of protection (it is cheaper to replace the expander chip Raspberry Pi).

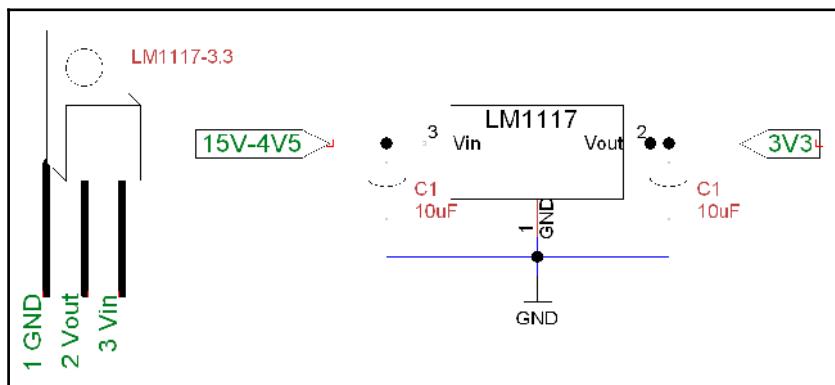
I/O expander voltages and limits

The port expander only uses a small amount of power when in use, but if you are powering it using the 3.3 V supply, then you will still only be able to draw a maximum of 50 mA in total from all the pins. If you draw too much power, then you may experience system freezes or corrupted read/writes on the SD card.

If you power the expander using the 5V supply, then you can draw up to the maximum power the expander can support (around a maximum of 25 mA per pin and 125 mA in total), as long as your USB power supply is powerful enough.

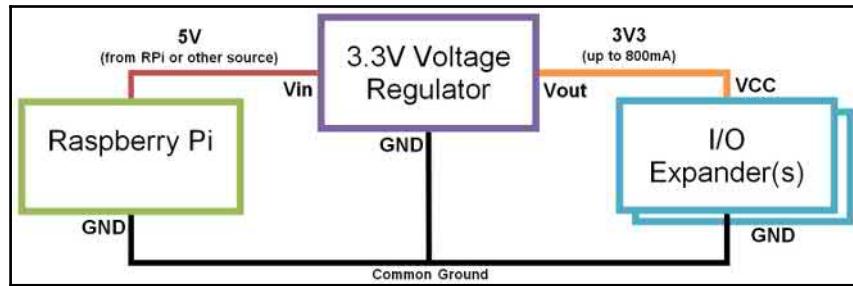
We must remember that if the expander is powered with a 5 V supply, the inputs/outputs and interrupt lines will also be 5 V and should never be connected back to the Raspberry Pi (without using level shifters to translate the voltage down to 3.3 V).

By changing the wiring of the address pins (A0, A1, and A2) on the expander chip, up to eight modules can be used on the same I²C bus simultaneously. To ensure there is enough current available for each, we would need to use a separate 3.3 V supply. A linear regulator such as LM1117-3.3 would be suitable (this would provide up to 800 mA at 3.3 V, 100 mA for each), and only needs the following simple circuit:



The LM1117 linear voltage regulator circuit

The following diagram shows how a voltage regulator can be connected to the I/O expander (or other device) to provide more current for driving extra hardware:

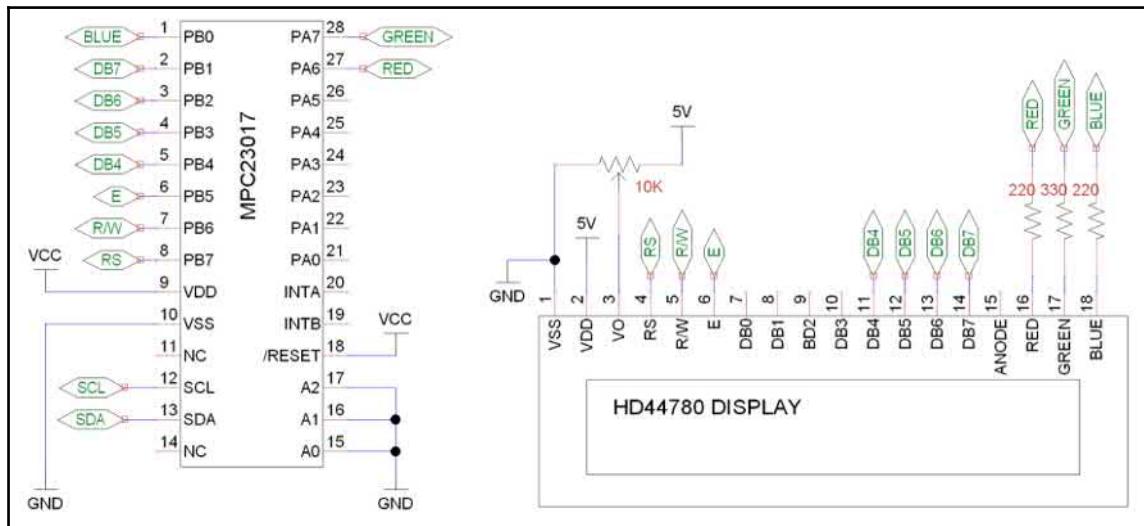


Using a voltage regulator with the Raspberry Pi

The input voltage (V_{in}) is provided by the Raspberry Pi (for example, from the GPIO pin header, such as 5 V pin 2). However, V_{in} could be provided by any other power supply (or battery pack) as long as it is between 4.5 V and 15 V and is able to provide enough current. The important part is to ensure that the ground connections (GND) of the Raspberry Pi, the power supply (if a separate one is used), the regulator, and the I/O expander are all connected together (as a common ground).

Using your own I/O expander module

You can use one of the I/O expander modules that are available (or just the MCP23017 chip in the following circuit) to control most HD44780-compatible LCD displays:



The I/O expander and a HD44780-compatible display

The D-Pad circuit, using *Python-to-drive hardware*, can also be connected to the remaining port A pins of the expander (PA0 to button 1, PA1 to right, PA2 to down, PA3 to up, PA4 to left, and PA5 to button 2). As in the previous example, the buttons will be PA0 to PA4 (WiringPi pin number 100 to 104); apart from these, we have the second button added to PA5 (WiringPi pin number 105).

Directly controlling an LCD alphanumeric display

Alternatively, you can also drive the screen directly from the Raspberry Pi with the following connections:

We are not using the I²C bus here.



LCD	VSS	VDD	V0	RS	RW	E	DB4	DB5	DB6	DB7
LCD Pin	1	2	3	4	5	6	11	12	13	14
Raspberry Pi GPIO	6 (GND)	2 (5V)	Contrast	11	13 (GND)	15	12	16	18	22

The preceding table lists the connections required between the Raspberry Pi and the HD44780-compatible, alphanumeric display module.

The contrast pin (V0) can be connected to a variable resistor as before (with one side connected to the 5 V supply and the other to GND); although, depending on the screen, you may find you can connect directly to GND/5 V to obtain the maximum contrast.

The `wiringpi2` LCD library assumes that the RW pin is connected to GND (read only); this avoids the risk that the LCD will send data back if it is connected directly to the Raspberry Pi (this would be a problem since the screen is powered by 5 V and will send data using 5 V logic).

Ensure that you update the code with the new `AF_XX` references and refer to the physical pin number by changing the setup within the `gpiosetup()` function. We can also skip the setup of the MCP23017 device.

Have a look at the following commands:

```
wiringpi2.wiringPiSetup()
wiringpi2.mcp23017Setup(AF_BASE, 0x20)
```

Replace the preceding commands with the following command:

```
wiringpi.wiringPiSetupPhys()
```

You can see that we only need to change the pin references to switch between using the I/O expander and not using it, which shows how convenient the `wiringpi2` implementation is.

Capturing data in an SQLite database

Databases are a perfect way to store lots of structured data while maintaining the ability to access and search for specific data. **Structured Query Language (SQL)** is a standardized set of commands to update and query databases. For this example, we will use SQLite (a lightweight, self-contained implementation of an SQL database system).

In this chapter, we will gather raw data from our ADC (or local data source) and build our own database. We can then use a Python library called `sqlite3` to add data to a database and then query it:

```
##                                     Timestamp  0:Light  1:Temperature  2:External
3:Potentiometer
  0 2015-06-16 21:30:51        225        212        122
216
  1 2015-06-16 21:30:52        225        212        148
216
  2 2015-06-16 21:30:53        225        212        113
216
  3 2015-06-16 21:30:54        225        212        137
216
  4 2015-06-16 21:30:55        225        212        142
216
  5 2015-06-16 21:30:56        225        212        115
216
  6 2015-06-16 21:30:57        225        212        149
216
  7 2015-06-16 21:30:58        225        212        128
216
  8 2015-06-16 21:30:59        225        212        123
216
  9 2015-06-16 21:31:02        225        212        147
216
```

Getting ready

To capture data in our database, we will install SQLite so that it is ready to be used with Python's `sqlite3` built-in module. Use the following command to install SQLite:

```
sudo apt-get install sqlite3
```

Next, we will perform some basic operations with SQLite to see how to use SQL queries.

Run SQLite directly, creating a new `test.db` database file with the following command:

```
sqlite3 test.db
SQLite version 3.7.13 2012-06-11 02:05:22
Enter ".help" for instructions
Enter SQL statements terminated with a ";"
```

sqlite>

This will open an SQLite console, within which we enter SQL commands directly. For example, the following commands will create a new table, add some data, display the content, and then remove the table:

```
CREATE TABLE mytable (info TEXT, info2 TEXT,);
INSERT INTO mytable VALUES ("John","Smith");
INSERT INTO mytable VALUES ("Mary","Jane");
John|Smith
Mary|Jane
DROP TABLE mytable;
.exit
```

You will need the same hardware setup as the previous recipe, as detailed in the *Getting ready* section of the *Using devices with the I^C bus* recipe.

How to do it...

Create the following script, called `mysqlite_adc.py`:

```
#!/usr/bin/python3
#mysql_adc.py
import sqlite3
import datetime
import data_adc as dataDevice
import time
import os
```

```
DEBUG=True
SHOWSQL=True
CLEARDATA=False
VAL0=0;VAL1=1;VAL2=2;VAL3=3 #Set data order
FORMATBODY="%5s %8s %14s %12s %16s"
FORMATLIST="%5s %12s %10s %16s %7s"
DATABASE_DIR="/var/databases/datasite/"
DATABASE=DATABASE_DIR+"mydatabase.db"
TABLE="recordeddata"
DELAY=1 #approximate seconds between samples

def captureSamples(cursor):
    if(CLEARDATA):cursor.execute("DELETE FROM %s" %(TABLE))
    myData = dataDevice.device()
    myDataNames=myData.getName()

    if(DEBUG):print(FORMATBODY%("#",myDataNames[VAL0],
                                myDataNames[VAL1],myDataNames[VAL2],
                                myDataNames[VAL3]))

    for x in range(10):
        data=myData.getNew()
        for i,dataName in enumerate(myDataNames):
            sqlquery = "INSERT INTO %s (itm_name, itm_value) " %(TABLE) +
                       "VALUES ('%s', %s)"
            %(str(dataName),str(data[i]))
            if (SHOWSQL):print(sqlquery)
            cursor.execute(sqlquery)

            if(DEBUG):print(FORMATBODY%(x,
                                         data[VAL0],data[VAL1],
                                         data[VAL2],data[VAL3]))
            time.sleep(DELAY)
        cursor.commit()

def displayAll(connect):
    sqlquery="SELECT * FROM %s" %(TABLE)
    if (SHOWSQL):print(sqlquery)
    cursor = connect.execute(sqlquery)
    print(FORMATLIST%("", "Date", "Time", "Name", "Value"))

    for x,column in enumerate(cursor.fetchall()):
        print(FORMATLIST%(x,str(column[0]),str(column[1]),
                        str(column[2]),str(column[3])))

def createTable(cursor):
    print("Create a new table: %s" %(TABLE))
    sqlquery="CREATE TABLE %s (" %(TABLE) +
             "itm_date DEFAULT (date('now','localtime')), " +
```

```
        "itm_time DEFAULT (time('now','localtime')), " +
        "itm_name, itm_value)"
if (SHOWSQL):print(sqlquery)
cursor.execute(sqlquery)
cursor.commit()

def openTable(cursor):
    try:
        displayAll(cursor)
    except sqlite3.OperationalError:
        print("Table does not exist in database")
        createTable(cursor)
    finally:
        captureSamples(cursor)
        displayAll(cursor)

try:
    if not os.path.exists(DATABASE_DIR):
        os.makedirs(DATABASE_DIR)
    connection = sqlite3.connect(DATABASE)
    try:
        openTable(connection)
    finally:
        connection.close()
except sqlite3.OperationalError:
    print("Unable to open Database")
finally:
    print("Done")

#End
```

If you do not have the ADC module hardware, you can capture local data by setting the `dataDevice` module as `data_local`. Ensure you have `data_local.py` (from the *There's more...* section in the *Reading analog data using an analog-to-digital converter recipe*) in the same directory as the following script:



```
import data_local as dataDevice
```

This will capture the local data (RAM, CPU activity, temperature, and so on) to the SQLite database instead of ADC samples.

How it works...

When the script is first run, it will create a new SQLite database file called `mydatabase.db`, which will add a table named `recordeddata`. The table is generated by `createTable()`, which runs the following SQLite command:

```
CREATE TABLE recordeddata
(
    itm_date DEFAULT (date('now','localtime')),
    itm_time DEFAULT (time('now','localtime')),
    itm_name,
    itm_value
)
```

The new table will contain the following data items:

Name	Description
itm_date	Used to store the date of the data sample. When the data record is created, the current date (using <code>date('now','localtime')</code>) is applied as the default value.
itm_time	Used to store the time of the data sample. When the data record is created, the current time (using <code>time('now','localtime')</code>) is applied as the default value.
itm_name	Used to record the name of the sample.
itm_value	Used to keep the sampled value.

We then use the same method to capture 10 data samples from the ADC as we did in the *Logging and plotting data* recipe previously (as shown in the `captureSamples()` function). However, this time, we will then add the captured data into our new SQLite database table, using the following SQL command (applied using `cursor.execute(sqlquery)`):

```
INSERT INTO recordeddata
(itm_name, itm_value) VALUES ('0:Light', 210)
```

The current date and time will be added by default to each record as it is created. We end up with a set of 40 records (4 records for every cycle of ADC samples captured), which are now stored in the SQLite database:

	Date	Time	Name	Value
0	2015-07-03	21:02:54	0:Light	210
1	2015-07-03	21:02:54	1:Temperature	210
2	2015-07-03	21:02:54	2:External	107
3	2015-07-03	21:02:54	3:Potentiometer	40
4	2015-07-03	21:02:55	0:Light	211
5	2015-07-03	21:02:55	1:Temperature	210
6	2015-07-03	21:02:55	2:External	156
7	2015-07-03	21:02:55	3:Potentiometer	39

Eight ADC samples have been captured and stored in the SQLite database

After the records have been created, we must remember to call `cursor.commit()`, which will save all the new records to the database.

The last part of the script calls `displayAll()`, which will use the following SQL command:

```
SELECT * FROM recordeddata
```

This will select all of the data records in the `recordeddata` table, and we use `cursor.fetch()` to provide the selected data as a list we can iterate through:

```
for x,column in enumerate(cursor.fetchall()):  
    print(FORMATLIST%(x,str(column[0]),str(column[1]),  
                      str(column[2]),str(column[3])))
```

This allows us to print out the full contents of the database, displaying the captured data.

Note that here we use the `try`, `except`, and `finally` constructs in this script to attempt to handle the mostly likely scenario that users will face when running the script.

First, we ensure that if the database directory doesn't exist, we create it. Next, we try opening the database file; this process will automatically create a new database file if one doesn't already exist. If either of these initial steps fail (because they don't have read/write permissions, for example) we cannot continue, so we report that we cannot open the database and simply exit the script.



Next, we try to open the required table within the database and display it. If the database file is brand new, this operation will always fail, as it will be empty. However, if this occurs, we just catch the exception and create the table before continuing with the script to add our sampled data to the table and display it.

This allows the script to gracefully handle potential problems, take corrective action, and then continue smoothly. The next time the script is run, the database and table will already exist, so we won't need to create them a second time, and we can append the sample data to the table within the same database file.

There's more...

There are many variants of SQL servers available (such as MySQL, Microsoft SQL Server, and PostgreSQL), however they should at least have the following primary commands (or equivalent):

`CREATE, INSERT, SELECT, WHERE, UPDATE, SET, DELETE, and DROP`

You should find that even if you choose to use a different SQL server to the SQLite one used here, the SQL commands will be relatively similar.

The CREATE TABLE command

The `CREATE TABLE` command is used to define a new table by specifying the column names (and also to set default values, if desired):

```
CREATE TABLE table_name (
    column_name1 TEXT,
    column_name2 INTEGER DEFAULT 0,
    column_name3 REAL )
```

The previous SQL command will create a new table called `table_name`, containing three data items. One column will contain text, other integers (for example, 1, 3, -9), and finally, one column will contain real numbers (for example, 5.6, 3.1749, 1.0).

The INSERT command

The `INSERT` command will add a particular entry to a table in the database:

```
INSERT INTO table_name (column_name1name1, column_name2name2,
column_name3name3)
VALUES ('Terry'Terry Pratchett', 6666, 27.082015)082015)
```

This will enter the values provided into the corresponding columns in the table.

The SELECT command

The `SELECT` command allows us to specify a particular column or columns from the database table, returning a list of records with the data:

```
SELECT column_name1, column_name2 FROM table_name
```

It can also allow us to select all of the items, using this command:

```
SELECT * FROM table_name
```

The WHERE command

The `WHERE` command is used to specify specific entries to be selected, updated, or deleted:

```
SELECT * FROM table_name
WHERE column_name1= 'Terry Pratchett'
```

This will `SELECT` any records where the `column_name1` matches 'Terry Pratchett'.

The UPDATE command

The UPDATE command will allow us to change (SET) the values of data in each of the specified columns. We can also combine this with the WHERE command to limit the records the change is applied to:

```
UPDATE table_name  
SET column_name2=49name2=49, column_name3=30name3=30 . 111997  
WHERE column_name1name1= 'Douglas Adams'Adams';
```

The DELETE command

The DELETE command allows any records selected using WHERE to be removed from the specified table. However, if the whole table is selected, using DELETE * FROM table_name will delete the entire contents of the table:

```
DELETE FROM table_name  
WHERE column_name2=9999
```

The DROP command

The DROP command allows a table to be removed completely from the database:

```
DROP table_name
```

Be warned that this will permanently remove all the data that was stored in the specified table and the structure.

Viewing data from your own webserver

Gathering and collecting information into databases is very helpful, but if it is locked inside a database or a file, it isn't of much use. However, if we allow the stored data to be viewed via a web page, it will be far more accessible; not only can we view the data from other devices, but we can also share it with others on the same network.

We shall create a local web server to query and display the captured SQLite data and allow it to be viewed through a PHP web interface. This will allow the data to be viewed, not only via the web browser on the Raspberry Pi, but also on other devices, such as cell phones or tablets, on the local network:

The screenshot shows a web page with a header "Press button to remove the table data" and a "Delete" button. Below this is a section titled "Recorded Data" containing a list of timestamped entries. At the bottom is a "Done" button.

Date	Time	Category	Value
2015-08-06	21:45:49	System_Temp	43850
2015-08-06	21:45:50	System_Temp	43850
2015-08-06	21:45:51	System_Temp	43312
2015-08-06	21:45:52	System_Temp	43850
2015-08-06	21:45:53	System_Temp	43312
2015-08-06	21:45:54	System_Temp	43850
2015-08-06	21:45:55	System_Temp	43312
2015-08-06	21:45:56	System_Temp	43312
2015-08-06	21:45:57	System_Temp	43850
2015-08-06	21:45:59	System_Temp	43312
2015-08-06	21:46:10	1:Temperature	211
2015-08-06	21:46:12	1:Temperature	212
2015-08-06	21:46:14	1:Temperature	212
2015-08-06	21:46:16	1:Temperature	212
2015-08-06	21:46:18	1:Temperature	211
2015-08-06	21:46:20	1:Temperature	212
2015-08-06	21:46:22	1:Temperature	212
2015-08-06	21:46:24	1:Temperature	211
2015-08-06	21:46:26	1:Temperature	211
2015-08-06	21:46:28	1:Temperature	212

Data captured in the SQLite database displayed via a web page

Using a web server to enter and display information is a powerful way to allow a wide range of users to interact with your projects. The following example demonstrates a web server setup that can be customized for a variety of uses.

Getting ready

Ensure you have completed the previous recipe so that the sensor data has been collected and stored in the SQLite database. We need to install a web server (**Apache2**) and enable PHP support to allow SQLite access.

Use these commands to install a web server and PHP:

```
sudo apt-get update  
sudo aptitude install apache2 php5 php5-sqlite
```

The `/var/www/` directory is used by the web server; by default, it will load `index.html` (or `index.php`) – otherwise, it will just display a list of the links to the files within the directory.

To test whether the web server is running, create a default `index.html` page. To do this, you will need to create the file using `sudo` permissions (the `/var/www/` directory is protected from changes made by normal users). Use the following command:

```
sudo nano /var/www/index.html
```

Create `index.html` with the following content:

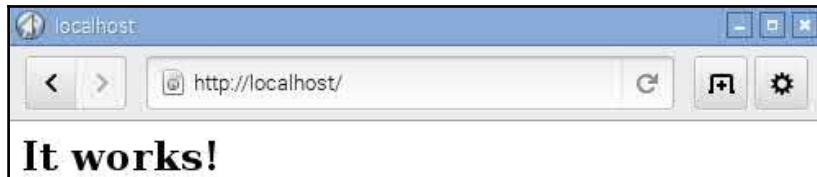
```
<h1>It works!</h1>
```

Close and save the file (using *Ctrl + X*, *Y* and *Enter*).

If you are using the Raspberry Pi with a screen, you can check whether it is working by loading the desktop:

```
startx
```

Then, open the web browser (**epiphany-browser**) and enter `http://localhost` as the address. You should see the following test page, indicating that the web server is active:



Raspberry Pi browser displaying the test page, located at `http://localhost`

If you are using the Raspberry Pi remotely or it is connected to your network, you should also be able to view the page on another computer on your network. First, identify the IP address of the Raspberry Pi (using `sudo hostname -I`) and then use this as the address in your web browser. You may even find you can use the actual hostname of the Raspberry Pi (by default, this is `http://raspberrypi/`).



If you are unable to see the web page from another computer, ensure that you do not have a firewall enabled (on the computer itself, or on your router) that could be blocking it.

Next, we can test that PHP is operating correctly. We can create a web page called `test.php`, and ensure that it is located in the `/var/www/` directory:

```
<?php  
    phpinfo();  
?>;
```

The PHP web page to view the data in the SQLite database has the following details:

PHP Version 5.4.41-0+deb7u1	
System	Linux raspberrypi 3.18.11-v7+ #781 SMP PREEMPT Tue Apr 21 18:07:59 BST 2015 armv7l
Build Date	Jun 7 2015 23:43:27
Server API	Apache 2.0 Handler
Virtual Directory Support	disabled
Configuration File (php.ini) Path	/etc/php5/apache2
Loaded Configuration File	/etc/php5/apache2/php.ini
Scan this dir for additional .ini files	/etc/php5/apache2/conf.d
Additional .ini files parsed	/etc/php5/apache2/conf.d/10-pdo.ini, /etc/php5/apache2/conf.d/20-mysql.ini, /etc/php5/apache2/conf.d/20-mysqli.ini, /etc/php5/apache2/conf.d/20-pdo_mysql.ini, /etc/php5/apache2/conf.d/20-pdo_sqlite.ini, /etc/php5/apache2/conf.d/20-sqlite3.ini
PHP API	20100412
PHP Extension	20100525
Zend Extension	220100525
Zend	API220100525.NTS

Viewing the `test.php` page at <http://localhost/test.php>

We are now ready to write our own PHP web page to view the data in the SQLite database.

How to do it...

1. Create the following PHP files and save them in the web server directory named /var/www/ ./.
2. Use the following command to create the PHP file:

```
sudo nano /var/www/show_data_lite.php
```

3. The show_data_lite.php file should contain the following:

```
<head>
<title>Database Data</title>
<meta http-equiv="refresh" content="10" >
</head>
<body>

Press button to remove the table data
<br>
<input type="button" onclick="location.href = 'del_data_lite.php';"
value="Delete">
<br><br>
<b>Recorded Data</b><br>
<?php
$db = new
PDO("sqlite:/var/databases/datasitedatasite/mydatabase.db");
//SQL query
$strSQL = "SELECT * FROM recordeddata WHERE itmitm_name
LIKE '%'$temp'%'";
//Execute the query
$response = $db->query($strSQL);
//Loop through the response
while($column = $response->fetch())
{
    //Display the content of the response
    echo $column[0] . " ";
    echo $column[1] . " ";
    echo $column[2] . " ";
    echo $column[3] . "<br />";
}
?>
Done
</body>
</html>
```

4. Use the following command to create the PHP file:

```
sudo nano /var/www/del_data_lite.php
<html>
<body>
Remove all the data in the table.
<br>
<?php
$db = new
PDO("sqlite:/var/databases/datasitedatasite/mydatabase.db");
//SQL query
$strSQL = "DROP TABLE recordeddata recordeddata";
//ExecuteExecute the query
$response = $db->query($strSQL);

if ($response == 1)
{
    echo "Result: DELETED DATA";
}
else
{
    echo "Error: Ensure table exists and database directory is
owned
by www-data";
}
?>
<br><br>
Press button to return to data display.
<br>
<input type="button" onclick="location.href =
'show/show_data_lite.php';" value="Return">
</body>
</html>
```



In order for the PHP code to delete the table within the database, it needs to be writable by the web server. Use the following command to allow it to be writable:

```
sudo chown www-data /var/databases/datasite -R
```

5. The `show_data_lite.php` file will appear as a web page if you open it in a web browser by using the following address:

```
http://localhost/showshow_data_lite.php
```

6. Alternatively, you can open the web page (on another computer within your network, if you wish) by referencing the IP address of the Raspberry Pi (use `hostname -I` to confirm the IP address):

```
http://192.168.1.101/showshow_data_lite.php
```

You may be able to use the hostname instead (by default, this would make the address `http://raspberrypi/show_data_lite.php`). However, this may depend upon your network setup.

If there is no data present, ensure that you run the `mysqlite_adc.py` script to capture additional data.

7. To make the `show_data_lite.php` page display automatically when you visit the web address of your Raspberry Pi (instead of the *It works!* page), we can change the `index.html` to the following:

```
<meta http-equiv="refresh" content="0; URL='show_data_lite.php' ">
```

This will automatically redirect the browser to load our `show_data_lite.php` page.

How it works...

The `show_data_lite.php` file shall display the temperature data that has been stored within the SQLite database (either from the ADC samples or local data sources).

The `show_data_lite.php` file consists of standard HTML code, as well as a special PHP code section. The HTML code sets `ACD Data` as the title on the head section of the page and uses the following command to make the page automatically reload every 10 seconds:

```
<meta http-equiv="refresh" content="10" >
```

Next, we define a `Delete` button, which will load the `del_data_lite.php` page when clicked:

```
<input type="button" onclick="location.href = 'del_data_lite.php';" value="Delete">
```

Finally, we use the PHP code section to load the SQLite database and display the Channel 0 data.

We use the following PHP command to open the SQLite database we have previously stored data in (located at /var/databases/testsites/mydatabase.db):

```
$db = new PDO("sqlite:/var/databases/testsite/mydatabase.db");
```

Next, we use the following SQLite query to select all the entries where the zone includes 0: in the text (for example, 0:Light):

```
SELECT * FROM recordeddata WHERE item_name LIKE '%temp%'
```

 Note that even though we are now using PHP, the queries we use with the SQLite database are the same as we would use when using the sqlite3 Python module.

We now collect the query result in the \$response variable:

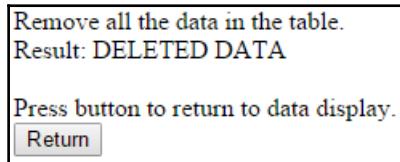
```
$response = $db->query($strSQL);
Allowing us to use fetch() (like we used cursor.fetchall() previously) to
list all the data columns in each of the data entries within the response.
while($column = $response->fetch())
{
    //Display the content of the response
    echo $column[0] . " ";
    echo $column[1] . " ";
    echo $column[2] . " ";
    echo $column[3] . "<br />";
}
?>
```

The del_data_lite.php file is fairly similar; it starts by reopening the mydatabase.db file as before. It then executes the following SQLite query:

```
DROP TABLE recordeddata
```

As described in the *There's more...* section, this will remove the recordeddata table from the database. If the response isn't equal to 1, the action was not completed. The most likely reason for this is that the directory that contains the mydatabase.db file isn't writable by the web server (see the note in the *How to do it...* section about changing the file owner to www-data).

Finally, we provide another button that will take the user back to the `show_data_lite.php` page (which will show that the recorded data has now been cleared):



Show_data_lite.php

There's more...

You may have noticed that this recipe has focused more on HTML and PHP than Python (yes, check the cover – this is still a book for Python programmers!). However, it is important to remember that a key part of engineering is integrating and combining different technologies to produce the desired results.

By design, Python lends itself well to this kind of task since it allows easy customization and integration with a huge range of other languages and modules. We could just do it all in Python but why not make use of the existing solutions, instead? After all, they are usually well documented, have undergone extensive testing, and often meet industry standards.

Security

SQL databases are used in many places to store a wide range of information, from product information to customer details. In such circumstances, users may be required to enter information that is then formed into SQL queries. In a poorly implemented system, a malicious user may be able to include additional SQL syntax in their response, allowing them to compromise the SQL database (perhaps by accessing sensitive information, altering it, or simply deleting it).

For example, when asking for a username within a web page, the user could enter the following text:

```
John; DELETE FROM Orders
```

If this was used directly to construct the SQL query, we would end up with the following:

```
SELECT * FROM Users WHERE UserName = John; DELETE FROM CurrentOrders
```

We have just allowed the attacker to delete everything in the `CurrentOrders` table!

Using user input to form part of SQL queries means we have to be careful what commands we allow to be executed. In this example, the user may be able to wipe out potentially important information, which could be very costly for a company and its reputation.

This technique is called SQL injection, and is easily protected against by using the `parameters` option of the SQLite `execute()` function. We can replace our Python SQLite query with a safer version, as follows:

```
sqlquery = "INSERT INTO %s (itm_name, itm_value) VALUES (?, ?)" %(TABLE)
cursor.execute(sqlquery, (str(dataName), str(data[i])))
```

Instead of blindly building the SQL query, the SQLite module will first check that the provided parameters are valid values to enter into the database. Then, it will ensure that no additional SQL actions will result from inserting them into the command. Finally, the value of the `dataName` and `data[i]` parameters will be used to replace the `?` characters to generate the final safe SQLite query.

Using MySQL instead

SQLite, which is used in this recipe, is just one of many SQL databases available. It is helpful for small projects that only require relatively small databases and minimal resources. However, for larger projects that require additional features (such as user accounts to control access and additional security), you can use alternatives, such as MySQL.

To use a different SQL database, you will need to adjust the Python code that we used to capture the entries using a suitable Python module.

For MySQL (`mysql-server`), we can use a Python-3-compatible library called **PyMySQL** to interface with it. See the PyMySQL website (<https://github.com/PyMySQL/PyMySQL>) for additional information about how to use this library.

To use PHP with MySQL, you will also need PHP MySQL (`php5-mysql`); for more information, see the excellent resource at W3 Schools (http://www.w3schools.com/php/php_mysql_connect.asp).

You will notice that although there are small differences between SQL implementations, the general concepts and commands should now be familiar to you, whichever one you select.

Sensing and sending data to online services

In this section, we shall make use of an online service called Xively. The service allows us to connect, transmit, and view data online. Xively makes use of a common protocol that is used for transferring information over HTTP called **REpresentational State Transfer (REST)**. REST is used by many services, such as Facebook and Twitter, using various keys and access tokens to ensure data is transferred securely between authorized applications and verified sites.

You can perform most REST operations (methods such as POST, GET, SET, and so on) manually using a Python library called `requests` (<http://docs.python-requests.org>).

However, it is often easier to make use of specific libraries available for the service you intend to use. They will handle the authorization process and provide access functions, and if the service changes, the library can be updated rather than your code.

We will use the `xively-python` library, which provides Python functions to allow us to easily interact with the site.

For details about the `xively-python` library, refer to
<http://xively.github.io/xively-python/>.

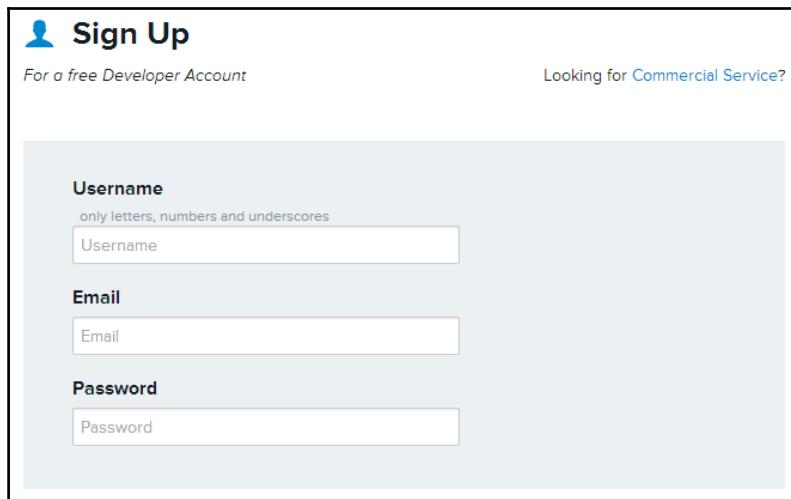
The data collected by Xively is shown in the following screenshot:



Xively collects and graphs data transferred using REST

Getting ready

You will need to create an account at www.xively.com, which we will use to receive our data. Go to the site and sign up for a free developer account:



The image shows a 'Sign Up' form for a free Developer Account. It features a large input field for 'Username' with the placeholder 'Username' and a note below it stating 'only letters, numbers and underscores'. Below it is an 'Email' input field with the placeholder 'Email'. At the bottom is a 'Password' input field with the placeholder 'Password'. In the top right corner, there is a link 'Looking for Commercial Service?'. The entire form is set against a light gray background.

Signing up and creating a Xively account

Once you have registered and verified your account, you can follow the instructions that will take you through a test drive example. This will demonstrate how you can link to data from your smartphone (gyroscopic data, location, and so on), which will give you a taste of what we can do with the Raspberry Pi.

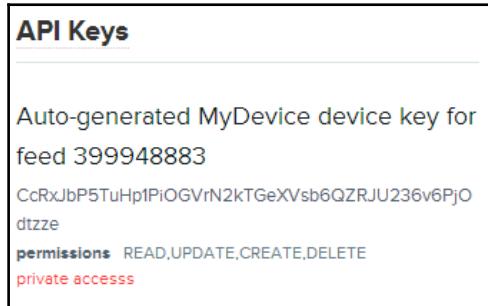
When you log in, you will be taken to the **Development Devices** dashboard (located in the **WebTools** drop-down menu):



Adding a new device

Select **+Add Device** and fill in the details, giving your device a name and setting **Device as Private**.

You will now see the control page for your remote device, which contains all the information you need to connect it and also where your data will be displayed:



Example API key and feed number (this will be unique for your device)

Although there is a lot of information on this page, you only need two key pieces of information:

- The API key (which is the long code in the `API Keys` section), as follows:

```
API_KEY = CcRxJbP5TuHp1PiOGVrN2kTGeXVs6QZRJU236v6PjOdtzze
```

- The feed number (referred to in the `API Keys` section and also listed at the top of the page), as follows:

```
FEED_ID = 399948883
```

Now that we have the details we need to connect with Xively, we can focus on the Raspberry Pi side of things.

We will use `pip-3.2` to install Xively, as follows:

```
sudo pip-3.2 install xively-python
```

Ensure that the following is reported:

```
Successfully installed xively-python requests
```

You are now ready to send some data from your Raspberry Pi.

How to do it...

Create the following script, called `xivelyLog.py`. Ensure that you set `FEED_ID` and `API_KEY` within the code to match the device you created:

```
#!/usr/bin/env python3
#xivelylog.py
import xively
import time
import datetime
import requests
from random import randint
import data_local as dataDevice

# Set the FEED_ID and API_KEY from your account
FEED_ID = 399948883
API_KEY = "CcRxJbP5TuHp1PiOGVrN2kTGeXVsB6QZRJU236v6Pj0dtzze"
api = xively.XivelyAPIClient(API_KEY) # initialize api client
DEBUG=True

myData = dataDevice.device()
myDataNames=myData.getName()

def get_datastream(feed, name, tags):
    try:
        datastream = feed.datastreams.get(name)
        if DEBUG:print ("Found existing datastream")
        return datastream
    except:
        if DEBUG:print ("Creating new datastream")
        datastream = feed.datastreams.create(name, tags=tags)
        return datastream

def run():
    print ("Connecting to Xively")
    feed = api.feeds.get(FEED_ID)
    if DEBUG:print ("Got feed" + str(feed))
    datastreams=[]
    for dataName in myDataNames:
        dstream = get_datastream(feed, dataName, dataName)
        if DEBUG:print ("Got %s datastream:%s"%(dataName,dstream))
        datastreams.append(dstream)

    while True:
        data=myData.getNew()
        for idx,dataValue in enumerate(data):
            if DEBUG:
```

```
    print ("Updating %s: %s" % (dataName,dataValue))
    datastreams[idx].current_value = dataValue
    datastreams[idx].at = datetime.datetime.utcnow()
try:
    for ds in datastreams:
        ds.update()
except requests.HTTPError as e:
    print ("HTTPError({0}): {1}".format(e errno, e.strerror))
time.sleep(60)

run()
#End
```

How it works...

First, we initialize the Xively API client, to which we supply the `API_KEY` (this authorizes us to send data to the Xively device we created previously). Next, we use `FEED_ID` to link us to the specific feed we want to send the data to. Finally, we request the data stream to connect to (if it doesn't already exist in the feed, the `get_datastream()` function will create one for us).

For each data stream in the feed, we supply a `name` function and `tags` (these are keywords that help us identify the data; we can use our data names for this).

Once we have defined our data streams, we enter the `main` loop. Here, we gather our data values from `dataDevice`. We then set the `current_value` function and also the timestamp of the data for each data item and apply them to our data stream objects.

Finally, when all the data is ready, we update each of the data streams and the data is sent to Xively, appearing within a few moments on the dashboard of the device.

We can log in to our Xively account and view data as it comes in, using a standard web browser. This provides the means to send data and remotely monitor it anywhere in the world (perhaps from several Raspberry Pis at once, if required). The service even supports the creation of triggers that can send additional messages back if certain items go out of expected ranges, reach specific values, or match set criteria. The triggers can, in turn, be used to control other devices or raise alerts, and so on. They can also be used in other platforms, such as ThingSpeak or plot.ly.

See also

The AirPi Air Quality and Weather project (<http://airpi.es>) shows you how to add your own sensors or use their AirPi kit to create your own air quality and weather station (with data logging to your own Xively account). The site also allows you to share your Xively data feeds with others around the world.

11

Building Neural Network Modules for Optical Character Recognition

This chapter presents the following recipes:

- Using the **Optical Character Recognition (OCR)** system
- Visualizing optical characters using the software
- Building an optical character recognizer using neural networks
- Application of the OCR system

Introduction

The OCR system is used to convert images of text into letters, words, and sentences. It is widely used in various fields to convert/extract the information from the image. It is also used in signature recognition, automated data evaluation, and security systems. It is commercially used to validate data records, passport documents, invoices, bank statements, computerized receipts, business cards, printouts of static data, and so on. OCR is a field of research in pattern recognition, artificial intelligence, and computer vision.

Visualizing optical characters

Optical character visualization is a common method of digitizing printed texts so that such texts can be electronically edited, searched, stored compactly, and displayed online. Currently, they are widely used in cognitive computing, machine translation, text-to-speech conversion, text mining, and so on.

How to do it...

1. Import the following packages:

```
import os
import sys
import cv2
import numpy as np
```

2. Load the input data:

```
in_file = 'words.data'
```

3. Define the visualization parameters:

```
scale_factor = 10
s_index = 6
e_index = -1
h, w = 16, 8
```

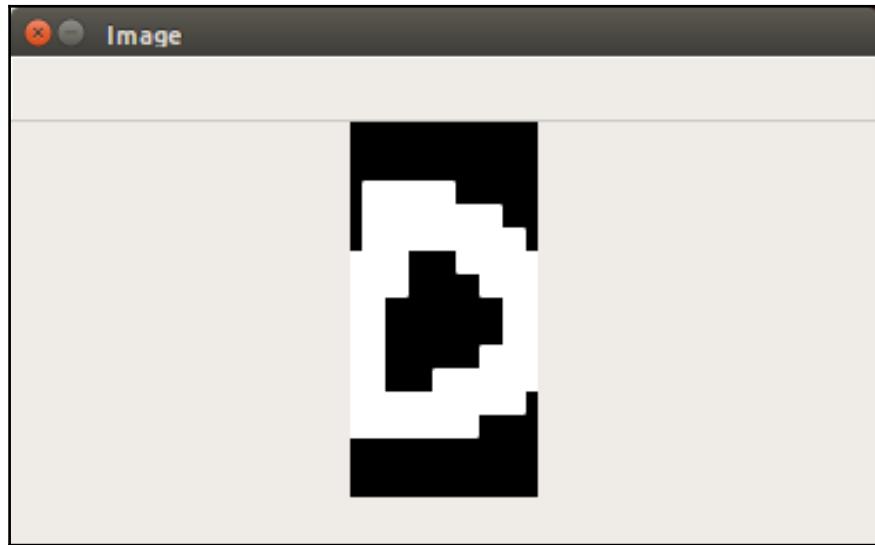
4. Loop until you encounter the *Esc* key:

```
with open(in_file, 'r') as f:
    for line in f.readlines():
        information = np.array([255*float(x) for x in
line.split('t')[s_index:e_index]])
        image = np.reshape(information, (h,w))
        image_scaled = cv2.resize(image, None, fx=scale_factor,
fy=scale_factor)
        cv2.imshow('Image', image_scaled)
        a = cv2.waitKey()
        if a == 10:
            break
```

5. Type `python visualize_character.py` to execute the code:

```
manju@manju-HP-Notebook:~/Documents$ python visualize_characters.py
```

6. The result obtained when `visualize_character.py` is executed is shown here:



Building an optical character recognizer using neural networks

This section describes the neural network based optical character identification scheme.

How to do it...

1. Import the following packages:

```
import numpy as np  
import neurolab as nl
```

2. Read the input file:

```
in_file = 'words.data'
```

3. Consider 20 data points to build the neural network based system:

```
# Number of datapoints to load from the input file  
num_of_datapoints = 20
```

4. Represent the distinct characters:

```
original_labels = 'omandig'  
# Number of distinct characters  
num_of_charect = len(original_labels)
```

5. Use 90% of data for training the neural network and the remaining 10% for testing:

```
train_param = int(0.9 * num_of_datapoints)  
test_param = num_of_datapoints - train_param
```

6. Define the dataset extraction parameters:

```
s_index = 6  
e_index = -1
```

7. Build the dataset:

```
information = []  
labels = []  
with open(in_file, 'r') as f:  
    for line in f.readlines():  
        # Split the line tabwise  
        list_of_values = line.split('t')
```

8. Implement an error check to confirm the characters:

```
if list_of_values[1] not in original_labels:  
    continue
```

9. Extract the label and attach it to the main list:

```
label = np.zeros((num_of_charect , 1))  
label[original_labels.index(list_of_values[1])] = 1  
labels.append(label)
```

10. Extract the character and add it to the main list:

```
extract_char = np.array([float(x) for x in
list_of_values[s_index:e_index]])
information.append(extract_char)
```

11. Exit the loop once the required dataset has been loaded:

```
if len(information) >= num_of_datapoints:
    break
```

12. Convert information and labels to NumPy arrays:

```
information = np.array(information)
labels = np.array(labels).reshape(num_of_datapoints,
num_of_charect)
```

13. Extract the number of dimensions:

```
num_dimension = len(information[0])
```

14. Create and train the neural network:

```
neural_net = nl.net.newff([[0, 1] for _ in
range(len(information[0]))], [128, 16, num_of_charect])
neural_net.trainf = nl.train.train_gd
error = neural_net.train(information[:train_param,:],
labels[:train_param,:], epochs=10000, show=100, goal=0.01)
```

15. Predict the output for the test input:

```
p_output = neural_net.sim(information[train_param:, :])
print "nTesting on unknown data:"
for i in range(test_param):
    print "nOriginal:", original_labels[np.argmax(labels[i])]
    print "Predicted:", original_labels[np.argmax(p_output[i])]
```

16. The result obtained when `optical_character_recognition.py` is executed is shown in the following screenshot:

```
manju@manju-HP-Notebook:~/Documents$ python optical_character_recognition.py
Epoch: 100; Error: 7.872634174;
Epoch: 200; Error: 6.9598487099;
Epoch: 300; Error: 3.69162674976;
Epoch: 400; Error: 1.28277091966;
Epoch: 500; Error: 1.46603655023;
Epoch: 600; Error: 1.14465834785;
Epoch: 700; Error: 1.54577830363;
Epoch: 800; Error: 0.739356427701;
Epoch: 900; Error: 0.997718413015;
Epoch: 1000; Error: 0.496692038186;
Epoch: 1100; Error: 0.445750401977;
Epoch: 1200; Error: 0.433701255714;
Epoch: 1300; Error: 0.139799043752;
Epoch: 1400; Error: 0.162959312047;
Epoch: 1500; Error: 0.0415268342145;
Epoch: 1600; Error: 0.0218423266053;
Epoch: 1700; Error: 0.0242494495199;
Epoch: 1800; Error: 0.0335171101107;
Epoch: 1900; Error: 0.0211101742172;
Epoch: 2000; Error: 0.013270542884;
Epoch: 2100; Error: 0.0107846817182;
Epoch: 2200; Error: 0.0114038385711;
Epoch: 2300; Error: 0.0136432946878;
Epoch: 2400; Error: 0.0142994078988;
Epoch: 2500; Error: 0.0125231282293;
Epoch: 2600; Error: 0.0112677556235;
Epoch: 2700; Error: 0.0182870005799;
Epoch: 2800; Error: 0.0223704819025;
Epoch: 2900; Error: 0.0109798464676;
The goal of learning is reached

Testing on unknown data:

Original: o
Predicted: o

Original: m
Predicted: n
```

How it works...

A neural network-supported optical character recognition system is constructed to extract the text from the images. This procedure involves training the neural network system, testing, and validation using the character dataset.

Readers can refer to the article *Neural network based optical character recognition system* to learn the basic principles behind OCR: <http://ieeexplore.ieee.org/document/6419976/>.

See also

Please refer to the following:

- <https://searchcontentmanagement.techtarget.com/definition/OCR-optical-character-recognition>
- <https://thecodpast.org/2015/09/top-5-ocr-apps/>
- <https://convertio.co/ocr/>

Applications of an OCR system

An OCR system is widely used to convert/extract the text (the alphabet and numbers) from an image. The OCR system is widely used to validate business documents, in automatic number plate recognition, and in key character extraction from documents. It is also used to make electronic images of printed documents searchable and to build assistive technology for blind and visually impaired users.

12

Building Robots

In this chapter, we will cover the following topics:

- Building a Rover-Pi robot with forward driving motors
- Using advanced motor control
- Building a six-legged Pi-Bug robot
- Controlling servos directly with ServoBlaster
- Avoiding objects and obstacles
- Getting a sense of direction

Introduction

A little computer with a "brain the size of a planet" (to quote Douglas Adams, the author of *Hitchhiker's Guide to the Galaxy*) would be perfect as the brain of your own robotic creation. In reality, the Raspberry Pi probably provides far more processing power than a little robot or rover needs; however, its small size, excellent connectivity, and fairly low-power requirements mean that it is ideally suited.

This chapter will focus on exploring the various ways we can combine motors or servos to produce robotic movement, use sensors to gather information, and allow our creation to act upon it.



Be sure to check out the *Appendix, Hardware and Software List*; it lists all of the items used in this chapter and the places you can obtain them from.

Building a Rover-Pi robot with forward driving motors

Creating robots does not need to be an expensive hobby. A small, rover-type robot can be constructed using household items for the chassis (the base everything is attached to), and a couple of small driving motors can be used to move it.

A Rover-Pi robot is a small, buggy-type robot that has two wheels and a skid or caster at the front to allow it to turn. One such robot is shown in the following image:



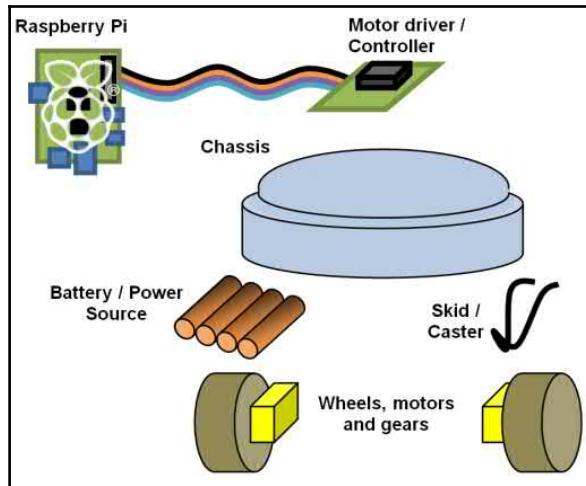
A home-built Rover-Pi robot

While it may not be in the same league as a Mars exploration rover, as you will see, there is plenty for you to experiment with.

You can also purchase one of many inexpensive robot kits that contain most of what you need in a single package (see the *There's more...* section at the end of this example).

Getting ready

The rover that we will build will need to contain the elements shown in the following diagram:



The separate parts of the Rover-Pi robot

The elements are discussed in detail as follows:

- **Chassis:** This example uses a modified, battery-operated push nightlight (although any suitable platform can be used). Remember that the larger and heavier your robot is, the more powerful the driving motors will need to be to move it. Alternatively, you can use one of the chassis kits listed in the *There's more...* section. A suitable push nightlight is shown in the following photo:



This push nightlight forms the basic chassis of a Rover-Pi robot

- **Front skid or caster:** This can be as simple as a large paper clip (76 mm/3 inches) bent into shape, or a small caster wheel. A skid works best when it is on a smooth surface, but it may get stuck on the carpet. A caster wheel works well on all surfaces, but sometimes, it can have problems turning.
- **Wheels, motors, and gears:** The wheel movement of the Rover-Pi robot is a combination of the motor, gears, and wheels. The gears are helpful, as they allow a fast-spinning motor to turn the wheels at a slower speed and more force (torque); this will allow for better control of our robot. A unit that combines the wheels, motors, and gears in a single unit is shown in the following photo:



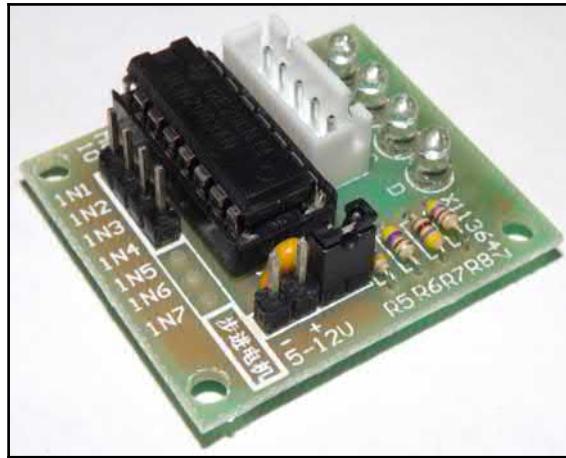
These wheels, with built-in geared motors, are ideal for small rovers

- **Battery/power source:** The Rover-Pi robot will be powered using four AA batteries, fitted into the bay of the chassis. Alternatively, a standard battery holder can be used, or even a long wire connected to a suitable power supply. It is recommended that you power the motors from a supply independent from the Raspberry Pi. This will help to avoid a situation in which the Raspberry Pi suddenly loses power when driving the motors, which require a big jump in current to move. Alternatively, you can power the Raspberry Pi with the batteries using a 5V regulator. The following image shows a chassis with four AA batteries:



Four AA batteries provide a power source to drive the wheels

- **Motor driver/controller:** Motors will require a voltage and current greater than the GPIO can handle. Therefore, we will use a **Darlington array module** (which uses a **ULN2003** chip). See the *There's more...* section at the end of this example for more details on how this particular module works. The following photo shows a Darlington array module:



This Darlington array module, available at <http://www.dx.com>, can be used to drive small motors

- **Small cable ties or wire ties:** This will allow us to attach items, such as a motor or a controller, to the chassis. The following photo shows the use of cable ties:



We use cable ties to secure the motors and wheels to the chassis

- **The Raspberry Pi connection:** The easiest setup is to attach the control wires to the Raspberry Pi using long cables, so that you can easily control your robot directly using an attached screen and keyboard. Later, you can consider mounting the Raspberry Pi on the robot and controlling it remotely (or even autonomously, if you include sensors and intelligence to make sense of them).

In this chapter, we will use the `wiringpi2` Python library to control the GPIO; see Chapter 10, *Sensing and Displaying Real-World Data*, for details on how to install it using a Python package manager (`pip`).

How to do it...

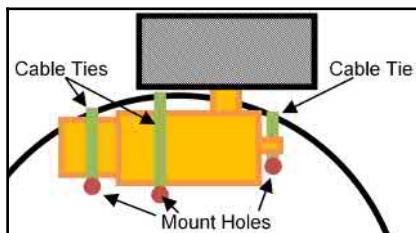
Perform the following steps to create a small Rover-Pi robot:

1. At the front of the chassis, you will need to mount the skid by bending the paperclip/wire into a V shape. Attach the paperclip/wire to the front of the chassis by drilling small holes on either side, threading cable ties through the holes around the wire, and pulling tightly to secure. The fitted wire skid should look similar to the one shown in the following photo:



Wire skid fitted to the front of the Rover-Pi robot

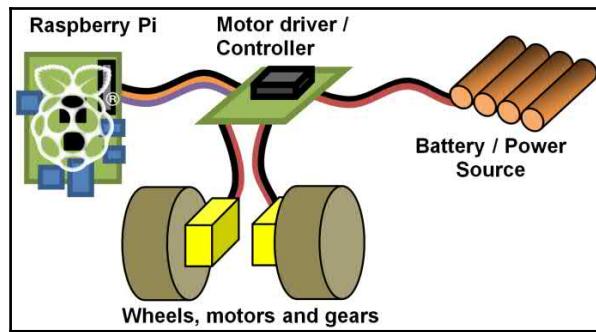
2. Before you mount the wheels, you need to work out the approximate center of gravity of the chassis (do this with the batteries fitted in the chassis, as they will affect the balance). Get a feel of where the center is by trying to balance the unit on two fingers on either side and finding out how far forward or backward the chassis tilts. For my unit, this was about 1 cm (approximately one-third of an inch) back from the center. You should aim to place the wheel axles slightly behind this so that the rover will rest slightly forward on the skid. Mark the location of the wheels on the chassis.
3. Drill three holes on each side to mount the wheels using the cable ties. If the cable ties aren't long enough, you can join two together by pulling the end of one through the end of the other (only pull through far enough for the tie to grip so that it extends the tie). The following diagram shows how you can use the cable ties:



Securely fix the motors to the chassis

4. Next, test the motors by inserting the batteries into the unit; then, disconnect the wires that originally connected to the bulb, and touch them to the motor contacts. Determine which connection on the motor should be positive and which should be negative for the motor to move the robot forward (the top of the wheel should move forward when the robot is facing forwards). Connect red and black wires to the motor (on mine, black equals negative at the top of the motor, and red equals positive at the bottom), ensuring that the wires are long enough to reach anywhere on the chassis (around 14 cm, that is, approximately 5.5 inches, is enough for the nightlight).

The Rover-Pi robot components should be wired up as shown in the following diagram:



The wiring layout of the Rover-Pi robot

To make the connections, perform the following steps:

1. Connect the black wires of the motors to the **OUT 1** (left) and **OUT 2** (right) output of the Darlington module, and connect the red wires to the last pin (the COM connection).
2. Next, connect the battery wires to the **GND/V-** and **V+** connections at the bottom of the module.
3. Finally, connect the **GND** from the GPIO connector (**Pin 6**) to the same **GND** connection.
4. Test the motor control by connecting 3.3V (GPIO **Pin 1**) to **IN1** or **IN2**, to simulate a GPIO output. When you're happy, connect GPIO **Pin 16** to **IN1** (for left) and GPIO **Pin 18** to **IN2** (for right).

The wiring should now match the details given in the following table:

Raspberry Pi GPIO	Darlington module
Pin 16: Left	IN1
Pin 18: Right	IN2
Pin 6: GND	GND/V- (marked with -)
Motor 4 x AA battery Darlington module	
Positive side of battery	V+ (marked with +)
Negative side of battery	GND/V- (marked with -)
Motors	
Left motor: black wire	OUT 1 (top pin in white socket)
Right motor: black wire	OUT 2 (second pin in white socket)
Both motors: red wires	COM (last pin in white socket)

Use the following `rover_drivefwd.py` script to test the control:

```
#!/usr/bin/env python3
#rover_drivefwd.py
#HARDWARE SETUP
# GPIO
# 2 [==X=====LR=====] 26 [=====] 40
# 1 [=====] 25 [=====] 39
import time
import wiringpi2
ON=1;OFF=0
IN=0;OUT=1
STEP=0.5
PINS=[16,18] # PINS=[L-motor,R-motor]
FWD=[ON,ON]
RIGHT=[ON,OFF]
LEFT=[OFF,ON]
DEBUG=True

class motor:
    # Constructor
    def __init__(self,pins=PINS,steptime=STEP):
        self.pins = pins
        self.steptime=steptime
        self.GPIOsetup()
```

```
def GPIOsetup(self):
    wiringpi2.wiringPiSetupPhys()
    for gpio in self.pins:
        wiringpi2.pinMode(gpio,OUT)

def off(self):
    for gpio in self.pins:
        wiringpi2.digitalWrite(gpio,OFF)

def drive(self,drive,step=STEP):
    for idx,gpio in enumerate(self.pins):
        wiringpi2.digitalWrite(gpio,drive[idx])
        if(DEBUG):print("%s:%s"%(gpio,drive[idx]))
    time.sleep(step)
    self.off()

def cmd(self,char,step=STEP):
    if char == 'f':
        self.drive(FWD,step)
    elif char == 'r':
        self.drive(RIGHT,step)
    elif char == 'l':
        self.drive(LEFT,step)
    elif char == '#':
        time.sleep(step)

def main():
    import os
    if "CMD" in os.environ:
        CMD=os.environ["CMD"]
        INPUT=False
        print("CMD="+CMD)
    else:
        INPUT=True
    roverPi=motor()
    if INPUT:
        print("Enter CMDs [f,r,l,#]:")
        CMD=input()
    for idx,char in enumerate(CMD.lower()):
        if(DEBUG):print("Step %s of %s: %s"%(idx+1,len(CMD),char))
        roverPi.cmd(char)

if __name__=='__main__':
    try:
        main()
    finally:
        print ("Finish")
#End
```



Remember that `wiringpi2` should be installed before running the scripts in this chapter (see Chapter 10, *Sensing and Displaying Real-World Data*).

Run the previous code using the following command:

```
sudo python3 rover_drivefwd.py
```

The script will prompt you with the following message:

```
Enter CMDs [f,r,l,#]:
```

You can enter a series of commands to follow; for example:

```
ffrr#ff#l1ff
```

The preceding command will instruct the Rover-Pi robot to perform a series of movements: forward (`f`), right (`r`), pause (`#`), and left (`l`).

How it works...

Once you have built the robot and wired up the wheels to the motor controller, you can work out how to control it.

Start by importing `time` (which will allow you to put pauses in the motor control) and `wiringpi2` (to allow control of the GPIO pins). Use `wiringpi2` here, since it makes it much easier to make use of I/O expanders and other I²C devices, if you want to later on.

Define values to use for setting the pins ON/OFF, for the direction IN/OUT, as well as the duration of each motor STEP. Also, define which PINS are wired to the motor controls, and our movements, FWD, RIGHT, and LEFT. The movement is defined in such a way that by switching both motors ON, you will move forward, and by switching just one motor ON, you will turn. By setting these values at the start of the file using variables, our code is easier to maintain and understand.

We define a `motor` class that will allow us to reuse it in other code, or easily swap it with alternative `motor` classes so that we can use other hardware if we want to. We set the default pins we are using and our `steptime` value (the `steptime` object defines how long we drive the motor(s) for in each step). However, both can still be specified when initializing the object, if desired.

Next, we call `GPIOsetup()`; it selects the physical pin numbering mode (so we can refer to the pins as they are located on the board). We also set all of the pins we are using to output.

Finally, for the `motor` class, we define the following three functions:

- The first function we define (called `off()`) will allow us to switch off the motors, so we cycle through the pins list and set each GPIO pin to low (and therefore switch the motors off).
- The `drive()` function allows us to provide a list of drive actions (a combination of `ON` and `OFF` for each of the GPIO pins). Again, we cycle through each of the pins and set them to the corresponding drive action, wait for the step time, and then switch the motors off using the `off()` function.
- The last function we define (called `cmd()`) simply allows us to send `char` (a single character) and use it to select the set of drive actions we want to use (`FWD`, `RIGHT` or `LEFT`, or `wait (#)`).

For testing, `main()` allows us to specify a list of actions that need to be performed from the command line using the following command:

```
sudo CMD=f#lrr##fff python3 rover_drivefwd.py
```

Using `os.environ` (by importing the `os` module so we can use it), we can check for `CMD` in the command and use it as our list of drive actions. If no `CMD` command has been provided, we can use the `input()` function to directly prompt for a list of drive actions. To use the `motor` class, we set `roverPi=motor()`; this allows us to call the `cmd()` function (of the `motor` class) with each character from the list of drive actions.

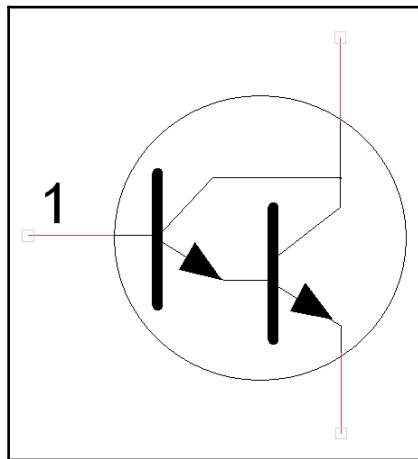
There's more...

Your robot should be limited only by your own creativity. There are lots of suitable chassis options, other motors, wheels, and ways to control and drive the wheels. You should experiment and test things to determine which combinations work best together. That is all part of the fun!

Darlington array circuits

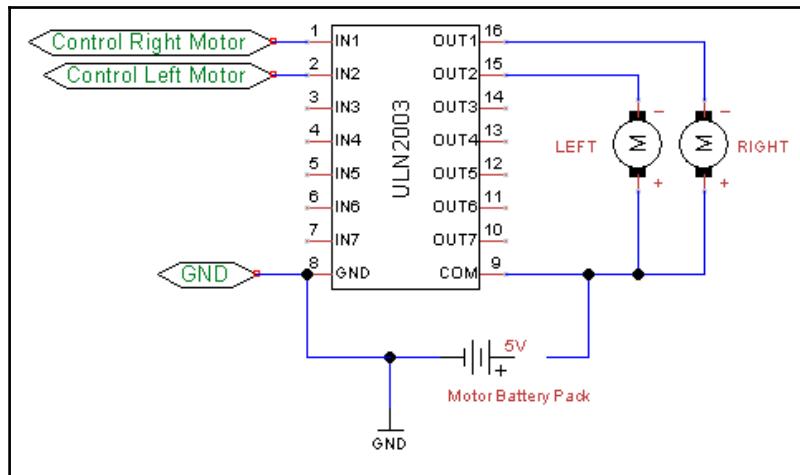
Darlington transistors are a low-cost way to drive high powered devices, such as motors, or even relays. They consist of two transistors arranged in a series, where one feeds the other (allowing the gain in the current to be multiplied). That is, if the first transistor has a gain of 20, and the second one also has a gain of 20, together, they will provide an overall gain of 400.

This means that 1 mA on the base pin (1) in the following diagram will allow you to drive up to 400 mA through the Darlington transistor. The Darlington transistor's electrical symbol is shown in the following diagram:



The electrical symbol for a Darlington transistor shows how two transistors are packaged together

The ULN2003 chip is used in the previous module and provides seven NPN Darlington transistors (an eight-way version, ULN2803, is also available if more output is required or to use with two stepper motors). The following diagram shows how a Darlington array can be used to drive motors:



A Darlington array being used to drive two small motors

Each output from the chip can supply a maximum of 500 mA at up to 50V (enough to power most small motors). However, with extended use, the chip may overheat, so a heat sink is recommended when driving larger motors. An internal diode, connected across each Darlington for protection, is built into the chip. This is needed because when the motor moves without being driven (this can occur due to the natural momentum of the motor), it will act like a generator. A reverse voltage called **back EMF** is created, which would destroy the transistor if it wasn't dissipated back through the diode.

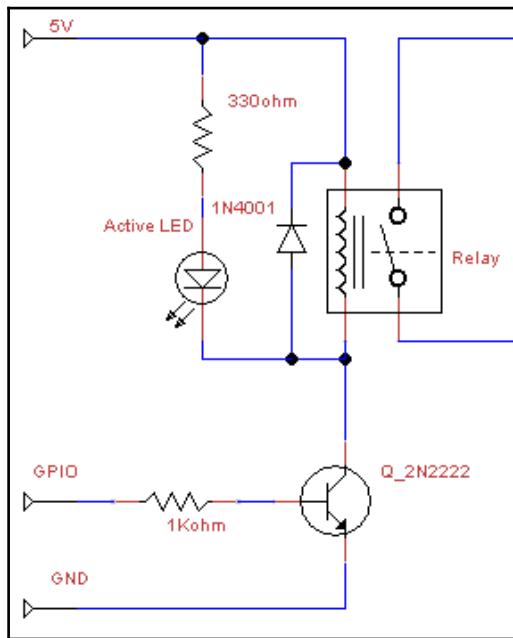
One disadvantage of the chip is that the positive supply voltage must always be connected to the common pin (COM), so each output is only able to sink current. That is, it will only drive the motor in one direction, with the positive voltage on COM and the negative voltage on the OUT pins. Therefore, we will need a different solution if we wish to drive our Rover-Pi robot in different directions (see the next example in the *Using advanced motor control recipe*).

These chips can also be used to drive certain types of stepper motors. One of the modules from <http://www.dx.com> includes a stepper motor as a part of the kit. Although the gearing is for very slow movement, at around 12 seconds per rotation (too slow for a rover), it is still interesting to use (for a clock, perhaps).

Transistor and relay circuits

Relays are able to handle much more highly powered motors, since they are mechanical switches controlled by an electromagnetic coil that physically moves the contacts together. However, they require a reasonable amount of current to be turned on – usually more than 3.3V. To switch even small relays, we need around 60 mA at 5V (more than is available from the GPIO), so we will still need to use some additional components to switch it.

We can use the Darlington array (as used previously) or a small transistor (any small transistor, such as the 2N2222, will be fine) to provide the current and voltage required to switch it. The following circuit will allow us to do that:



The transistor and relay circuit used to drive external circuits

Much like a motor, a relay can also generate EMF spikes, so a protection diode is needed to avoid any reverse voltage on the transistor.

This is a very useful circuit, not just for driving motors, but for any external circuit; the physical switch allows it to be independent and electrically isolated from the Raspberry Pi controlling it.

As long as the relay is rated correctly, you can drive DC or AC devices through it.



You can use some relays to control items powered by the mains. However, this should be done only with extreme caution and proper electrical training. Electricity from the mains can kill or cause serious harm.

PiBorg has a ready-made module named the **PicoBorg** that will allow the switching of up to four relays. It uses devices called **metal-oxide-semiconductor field-effect transistor (MOSFETs)**, which are essentially high-power versions of transistors that function with the same principle as discussed previously.

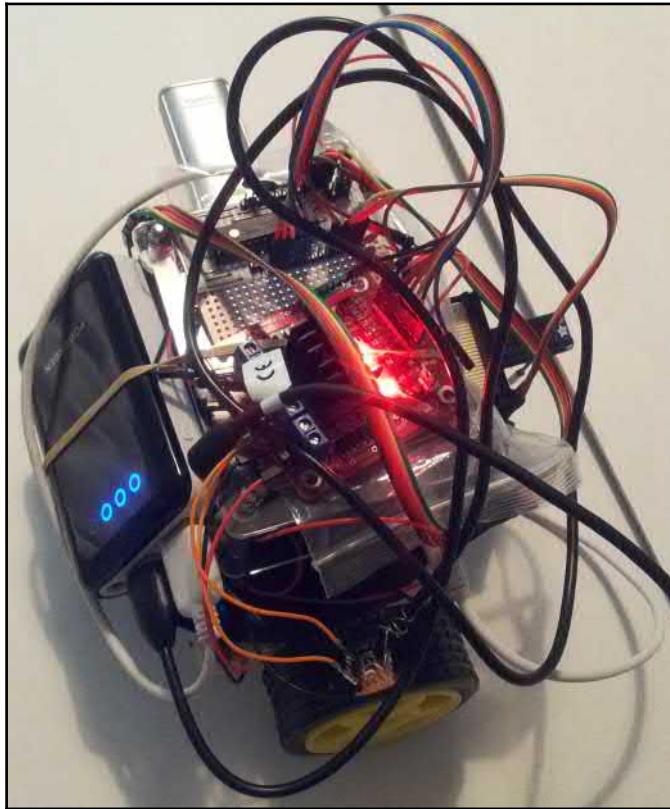
Tethered or untethered robots

An important choice when designing your own Rover-Pi robot is to decide if you want to make it fully self-contained, or if you are happy to have a tether (a long control/power cable connected to the Rover-Pi). Using a tether, you can keep the weight of the Rover-Pi robot down, which means the small motors will be able to move the unit with ease. This will allow you to keep the Raspberry Pi separate from the main unit so that it can remain connected to a screen and keyboard for easy programming and debugging. The main disadvantage is that you will need a long, umbilical-like connection to your Rover-Pi robot (with a wire for each control signal) that may impede its movement. However, as we will see later, you may only need three or four wires to provide all of the control you need (see the *Using I/O expanders* section in the next recipe).

If you intend to mount the Raspberry Pi directly on the Rover-Pi robot, you will need a suitable power supply, such as a phone charger battery pack. If the battery pack has two USB ports, then you may be able to use it as a power source to drive both the Raspberry Pi and the motors. The unit must be able to maintain the supplies independently, as any power spike caused by driving the motors could reset the Raspberry Pi.

Remember that if the Raspberry Pi is now attached to the robot, you will need a means to control it. This could be a USB Wi-Fi dongle that allows a remote connection via SSH (and so on), or a wireless keyboard (that uses RF/Bluetooth), or even the GPIO D-Pad from Chapter 9, *Using Python to Drive Hardware*, which can be used for direct control.

However, the more you mount on the chassis, the harder the motors will need to work to move. You may find that stronger motors are required, rather than the little ones used here. A Rover-Pi robot powered by a USB battery pack is shown in the following photo:



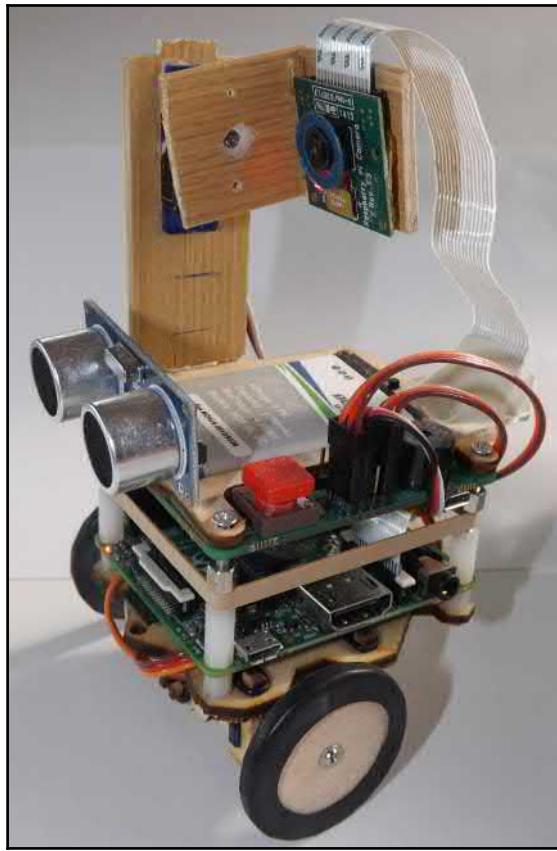
A battery-powered Raspberry Rover-Pi robot being controlled via Wi-Fi (cable management is optional)

Rover kits

If you don't fancy making your own chassis, there are also a number of pre-made rover chassis available. They are as follows:

- 2WD Magician Robot Chassis from <https://www.sparkfun.com/>
- 4-Motor Smart Car Chassis from <http://www.dx.com/>

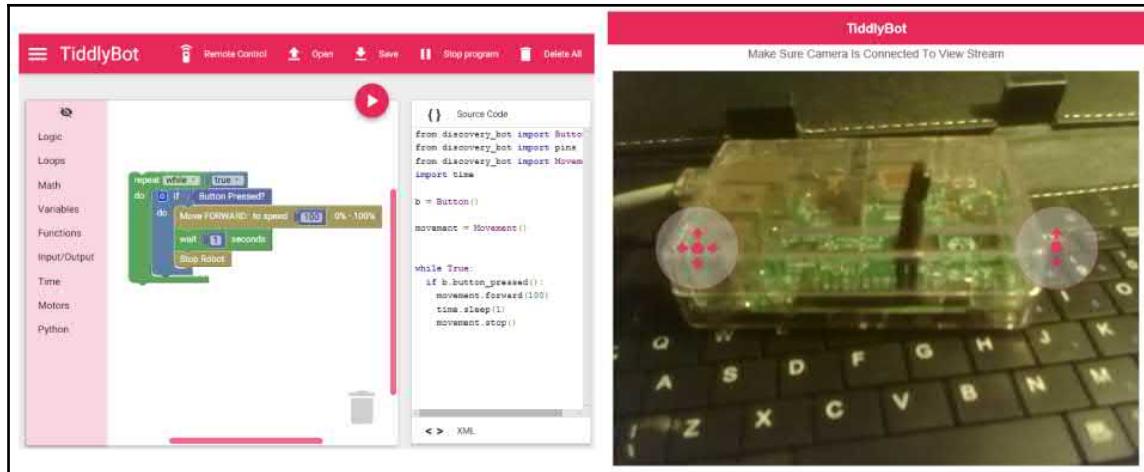
- 2-Wheel Smart Car Model from <http://www.dx.com/>



The TiddlyBot shows how multiple components can be integrated together within a single platform, as shown in my modified version

A particularly nice robot setup is the TiddlyBot (from <http://www.PiBot.org>), which combines multiple sensors, continuous servos, an onboard battery pack, and the Raspberry Pi camera. An SD card is set up so the TiddlyBot acts as a Wi-Fi hotspot, hosting a simple drag and drop programming platform with a remote control interface.

This shows how simple components such as the ones described in this chapter can be combined into a complete system:



The TiddlyBot GUI provides a cross-platform drag and drop interface, as well as Python support

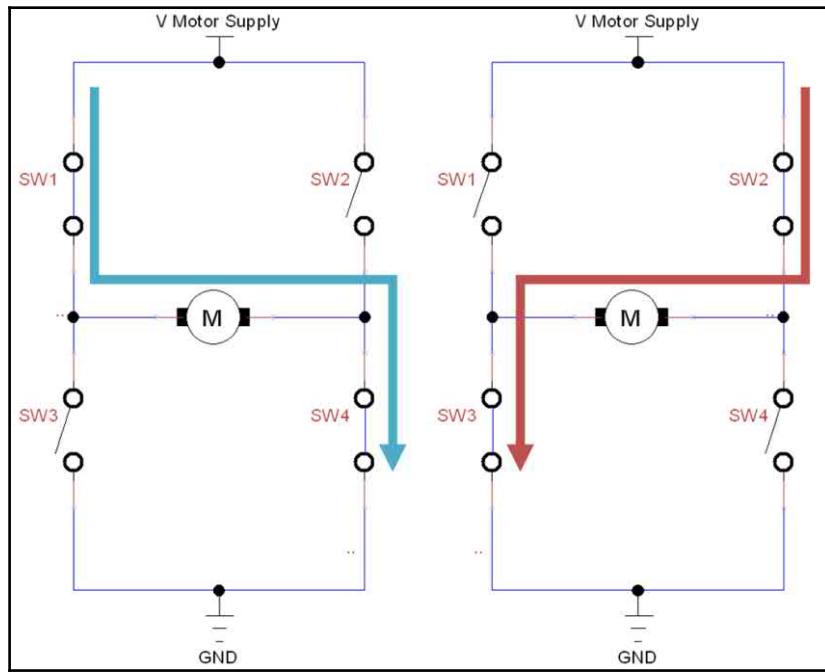


Be sure to check out the *Appendix, Hardware and Software List*; it lists all of the items used in this chapter and the places you can obtain them from.

Using advanced motor control

The previous driving circuits are not suitable for driving motors in more than one direction (as they only switch the motor on or off). However, using a circuit named an H-bridge, you can switch and control the motor's direction, too.

The switch combinations are shown in the following diagram:



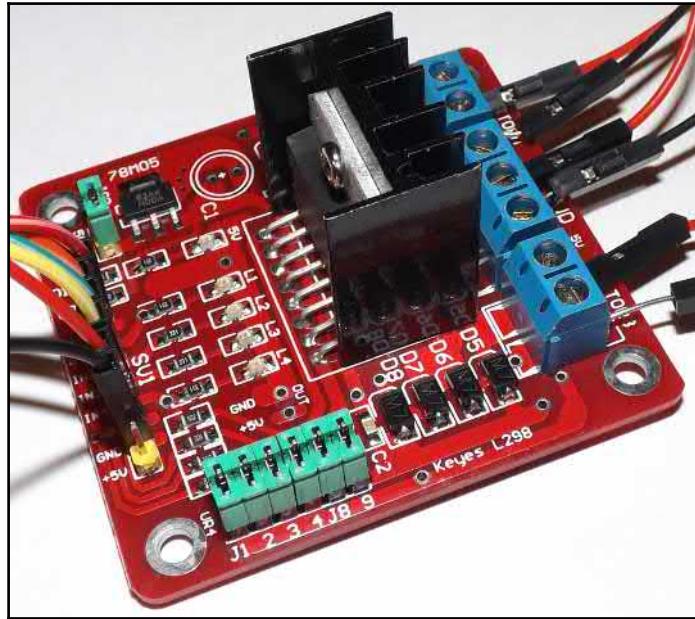
The direction of the motor can be controlled by different switch combinations

Using a different combination of switching, we can change the direction of the motor by switching the positive and negative supply to the motor (**SW1** and **SW4** activate the motor, and **SW2** and **SW3** reverse the motor). However, not only do we need four switching devices for each motor, but since the ULN2X03 devices and PiBorg's PicoBorg module can only sink current, equivalent devices would be required to source current (to make up the top section of switches).

Fortunately, there are purpose-built H-bridge chips, such as L298N, that contain the previous circuit inside them to provide a powerful and convenient way to control motors.

Getting ready

We shall replace the previous Darlington array module with the H-bridge motor controller shown in the following image:



The H-bridge motor controller allows for directional control of motors

The datasheet of L298N is available at

<http://www.st.com/resource/en/datasheet/l298.pdf>.

How to do it...

The unit will need to be wired as follows (this will be similar for other H-bridge type controllers, but check with the relevant datasheet if unsure).

The following table shows how the motors and motor power supply connect to the H-bridge controller module:

The motor side of the module – connecting to the battery and motors						
Motor A		VMS	GND	5V OUT	Motor B	
Left motor red wire	Left motor black wire	Battery positive	Battery GND	None	Right motor red wire	Right motor black wire

The following table shows how the H-bridge controller module connects to the Raspberry Pi:

Control side of the module – connecting to the Raspberry Pi GPIO header							
ENA	IN1	IN2	IN3	IN4	ENB	GND	5V
None	Pin 15	Pin 16	Pin 18	Pin 22	None	Pin 6	None

It is recommended that you keep the pull-up resistor jumpers on (UR1-UR4) and allow the motor supply to power the onboard voltage regulator, which will in turn power the L298N controller (jumper 5V_EN). The onboard regulator (the 78M05 device) can supply up to 500 mA, enough for the L298N controller plus any additional circuits, such as an I/O expander (see the *There's more...* section for more information). Both the ENA and ENB pins should be disconnected (the motor output will stay enabled by default).

You will need to make the following changes to the previous `rover_drivefwd.py` script (you can save it as `rover_drive.py`).

At the top of the file, redefine `PINS`, as follows:

```
PINS=[15,16,18,22]      # PINS=[L_FWD,L_BWD,R_FWD,R_BWD]
```

And update the control patterns, as follows:

```
FWD=[ON, OFF, ON, OFF]
BWD=[OFF, ON, OFF, ON]
RIGHT=[OFF, ON, ON, OFF]
LEFT=[ON, OFF, OFF, ON]
```

Next, we need to add the backwards command to `cmd()`, as follows:

```
def cmd(self,char,step=STEP):
    if char == 'f':
        self.drive(FWD,step)
    elif char == 'b':
        self.drive(BWD,step)
    elif char == 'r':
        self.drive(RIGHT,step)
    elif char == 'l':
        self.drive(LEFT,step)
    elif char == '#':
        time.sleep(step)
```

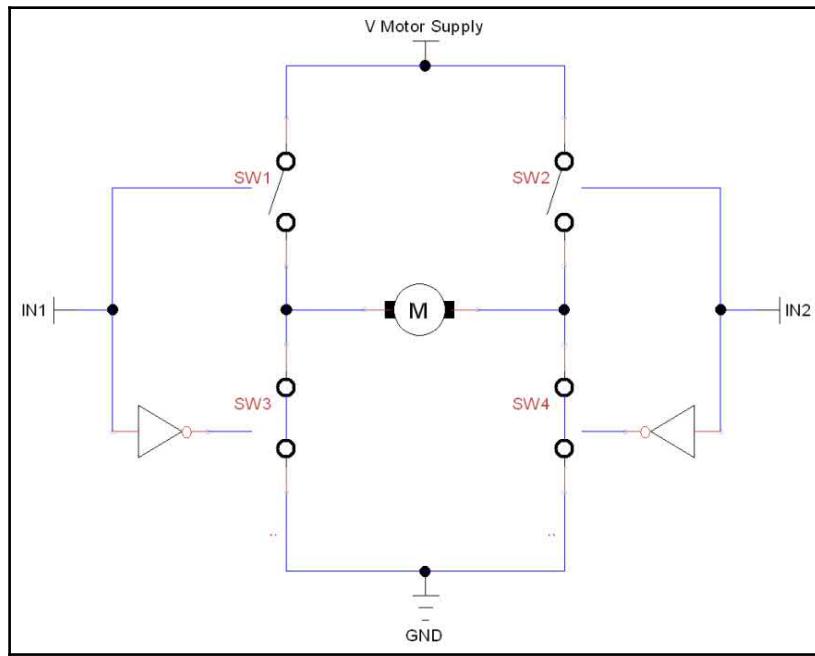
Finally, we can update the prompt that we have within the `main()` function to include `b` (backwards) as an option, as follows:

```
print("Enter CMDs [f,b,r,l,#]:")
```

How it works...

The H-bridge motor controller recreates the previous switching circuit with additional circuitry to ensure that the electronic switches cannot create a short circuit (by not allowing **SW1** and **SW3** or **SW2** and **SW4** to be enabled at the same time).

The H-bridge motor controller's switching circuit is shown in the following diagram:



An approximation of the H-bridge switching circuit (in motor off state)

The input (**IN1** and **IN2**) will produce the following action on the motors:

IN1	0	1
IN2	0	1
0	Motor off	Motor backwards
1	Motor forwards	Motor off

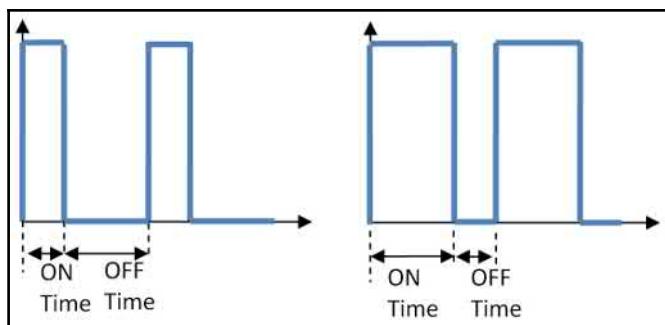
As we did in the previous recipe, we can move forward by driving both motors forward; however, now we can drive them both backwards (to move backwards), as well as in opposite directions (allowing us to turn the Rover-Pi robot on the spot).

There's more...

We can achieve finer control of the motors using a **pulse width modulated (PWM)** signal and expand the available input/output using an I/O expander.

Motor speed control using PWM control

Currently, the Rover-Pi robot motors are controlled by being switched on and off; however, if the robot is moving too fast (for example, if you have fitted bigger motors or used higher gearing), we can make use of the ENA and ENB input on the controller. If these are set low, the motor output is disabled, and if set high, it is enabled again. Therefore, by driving them with a PWM signal, we can control the speed of the motors. We could even set slightly different PWM rates (if required) to compensate for any differences in the motors/wheels or surface to drive them at slightly different speeds, as shown in the following diagram:



A PWM signal controls the ratio of the ON and OFF times

A PWM signal is a digital on/off signal that has different amounts of **ON** time compared to **OFF** time. A motor driven with a 50:50, ON:OFF signal would drive a motor with half the power of an ON signal at 100 percent, and would therefore run more slowly. Using different ratios, we can drive the motors at different speeds.

We can use the hardware PWM of the Raspberry Pi (GPIO pin 12 can use the PWM driver).



The PWM driver normally provides one of the audio channels of the analog audio output. Sometimes, this generates interference; therefore, it is suggested that you disconnect any devices connected to the analog audio socket.

The hardware PWM function is enabled in `wiringpi2` by setting the pin mode to 2 (which is the value of `PWM`) and specifying the on time (represented as `ON_TIME`) as follows:

```
PWM_PIN=12; PWM=2; ON_TIME=512 #0-1024 Off-On

def GPIOsetup(self):
    wiringpi2.wiringPiSetupPhys()
    wiringpi2.pinMode(PWM_PIN,PWM)
    wiringpi2.pwmWrite(PWM_PIN,ON_TIME)
```

```
for gpio in self.pins:  
    wiringpi2.pinMode(gpio, OUT)
```

However, this is only suitable for joint PWM motor control (as it is connected to both ENA and ENB), since there is only the one available hardware PWM output.

Another alternative is to use the software PWM function of `wiringpi2`. This creates a crude PWM signal using software; depending on your requirements, this may be acceptable. The code for generating a software PWM signal on GPIO Pin 7 and GPIO Pin 11 is as follows:

```
PWM_PIN_ENA=7;PWM_PIN_ENA=11;RANGE=100 #0-100 (100Hz Max)  
ON_TIME1=20; ON_TIME2=75 #0-100  
ON_TIME1=20 #0-100  
def GPIOsetup(self):  
    wiringpi2.wiringPiSetupPhys()  
    wiringpi2.softPwmCreate(PWM_PIN_ENA,ON_TIME1,RANGE)  
    wiringpi2.softPwmCreate(PWM_PIN_ENB,ON_TIME2,RANGE)  
    for gpio in self.pins:  
        wiringpi2.pinMode(gpio, OUT)
```

The previous code sets both pins to 100 Hz, with GPIO Pin 7 set to an on time of 2 ms (and an off time of 8 ms) and GPIO Pin 11 set to 7.5 ms/2.5 ms.

To adjust the PWM timings, use `wiringpi2.softPwmWrite(PWM_PIN_ENA, ON_TIME2)`.

The accuracy of the PWM signal may be interrupted by other system processes, but it can control a small micro servo, even if it's slightly jittery.

Using I/O expanders

As we saw previously (in Chapter 10, *Sensing and Displaying Real-World Data*), `wiringpi2` allows us to easily adjust our code to make use of I/O expanders using I²C. In this case, it can be useful to add additional circuits, such as sensors and LED status indicators, and perhaps even displays and control buttons, to assist with debugging and controlling the Rover-Pi robot as you develop it.

It can be particularly helpful if you intend to use it as a tethered device, since you will only require three wires to connect back to the Raspberry Pi (I²C Data GPIO Pin 3, I²C Clock GPIO Pin 5, and Ground GPIO Pin 6), with I²C VCC being provided by the motor controller 5V output.

As shown in the earlier example, add defines for the I²C address and pin base, as follows:

```
IO_ADDR=0x20  
AF_BASE=100
```

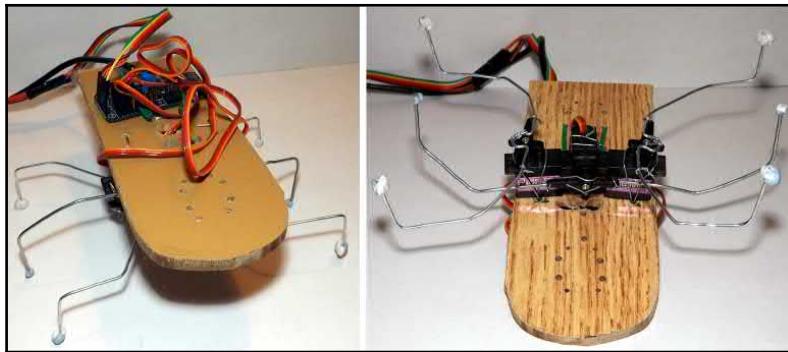
Then, in `gpiosetup()`, set up the MCP23017 device using the following code:

```
wiringpi2.mcp23017Setup(AF_BASE, IO_ADDR)
```

Ensure that any pin references you make are numbered 100-115 (to refer to the I/O expander pins A0-7 and B0-7) with `AF_BASE` added (which is the pin offset for the I/O expander).

Building a six-legged Pi-Bug robot

Controlling motors is very useful for creating vehicle-like robots, but creating more naturally behaving robot components (such as servos) can provide excellent results. There are many creative designs of insect-like robots, or even biped designs (with humanoid-like legs) that use servos to provide natural joint movements. The design in this example uses three servos, but these principles and concepts can be easily applied to far more complex designs, to control legs/arms that use multiple servos. The Pi-Bug robot is shown in the following photo:



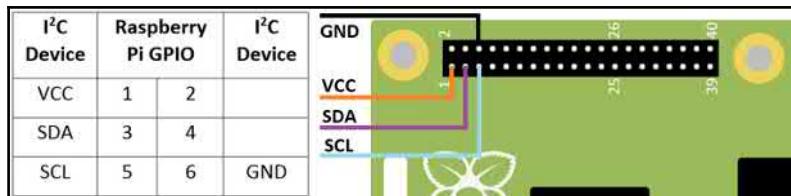
The six-legged Pi-Bug robot uses a servo driver to control three servos to scuttle around

Getting ready

You will need the following hardware:

- **A PWM driver module:** A driver module, such as the Adafruit 16-Channel 12-bit PWM/Servo Driver, will be needed. This uses a PCA9685 device; see the datasheet at <http://www.adafruit.com/datasheets/PCA9685.pdf> for details.
- **Three micro servos:** The MG90S 9g Metal Gear Servos provide a reasonable amount of torque at a low cost.
- **A heavy gauge wire:** This will form the legs; three giant paper clips (76 mm/3 inches) are ideal for this.
- **A light gauge wire/cable ties:** These will be used to connect the legs to the servos and to mount the servos to the main board.
- **A small section of plywood or fiberboard:** Holes can be drilled into this, and the servos can be mounted on it.

You will need to have `wiringpi2` installed to control the PWM module, and it will be useful to install the I²C tools for debugging. See Chapter 10, *Sensing and Displaying Real-World Data*, for details on how to install `wiringpi2` and the I²C tools. The I²C connections are shown in the following diagram:



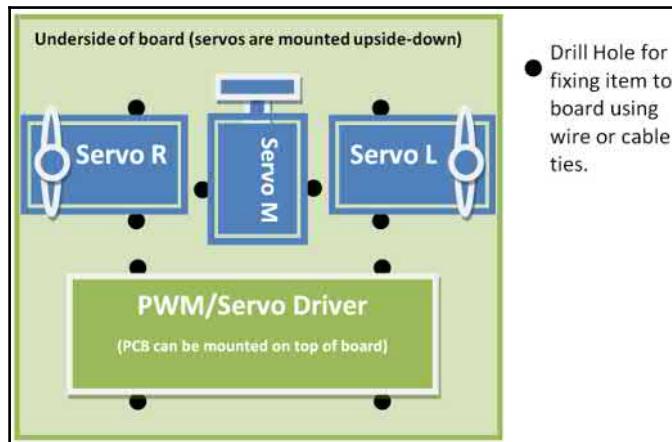
I²C connections on the Raspberry Pi GPIO header

How to do it...

The Pi-Bug robot uses three servos, one on either side and one in the middle. Mount each servo by drilling a hole on either side of the servo body, looping a wire or cable ties through it, and pulling to hold the servo tightly.

Bend the paper clip wire into a suitable shape to form the Pi-Bug robot's legs, and add a small kink that will allow you to wire the legs securely to the servo arms. It is recommended that you run the program first, with the Pi-Bug robot set to the home position h, before you screw the servo arms in place. This will ensure that the legs are located in the middle.

The following diagram shows the components on the Pi-Bug robot:



The layout of components on the Pi-Bug robot

Create the following `servoAdafruit.py` script to control the servos:

```
#!/usr/bin/env python3
#servoAdafruit.py
import wiringpi2
import time

#PWM Registers
MODE1=0x00
PRESCALE=0xFE
LED0_ON_L=0x06
LED0_ON_H=0x07
LED0_OFF_L=0x08
LED0_OFF_H=0x09

PWMHZ=50
PWMADR=0x40

class servo:
```

```
# Constructor
def __init__(self,pwmFreq=PWMHz,addr=PWMDR) :
    self.i2c = wiringpi2.I2C()
    self.devPWM=self.i2c.setup(addr)
    self.GPIOsetup(pwmFreq,addr)

def GPIOsetup(self,pwmFreq,addr):
    self.i2c.read(self.devPWM)
    self.pwmInit(pwmFreq)

def pwmInit(self,pwmFreq):
    prescale = 25000000.0 / 4096.0    # 25MHz / 12-bit
    prescale /= float(pwmFreq)
    prescale = prescale - 0.5 #-1 then +0.5 to round to
                           # nearest value
    prescale = int(prescale)
    self.i2c.writeReg8(self.devPWM,MODE1,0x00) #RESET
    mode=self.i2c.read(self.devPWM)
    self.i2c.writeReg8(self.devPWM,MODE1,
                      (mode & 0x7F)|0x10) #SLEEP
    self.i2c.writeReg8(self.devPWM,PRESCALE,prescale)
    self.i2c.writeReg8(self.devPWM,MODE1,mode) #restore mode
    time.sleep(0.005)
    self.i2c.writeReg8(self.devPWM,MODE1,mode|0x80) #restart

def setPWM(self,channel, on, off):
    on=int(on)
    off=int(off)
    self.i2c.writeReg8(self.devPWM,
                       LED0_ON_L+4*channel,on & 0xFF)
    self.i2c.writeReg8(self.devPWM,LED0_ON_H+4*channel,on>>8)
    self.i2c.writeReg8(self.devPWM,
                       LED0_OFF_L+4*channel,off & 0xFF)
    self.i2c.writeReg8(self.devPWM,LED0_OFF_H+4*channel,off>>8)

def main():
    servoMin = 205  # Min pulse 1ms 204.8 (50Hz)
    servoMax = 410  # Max pulse 2ms 409.6 (50Hz)
    myServo=servo()
    myServo.setPWM(0,0,servoMin)
    time.sleep(2)
    myServo.setPWM(0,0,servoMax)
if __name__=='__main__':
    try:
        main()
    finally:
        print ("Finish")
#End
```

Create the following `bug_drive.py` script to control the Pi-Bug robot:

```
#!/usr/bin/env python3
#bug_drive.py
import time
import servoAdafruit as servoCon

servoMin = 205 # Min pulse 1000us 204.8 (50Hz)
servoMax = 410 # Max pulse 2000us 409.6 (50Hz)

servoL=0; servoM=1; servoR=2
TILT=10
MOVE=30
MID=((servoMax-servoMin)/2)+servoMin
CW=MID+MOVE; ACW=MID-MOVE
TR=MID+TILT; TL=MID-TILT
FWD=[TL,ACW,ACW,TR,CW,CW]#[midL,fwd,fwd,midR,bwd,bwd]
BWD=[TR,ACW,ACW,TL,CW,CW]#[midR,fwd,fwd,midL,bwd,bwd]
LEFT=[TR,ACW,CW,TL,CW,ACW]#[midR,fwd,bwd,midL,bwd,fwd]
RIGHT=[TL,ACW,CW,TR,CW,ACW]#[midL,fwd,bwd,midR,bwd,fwd]
HOME=[MID,MID,MID,MID,MID,MID]
PINS=[servoM,servoL,servoR,servoM,servoL,servoR]
STEP=0.2
global DEBUG
DEBUG=False

class motor:
    # Constructor
    def __init__(self,pins=PINS,steptime=STEP):
        self.pins = pins
        self.steptime=steptime
        self.theServo=servoCon.servo()

    def off(self):
        #Home position
        self.drive(HOME,step)

    def drive(self,drive,step=STEP):
        for idx,servo in enumerate(self.pins):
            if(drive[idx]==servoM):
                time.sleep(step)
            self.theServo.setPWM(servo,0,drive[idx])
            if(drive[idx]==servoM):
                time.sleep(step)
            if(DEBUG):print("%s:%s"%(gpio,drive[idx]))

    def cmd(self,char,step=STEP):
```

```
if char == 'f':
    self.drive(FWD,step)
elif char == 'b':
    self.drive(BWD,step)
elif char == 'r':
    self.drive(RIGHT,step)
elif char == 'l':
    self.drive(LEFT,step)
elif char == 'h':
    self.drive(HOME,step)
elif char == '#':
    time.sleep(step)

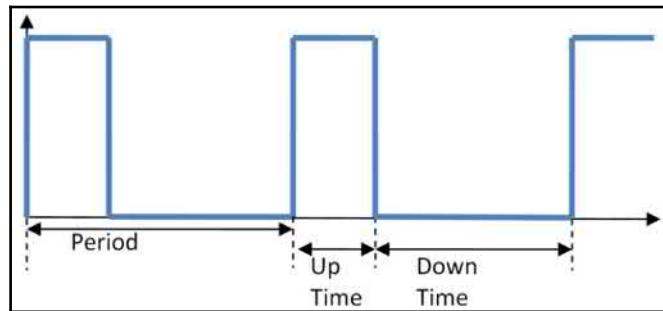
def main():
    import os
    DEBUG=True
    if "CMD" in os.environ:
        CMD=os.environ["CMD"]
        INPUT=False
        print ("CMD="+CMD)
    else:
        INPUT=True
    bugPi=motor()
    if INPUT:
        print ("Enter CMDs [f,b,r,l,h,#]:")
        CMD=input()
    for idx,char in enumerate(CMD.lower()):
        if(DEBUG):print("Step %s of %s: %s"%(idx+1,len(CMD),char))
        bugPi.cmd(char)
if __name__ == '__main__':
    try:
        main()
    except KeyboardInterrupt:
        print ("Finish")
#End
```

How it works...

We explain the previous script functions by exploring how the servos are controlled using a PWM. Next, we will see how the servo class provides the methods to control the PCA9685 device. Finally, we will look at how the movements of the three servos combine to produce forward and turning motions for the Pi-Bug robot itself.

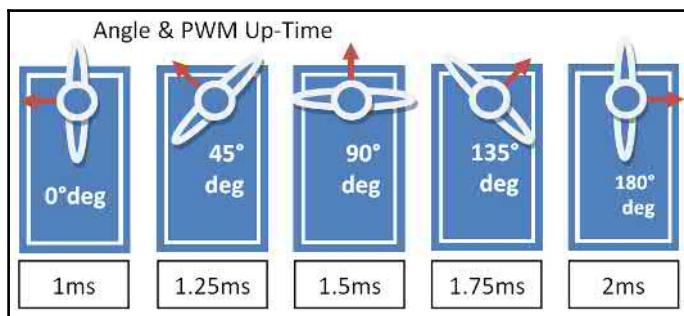
Controlling the servos

To control the servos used for the Pi-Bug robot, we require a special control signal that will determine the angle that the servo is required to move to. We will send the servo a PWM signal, where the duration of the on time will allow us to control the angle of the servo arm (and thereby, allow us to control the Pi-Bug robot's legs). The following diagram shows how a PWM signal can be used to control the angle of the servo:



The angle of the servo is controlled by the duration of the up time of the PWM signal

Most servos will have an angular range of approximately 180 degrees and a mid-position of 90 degrees. A PWM frequency of 50 Hz will have a period of 20 ms, and the mid-position of 90 degrees typically corresponds to an **Up Time** of 1.5 ms, with a range of +/- 0.5 ms to 0.4 ms for near 0 degrees and near 180 degrees. Each type of servo will be slightly different, but you should be able to adjust the code to suit if required. The following diagram shows how you can control the servo angle using different PWM Up Times:



The servo angle is controlled by sending a PWM Up Time between 1 ms and 2 ms



Another type of servo is called a **continuous servo** (not used here). It allows you to control the rotation speed instead of the angle, and will rotate at a constant speed depending on the PWM signal that has been applied. Both servo types have internal feedback loops that will continuously drive the servo until the required angle or speed is reached.

Although it is theoretically possible to generate these signals using software, you will find that any tiny interruption by other processes on the system will interfere with the signal timing; this, in turn, will produce an erratic response from the servo. This is why we use a hardware PWM controller, which only needs to be set with a specific up and down time, to then automatically generate the required signal for us.

The servo class

The servo code is based on the PWM driver that Adafruit uses for their module; however, it is not Python 3 friendly, so we need to create our own version. We will use `wiringpi2` I²C driver to initialize and control the I²C PWM controller. We define the registers that we will need to use (see the datasheet for the PCA9685 device), as well as its default bus address, 0x40 (PWMADR), and a PWM frequency of 50 Hz (PWMDHZ).

Within our servo class, we initialize the I²C driver in `wiringpi2` and set up our `devPWM` device on the bus. Next, we initialize the PWM device itself (using `pwmInit()`). We have to calculate the **prescaler** required for the device to convert the onboard 25 MHz clock to a 50 Hz signal to generate the PWM frequency we need; we will use the following formula:

$$\text{prescale} = \left(\frac{25\text{MHz}}{12\text{-bit} \times \text{pwmFreq}} \right) + 0.5$$

The prescale register value sets the PWM frequency using a 12-bit value to scale the 25 MHz clock

The prescale value is loaded into the device, and a device reset is triggered to enable it.

Next, we create a function to allow the PWM ON and OFF times to be controlled. The ON and OFF times are 12-bit values (0-4096), so each value is split into upper and lower bytes (8-bits each) that need to be loaded into two registers. For the L (low) registers, we mask off the upper 8 bits using `&0xFF`, and for the H (high) registers, we shift down by 8 bits to provide the higher 8 bits. Each PWM channel will have two registers for the on time and two for the off time, so we can multiply the addresses of the first PWM channel registers by 4 and the channel number to get the addresses of any of the others.

To test our `servo` class, we define the minimum and maximum ranges of the servos, which we calculate as follows:

- The PWM frequency of 50 Hz has a 20 ms period ($T=1/f$)
- The ON/OFF times range from 0-4,096 (so 0 ms to 20 ms)

Now, we can calculate the control values for 0 degrees (1 ms) and 180 degrees (2 ms) as follows:

- 1 ms (servo min) is equal to 4,096/20 ms, which is 204.8
- 2 ms (servo max) is equal to 4,096/10 ms, which is 409.6

We round the values to the nearest whole number.

Learning to walk

The Pi-Bug robot uses a common design that allows three servos to be used to create a small, six-legged robot. The servos at the two ends provide forward and backward movement, while the servo in the middle provides the control. The following photo shows the mounted servos:



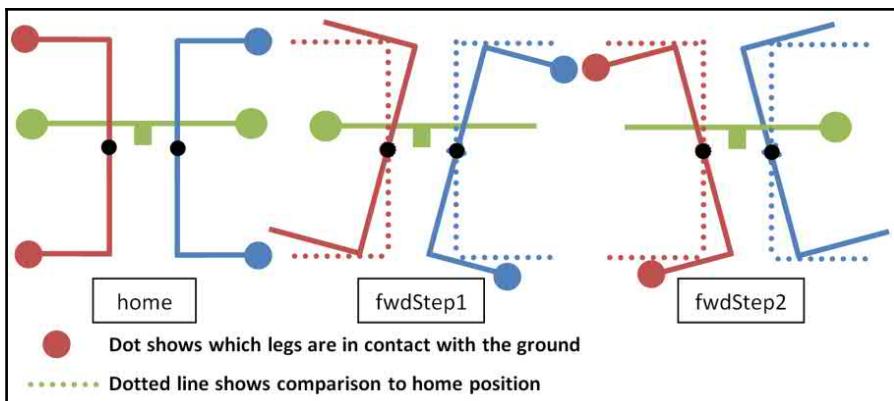
The servos are mounted upside-down on the underside of the board

The following table assumes that the left and right servos are mounted upside-down on the underside of the board, with the middle servo fitted vertically. You will have to adjust the code if mounted differently.

The following table shows the servo movements used to walk forward:

Direction	Middle (servoM)	Left (servoL)	Right (servoR)
home	MID/Middle	MID/Middle	MID/Middle
fwdStep1	TR/Right side up	ACW/Legs forward	ACW/Legs backward
fwdStep2	TL/Left side up	CW/Legs backward	CW/Legs forward

The following diagram shows how the movement makes the Pi-Bug robot step forward:



The Pi-Bug robot moving forward

While it may seem a little confusing at first, when you see the robot moving, it should make more sense.

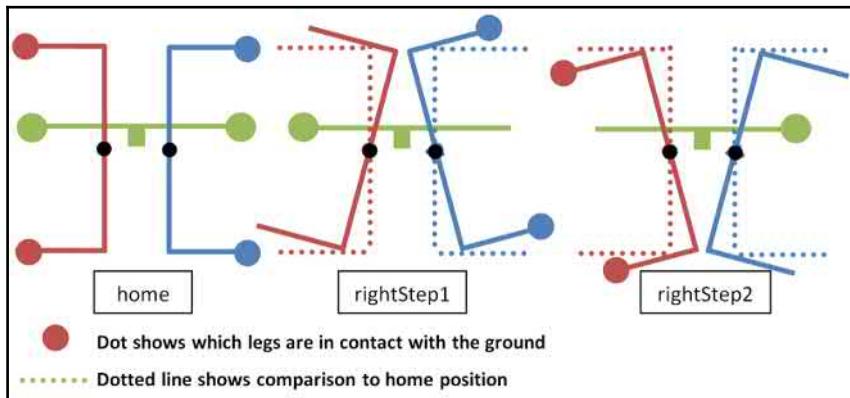
For the first forward step, we move the middle servo (servoM) clockwise so that the left side of the Pi-Bug robot is lifted off the ground by the movement of the remaining middle leg. We can then move the left servo (servoL) to move the legs on the left side forward (ready for movement later; they are not touching the ground at this point). Now, by moving the right servo (servoR), we can move the legs on the right backwards (allowing the Pi-Bug robot to be pushed forward on that side).

The second forward step is the same, except that we use the middle servo (servoM) to lift the right side off the ground. Again, we move the legs that are off the ground forward (ready for next time) and then move the legs on the other side backward (allowing that side of the Pi-Bug robot to move forward). By repeating the forward steps, the Pi-Bug robot will move forward; or, by swapping the sides that are being lifted up by the middle servo (servoM), it will move backward. The result is a rather bug-like scuttle!

To make the Pi-Bug robot turn, we perform a similar action, except that just like the advanced motor control for the Rover-Pi robot, we move one side of the robot forward and the other side backward. The following table shows the servo movements used to turn right:

Direction	Middle (servoM)	Left (servoL)	Right (servoR)
home	MID/Middle	MID/Middle	MID/Middle
rightStep1	TL/Left side up	CW/Legs backward	ACW/Legs backward
rightStep2	TR/Right side up	ACW/Legs forward	CW/Legs forward

The steps to turn the Pi-Bug robot to the right are shown in the following diagram:



The Pi-Bug robot making a right turn

To turn right, we lift the left side of the Pi-Bug robot off the ground, but this time, we move the legs on both sides backward. This allows the right side of the Pi-Bug robot to move forward. The second half of the step lifts the right side off the ground, and we move the legs forward (which will push the left side of the Pi-Bug robot backward). In this manner, the bug will turn as it steps; again, just by swapping the sides that are being lifted, we can change the direction that the Pi-Bug robot will turn in.

The Pi-Bug code for walking

The code for the Pi-Bug robot has been designed to provide the same interface as the RoverPi robot so that they can be interchanged easily. You should notice that each class consists of the same four functions (`__init__()`, `off()`, `drive()`, and `cmd()`). The `__init__()` function defines the set of pins we will control, the `steptime` value of the walking action (this time, the gap between movements), and the previously defined servo module.

Once again, we have an `off()` function that provides a function that can be called to set the servos in their middle positions (which is very useful for when you need to fit the legs in position, as described previously in the home position). The `off()` function uses the `drive()` function to set each servo to the `MID` position. The `MID` value is halfway between `servoMin` and `servoMax` (1.5 ms to give a position of 90 degrees).

The `drive()` function is just like the previous motor control version; it cycles through each of the actions required for each servo, as defined in the various movement patterns (`FWD`, `BWD`, `LEFT`, and `RIGHT`) we discussed previously. However, to reproduce the required pattern of movement, we cycle through each servo twice, while inserting a small delay whenever we move the middle servo (`servoM`). This allows time for the servo to move and provide the necessary tilt to lift the other legs off the ground before allowing them to move.

We define each of the servo commands as a **clockwise (CW)** or **anticlockwise/counterclockwise (ACW)** movement of the servo arm. Since the servos are mounted upside down, an ACW (CW, if viewed from above) movement of the left servo (`servoL`) will bring the legs forwards, while the same direction of movement on the right servo (`servoR`) will move the legs backward (which is `fwdStep1` in the previous diagram). In this way, each of the patterns can be defined.

Once again, we provide a test function using the following command that allows a list of instructions to either be defined from the command line or directly entered at the prompt:

```
sudo CMD=ffff11##rr##bb##h python3 bug_drive.py
```

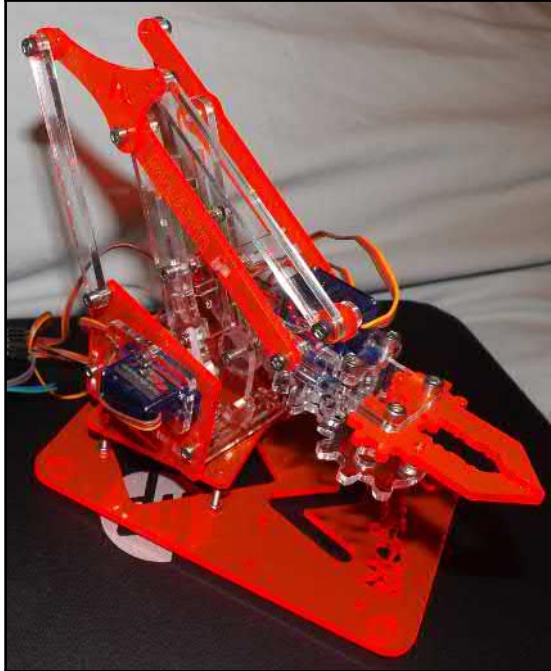
This includes the addition of `h` to return to the `home` position, if desired.

Controlling servos directly with ServoBlaster

The previous recipe demonstrated using a dedicated servo controller to handle the control of the servos used by the Pi-Bug. This has the advantage that any disturbances in the processing taking place on the Raspberry Pi do not cause interference with the delicate servo control (since the controller will continue to send the correct signals).

However, the Raspberry Pi is also capable of direct servo control. To achieve this, we will make use of Richard Hurst's ServoBlaster, which is a multiple servo driver.

In this recipe, we will control four servos attached to the MeArm, a simple laser-cut robot arm; however, you can choose to fit servos to whatever device you like:



The MeArm is a simple robot arm powered by four miniature servos

Getting ready

Most common servos will have three wires and a three pin connector, as follows:

Black/Brown	Red	Orange/White/Yellow/Blue
Ground	Positive supply (typically 5V for small servos)	Signal

While it is usually possible to power the servos directly from the Raspberry Pi 5V pins on the GPIO header, they can draw a significant amount of current when moving. Unless you have a very good power supply, this can cause the Raspberry Pi to reset unexpectedly, risking corrupting the SD card. Therefore, it is recommended that you power them separately; for example, with an additional USB power supply and cable connected to the ground and positive supply.

By default, the servos can be wired as follows:

Servo	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	All GND	All Power
Raspberry Pi GPIO Pin	7	11	12	13	15	16	19	22	6	No Connect
5V Power Supply									GND	+5V

We will assume that we are controlling four servos (0, 1, 2, and 3) that will be fitted to the MeArm or a similar device later:



To install ServoBlaster, start by downloading the source files from the Git repository:

```
cd ~
wget https://github.com/richardghirst/PiBits/archive/master.zip
```

Unzip and open the `matplotlib-master` folder, as follows:

```
unzip master.zip
rm master.zip
cd PiBits-master/ServoBlaster/user
```

We will use the user space daemon (which is located in the user directory) that is called `servod`. Before we can use it, we should compile it with this command:

```
make servod
```

There should be no errors, showing the following text:

```
gcc -Wall -g -O2 -o servod servod.c mailbox.c -lm
```

For usage information, use the following command:

```
./servod --help
```

Now we can test a servo; first, start the `servod` daemon (with a timeout of 2,000 ms to switch the servo off after it has moved):

```
sudo servod --idle-timeout=2000
```

You can move the servo's position to 0% of the servo's range:

```
echo 0=0% > /dev/servoblaster
```

Now, update the servo to 50%, causing the servo to rotate to 90 degrees (servo mid-point):

```
echo 0=50% > /dev/servoblaster
```

As recommended by the MeArm build instructions, the servos should be connected and calibrated before building the arm, to ensure that each servo is able to move the arm in its correct range. This is done by ensuring that each servo is powered up and commanded to its mid-point position (50%/90 degrees), and the servo-arm is fitted at the expected orientation:

	Servo 0	Servo 1	Servo 2	Servo 3
Function	Turn/Base	Shoulder	Elbow	Claw
Action	Turn left/right	Forward & back	Arm up & down	Open & close
Arm Position at mid-point (90 degrees)				

Each of the servos should be calibrated in the correct position before you fit them on the MeArm

You can now set each of the MeArm servos (0, 1, 2, and 3) to their mid-points (by commanding each, in turn, to 50%) before building and fitting them to a completed arm.

The servos could be used to control a wide range of alternative devices other than the MeArm, but your servos will probably need to be calibrated in a similar manner:



The precision control of servos means they can be used for a variety of applications, for example, controlling simulated hands

How to do it...

1. Create the following `servo_control.py` script:

```
#!/usr/bin/env python3
#servo_control.py
import curses
import os
#HARDWARE SETUP
# GPIO
# 2 [=VX==2=====] 26 [=====] 40
# 1 [==013=====] 25 [=====] 39
# V=5V X=Gnd
# Servo 0=Turn 1=Shoulder 2=Elbow 3=Claw
name=["Turn","Shoulder","Elbow","Claw"]
CAL=[90,90,90,90]
MIN=[0,60,40,60]; MAX=[180,165,180,180]
POS=list(CAL)
```

```
KEY_CMD=[ord('c'),ord('x')]
#Keys to rotate counter-clockwise
KEY_LESS={ord('d'):0,ord('s'):1,ord('j'):2,ord('k'):3}
#Keys to rotate clockwise
KEY_MORE={ord('a'):0,ord('w'):1,ord('l'):2,ord('i'):3}

STEP=5; LESS=-STEP; MORE=STEP #Define control steps
DEG2MS=1.5/180.0; OFFSET=1 #mseconds
IDLE=2000 #Timeout servo after command
SERVOD="/home/pi/PiBits-mater/ServoBlaster/user/servod" #Location
of servod
DEBUG=True
text="Use a-d, w-s, j-l and i-k to control the MeArm. c=Cal x=exit"

def initialize():
    cmd=("sudo %s --idle-timeout=%s"%(SERVOD, IDLE))
    os.system(cmd)

def limitServo(servo,value):
    global text
    if value > MAX[servo]:
        text=("Max %s position %s:%s"%(name[servo],servo,POS[servo]))
        return MAX[servo]
    elif value < MIN[servo]:
        text=("Min %s position %s:%s"%(name[servo],servo,POS[servo]))
        return MIN[servo]
    else:
        return value

def updateServo(servo,change):
    global text
    POS[servo]=limitServo(servo,POS[servo]+change)
    setServo(servo,POS[servo])
    text=str(POS)

def setServo(servo,position):
    ms=OFFSET+(position*DEG2MS)
    os.system("echo %d=%dus > /dev/servoblaster" %(servo, ms/1000))

def calibrate():
    global text
    text="Calibrate 90deg"
    for i,value in enumerate(CAL):
        POS[i]=value
        setServo(i,value)

def main(term):
    term.nodelay(1)
```

```
term.addstr(text)
term.refresh()
while True:
    term.move(1,0)
    c = term.getch()
    if c != -1:
        if c in KEY_MORE:
            updateServo(KEY_MORE[c],MORE)
        elif c in KEY_LESS:
            updateServo(KEY_LESS[c],LESS)
        elif c in KEY_CMD:
            if c == ord('c'):
                calibrate()
            elif c == ord('x'):
                exit()
    if DEBUG:term.addstr(text+"    ")
if __name__=='__main__':
    initialize()
    curses.wrapper(main)
#End
```

2. Run the script:

```
python3 servo_control.py
```

3. You can control the servos fitted to the MeArm (or whatever you are using) as prompted:

```
Use a-d, w-s, j-l and i-k to control the MeArm. c=Cal x=eXit
```

How it works...

The script starts by importing the `curses` and `os` modules. A standard Python `input()` command would require the *Enter* key to be pressed after each key press before we could act upon it. However, as we will see shortly, the `curses` module simply allows us to scan for keyboard presses and respond to them immediately. We use the `os` module to call the ServoBlaster commands, as we would via the Terminal.

First, we define our setup, such as the servo mappings, calibration positions, min/max ranges, our control keys, and the STEP size in degrees for each control command. We also define our parameters for our requested angle (in degrees) to target PWM signal up time (in milliseconds) calculation.



For these particular servos, an up time of 1 ms is equal to 0 degrees and 2.5 ms is 180 degrees, so we have an offset (`OFFSET`) of 1 ms and a scale (`DEG2MS`) of 180 degrees/1.5 ms.

Therefore, our required up time (in milliseconds) can be calculated as $OFFSET + (degrees * DEG2MS)$. Finally, we define the `SERVOD` command line and servo `IDLE` timeout to initialize the ServoBlaster user daemon. Within `initialize()`, we use `os.system()` to start the `servod` daemon, as we did before.

In order to detect key presses, we call the `main()` function of the script from `curses.wrapper()`, allowing `term` to control the terminal input and output. We use `term.nodelay(1)` so that when we do check for any key presses (using `term.getch()`), execution will continue normally. We use `term.addstr(text)` to show the user the control keys and then update the display via `term.refresh()`. The remaining script checks the terminal for key presses and the result assigned to `c`. If no key was pressed, then `term.getch()` returns `-1`; otherwise, the ASCII equivalent value is returned, and we can check for it in each of the dictionaries we defined for control keys. We will use `KEY_MORE` and `KEY_LESS` to change the servo positions, and `KEY_CMD` (`c` or `x`) to allow us to set all the servos to their calibrated position or to exit cleanly. Finally, we display any useful debugging information (if `DEBUG` is set to `True`) using `term.addstr()`, and ensure that it is displayed at `(1,0)` in the terminal (one line down from the top).

For normal control, the position of the servos will be controlled using the `updateServo()` function, which adjusts the current position (stored in the `POS` array) by the required change (either `+STEP` or `-STEP`). We ensure the new position is within the `MAX/MIN` limits defined, and report if we've hit them. The servo is then instructed to move to the required position using `setServo()`, specifying the needed PWM up time in micro seconds.

The last function, `calibrate()`, called when `C` is pressed, simply sets each of the servos to the angle defined in the `CAL` array (using `setServo()`) and ensures that the current position is kept up to date.

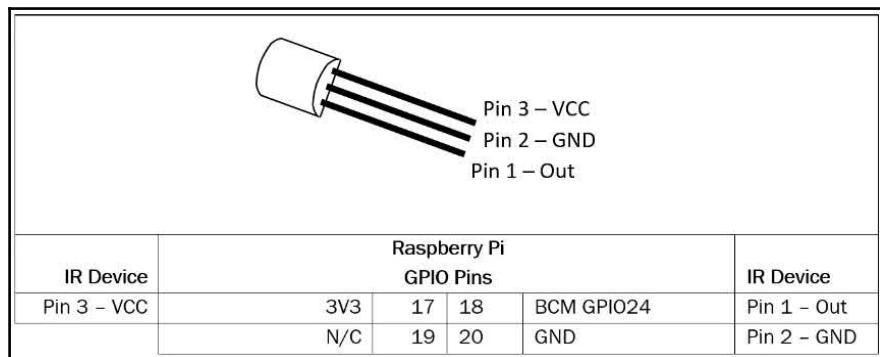
Using an infrared remote control with your Raspberry Pi

It is often useful to control robots remotely. An easy way to add additional input is to make use of an **infrared** (IR) receiver and a standard remote control. Fortunately, the receiver is well supported.

We will use a module called `lirc` to capture and decode IR signals from a standard remote control.

Getting ready

LIRC supports many types of IR detectors, such as Energenie's PiMote IR board; however, since we only need to receive IR signals, we can use a simple (TSOP38238) IR detector:



The three pins of the TSOP38238 IR receiver can fit directly onto the Raspberry Pi header

Install the following packages using the `apt-get` command:

```
sudo apt-get install lirc lirc-x
```

Add the following to `/boot/config.txt`. This will enable the driver and define the pin the receiver is fitted on (BCM GPIO24):

```
dtoverlay=lirc-rpi,gpio_in_pin=23
```

Perform a restart of the Raspberry Pi so that the configuration takes effect:

```
sudo reboot
```

We should now find that the IR device is located at `/dev/lirc0`. We can observe the output of the receiver if we point a remote control at it and press some buttons after using the following command (use *Ctrl + Z* to exit):

```
mode2 -d /dev/lirc0
```

The `lirc0` resource may report as busy:

```
mode2: could not open /dev/lirc0
```

```
mode2: default_init(): Device or resource busy
```

Then we will need to stop the `lirc` service:

```
sudo /etc/init.d/lirc stop
```



It will give the following response:

```
[ ok ] Stopping lirc (via systemctl): lirc.service
```

When you are ready, you can start the service again:

```
sudo /etc/init.d/lirc start
```

This will give the following response:

```
[ ok ] Starting lirc (via systemctl): lirc.service
```

You will see output similar to the following (if not, ensure that you have connected the receiver connected to the correct pins on the Raspberry Pi GPIO):

```
space 16300
pulse 95
space 28794
pulse 80
space 19395
pulse 83
...etc...
```

Now that we know our device is working, we can configure it.

How to do it...

The global LIRC configurations are stored in `/etc/lirc`. We are interested in the following files:

- `hardware.conf`: Defines where our IR sensor is installed and the overall setting for our sensor.
- `lircd.conf`: The remote control configuration file; this contains the recorded outputs for your remote control's keys and maps them to specific key symbols. You can often obtain pre-recorded files from lirc.sourceforge.net/remotes, or you can record a custom one, as shown next.
- `lircrc`: This file provides mapping of each of the key symbols to specific commands or keyboard mappings.



All of the LIRC configurations stored in `/etc/lirc` are available for all users; however, if required, different configurations can be defined for each user by placing them in specific home folders (for example, `/home/pi/.config/`), allowing the defaults to be overridden.

There are three steps to setting up the sensor, one for each of the LIRC configuration files:

1. First, ensure that `hardware.conf` is set up. For our sensor, we must ensure that the following is set:

```
LIRCD_ARGS="--uinput"  
DRIVER="default"  
DEVICE="/dev/lirc0"  
MODULES="lirc_rpi"
```

2. Next, obtain a `lircd.conf` file; or, if you do not have one for your remote, we can generate it. The following process will now take you through detecting each of the individual keys on the remote. For the purpose of this recipe, we only need to map eight keys (to control the four servos from the previous recipe).

3. If you want map additional keys, use the following command to find out the full list of valid key symbols:

```
irrecord --list-namespace
```

KEY_UP	KEY_RIGHT	KEY_VOLUMEUP	KEY_CHANNELUP
KEY_DOWN	KEY_LEFT	KEY_VOLUMEDOWN	KEY CHANNELDOWN



We can use the volume, channel, and direction buttons on this Goodman's remote as our MeArm controller

First, we will need to stop the `lirc` service, which, if it was running, would be using the `/dev/lirc0` device:

```
sudo /etc/init.d/lirc stop
```

Next, start the capture process using the following commands:

```
irrecord -d /dev/lirc0 ~/lircd.conf
```

```
Press RETURN to continue.

Now start pressing buttons on your remote control.

It is very important that you press many different buttons and hold them
down for approximately one second. Each button should generate at least one
dot but in no case more than ten dots of output.
Don't stop pressing buttons until two lines of dots (2x80) have been
generated.

Press RETURN now to start recording.
.....
Found const| length: 108386
Please keep on pressing buttons like described above.
.....
Space/pulse encoded remote control found.
Signal length is 67.
Found possible header: 9066 4479
Found trail pulse: 594
Found repeat code: 9064 2227
Signals are space encoded.
Signal length is 32
Now enter the names for the buttons.

Please enter the name for the next button (press <ENTER> to finish recording)
KEY_UP

Now hold down button "KEY_UP".

Please enter the name for the next button (press <ENTER> to finish recording)
KEY_DOWN
...
```

Record each button on the remote using the irrecord tool

Now that we have captured the required keys, we ensure that the name of the remote is set (by default, it will be set to the name of the lirc.conf file when the buttons are captured):

```
nano ~/lircd.conf
```

Set the name of the remote in the file; for example, Goodmans:

```
...
begin remote
  name  Goodmans
  bits      16
...
```

Finally, we can replace the configuration in the `/etc/lirc` folder:

```
sudo cp ~/lircd.conf /etc/lirc/lirc.conf
```



We can confirm the key symbols that are mapped to the remote using the `irw` program, as follows:

```
irw
```

This will report the details of the key pressed and the remote control as defined:

```
0000000000fe7a85 00 KEY_UP Goodmans
0000000000fe7a85 01 KEY_UP Goodmans
0000000000fe6a95 00 KEY_DOWN Goodmans
0000000000fe6a95 01 KEY_DOWN Goodmans
...
...
```

Now, we can map the keys to specific commands; in this case, we will map them to the keys we used for controlling the MeArm servos. Create a new `/etc/lirc/lircrc` file:

```
sudo nano /etc/lirc/lircrc
```

Replace it with the following content:

```
begin
  prog=irxevent
  button=KEY_UP
  config=Key w CurrentWindow
end
begin
  prog=irxevent
  button=KEY_DOWN
  config=Key s CurrentWindow
end
begin
  prog=irxevent
  button=KEY_LEFT
  config=Key a CurrentWindow
end
begin
  prog=irxevent
  button=KEY_RIGHT
  config=Key d CurrentWindow
end
begin
  prog=irxevent
  button=KEY_VOLUMEUP
```

```
    config=Key i CurrentWindow
end
begin
prog=irxevent
button=KEY_VOLUMEDOWN
config=Key k CurrentWindow
end
begin
prog=irxevent
button=KEY_CHANNELUP
config=Key l CurrentWindow
end
begin
prog=irxevent
button=KEY CHANNELDOWN
config=Key j CurrentWindow
end
```

To apply the configuration, you may need to restart the service (or, if that doesn't work, try restarting the Raspberry Pi):

```
sudo /etc/init.d/lirc restart
```

When we run the `servo_control.py` script in the previous recipe, the remote should control the arm directly.

There's more...

LIRC supports several helper programs, of which `irxevent` is just one:

remote	<p>By default, LIRC supports some simple controls; for example:</p> <pre>prog=remote button=KEY_UP config=UP</pre> <p>This will provide simple cursor control from a remote (UP, DOWN, LEFT, RIGHT, and also ENTER) that are perfect for simple menu control.</p> <p>http://www.lirc.org/html/configure.html#lircrc_format</p>
--------	----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------

irxevent	<p>Emulates button clicks and key presses within X applications. You can specify that the key event occurs in the CurrentWindow or in a specific window by name, that is, leafpad. This only works if you are running from the graphical desktop environment (or using X forwarding).</p> <p>http://www.lirc.org/html/irxevent.html</p>
irpty	<p>Converts infrared remote commands into keystrokes for controlling a particular program:</p> <pre>rog=irpty button=KEY_EXIT config=x</pre> <p>Start it by specifying the lircrc configuration and program you want to control:</p> <pre>irpty /etc/lirc/lircrc -- leafpad</pre> <p>http://www.lirc.org/html/irpty.html</p>
irexec	<p>Allows commands to be run directly from the remote control:</p> <pre>prog=irexec button=KEY_POWER config=sudo halt #Power Down</pre> <p>http://www.lirc.org/html/irexec.html</p>

You can test any part of the lircrc file by using ircat with the required prog:

```
ircat irxevent
```

The preceding command will report the following:

```
Key k CurrentWindow
Key i CurrentWindow
```

Finally, if you have a suitable IR Transmitter LED attached (including a protective resistor/switching transistor), you can also use LIRC to send infrared signals from the Raspberry Pi. For this, you can use the irsend command, for example:

```
irsend SEND_ONCE Goodmans KEY_PROGRAMUP
```

The IR output channel is enabled within the `/boot/config.txt` file (assuming connected to GPIO Pin 19):

```
dtoverlay=lirc-rpi,gpio_in_pin=24,gpio_out_pin=19
```

Avoiding objects and obstacles

To avoid obstacles, you can place sensors around the robot's perimeter to activate whenever an object is encountered. Depending on how you want your robot to behave, one avoidance strategy is to just reverse any action last taken (with an additional turn for forward/backward actions) that caused one of the sensors to be activated.

Getting ready

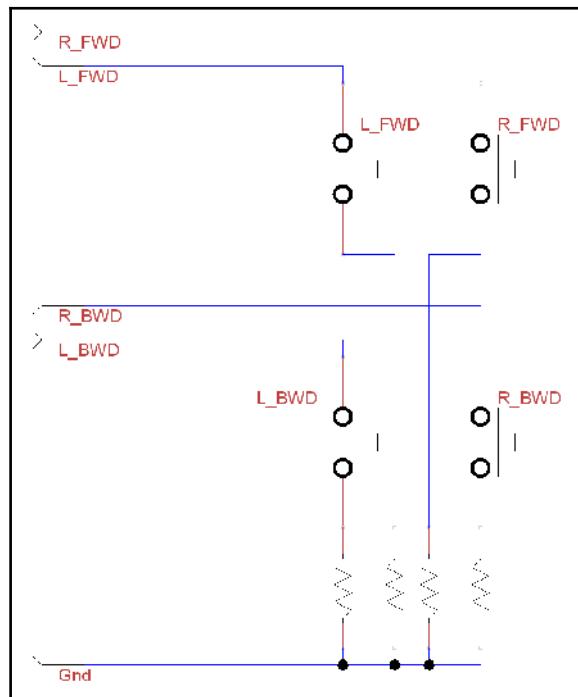
You will need some micro switches to be triggered when there is an impact with objects. Depending on the type you have, you need to place enough switches to detect any object around the outside (if required, you can use an additional length of wire to extend the reach of the switch). Shown in the following photo are two possible sensors that will cause the switch to activate when the spring or the metal arm hits an object. You need to determine which contacts of the switch open or close the circuit (this will depend on the device):



Small micro switches can be used as collision sensors

How to do it...

Connect the switches to the GPIO using a method similar to the one we used in Chapter 9, *Using Python to Drive Hardware*, for the D-Pad controller. A circuit diagram of the switches is as follows:



The switches should include current limiting resistors (1K ohm is ideal)

How you connect to the Raspberry Pi's GPIO will depend on how your motor/servo drive is wired up. For example, a Rover-Pi robot with an H-bridge motor controller can be wired up as follows:

Control side of the module – connecting to the Raspberry Pi GPIO header							
ENA	IN1	IN2	IN3	IN4	ENB	GND	5V
None	Pin 15	Pin 16	Pin 18	Pin 22	None	Pin 6	None

Four additional proximity/collision sensors can be connected to the Raspberry Pi GPIO as follows:

Proximity/collision sensors – connecting to the Raspberry Pi GPIO header				
R_FWD	L_FWD	R_BWD	L_BWD	GND
Pin 7	Pin 11	Pin 12	Pin 13	Pin 6

If you wired it differently, you can adjust the pin numbers within the code, as required. If you require additional pins, then any of the multipurpose pins, such as RS232 RX/TX (pins 8 and 10) or the SPI/I²C, can be used as normal GPIO pins, too; just set them as input or output, as normal. Normally, we just avoid using them, as they are often more useful for expansion and other things, so it is sometimes useful to keep them available.

You can even use a single GPIO pin for all your sensors if you are just using the following example code, since the action is the same, regardless of which sensor is triggered.

However, by wiring each one separately, you can adjust your strategy based on where the obstacle is around the robot or provide additional debug information about which sensor has been triggered.

Create the following `avoidance.py` script:

```
#!/usr/bin/env python3
#avoidance.py
import rover_drive as drive
import wiringpi2
import time

opCmds={'f':'bl','b':'fr','r':'ll','l':'rr','#':'#'}
PINS=[7,11,12,13]    # PINS=[L_FWD,L_BWD,R_FWD,R_BWD]
ON=1;OFF=0
IN=0;OUT=1
PULL_UP=2;PULL_DOWN=1

class sensor:
    # Constructor
    def __init__(self,pins=PINS):
        self.pins = pins
        self.GPIOsetup()

    def GPIOsetup(self):
        wiringpi2.wiringPiSetupPhys()
        for gpio in self.pins:
            wiringpi2.pinMode(gpio,IN)
```

```
wiringpi2.pullUpDnControl(gpio,PULL_UP)

def checkSensor(self):
    hit = False
    for gpio in self.pins:
        if wiringpi2.digitalRead(gpio)==False:
            hit = True
    return hit

def main():
    myBot=drive.motor()
    mySensors=sensor()
    while(True):
        print("Enter CMDs [f,b,r,l,#]:")
        CMD=input()
        for idx,char in enumerate(CMD.lower()):
            print("Step %s of %s: %s"%(idx+1,len(CMD),char))
            myBot.cmd(char,step=0.01)#small steps
            hit = mySensors.checkSensor()
            if hit:
                print("We hit something on move: %s Go: %s"%(char,
                                                               opCmds[char]))
            for charcmd in opCmds[char]:
                myBot.cmd(charcmd,step=0.02)#larger step

    if __name__ == '__main__':
        try:
            main()
        except KeyboardInterrupt:
            print ("Finish")
#End
```

How it works...

We import `rover_drive` to control the robot (if we are using a Pi-Bug robot, `bug_drive` can be used) and `wiringpi2` so that we can use the GPIO to read the sensors (defined as `PINS`). We define `opCmds`, which uses a Python dictionary to allocate new commands in response to the original command (using `opCmds[char]`, where `char` is the original command).

We create a new class called `sensor` and set up each of the switches as GPIO input (each with an internal pull-ups set). Now, whenever we make a movement (as earlier, from the list of requested commands in the `main()` function), we check to see if any of the switches have been triggered (by calling `mySensor.checkSensor()`).

If a switch was tripped, we stop the current movement, and then move in the opposite direction. However, if we are moving forward when one of the sensors is triggered, we move backward, and then turn. This allows the robot to gradually turn away from the object that is blocking its path and continue its movement in another direction. Similarly, if we are moving backwards and a sensor is triggered, we move forward, and then turn. By combining simple object avoidance with directional information, the robot can be commanded to navigate around as desired.

There's more...

There are also ways to detect objects that are near the robot without actually making physical contact with them. One such way is to use ultrasonic sensors, commonly used for vehicle reversing/parking sensors.

Ultrasonic reversing sensors

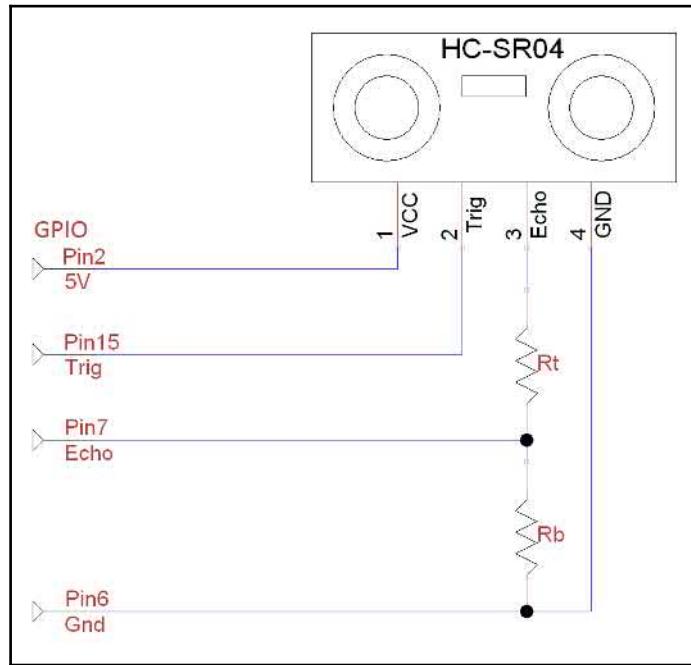
Ultrasonic sensors provide an excellent way to measure the distance of the robot from obstacles (providing a measurement of between 2 cm and 20 cm) and are available at most electrical hobby stores (see the *Appendix, Hardware and Software List*). The ultrasonic module functions by sending a short burst of ultrasonic pulses and then measures the time it takes for the receiver to detect the echo. The module then produces a pulse on the echo output that is equal to the time measured. This time is equal to the distance traveled divided by the speed of sound (340.29 m/sec or 34,029 cm/s), which is the distance from the sensor to the object and back again. An ultrasonic module is shown in the following photo:



The HC-SR04 ultrasonic sensor module

The sensor requires 5V to power it; it has an input that will receive the trigger pulse and an output that the echo pulse will be sent on. While the module works with a 3.3V trigger pulse, it responds with a 5V signal on the echo line; so, it requires some extra resistors to protect the Raspberry Pi's GPIO.

The following circuit diagram shows the connection of the sensor output:



The sensor echo output must be connected to the Raspberry Pi via a potential divider

The resistors R_t and R_b create a potential divider; the aim is to drop the echo voltage from 5V to around 3V (but not less than 2.5V). Use the following equation from Chapter 10, *Sensing and Displaying Real-World Data*, to obtain the output voltage:

$$V_{out} = \frac{R_t}{(R_t + R_b) \times V_{CC}}$$

The output voltage (V_{out}) of the potential divider is calculated using this equation

This means that we should aim for an R_t to R_b ratio of 2:3 to give 3V (and not lower than 1:1, which would give 2.5V); that is, R_t equals 2K ohm and R_b equals 3K ohm, or 330 ohm and 470 ohm will be fine.

If you have a voltage meter, you can check it (with everything else disconnected). Connect the top of the potential divider to GPIO Pin 2 (5V) and the bottom to GPIO Pin 6 (GND), and measure the voltage from the middle (it should be around 3V).

Create the following `sonic.py` script:

```
#!/usr/bin/python3
#sonic.py
import wiringpi2
import time
import datetime

ON=1;OFF=0; IN=0;OUT=1
TRIGGER=15; ECHO=7
PULSE=0.00001 #10us pulse

SPEEDOFSOUND=34029 #34029 cm/s

def gpiosetup():
    wiringpi2.wiringPiSetupPhys()
    wiringpi2.pinMode(TRIGGER,OUT)
    wiringpi2.pinMode(ECHO,IN)
    wiringpi2.digitalWrite(TRIGGER,OFF)
    time.sleep(0.5)

def pulse():
    wiringpi2.digitalWrite(TRIGGER,ON)
    time.sleep(PULSE)
    wiringpi2.digitalWrite(TRIGGER,OFF)
    starttime=time.time()
    stop=starttime
    start=starttime
    while wiringpi2.digitalRead(ECHO)==0 and start<starttime+2:
        start=time.time()
    while wiringpi2.digitalRead(ECHO)==1 and stop<starttime+2:
        stop=time.time()
    delta=stop-start
    print("Start:%f Stop:%f Delta:%f"%(start,stop,delta))
    distance=delta*SPEEDOFSOUND
    return distance/2.0

def main():
    global run
    gpiosetup()
```

```
while(True):
    print("Sample")
    print("Distance:%.1f"%pulse())
    time.sleep(2)
if __name__ == '__main__':
    try:
        main()
    except KeyboardInterrupt:
        print ("Finish")
#End
```

First, we define the TRIGGER and ECHO pins, the length of the trigger pulse, and also the speed of sound (340.29 m/s). The TRIGGER pin is set as an output, and the ECHO as an input (we will not need a pull-up or pull-down resistor, since the module already has one).

The `pulse()` function will send a short trigger pulse (10 microseconds); then it will time the duration of the echo pulse. We then calculate the total distance traveled by dividing the duration by the speed of sound (the distance to the object is just half of this value).

Unfortunately, the sensor can get confused with certain types of objects; it will either detect echoes that bounce off a nearby object before being reflected back, or not pick up narrow items, such as chair legs. However, combined with localized collision sensors, the ultrasonic sensor can aid with the general navigation and avoidance of the larger objects.

An improvement to this setup would be to mount the sonic sensor on top of a servo, thereby allowing you to make a sensor sweep of the robot's surroundings. By making multiple sweeps, taking distance measurements, and tracking the angle of the servo, you could build an internal map of the robot's surroundings.

Getting a sense of direction

In order to navigate your robot around the environment, you will need to keep track of which way your robot is facing. You can estimate the angle that your robot turns at by measuring the angle that it turned at in a fixed time period. For wheeled robots, you can also measure the rotation of each wheel using a rotary encoder (a device that provides a count of the wheel's rotations). However, as you make the robot take multiple turns, the direction the robot is facing becomes more and more uncertain, as differences in the surfaces and the grip of the wheels or legs cause differences in the angles that the robot is turning at.

Fortunately, we can use an electronic version of a compass; it allows us to determine the direction that the robot is facing by providing an angle from magnetic north. If we know which direction the robot is facing, we can receive commands requesting a particular angle and ensure that the robot moves towards it. This allows the robot to perform controlled movements and navigate as required.

When given a target angle, we can determine which direction we need to turn towards, until we reach it.

Getting ready

You will need a magnetometer device, such as PiBorg's **XLoBorg** module (which is a combined I²C magnetometer and accelerometer). In this example, we will only focus on the magnetometer (the smaller chip on the left) output. The XLoBorg module is shown in the following photo:



The PiBorg XLoBorg module contains a three-axis magnetometer and accelerometer

This device can be used with both types of robot, and the angle information received from the module can be used to determine which direction the robot needs to move in.

The module is designed to connect directly to the GPIO header, which will block all the remaining pins. So, in order to use other GPIO devices, a GPIO splitter (such as the PiBorg **TriBorg**) can be used. Alternatively, you can use Dupont female to male patch wires to connect just the I²C pins. The connections to be made are shown in the following table:



I ² C Device	Raspberry Pi P1		I ² C Device	I ² C Device	PiBorg TriBorg	PC Device
VCC	1	2			2	VCC
SDA	3	4			4	SDA
SCL	5	6	GND		6	SCL

Connections to manually wire the XLoBorg module to the Raspberry Pi (using standard I²C connections)

When viewed from the underside, the PiBorg XLoBorg pins are mirrored compared to the Raspberry Pi GPIO header.

How to do it...

Create a Python 3-friendly version of the XLoBorg library (`XLoBorg3.py`) using `wiringpi2`, as follows:

```
#!/usr/bin/env python3
#XLoBorg3.py
import wiringpi2
import struct
import time

def readBlockData(bus, device, register, words):
    magData=[]
    for i in range(words):
        magData.append(bus.readReg16(device,register+i))
    return magData

class compass:
    def __init__(self):
        addr = 0x0E #compass
        self.i2c = wiringpi2.I2C()
        self.devMAG=self.i2c.setup(addr)
        self.initCompass()

    def initCompass(self):
        # Acquisition mode
        register = 0x11    # CTRL_REG2
```

```
data  = (1 << 7)  # Reset before each acquisition
data |= (1 << 5)  # Raw mode, do not apply user offsets
data |= (0 << 5)  # Disable reset cycle
self.i2c.writeReg8(self.devMAG,register,data)
# System operation
register = 0x10  # CTRL_REG1
data  = (0 << 5)  # Output data rate
                # (10 Hz when paired with 128 oversample)
data |= (3 << 3)  # Oversample of 128
data |= (0 << 2)  # Disable fast read
data |= (0 << 1)  # Continuous measurement
data |= (1 << 0)  # Active mode
self.i2c.writeReg8(self.devMAG,register,data)

def readCompassRaw(self):
    #x, y, z = readCompassRaw()
    self.i2c.write(self.devMAG,0x00)
    [status, xh, xl, yh, yl,
     zh, zl, who, sm, oxh, oxl,
     oyh, oyl, ozh, ozl,
     temp, c1, c2] = readBlockData(self.i2c,self.devMAG, 0, 18)
    # Convert from unsigned to correctly signed values
    bytes = struct.pack('BBBBBB', xl, xh, yl, yh, zl, zh)
    x, y, z = struct.unpack('hhh', bytes)
    return x, y, z

if __name__ == '__main__':
    myCompass=compass()
    try:
        while True:
            # Read the MAG Data
            mx, my, mz = myCompass.readCompassRaw()
            print ("mX = %+06d, mY = %+06d, mZ = %+06d" % (mx, my, mz))
            time.sleep(0.1)
    except KeyboardInterrupt:
        print("Finished")
    #End
```

How it works...

The script is based on the XLoBorg library available for the XLoBorg module, except that we use WiringPi2, which is Python 3-friendly, to perform the I²C actions. Just like our motor/servo drivers, we also define it as a class, so that we can drop it into our code and easily replace it with alternative devices if required.

We import `wiringpi2`, `time`, and a library called `struct` (which allows us to quickly unpack a block of data read from the device into separate items).

We create the `compass` class, which will include the `__init__()`, `initCompass()`, and `readCompassRaw()` functions. The `readCompassRaw()` function is the equivalent of the standard XLoBorg `ReadCompassRaw()` function provided by their library.

The `__init__()` function sets up the I²C bus with `wiringpi2` and registers the `degMAG` device on the bus address `0x0E`. The `initCompass()` function sets the `CTRL_REG1` and `CTRL_REG2` registers of the device with the settings required to quickly get raw readings from the device.

More details on the MAG3110 registers are available at

http://www.freescale.com/files/sensors/doc/data_sheet/MAG3110.pdf.

The `readCompassRaw()` function reads the data registers of the device in a single block (using the custom function `readBlockData()`). It reads all of the 18 registers of the device (`0x00` through to `0x11`). The sensor readings we need are contained within the registers `0x01` to `0x06`, which contain the *x*, *y*, and *z* readings, split into upper and lower bytes (8-bit values). The `struct.pack()` and `struct.unpack()` functions provide an easy way to package them together and re-split them as separate words (16-bit values).

We can test our script by creating a `myCompass` object from the `compass` class and reading the sensor values using `myCompass.readCompassRaw()`. You will see the raw *x*, *y*, and *z* values from the device, just as you would from the standard XLoBorg library.

As you will find, these values aren't of much use on their own, since they are uncalibrated and only give you RAW readings from the magnetometer. What we need is a far more useful angle, relative to magnetic north (see the following *There's more...* section for details on how to do this).

There's more...

So far, the basic library allows us to see the strength of the magnetic field on each of the three axes around the sensor (up/down, left/right, and forward/backward). While we can see that these values will change as we move the sensor around, this is not enough to steer our robot. First, we need to calibrate the sensor, and then determine the direction of the robot from the readings of the *x* and *y* axes.

Calibrating the compass

The compass needs to be calibrated in order to report values that are centered and equalized. This is needed because there are magnetic fields all around; by calibrating the sensor, we can cancel out the effect of any localized fields.

By measuring the readings of the compass on all axes, we can determine the minimum and maximum values for each axis. This will allow us to calculate the mid-point of the readings, and also the scaling, so that each axis will read the same value whenever it is facing the same way.

Add the following code at the top of the file (after the `import` statements):

```
CAL=100 #take CAL samples
```

Add the following code to `__init__(self)` of the `compass` class:

```
self.offset,self.scaling=self.calibrateCompass()
if DEBUG:print("offset:%s scaling:%s"%(str(self.offset),
                                         str(self.scaling)))
```

Add a new function named `calibrateCompass()` within the `compass` class, as follows:

```
def calibrateCompass(self,samples=CAL):
    MAXS16=32768
    SCALE=1000.0
    avg=[0,0,0]
    min=[MAXS16,MAXS16,MAXS16];max=[-MAXS16,-MAXS16,-MAXS16]
    print("Rotate sensor around axis (start in 5 sec)")
    time.sleep(5)
    for calibrate in range(samples):
        for idx,value in enumerate(self.readCompassRaw()):
            avg[idx]+=(value
            avg[idx]/=2
            if(value>max[idx]):
                max[idx]=value
            if(value<min[idx]):
                min[idx]=value
        time.sleep(0.1)
        if DEBUG:print("#%d min=[%+06d,%+06d,%+06d]"
                      %(calibrate,min[0],min[1],min[2])
                      +" avg[%+06d,%+06d,%+06d]"
                      %(avg[0],avg[1],avg[2])
                      +" max=[%+06d,%+06d,%+06d]"
                      %(max[0],max[1],max[2]))
    offset=[]
    scaling=[]
```

```

for idx, value in enumerate(min):
    magRange=max[idx]-min[idx]
    offset.append((magRange/2)+min[idx])
    scaling.append(SCALE/magRange)
return offset,scaling

```

Add another new function named `readCompass()` in the `compass` class, as follows:

```

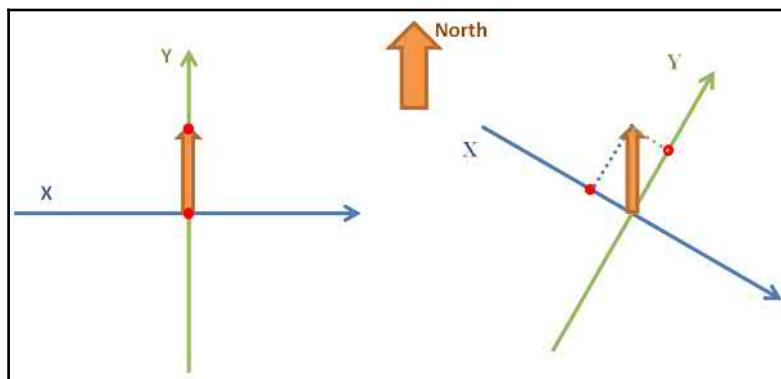
def readCompass(self):
    raw = self.readCompassRaw()
    if DEBUG:print("mX = %+06d, mY = %+06d, mZ = %+06d"
                  % (raw[0],raw[1],raw[2]))
    read=[]
    for idx,value in enumerate(raw):
        adj=value-self.offset[idx]
        read.append(adj*self.scaling[idx])
    return read

```

If you look closely at the readings (if you use `readCompass()`), you will now find that all of the readings have the same range and are centered around the same values.

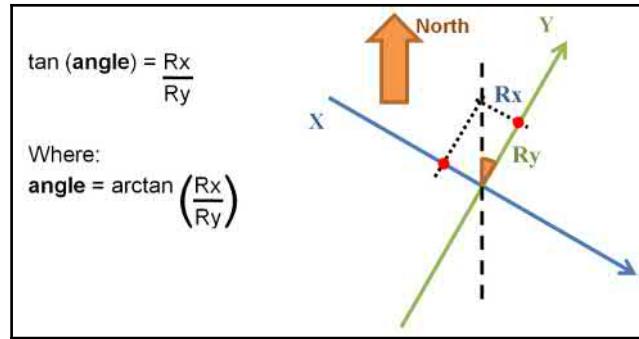
Calculating the compass bearing

The XLoBorg library only provides access to the RAW values of the MAG3110 device, which provides a measure of how strong the magnetic field on each of the axes is. To determine the direction of the sensor, we can use the readings from the *x* and *y* axes (assuming that we have mounted and calibrated the sensor horizontally). The readings of the *x* and *y* axes are proportional to the magnetic field in each direction around the sensor, as shown in the following diagram:



The magnetometer measures the strength of the magnetic field on each axis

The angle at which we turned away from the north can be calculated with the formula shown in the following diagram:



The angle we are pointing towards (that is relative to magnetic north) can be calculated using the measurements R_x and R_y

We can now obtain the compass angle by adding the `readCompassAngle()` function to our `compass` class, as follows:

```
def readCompassAngle(self, cal=True):
    if cal==True:
        read = self.readCompass()
    else:
        read = self.readCompassRaw()
    angle = math.atan2 (read[1],read[0]) # cal angle in radians
    if (angle < 0):
        angle += (2 * math.pi) # ensure positive
    angle = (angle * 360)/(2*math.pi); #report in degrees
    return angle
```

We also need to add the following import with the other import statements:

```
import math
```

We use the `math` function, `math.atan2()`, to calculate our angle (`atan2` will return with the angle relative to the `x` axis of the coordinates `read[1]` and `read[2]` – the angle we want). The angle is in radians, which means that one full turn is defined as 2π , rather than 360 degrees. We convert it back to degrees by multiplying it by 360 and dividing by 2π . Since we wish to have our angle between the range of 0 to 360 degrees (rather than -180 to 180 degrees), we must ensure that it is positive by adding the equivalent of a full circle (2π) to any negative values.

With the sensor calibrated and the angle calculated, we should now have the proper compass bearing to use on our robot. To compare, you can see the result of using the uncalibrated value in our calculation by calling the function with `readCompassAngle(cal=False)`.

Saving the calibration

Having calibrated the sensor once in its current position, it would be inconvenient to have to calibrate it each and every time that you ran the robot. Therefore, you can add the following code to your library to automatically save your calibration and read it from a file the next time you run your robot. To create a new calibration, either delete or rename `mag.cal` (which is created in the same folder as your script), or create your `compass` object `compass(newCal=True)`.

Add the following code near the top of the file (after the `imports` statements):

```
FILENAME="mag.cal"
```

Change `__init__(self)` to `__init__(self,newCal=False)`.

Also, consider the following line:

```
self.offset,self.scaling=self.calibrateCompass()
```

Change the previous line to the following line:

```
self.offset,self.scaling=self.readCal(newCal)
```

Add `readCal()` to the `compass` class, as follows:

```
def readCal(self,newCal=False,filename=FILENAME):
    if newCal==False:
        try:
            with open(FILENAME,'r') as magCalFile:
                line=magCalFile.readline()
                offset=line.split()
                line=magCalFile.readline()
                scaling=line.split()
                if len(offset)==0 or len(scaling)==0:
                    raise ValueError()
                else:
                    offset=list(map(float, offset))
                    scaling=list(map(float, scaling))
        except (OSError,IOError,TypeError,ValueError) as e:
            print("No Cal Data")
```

```
newCal=True
pass
if newCal==True:
    print("Perform New Calibration")
    offset,scaling=self.calibrateCompass()
    self.writeCal(offset,scaling)
return offset,scaling
```

Add `writeCal()` to the `compass` class, as follows:

```
def writeCal(self,offset,scaling):
    if DEBUG:print("Write Calibration")
    if DEBUG:print("offset:"+str(offset))
    if DEBUG:print("scaling:"+str(scaling))
    with open(FILENAME,'w') as magCalFile:
        for value in offset:
            magCalFile.write(str(value)+" ")
        magCalFile.write("\n")
        for value in scaling:
            magCalFile.write(str(value)+" ")
        magCalFile.write("\n")
```

Driving the robot using the compass

Now, all that remains for us to do is use the compass bearing to steer our robot to the desired angle.

Create the following `compassDrive.py` script:

```
#!/usr/bin/env python3
#compassDrive.py
import XLoBorg3 as XLoBorg
import rover_drive as drive
import time

MARGIN=10 #turn until within 10deg
LEFT="l"; RIGHT="r"; DONE="#""

def calDir(target, current, margin=MARGIN):
    target=target%360
    current=current%360
    delta=(target-current)%360
    print("Target=%f Current=%f Delta=%f"%(target,current,delta))
    if delta <= margin:
        CMD=DONE
    else:
```

```
if delta>180:  
    CMD=LEFT  
else:  
    CMD=RIGHT  
return CMD  
  
def main():  
    myCompass=XLoBorg.compass()  
    myBot=drive.motor()  
    while(True):  
        print("Enter target angle:")  
        ANGLE=input()  
        try:  
            angleTarget=float(ANGLE)  
            CMD=LEFT  
            while (CMD!=DONE):  
                angleCompass=myCompass.readCompassAngle()  
                CMD=calDir(angleTarget,angleCompass)  
                print("CMD: %s"%CMD)  
                time.sleep(1)  
                myBot.cmd(CMD)  
            print("Angle Reached!")  
        except ValueError:  
            print("Enter valid angle!")  
            pass  
  
    if __name__ == '__main__':  
        try:  
            main()  
        except KeyboardInterrupt:  
            print ("Finish")  
#End
```

We import the modules that we previously created: `XLoBorg3`, `rover_drive` (for the Rover-Pi robot, or the alternative `bug_drive`, as required), and `time`. Next, we create a function that will return `LEFT`, `RIGHT`, or `DONE`, based on the given target angle (requested by the user) and the current angle (read from the `compass` class). If the compass angle is within 180 degrees less than the target angle, then we turn `LEFT`. Similarly, if it is within 180 degrees, we turn `RIGHT`. Finally, if the compass angle is within the margin (+10 degrees/-10 degrees), then we are `DONE`. By using `angle%360` (which gives us the remainder from dividing the angle by 360), we ensure the angles are all 0-360 (that is, -90 becomes 270).

For the `main()` function, we create `myCompass` (an `XLoBorg.compass` object) and `myBot` (a `drive.motor()` object); these allow us to determine the direction we are facing in, and provide us with a way to drive in the desired direction. Within the `main` loop, we prompt for a target angle, find the current angle that our robot is facing at, and then continue to turn towards the required angle until we reach it (or reach somewhere near enough to that angle).

13

Interfacing with Technology

In this chapter, we will cover the following topics:

- Automating your home with remotely controlled electrical sockets
- Using SPI to control an LED matrix
- Communicating using a serial interface
- Controlling Raspberry Pi using Bluetooth
- Controlling USB devices

Introduction

One of the key aspects of Raspberry Pi that differentiates it from an average computer is its ability to interface with and control hardware. In this chapter, we use Raspberry Pi to control remotely activated mains sockets, send commands over serial connections from another computer, and control the GPIO remotely. We make use of SPI (another useful protocol) to drive an 8 x 8 LED matrix display.

We also use a Bluetooth module to connect with a smartphone, allowing information to be transferred wirelessly between devices. Finally, we take control of USB devices by tapping into the commands sent over USB.



Be sure to check out the *Hardware list* section in the Appendix, *Hardware and Software List*; it lists all the items used in this chapter and the places you can obtain them from.

Automating your home with remotely controlled electrical sockets

Raspberry Pi can make an excellent tool for home automation by providing accurate timing, control, and the ability to respond to commands, button inputs, environmental sensors, or messages from the internet.

Getting ready

Great care must be taken when controlling devices that use electricity from the mains, because high voltage and currents are often involved.



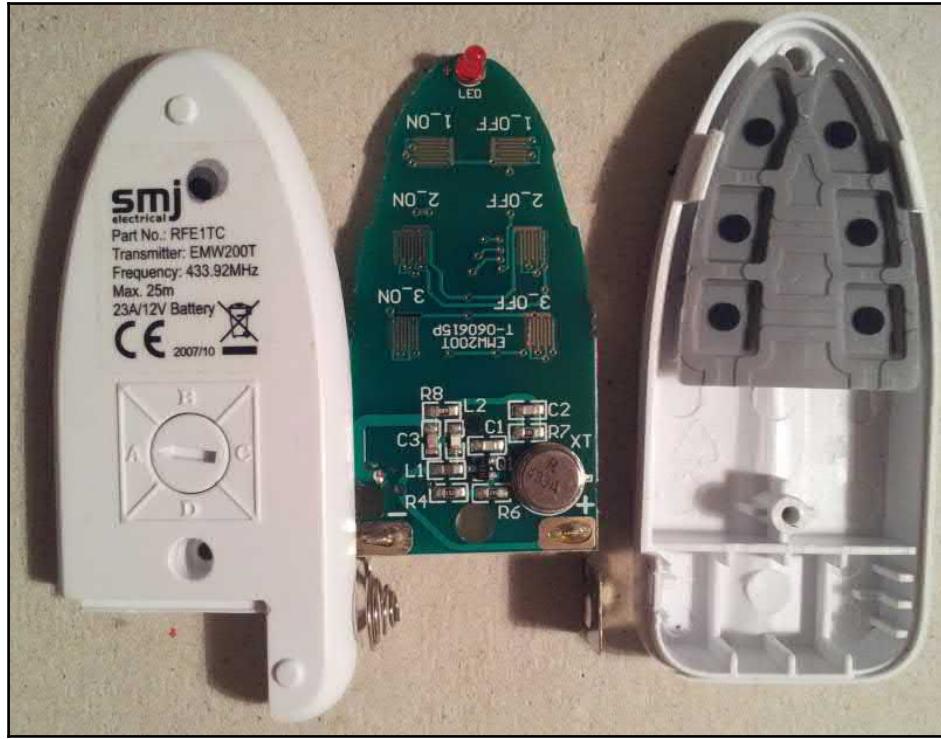
Never attempt to modify or alter devices that are connected to mains electricity without proper training. You must never directly connect any homemade devices to the mains supply. All electronics must undergo rigorous safety testing to ensure that there will be no risk or harm to people or property in the event of a failure.

In this example, we will use remote-controlled **radio frequency (RF)** plug-in sockets; these use a separate remote unit to send a specific RF signal to switch any electrical device that is plugged into it on or off. This allows us to modify the remote control and use Raspberry Pi to activate the switches safely, without interfering with dangerous voltage:



Remote control and remote mains socket

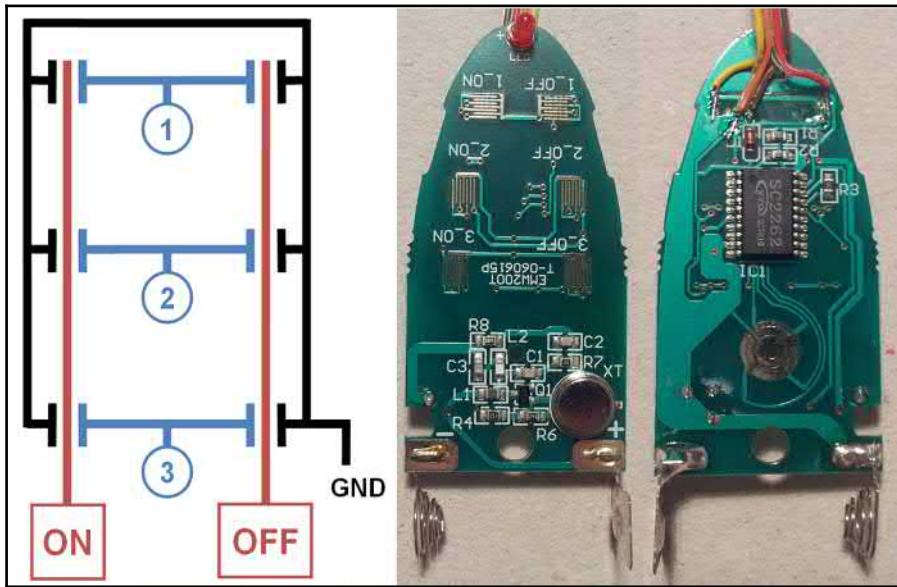
The particular remote control used in this example has six buttons on it to directly switch three different sockets on or off and is powered by a 12V battery. It can be switched into four different channels, which allows you to control a total of 12 sockets (each socket has a similar selector that will be used to set the signal it will respond to):



Inside the remote control

The remote buttons, when pressed, will broadcast a specific RF signal (this one uses a transmission frequency of 433.92 MHz). This will trigger any socket(s) that are set to the corresponding channel (A, B, C, or D) and number (1, 2, or 3).

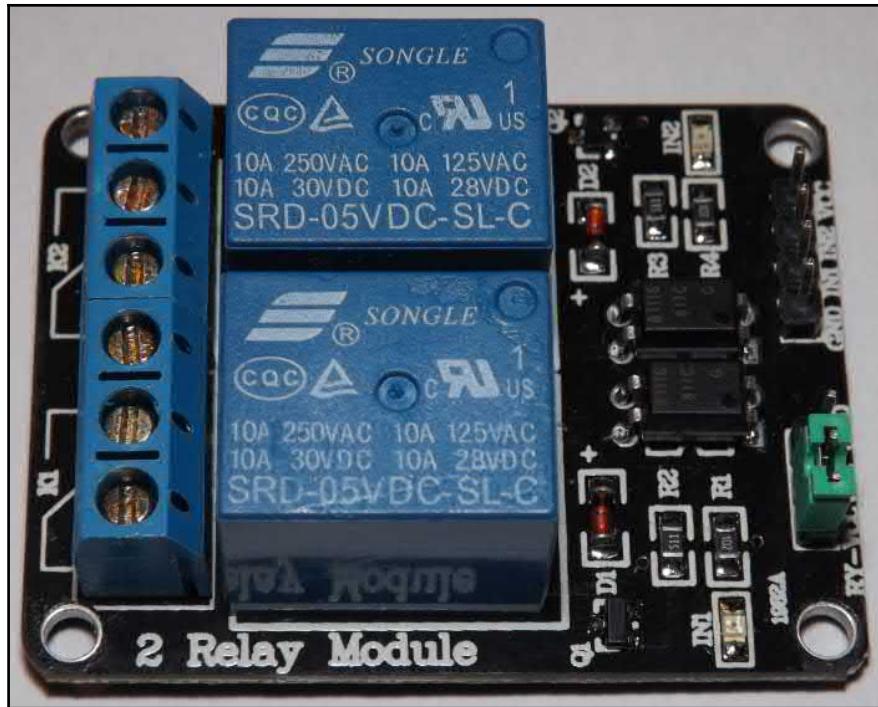
Internally, each of the buttons connects two separate signals to ground, the number (1, 2, or 3), and state (on or off). This triggers the correct broadcast that is to be made by the remote control:



Connect the wires to ON and OFF, 1, 2, and 3, and GND at suitable points on the remote's PCB (only ON, OFF, 1, and GND are connected in the image)

It is recommended that you do not connect anything to your sockets that could cause a hazard if switched on or off. The signals sent by the remote are not unique (there are only four different channels available). This therefore makes it possible for someone else nearby who has a similar set of sockets to unknowingly activate/deactivate one of your sockets. It is recommended that you select a channel other than the default, A, which will slightly reduce the chance of someone else accidentally using the same channel.

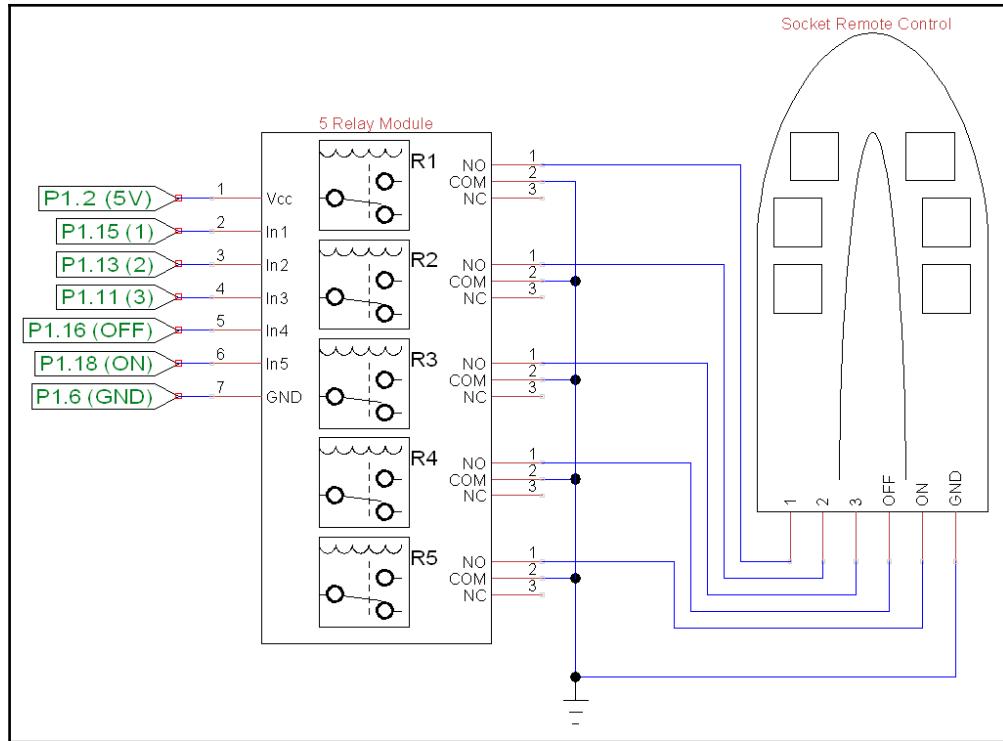
To allow Raspberry Pi to simulate the button presses of the remote, we will need five relays to allow us to select the number (1, 2, or 3) and state (on or off):



A prebuilt relay module can be used to switch the signals

Alternatively, the transistor and relay circuit from Chapter 12, *Building Robots*, can be used to simulate the button presses.

Wire the relay control pins to the Raspberry Pi GPIO and connect the socket remote control to each relay output as follows:



The socket remote control circuit



Although the remote socket requires both the number (1, 2, or 3) and the state (on or off) to activate a socket, it is the state signal that activates the RF transmission. To avoid draining the remote's battery, we must ensure that we have turned off the state signal.

How to do it...

1. Create the following `socketControl.py` script:

```
#!/usr/bin/python3
# socketControl.py
import time
import RPi.GPIO as GPIO
```

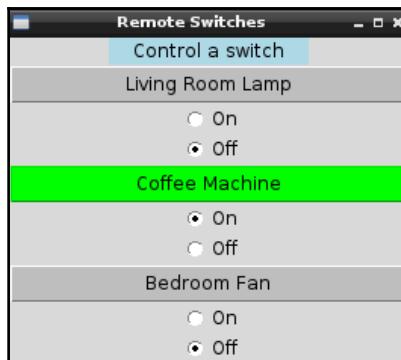
```
#HARDWARE SETUP
# P1
# 2 [V=G=====XI=====] 26 [=====] 40
# 1 [=====321=====] 25 [=====] 39
#V=5V  G=Gnd
sw_num=[15,13,11]#Pins for Switch 1,2,3
sw_state=[16,18]#Pins for State X=Off, I=On
MSGOFF=0; MSGON=1
SW_ACTIVE=0; SW_INACTIVE=1

class Switch():
    def __init__(self):
        self.setup()
    def __enter__(self):
        return self
    def setup(self):
        print("Do init")
        #Setup the wiring
        GPIO.setmode(GPIO.BOARD)
        for pin in sw_num:
            GPIO.setup(pin,GPIO.OUT)
        for pin in sw_state:
            GPIO.setup(pin,GPIO.OUT)
        self.clear()
    def message(self,number,state):
        print ("SEND SW_CMD: %s %d" % (number,state))
        if state==MSGON:
            self.on(number)
        else:
            self.off(number)
    def on(self,number):
        print ("ON: %d"% number)
        GPIO.output(sw_num[number-1],SW_ACTIVE)
        GPIO.output(sw_state[MSGON],SW_ACTIVE)
        GPIO.output(sw_state[MSGOFF],SW_INACTIVE)
        time.sleep(0.5)
        self.clear()
    def off(self,number):
        print ("OFF: %d"% number)
        GPIO.output(sw_num[number-1],SW_ACTIVE)
        GPIO.output(sw_state[MSGON],SW_INACTIVE)
        GPIO.output(sw_state[MSGOFF],SW_ACTIVE)
        time.sleep(0.5)
        self.clear()
    def clear(self):
        for pin in sw_num:
            GPIO.output(pin,SW_INACTIVE)
        for pin in sw_state:
```

```
        GPIO.output(pin, SW_INACTIVE)
def __exit__(self, type, value, traceback):
    self.clear()
    GPIO.cleanup()
def main():
    with Switch() as mySwitches:
        mySwitches.on(1)
        time.sleep(5)
        mySwitches.off(1)
if __name__ == "__main__":
    main()
#End
```

The socket control script performs a quick test by switching the first socket on for 5 seconds and then turning it off again.

2. To control the rest of the sockets, create a GUI menu as follows:



Remote Switches GUI

3. Create the following `socketMenu.py` script:

```
#!/usr/bin/python3
#socketMenu.py
import tkinter as TK
import socketControl as SC

#Define Switches ["Switch name","Switch number"]
switch1 = ["Living Room Lamp",1]
switch2 = ["Coffee Machine",2]
switch3 = ["Bedroom Fan",3]
sw_list = [switch1,switch2,switch3]
SW_NAME = 0; SW_CMD = 1
SW_COLOR=["gray","green"]
```

```
class swButtons:  
    def __init__(self,gui,sw_index,switchCtrl):  
        #Add the buttons to window  
        self.msgType=TK.IntVar()  
        self.msgType.set(SC.MSGOFF)  
        self.btn = TK.Button(gui,  
                             text=sw_list[sw_index][SW_NAME],  
                             width=30, command=self.sendMsg,  
                             bg=SW_COLOR[self.msgType.get()])  
        self.btn.pack()  
        msgOn = TK.Radiobutton(gui,text="On",  
                               variable=self.msgType, value=SC.MSGON)  
        msgOn.pack()  
        msgOff = TK.Radiobutton(gui,text="Off",  
                               variable=self.msgType,value=SC.MSGOFF)  
        msgOff.pack()  
        self.sw_num=sw_list[sw_index][SW_CMD]  
        self.sw_ctrl=switchCtrl  
    def sendMsg(self):  
        print ("SW_CMD: %s %d" % (self.sw_num,  
                                  self.msgType.get()))  
        self.btn.configure(bg=SW_COLOR[self.msgType.get()])  
        self.sw_ctrl.message(self.sw_num,  
                             self.msgType.get())  
  
    root = TK.Tk()  
    root.title("Remote Switches")  
    prompt = "Control a switch"  
    label1 = TK.Label(root, text=prompt, width=len(prompt),  
                      justify=TK.CENTER, bg='lightblue')  
    label1.pack()  
    #Create the switch  
    with SC.Switch() as mySwitches:  
        #Create menu buttons from sw_list  
        for index, app in enumerate(sw_list):  
            swButtons(root,index,mySwitches)  
    root.mainloop()  
#End
```

How it works...

The first script defines a class called `Switch`; it sets up the GPIO pins required to control the five relays (within the `setup` function). It also defines the `__enter__` and `__exit__` functions, which are special functions used by the `with..as` statement. When a class is created using `with..as`, it uses `__enter__` to perform any extra initialization or setup (if required), and then it performs any cleanup by calling `__exit__`. When the `Switch` class has been executed, all the relays are switched off to preserve the remote's battery and `GPIO.cleanup()` is called to release the GPIO pins. The parameters of the `__exit__` function (`type`, `value`, and `traceback`) allow the handling of any specific exceptions that may have occurred when the class was being executed within the `with..as` statement (if required).

To control the sockets, create two functions that will switch the relevant relays on or off to activate the remote control to send the required signal to the sockets. Then, shortly after, turn the relays off again using `clear()`. To make controlling the switches even easier, create a `message` function that will allow a switch number and state to be specified.

We make use of the `socketControl.py` script by creating a Tkinter GUI menu. The menu is made up of three sets of controls (one for each of the switches) that are defined by the `swButtons` class.

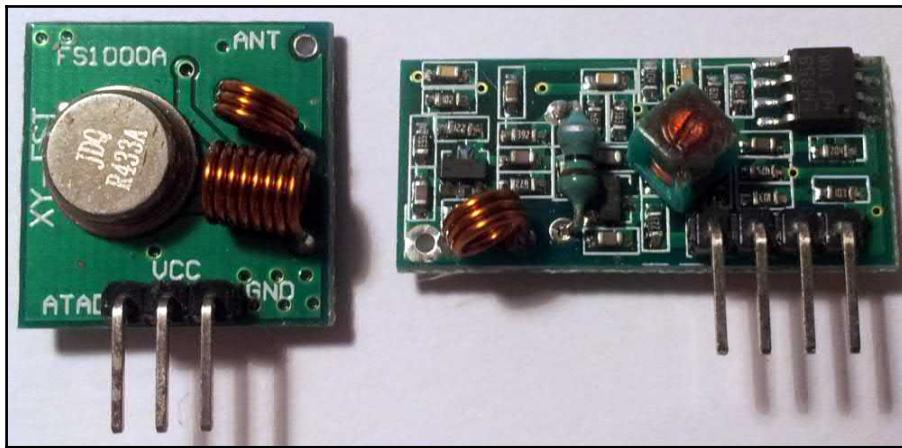
The `swButtons` class creates a Tkinter button and two Radiobutton controls. Each `swButtons` object is given an index and a reference to the `mySwitches` object. This allows us to set a name for the button and control a particular switch when it is pressed. The socket is activated/deactivated by calling `message()`, with the required switch number and state set by the Radiobutton controls.

There's more...

The previous example allows you to rewire the remotes of most remote-controlled sockets, but another option is to emulate the signals to control it directly.

Sending RF control signals directly

Instead of rewiring the remote control, you can replicate the remote's RF signals using a transmitter that uses the same frequency as your sockets (these particular units use 433.94 MHz). This will depend on the particular sockets and sometimes your location – some countries prohibit the use of certain frequencies – as you may require certification before making your own transmissions:



The 433.94 MHz RF transmitter (left) and receiver (right)

The signals sent by the RF remote control can be recreated using 433Utils created by <http://nиняblocks.com>. The 433Utils uses WiringPi and is written in C++, allowing high speed capture and replication of the RF signals.

Obtain the code using the following command:

```
cd ~  
wget https://github.com/nиняblocks/433Utils/archive/master.zip  
unzip master.zip
```

Next, we need to wire up our RF transmitter (so we can control the switches) and RF receiver (so we can determine the control codes) to the Raspberry Pi.

The transmitter (the smaller square module) has three pins, which are power (VCC), ground (GND), and data out (DATA). The voltage supplied on the power pin will govern the transmission range (we will use a 5V supply from Raspberry Pi, but you could replace this with 12V, as long as you ensure you connect the ground pin to both your 12V supply and Raspberry Pi).

Although the receiver has four pins, there is a power pin (VCC), ground pin (GND), and two data out pins (DATA), which are wired together, so we only need to connect three wires to Raspberry Pi:

RF Tx	RPi GPIO pin	RF Rx	RPi GPIO pin
VCC (5V)	2	VCC (3V3)	1
Data out	11	Data in	13
GND	6	GND	9

Before we use the programs within the `RPi_Utils`, we will make a few adjustments to ensure our RX and TX pins are set correctly.

Locate `codesend.cpp` in `433Utils-master/RPi_utils/` to make the required changes:

```
cd ~/433Utils-master/RPi_utils
nano codesend.cpp -c
```

Change `int PIN = 0;` (located at around line 24) to `int PIN = 11;` (RPi physical pin number).

Change `wiringPi` to use physical pin numbering (located around line 27) by replacing `wiringPiSetup()` with `wiringPiSetupPhys()`. Otherwise, the default is `wiringPi` GPIO numbers; for more details, see <http://wiringpi.com/reference/setup/>. Find the following line:

```
if (wiringPiSetup () == -1) return 1;
```

Change it to this:

```
if (wiringPiSetupPhys () == -1) return 1;
```

Save and exit nano using `Ctrl + X, Y`.

Make similar adjustments to `RFSniffer.cpp`:

```
nano RFSniffer.cpp -c
```

Find the following line (located at around line 25):

```
int PIN = 2;
```

Change it to this:

```
int PIN = 13; //RPi physical pin number
```

Find the following line (located at around line 27):

```
if(wiringPiSetup() == -1) {
```

Change it to this:

```
if(wiringPiSetupPhys() == -1) {
```

Save and exit nano using *Ctrl + X, Y*.

Build the code using the following command:

```
make all
```

This should build without errors, as shown here:

```
g++ -c -o codesend.o codesend.cpp
g++ RCSwitch.o codesend.o -o codesend -lwiringPi
g++ -c -o RFSniffer.o RFSniffer.cpp
g++ RCSwitch.o RFSniffer.o -o RFSniffer -lwiringPi
```

Now that we have our RF modules connected to Raspberry Pi and our code ready, we can capture the control signals from our remote. Run the following command and take note of the reported output:

```
sudo ./RFSniffer
```

Get the output by switching button 1 OFF with the remote set to channel A (note that we may pick up some random noise):

```
Received 1381716
Received 1381716
Received 1381716
Received 1381717
Received 1398103
```

We can now send out the signals using the `sendcode` command to switch the sockets OFF (1381716) and ON (1381719):

```
sendcode 1381716
sendcode 1381719
```

You could even set up Raspberry Pi to use the receiver module to detect signals from the remote (on an unused channel) and to act upon them to start processes, control other hardware, or perhaps trigger a software shutdown/reboot.

Extending the range of the RF transmitter

The range of the transmitter is very limited when it is powered by 5V and without an additional antenna. However, it is worth testing everything before you make any modifications.

Simple wire antenna can be made from 25 cm of single core wire, 17 mm side connected to the antenna solder point, then 16 turns (made using a thin screwdriver shaft or similar) and the remaining wire on top (approximately 53 mm):



The transmitter range is vastly improved with a simple antenna

Determining the structure of the remote control codes

Recording the codes for each of the buttons, we can determine the codes for each (and break down the structure):

	1		2		3	
	ON	OFF	ON	OFF	ON	OFF
A	0x15 15 57 (1381719)	0x15 15 54 (1381716)	0x15 45 57 (1394007)	0x15 45 54 (1394004)	0x15 51 57 (1397079)	0x15 51 54 (1397076)

B	0x45 15 57 (4527447)	0x45 15 54 (4527444)	0x45 45 57 (4539735)	0x45 45 54 (4539732)	0x45 51 57 (4542807)	0x45 51 54 (4542804)						
C	0x51 15 57 (5313879)	0x51 15 54 (5313876)	0x51 45 57 (5326167)	0x51 45 54 (5326164)	0x51 51 57 (5329239)	0x51 51 54 (5329236)						
D	0x54 15 57 (5510487)	0x54 15 57 (5510487)	0x54 45 57 (5522775)	0x54 45 54 (5522772)	0x54 51 57 (5525847)	0x54 51 54 (5526612)						
A	B	C	D	1	2	3	na	na	na	na	ON/OFF	
01	01	01	01	01	01	01	01	01	01	01	11/00	

The different codes are shown in hex format to help you see the structure; the sendcode command uses the decimal format (shown within the parentheses)

To select channel A, B, C, or D, set the two bits to 00. Similarly, for button 1, 2, or 3, set the two bits to 00 to select that button. Finally, set the last two bits to 11 for ON or 00 for OFF.

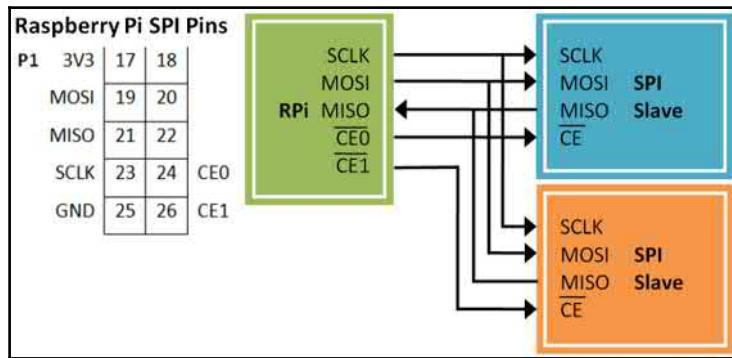
See

<https://arduinodiy.wordpress.com/2014/08/12/433-mhz-system-for-your-arduino/>, which analyses these and other similar RF remote controls.

Using SPI to control an LED matrix

In Chapter 10, *Sensing and Displaying Real-World Data*, we connected to devices using a bus protocol called I²C. Raspberry Pi also supports another chip-to-chip protocol called **Serial Peripheral Interface (SPI)**. The SPI bus differs from I²C because it uses two single direction data lines (where I²C uses one bidirectional data line).

Although SPI requires more wires (I^2C uses two bus signals, SDA and SCL), it supports the simultaneous sending and receiving of data and much higher clock speeds than I^2C :

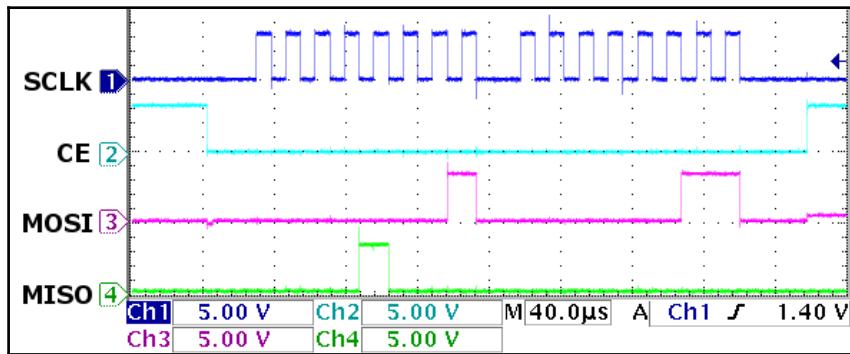


General connections of SPI devices with Raspberry Pi

The SPI bus consists of the following four signals:

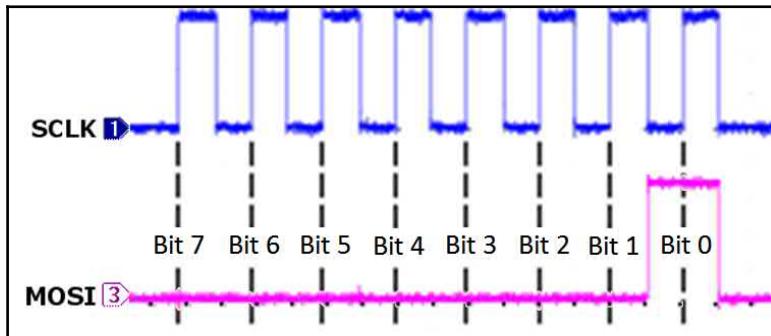
- **SCLK:** This allows the clock edges to read/write data on the input/output lines; it is driven by the master device. As the clock signal changes from one state to another, the SPI device will check the state of the MOSI signal to read a single bit. Similarly, if the SPI device is sending data, it will use the clock signal edges to synchronize when it sets the state of the MISO signal.
- **CE:** This refers to Chip Enable (typically, a separate Chip Enable is used for each slave device on the bus). The master device will set the Chip Enable signal to low for the device that it wants to communicate with. When the Chip Enable signal is set to high, it ignores any other signals on the bus. This signal is sometimes called **Chip Select (CS)** or **Slave Select (SS)**.
- **Master Output, Slave Input (MOSI):** It connects to Data Out of the master device and Data In of the slave device.
- **Master Input, Slave Output (MISO):** It provides a response from the slave.

The following diagram shows each of the signals:



The SPI signals: SCLK (1), CE(2), MOSI(3), and MISO(4)

The previous scope trace shows two bytes being sent over SPI. Each byte is clocked into the SPI device using the **SCLK (1)** signal. A byte is signified by a burst of eight clock cycles (a low and then high period on the **SCLK (1)** signal), where the value of a specific bit is read when the clock state changes. The exact sample point is determined by the clock mode; in the following diagram, it is when the clock goes from low to high:

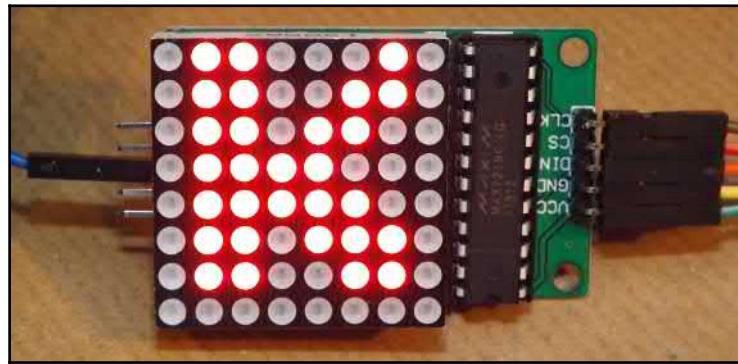


The first data byte sent by Raspberry Pi to the SPI device using the MOSI(3) signal

The first byte sent is 0x01 (all the bits are low, except **Bit 0**) and the second sent is 0x03 (only **Bit 1** and **Bit 0** are high). At the same time, the **MOSI (4)** signal returns data from the SPI device-in this case, 0x08 (**Bit 3** is high) and 0x00 (all the bits are low). The **SCLK (1)** signal is used to sync everything, even the data being sent from the SPI device.

The **CE (2)** signal is held low while the data is being sent to instruct that particular SPI device to listen to the **MOSI (4)** signal. When the **CE (2)** signal is set to high again, it indicates to the SPI device that the transfer has been completed.

The following is an image of an 8 x 8 LED matrix that is controlled via the **SPI Bus**:



An 8 x 8 LED module displaying the letter K

Getting ready

The `wiringPi` library that we used previously for I²C also supports SPI. Ensure that `wiringPi` is installed (see Chapter 10, *Sensing and Displaying Real-World Data*, for details) so that we can use it here.

Next, we need to enable SPI if we didn't do so when we enabled I²C previously:

```
sudo nano /boot/config.txt
```

Remove the # before `#dtparam=spi=on` to enable it, so it reads, and save (*Ctrl + X, Y, Enter*):

```
dtparam=spi=on
```

You can confirm that the SPI is active by listing all the running modules using the following command and locating `spi_bcm2835`:

```
lsmod
```

You can test the SPI with the following `spiTest.py` script:

```
#!/usr/bin/python3
# spiTest.py
import wiringpi

print("Add SPI Loopback - connect GPIO Pin19 and Pin21")
print("[Press Enter to continue]")


```

```
input()
wiringpi.wiringPiSPISetup(1,500000)
buffer=str.encode("HELLO")
print("Buffer sent %s" % buffer)
wiringpi.wiringPiSPIDataRW(1,buffer)
print("Buffer received %s" % buffer)
print("Remove the SPI Loopback")
print("[Press Enter to continue]")
input()
buffer=str.encode("HELLO")
print("Buffer sent %s" % buffer)
wiringpi.wiringPiSPIDataRW(1,buffer)
print("Buffer received %s" % buffer)
#End
```

Connect inputs **19** and **21** to create an SPI loopback for testing:

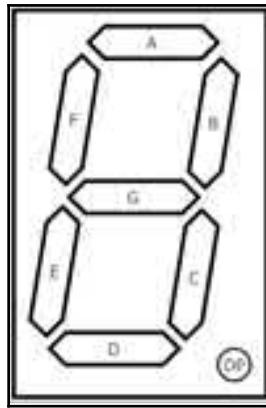
GPIO	3V3	17	18	
MOSI		19	20	
MISO		21	22	
SCLK		23	24	CEO
GND		25	26	CE1

The SPI loopback test

You should get the following result:

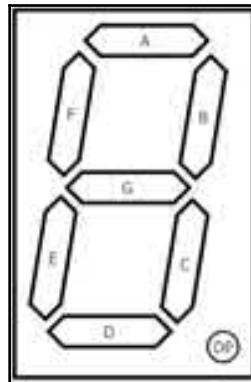
```
Buffer sent b'HELLO'
Buffer received b'HELLO'
Remove the SPI Loopback
[Press Enter to continue]
Buffer sent b'HELLO'
Buffer received b'x00x00x00x00'
```

The example that follows uses an LED 8 x 8 matrix display that is being driven by an SPI-controlled **MAX7219 LED driver**:



An LED Controller MAX7219 pin-out, LED matrix pin-out, and LED matrix internal wiring (left to right)

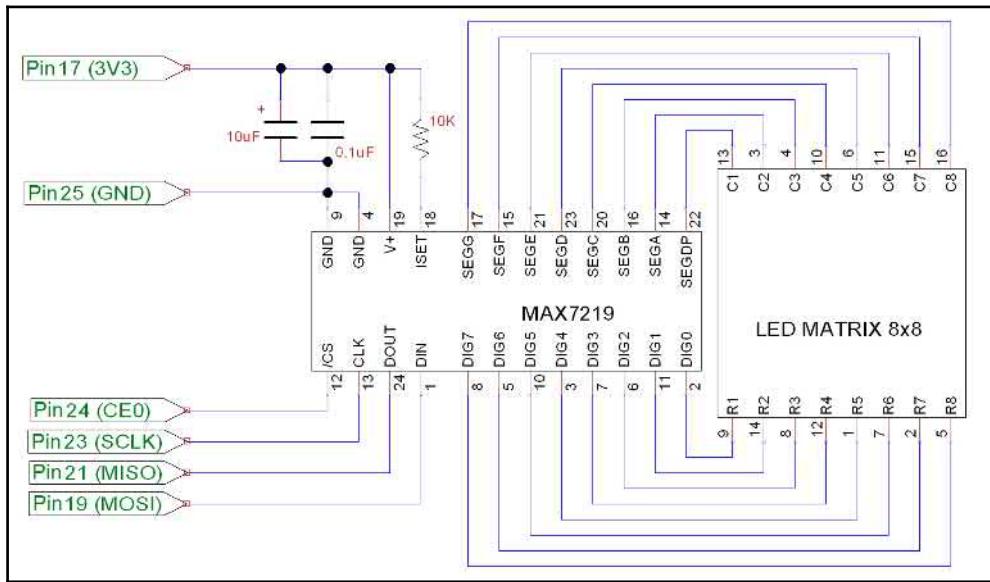
Although the device has been designed to control eight separate seven-segment LED digits, we can use it for our LED matrix display. When used for digits, each of the seven segments (plus a decimal place) is wired to one of the SEG pins and the COM connection of each of the digits is wired to the DIG pins. The controller then switches each of the segments on as required, while setting the relevant digit COM to low to enable it. The controller can quickly cycle through each of the digits using the DIG pin quickly enough that all eight appear to be lit at the same time:



A seven-segment LED digit uses segments A to G, plus DP (decimal place)

We use the controller in a similar way, except each SEG pin will connect to a column in the matrix and the DIG pins will enable/disable a row.

We use an 8 x 8 module connected to the MAX7219 chip as follows:



The MAX7219 LED controller driving an 8 x 8 LED matrix display

How to do it...

- To control an LED matrix connected to an SPI MAX7219 chip, create the following `matrixControl.py` script:

```
#!/usr/bin/python3
# matrixControl.py
import wiringpi
import time

MAX7219_NOOP      = 0x00
DIG0=0x01; DIG1=0x02; DIG2=0x03; DIG3=0x04
DIG4=0x05; DIG5=0x06; DIG6=0x07; DIG7=0x08
MAX7219_DIGIT=[DIG0,DIG1,DIG2,DIG3,DIG4,DIG5,DIG6,DIG7]
MAX7219_DECODEMODE = 0x09
MAX7219_INTENSITY  = 0x0A
MAX7219_SCANLIMIT  = 0x0B
```

```
MAX7219_SHUTDOWN      = 0x0C
MAX7219_DISPLAYTEST  = 0x0F
SPI_CS=1
SPI_SPEED=100000

class matrix():
    def __init__(self,DEBUG=False):
        self.DEBUG=DEBUG
        wiringpi.wiringPiSetup(SPI_CS,SPI_SPEED)
        self.sendCmd(MAX7219_SCANLIMIT, 8)    # enable outputs
        self.sendCmd(MAX7219_DECODEMODE, 0)   # no digit decode
        self.sendCmd(MAX7219_DISPLAYTEST, 0)  # display test off
        self.clear()
        self.brightness(7)                  # brightness 0-15
        self.sendCmd(MAX7219_SHUTDOWN, 1)    # start display
    def sendCmd(self, register, data):
        buffer=(register<<8)+data
        buffer=buffer.to_bytes(2, byteorder='big')
        if self.DEBUG:print("Send byte: 0x%04x"%int.from_bytes(buffer,'big'))
        wiringpi.wiringPiSPIDataRW(SPI_CS,buffer)
        if self.DEBUG:print("Response: 0x%04x"%int.from_bytes(buffer,'big'))
        return buffer
    def clear(self):
        if self.DEBUG:print("Clear")
        for row in MAX7219_DIGIT:
            self.sendCmd(row + 1, 0)
    def brightness(self,intensity):
        self.sendCmd(MAX7219_INTENSITY, intensity % 16)

    def letterK(matrix):
        print("K")
        K=(0x0066763e1e366646).to_bytes(8, byteorder='big')
        for idx,value in enumerate(K):
            matrix.sendCmd(idx+1,value)

    def main():
        myMatrix=matrix(DEBUG=True)
        letterK(myMatrix)
        while(1):
            time.sleep(5)
            myMatrix.clear()
```

```
    time.sleep(5)
    letterK(myMatrix)

if __name__ == '__main__':
    main()
#End
```

Running the script (`python3 matrixControl.py`) displays the letter K.

2. We can use a GUI to control the output of the LED matrix using `matrixMenu.py`:

```
#!/usr/bin/python3
#matrixMenu.py
import tkinter as TK
import time
import matrixControl as MC

#Enable/Disable DEBUG
DEBUG = True
#Set display sizes
BUTTON_SIZE = 10
NUM_BUTTON = 8
NUM_LIGHTS=NUM_BUTTON*NUM_BUTTON
MAX_VALUE=0xFFFFFFFFFFFFFF
MARGIN = 2
WINDOW_H = MARGIN+((BUTTON_SIZE+MARGIN)*NUM_BUTTON)
WINDOW_W = WINDOW_H
TEXT_WIDTH=int(2+((NUM_BUTTON*NUM_BUTTON)/4))
LIGHTOFFON=["red4","red"]
OFF = 0; ON = 1
colBg = "black"

def isBitSet(value,bit):
    return (value>>bit & 1)

def setBit(value,bit,state=1):
    mask=1<<bit
    if state==1:
        value|=mask
    else:
        value&=~mask
    return value

def toggleBit(value,bit):
    state=isBitSet(value,bit)
    value=setBit(value,bit,not state)
    return value
```

```
class matrixGUI(TK.Frame):
    def __init__(self, parent, matrix):
        self.parent = parent
        self.matrix=matrix
        #Light Status
        self.lightStatus=0
        #Add a canvas area ready for drawing on
        self.canvas = TK.Canvas(parent, width=WINDOW_W,
                               height=WINDOW_H, background=colBg)
        self.canvas.pack()
        #Add some "lights" to the canvas
        self.light = []
        for iy in range(NUM_BUTTON):
            for ix in range(NUM_BUTTON):
                x = MARGIN+MARGIN+((MARGIN+BUTTON_SIZE)*ix)
                y = MARGIN+MARGIN+((MARGIN+BUTTON_SIZE)*iy)
                self.light.append(self.canvas.create_rectangle(x,y,
                                                               x+BUTTON_SIZE,y+BUTTON_SIZE,
                                                               fill=LIGHTOFFON[OFF]))
        #Add other items
        self.codeText=TK.StringVar()
        self.codeText.trace("w", self.changedCode)
        self.generateCode()
        code=TK.Entry(parent, textvariable=self.codeText,
                      justify=TK.CENTER, width=TEXT_WIDTH)
        code.pack()
        #Bind to canvas not tk (only respond to lights)
        self.canvas.bind('<Button-1>', self.mouseClick)
    def mouseClick(self, event):
        itemsClicked=self.canvas.find_overlapping(event.x,
                                                event.y, event.x+1, event.y+1)
        for item in itemsClicked:
            self.toggleLight(item)

    def setLight(self, num):
        state=isBitSet(self.lightStatus, num)
        self.canvas.itemconfig(self.light[num],
                               fill=LIGHTOFFON[state])
    def toggleLight(self, num):
        if num != 0:
            self.lightStatus=toggleBit(self.lightStatus, num-1)
            self.setLight(num-1)
            self.generateCode()

    def generateCode(self):
        self.codeText.set("0x%016x"%self.lightStatus)

    def changedCode(self, *args):
```

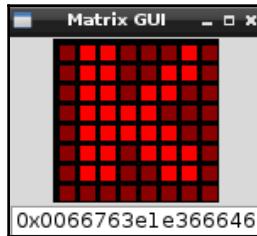
```
updated=False
try:
    codeValue=int(self.codeText.get(),16)
    if(codeValue>MAX_VALUE):
        codeValue=codeValue>>4
    self.updateLight(codeValue)
    updated=True
except:
    self.generateCode()
    updated=False
return updated

def updateLight(self,lightsetting):
    self.lightStatus=lightsetting
    for num in range(NUM_LIGHTS):
        self.setLight(num)
    self.generateCode()
    self.updateHardware()

def updateHardware(self):
    sendBytes=self.lightStatus.to_bytes(NUM_BUTTON,
                                         byteorder='big')
    print(sendBytes)
    for idx,row in enumerate(MC.MAX7219_DIGIT):
        response = self.matrix.sendCmd(row,sendBytes[idx])
        print(response)

def main():
    global root
    root=TK.Tk()
    root.title("Matrix GUI")
    myMatrixHW=MC.matrix(DEBUG)
    myMatrixGUI=matrixGUI(root,myMatrixHW)
    TK.mainloop()
if __name__ == '__main__':
    main()
#End
```

3. The Matrix GUI allows us to switch each of the LEDs on/off by clicking on each of the squares (or by directly entering the hexadecimal value) to create the required pattern:



Using the Matrix GUI to control the 8 x 8 LED matrix

How it works...

Initially, we defined addresses for each of the control registers used by the MAX7219 device. View the datasheet at for more information:

<https://datasheets.maximintegrated.com/en/ds/MAX7219-MAX7221.pdf>.

We created a class called `matrix` that will allow us to control the module. The `__init__()` function sets up the SPI of Raspberry Pi (using `SPI_CS` as pin 26 CS1 and `SPI_SPEED` as 100 kHz).

The key function in our `matrix` class is the `sendCmd()` function; it uses `wiringpi.wiringPiSPIDataRW(SPI_CS, buff)` to send `buffer` (which is the raw byte data that we want to send) over the SPI bus (while also setting the `SPI_CS` pin to low when the transfer occurs). Each command consists of two bytes: the first specifies the address of the register, and the second sets the data that needs to be put into it. To display a row of lights, we send the address of one of the `ROW` registers (`MC.MAX7219_DIGIT`) and the bit-pattern we want to display (as a byte).

After the `wiringpi.wiringPiSPIDataRW()` function is called, `buffer` contains the result of whatever is received on the MISO pin (which is read simultaneously as the data is sent via the MOSI pin). If connected, this will be the output of the LED module (a delayed copy of the data that was sent). Refer to the following *There's more...* section regarding daisy-chained SPI configurations to learn how the chip output can be used.



To initialize the MAX7219, we need to ensure that it is configured in the correct mode. First, we set the **Scan Limit** field to 7 (which enables all the DIG0 - DIG7 outputs). Next, we disable the built-in digit decoding since we are using the raw output for the display (and don't want it to try to display digits). We also want to ensure that the `MAX7219_DISPLAYTEST` register is disabled (if enabled, it would turn on all the LEDs).

We ensure the display is cleared by calling our own `clear()` function, which sends 0 to each of the `MAX7219_DIGIT` registers to clear each of the rows. Finally, we use the `MAX7219_INTENSITY` register to set the brightness of the LEDs. The brightness is controlled using a PWM output to make the LEDs appear brighter or darker according to the brightness that is required.

Within the `main()` function, we perform a quick test to display the letter K on the grid by sending a set of 8 bytes (0x0066763e1e366646):

	Bits LSB to MSB								
	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
DIG7	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0x46
DIG6	0	1	1	0	0	1	1	0	0x66
DIG5	0	1	1	0	1	1	0	0	0x36
DIG4	0	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0x1e
DIG3	0	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	0x3e
DIG2	0	1	1	0	1	1	1	0	0x76
DIG1	0	1	1	0	0	1	1	0	0x66
DIG0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0x00

Each 8 x 8 pattern consists of 8 bits in 8 bytes (one bit for each column, making each byte a row in the display)

The `matrixGUI` class creates a canvas object that is populated with a grid of rectangle objects to represent the 8 x 8 grid of LEDs we want to control (these are kept in `self.light`). We also add a text entry box to display the resulting bytes that we will send to the LED matrix module. We then bind the `<Button-1>` mouse event to the canvas so that `mouseClick` is called whenever a mouse click occurs within the area of the canvas.

We attach a function called `changedCode()` to the `codeText` variable using `trace`, a special Python function, which allows us to monitor specific variables or functions. If we use the '`w`' value with the `trace` function, the Python system will call the `callback` function whenever the value is written to.

When the `mouseClick()` function is called, we use the `event.x` and `event.y` coordinates to identify the object that is located there. If an item is detected, then the ID of the item is used (via `toggleLight()`) to toggle the corresponding bit in the `self.lightStatus` value, and the color of the light in the display changes accordingly (via `setLight()`). The `codeText` variable is also updated with the new hexadecimal representation of the `lightStatus` value.

The `changeCode()` function allows us to use the `codeText` variable and translate it into an integer. This allows us to check whether it is a valid value. Since it is possible to enter text here freely, we must validate it. If we are unable to convert it to an integer, the `codeValue` text is refreshed using the `lightStatus` value. Otherwise, we check if it is too large, in which case we perform a bit-shift by 4 to divide it by 16 until it is within a valid range. We update the `lightStatus` value, the GUI lights, the `codeText` variable, and also the hardware (by calling `updateHardware()`).

The `updateHardware()` function makes use of the `myMatrixHW` object that was created using the `MC.matrix` class. We send the bytes that we want to display to the matrix hardware one byte at a time (along with the corresponding `MAX7219_DIGIT` value to specify the row).

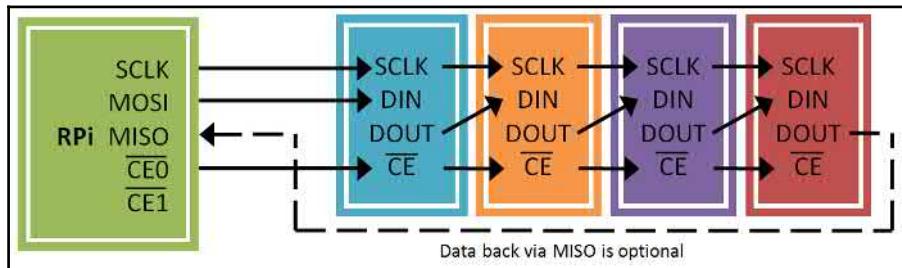
There's more...

The SPI bus allows us to control multiple devices on the same bus by using the Chip Enable signal. Some devices, such as the MAX7219, also allow what is known as a daisy-chain SPI configuration.

Daisy-chain SPI configuration

You may have noticed that the `matrix` class also returns a byte when we send the data on the MOSI line. This is the data output from the MAX7219 controller on the DOUT connection. The MAX7219 controller actually passes all the DIN data through to DOUT, which is one set of instructions behind the DIN data. In this way, the MAX7219 can be daisy-chained (with each DOUT feeding into the next DIN). By keeping the CE signal low, multiple controllers can be loaded with data by being passed through one another.

The data is ignored while CE is set to low; the output will only be changed when we set it to high again. In this way, you can clock in all the data for each of the modules in the chain and then set the CE to high to update them:



The daisy-chain SPI configuration

We need to do this for each row that we wish to update (or use MAX7219_NOOP if we want to keep the current row the same). This is known as a daisy-chain SPI configuration, supported by some SPI devices, where data is passed through each device on the SPI bus to the next one, which allows the use of three bus control signals for multiple devices.

Communicating using a serial interface

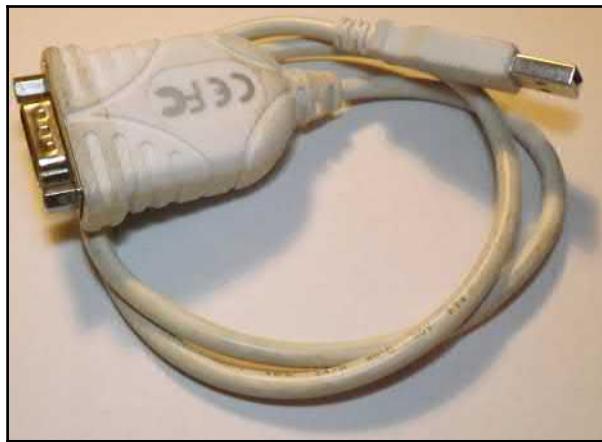
Traditionally, serial protocols such as RS232 are a common way to connect devices such as printers and scanners as well as joysticks and mouse devices to computers. Now, despite being superseded by USB, many peripherals still make use of this protocol for internal communication between components, to transfer data, and to update firmware. For electronics hobbyists, RS232 is a very useful protocol for debugging and controlling other devices while avoiding the complexities of USB.

The two scripts in this example allow for the control of the GPIO pins to illustrate how we can remotely control Raspberry Pi using the serial port. The serial port can be connected to a PC, another Raspberry Pi device, or even an embedded microcontroller (such as Arduino, PIC, or similar).

Getting ready

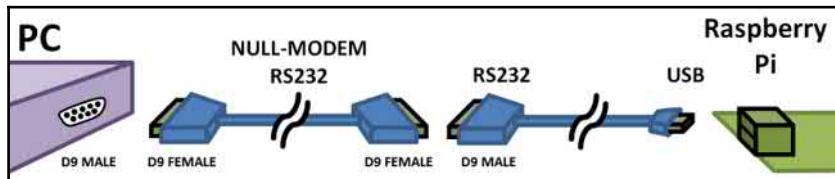
The easiest way to connect to Raspberry Pi via a serial protocol will depend on whether your computer has a built-in serial port or not. The serial connection, software, and test setup are described in the following three steps:

1. Create an RS232 serial connection between your computer and Raspberry Pi. For this, you need one of the following setups:
 - If your computer has a built-in serial port available, you can use a Null-Modem cable with an RS232-to-USB adaptor to connect to Raspberry Pi:



RS232-to-USB adapter

A Null-Modem is a serial cable/adapter that has the TX and RX wires crossed over so that one side is connected to the TX pin of the serial port and the other side is connected to the RX pin:



A PC serial port connected to Raspberry Pi via a Null-Modem cable and an RS232-to-USB adapter USB for an RS232 adapter

A list of supported USB-to-RS232 devices is available at the following link:
http://elinux.org/RPi_VerifiedPeripherals#USB_UART_and_USB_to_Serial_.28RS-232.29_adapters.

Refer to the *There's more...* section for details on how to set them up.



If you do not have a serial port built in to your computer, you can use another USB-to-RS232 adapter to connect to the PC/laptop, converting the RS232 to the more common USB connection.

If you do not have any available USB ports on Raspberry Pi, you can use the GPIO serial pins directly with either a serial console cable or a Bluetooth serial module (refer to the *There's more...* section for details). Both of these will require some additional setup.

In all cases, you can use an RS232 loopback to confirm that everything is working and set up correctly (again, refer to the *There's more...* section).

2. Next, prepare the software you need for this example.

You will need to install `pyserial` so we can use the serial port with Python.

3. Install `pyserial` with the following command (you will also need `pip` installed; refer to Chapter 3, *Using Python for Automation and Productivity*, for details):

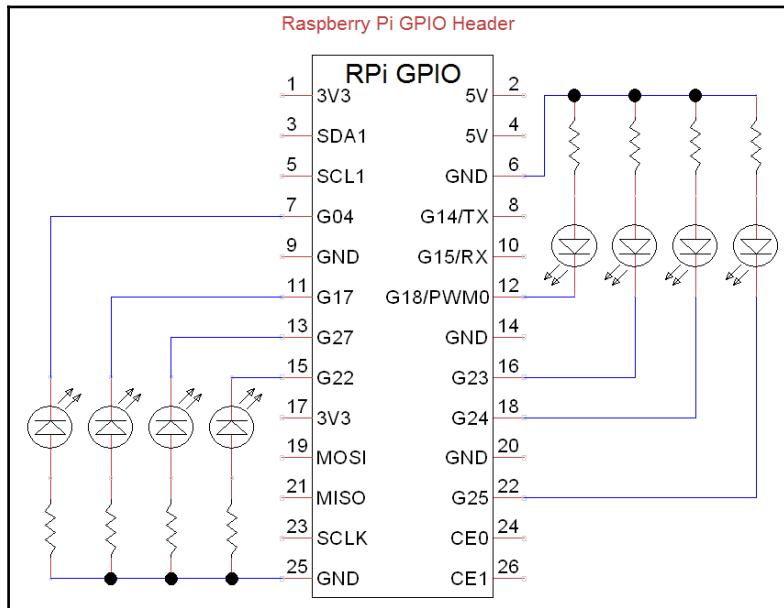
```
sudo pip-3.2 install pyserial
```

Refer to the `pySerial` site for further documentation:

<https://pyserial.readthedocs.io/en/latest/>.

In order to demonstrate the RS232 serial control, you will require some example hardware attached to Raspberry Pi's GPIO pins.

The `serialMenu.py` script allows the GPIO pins to be controlled using commands sent through the serial port. To fully test this, you can connect suitable output devices (such as LEDs) to each of the GPIO pins. You can ensure that the total current is kept low using 470-ohm resistors for each of the LEDs so that the maximum GPIO current that the Raspberry Pi can supply is not exceeded:



A test circuit to test the GPIO output via serial control

How to do it...

1. Create the following `serialControl.py` script:

```
#!/usr/bin/python3
#serialControl.py
import serial
import time

#Serial Port settings
SERNAME="/dev/ttyUSB0"
#default setting is 9600,8,N,1
IDLE=0; SEND=1; RECEIVE=1
```

```
def b2s(message):
    '''Byte to String'''
    return bytes.decode(message)
def s2b(message):
    '''String to Byte'''
    return bytarray(message,"ascii")

class serPort():
    def __init__(self,serName="/dev/ttyAMA0"):
        self.ser = serial.Serial(serName)
        print (self.ser.name)
        print (self.ser)
        self.state=IDLE
    def __enter__(self):
        return self
    def send(self,message):
        if self.state==IDLE and self.ser.isOpen():
            self.state=SEND
            self.ser.write(s2b(message))
            self.state=IDLE

    def receive(self, chars=1, timeout=5, echo=True,
               terminate="r"):
        message=""
        if self.state==IDLE and self.ser.isOpen():
            self.state=RECEIVE
            self.ser.timeout=timeout
            while self.state==RECEIVE:
                echovalue=""
                while self.ser.inWaiting() > 0:
                    echovalue += b2s(self.ser.read(chars))
                if echo==True:
                    self.ser.write(s2b(echovalue))
                message+=echovalue
                if terminate in message:
                    self.state=IDLE
        return message
    def __exit__(self,type,value,traceback):
        self.ser.close()

def main():
    try:
        with serPort(serName=SERNAME) as mySerialPort:
            mySerialPort.send("Send some data to me!\n")
            while True:
                print ("Waiting for input:")
                print (mySerialPort.receive())
    except OSError:
```

```
    print ("Check selected port is valid: %s" %serName)
except KeyboardInterrupt:
    print ("Finished")

if __name__=="__main__":
    main()
#End
```

Ensure that the `serName` element is correct for the serial port you want to use (such as `/dev/ttyAMA0` for the GPIO pins or `/dev/ttyUSB0` for a USB RS232 adapter).

Connect the other end to a serial port on your laptop or computer (the serial port can be another USB-to-RS232 adapter).

Monitor the serial port on your computer using a serial program such as HyperTerminal or RealTerm for Windows or Serial Tools for OS X. You will need to ensure that you have the correct COM port set and a baud rate of 9,600 bps (Parity=None, Data Bits=8, Stop Bits=1, and Hardware Flow Control=None).

The script will send a request for data to the user and wait for a response.

To send data to Raspberry Pi, write some text on the other computer and press *Enter* to send it over to Raspberry Pi.

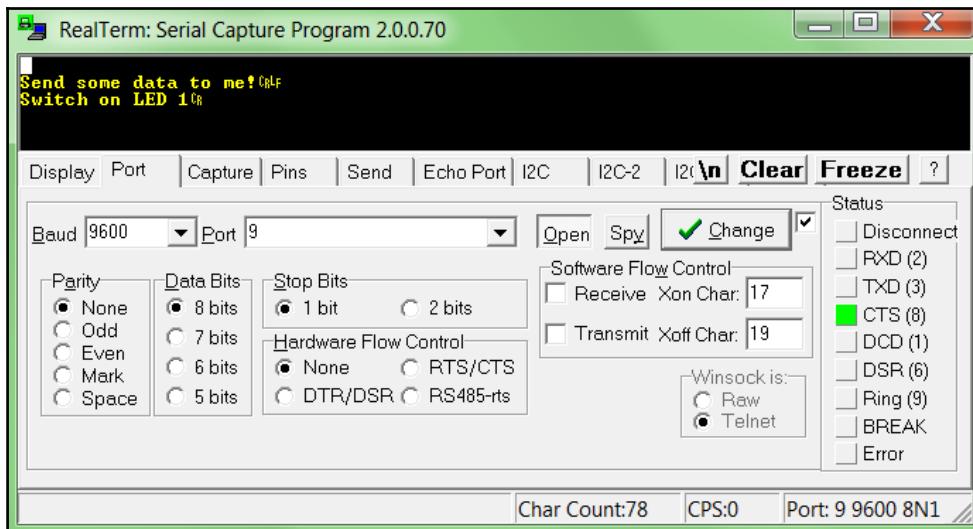
2. You will see output similar to the following in the Raspberry Pi terminal:

```
pi@raspberrypi: ~userdata/chapter10/scripts $ sudo python3 serialControl.py
/dev/ttyUSB0
Serial<id=0xb6a42c30, open=True>(port='/dev/ttyUSB0', baudrate=9600, bytesize=8
parity='N', stopbits=1, timeout=None, xonxoff=False, rtscts=False, dsrdtr=False
)
Waiting for input:
Switch on LED 1

Waiting for input:
```

The text Switch on LED 1 has been sent via a USB-to-RS232 cable from a connected computer

3. You will also see output similar to the following in the serial monitoring program:



RealTerm displaying typical output from the connected serial port

4. Press *Ctrl + C* on Raspberry Pi to stop the script.
5. Now, create a GPIO control menu. Create `serialMenu.py`:

```
#!/usr/bin/python3
#serialMenu.py
import time
import RPi.GPIO as GPIO
import serialControl as SC
SERNAME = "/dev/ttyUSB0"
running=True

CMD=0;PIN=1;STATE=2;OFF=0;ON=1
GPIO_PINS=[7,11,12,13,15,16,18,22]
GPIO_STATE=["OFF", "ON"]
EXIT="EXIT"

def gpioSetup():
    GPIO.setmode(GPIO.BOARD)
    for pin in GPIO_PINS:
        GPIO.setup(pin,GPIO.OUT)

def handleCmd(cmd):
    global running
    commands=cmd.upper()
    commands=commands.split()
    valid=False
```

```
print ("Received: " + str(commands))
if len(commands)==3:
    if commands[CMD]==="GPIO":
        for pin in GPIO_PINS:
            if str(pin)==commands[PIN]:
                print ("GPIO pin is valid")
                if GPIO_STATE[OFF]==commands[STATE]:
                    print ("Switch GPIO %s %s"% (commands[PIN],
                                                   commands[STATE]))
                    GPIO.output(pin,OFF)
                    valid=True
                elif GPIO_STATE[ON]==commands[STATE]:
                    print ("Switch GPIO %s %s"% (commands[PIN],
                                                   commands[STATE]))
                    GPIO.output(pin,ON)
                    valid=True
            elif commands[CMD]===EXIT:
                print("Exit")
                valid=True
                running=False
            if valid==False:
                print ("Received command is invalid")
                response=" Invalid:GPIO Pin#(%s) %srn%" (
                    str(GPIO_PINS), str(GPIO_STATE))
            else:
                response=" OKrn"
            return (response)

def main():
    try:
        gpioSetup()
        with SC.serPort(serName=SERNAME) as mySerialPort:
            mySerialPort.send("rn")
            mySerialPort.send(" GPIO Serial Controlrn")
            mySerialPort.send(" -----rn")
            mySerialPort.send(" CMD PIN STATE "+
                            "[GPIO Pin# ON]rn")
            while running==True:
                print ("Waiting for command...")
                mySerialPort.send(">>")
                cmd = mySerialPort.receive(terminate="rn")
                response=handleCmd(cmd)
                mySerialPort.send(response)
                mySerialPort.send(" Finished!rn")
    except OSError:
        print ("Check selected port is valid: %s" %serName)
    except KeyboardInterrupt:
        print ("Finished")
```

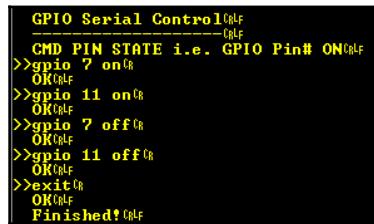
```

    finally:
        GPIO.cleanup()

main()
#End

```

6. When you run the script (`sudo python3 serialMenu.py`), type the control messages within the serial monitoring program:



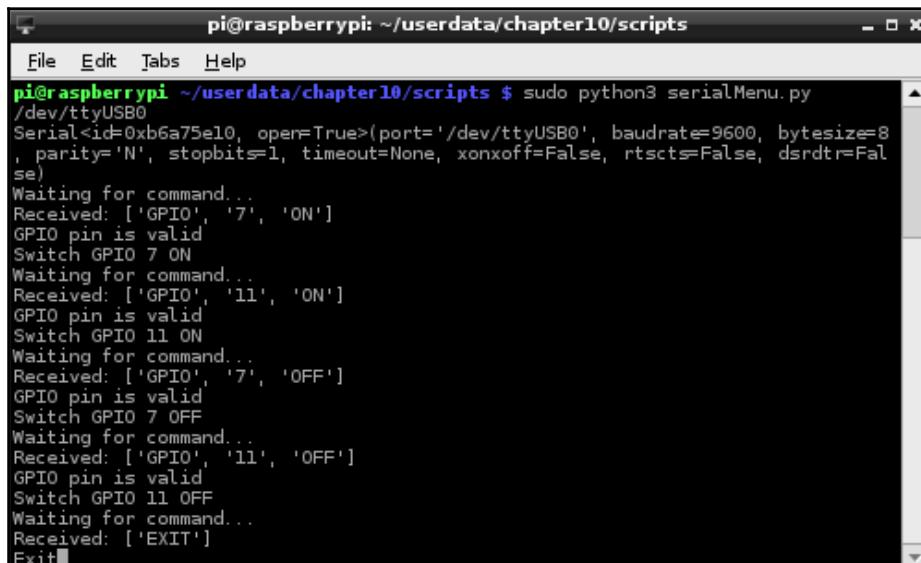
```

GPIO Serial Control
CMD PIN STATE i.e. GPIO Pin# ON|OFF
>>gpio 7 on
OK
>>gpio 11 on
OK
>>gpio 7 off
OK
>>gpio 11 off
OK
>>exit
OK
Finished!

```

The GPIO Serial Control menu

7. The Terminal output on Raspberry Pi will be similar to the following screenshot, and the LEDs should respond accordingly:



```

pi@raspberrypi: ~userdata/chapter10/scripts $ sudo python3 serialMenu.py
Serial<id=0xb6a75e10, open=True>(port='/dev/ttUSB0', baudrate=9600, bytesize=8
, parity='N', stopbits=1, timeout=None, xonxoff=False, rtscts=False, dsrdtr=False)
Waiting for command...
Received: ['GPIO', '7', 'ON']
GPIO pin is valid
Switch GPIO 7 ON
Waiting for command...
Received: ['GPIO', '11', 'ON']
GPIO pin is valid
Switch GPIO 11 ON
Waiting for command...
Received: ['GPIO', '7', 'OFF']
GPIO pin is valid
Switch GPIO 7 OFF
Waiting for command...
Received: ['GPIO', '11', 'OFF']
GPIO pin is valid
Switch GPIO 11 OFF
Waiting for command...
Received: ['EXIT']
Exit

```

The GPIO Serial Control menu

Raspberry Pi validates the commands received from the serial connection and switches the LEDs connected to the GPIO pins 7 and 11 on and then off.

How it works...

The first script, `serialControl.py`, provides us with a `serPort` class. We define the class with the following functions:

- `__init__(self, serName="/dev/ttyAMA0")`: This function will create a new serial device using `serName` – the default of `/dev/ttyAMA0` is the ID for the GPIO serial pins (see the *There's more...* section). After it is initialized, information about the device is displayed.
- `__enter__(self)`: This is a dummy function that allows us to use the `with...as` method.
- `send(self, message)`: This is used to check that the serial port is open and not in use; if this is the case, it will then send a message (after converting it to raw bytes using the `s2b()` function).
- `receive(self, chars=1, echo=True, terminate="r")`: After checking whether the serial port is open and not in use, this function then waits for data through the serial port. The function will collect data until the terminated characters are detected and then the full message is returned.
- `__exit__(self, type, value, traceback)`: This function is called when the `serPort` object is no longer required by the `with...as` method, so we can close the port at this point.

The `main()` function in the script performs a quick test of the class by sending a prompt for data through the serial port to a connected computer and then waits for input that will be followed by the terminated character(s).

The next script, `serialMenu.py`, allows us to make use of the `serPort` class.

The `main()` function sets up the GPIO pins as output (via `gpioSetup()`), creates a new `serPort` object, and finally waits for commands coming from the serial port. Whenever a new command is received, the `handleCmd()` function is used to parse the message to ensure that it is correct before acting on it.

The script will switch a particular GPIO pin on or off as commanded via the serial port using the `GPIO` command keyword. We could add any number of command keywords and control (or read) whatever device (or devices) we attached to Raspberry Pi. We now have a very effective way to control Raspberry Pi using any devices connected via a serial link.

There's more...

In addition to the serial transmit and receive, the RS232 serial standard includes several other control signals. To test it, you can use a serial loopback to confirm if the serial ports are set up correctly.

Configuring a USB-to-RS232 device for Raspberry Pi

Once you have connected the USB-to-RS232 device to Raspberry Pi, check to see whether a new serial device is listed by typing the following command:

```
dmesg | grep tty
```

The `dmesg` command lists events that occur on the system; using `grep`, we can filter any messages that mention `tty`, as shown in the following code:

```
[ 2409.195407] usb 1-1.2: pl2303 converter now attached to ttyUSB0
```

This shows that a PL2303-based USB-RS232 device was attached (2,409 seconds after startup) and allocated the `ttyUSB0` identity. You will see that a new serial device has been added within the `/dev/` directory (usually `/dev/ttyUSB0` or something similar).

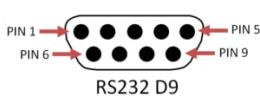
If the device has not been detected, you can try steps similar to the ones used in [Chapter 1, Getting Started with a Raspberry Pi 3 Computer](#), to locate and install suitable drivers (if they are available).

RS232 signals and connections

The RS232 serial standard has lots of variants and includes six additional control signals.

The Raspberry Pi GPIO serial drivers (and the Bluetooth TTL module used in the following example) only support RX and TX signals. If you require support for other signals, such as DTR, which is often used for a reset prior to the programming of AVR/Arduino devices, then alternative GPIO serial drivers may be needed to set these signals via other GPIO pins. Most RS232-to-USB adapters support the standard signals; however, ensure that anything you connect is able to handle standard RS232 voltages:

Pin	Signal		Pin	Signal	
1	Carrier Detector (DCD)	DCD	6	Data Set Ready	DSR
2	Receive Data (Rx)	RXD	7	Request to Send	RTS
3	Transmit Data (Tx)	TXD	8	Clear to Send	CTS
4	Data Terminal Ready	DTR	9	Ring Indicator	RI
5	Signal Ground (SG)	GND			



The RS232 9-Way D connector pin-out and signals

For more details on the RS232 serial protocol and to learn how these signals are used, visit the following link:

[http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Serial_port.](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Serial_port)

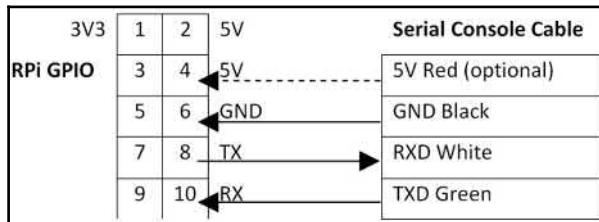
Using the GPIO built-in serial pins

Standard RS232 signals can range from -15V to +15V, so you must never directly connect any RS232 device to the GPIO serial pins. You must use an RS232 to TTL voltage-level converter (such as a MAX232 chip) or a device that uses TTL-level signals (such as another microcontroller or a TTL serial console cable):



A USB-to-TTL serial console cable (voltage level is 3V)

Raspberry Pi has TTL-level serial pins on the GPIO header that allow the connection of a TTL serial USB cable. The wires will connect to the Raspberry Pi GPIO pins and the USB will plug in to your computer and be detected like a standard RS232-to-USB cable:



Connection of a USB-to-TTL serial console cable to the Raspberry Pi GPIO

It is possible to provide power from the USB port to the 5V pin; however, this will bypass the built-in polyfuse, so it is not recommended for general use (just leave the 5V wire disconnected and power it up as normal using the micro USB).

By default, these pins are set up to allow remote terminal access, allowing you to connect to the COM port via PuTTY and to create a serial SSH session.

A serial SSH session can be helpful if you want to use Raspberry Pi without a display attached to it.



However, a serial SSH session is limited to text-only Terminal access since it does not support X10 forwarding, as used in the *Connecting remotely to Raspberry Pi over the network using SSH (and X11 forwarding)* section of Chapter 1, *Getting Started with a Raspberry Pi 3 Computer*.

In order to use it as a standard serial connection, we have to disable the serial console so it is available for us to use.

First, we need to edit `/boot/cmdline.txt` to remove the first `console` and `kgdboc` options (do not remove the other `console=tty1` option, which is the default Terminal when you switch on):

```
sudo nano /boot/cmdline.txt
dwc_otg.lpm_enable=0 console=ttyAMA0,115200 kgdboc=ttyAMA0,115200
console=tty1 root=/dev/mmcblk0p2 rootfstype=ext4 elevator=deadline rootwait
```

The previous command line becomes the following (ensure that this is still a single command line):

```
dwc_otg.lpm_enable=0 console=tty1 root=/dev/mmcblk0p2 rootfstype=ext4
elevator=deadline rootwait
```

We also have to remove the task that runs the `getty` command (the program that handles the text Terminal for the serial connection) by commenting it out with `#`. This is set in `/etc/inittab` as follows:

```
sudo nano /etc/inittab
T0:23:respawn:/sbin/getty -L ttyAMA0 115200 vt100
```

The previous command line becomes the following:

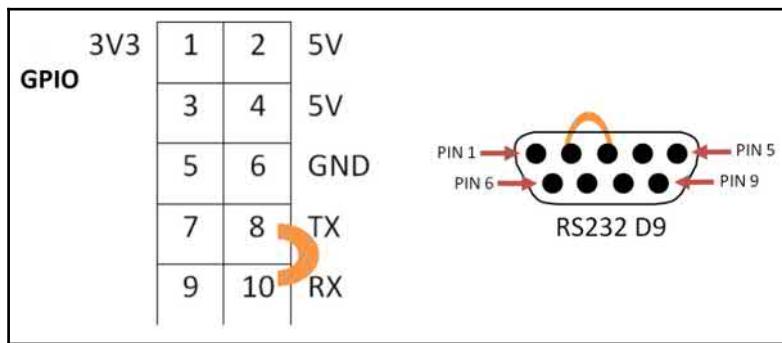
```
#T0:23:respawn:/sbin/getty -L ttyAMA0 115200 vt100
```

To reference the GPIO serial port in our script, we use its name, `/dev/ttyAMA0`.

The RS232 loopback

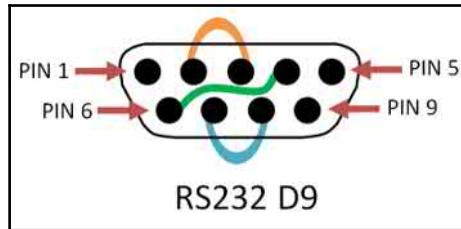
You can check whether the serial port connections are working correctly using a serial loopback.

A simple loopback consists of connecting RXD and TXD together. These are pins 8 and 10 on the Raspberry Pi GPIO header, or pins 2 and 3 on the standard RS232 D9 connector on the USB-RS232 adapter:



Serial loopback connections to test the Raspberry Pi GPIO (left) and RS232 9-Way D connector (right)

An RS232 full loopback cable also connects pin 4 (DTR) and pin 6 (DSR) as well as pin 7 (RTS) and pin 8 (CTS) on the RS232 adapter. However, this is not required for most situations, unless these signals are used. By default, no pins are allocated on Raspberry Pi specifically for these additional signals:



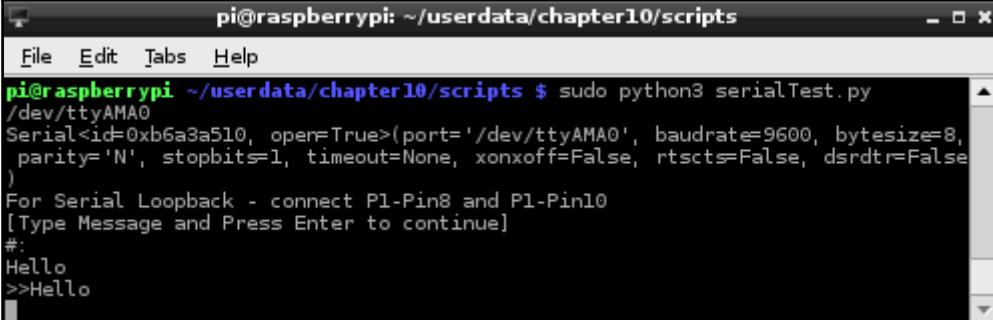
RS232 full loopback

Create the following `serialTest.py` script:

```
#!/usr/bin/python3
#serialTest.py
import serial
import time

WAITTIME=1
serName="/dev/ttyAMA0"
ser = serial.Serial(serName)
print (ser.name)
print (ser)
if ser.isOpen():
    try:
        print("For Serial Loopback - connect GPIO Pin8 and Pin10")
        print("[Type Message and Press Enter to continue]")
        print("#:")
        command=input()
        ser.write(bytarray(command+"\r\n", "ascii"))
        time.sleep(WAITTIME)
        out=""
        while ser.inWaiting() > 0:
            out += bytes.decode(ser.read(1))
        if out != "":
            print (">>" + out)
        else:
            print ("No data Received")
    except KeyboardInterrupt:
        ser.close()
#End
```

When a loopback is connected, you will observe that the message is echoed back to the screen (when removed, No data Received will be displayed):



A terminal window titled "pi@raspberrypi: ~/userdata/chapter10/scripts". The command "sudo python3 serialTest.py" is run, showing the output of a serial port configuration and a loopback test where the word "Hello" is typed and echoed back.

```
pi@raspberrypi ~ userdata/chapter10/scripts $ sudo python3 serialTest.py
/dev/ttymA0
Serial<id=0xb6a3a510, open=True>(port='/dev/ttymA0', baudrate=9600, bytesize=8,
parity='N', stopbits=1, timeout=None, xonxoff=False, rtscts=False, dsrdtr=False
)
For Serial Loopback - connect P1-Pin8 and P1-Pin10
[Type Message and Press Enter to continue]
#:
Hello
>>Hello
```

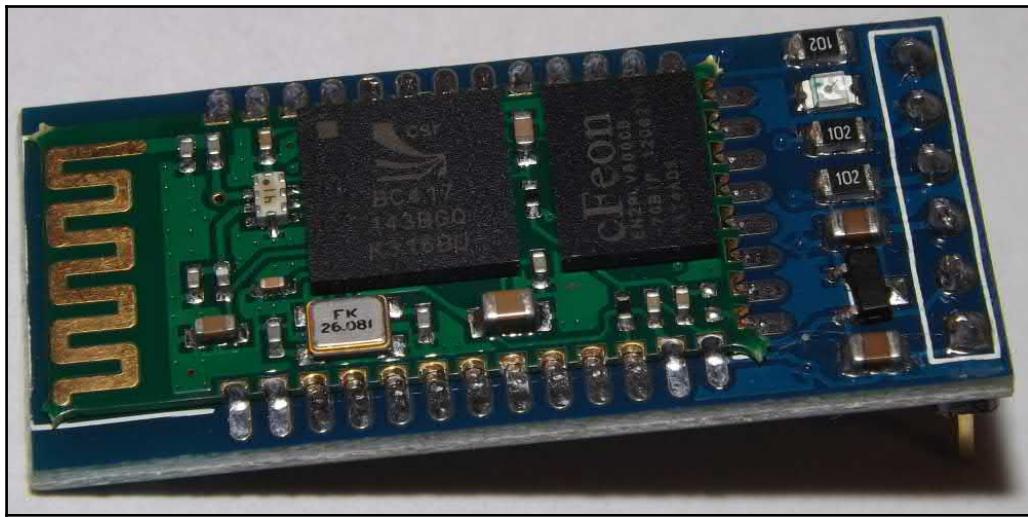
An RS232 loopback test on GPIO serial pins

If we require non-default settings, they can be defined when the serial port is initialized (the pySerial documentation at <https://pyserial.readthedocs.io/en/latest/> provides full details of all the options), as shown in the following code:

```
ser = serial.Serial(port=serName, baudrate= 115200,
timeout=1, parity=serial.PARITY_ODD,
stopbits=serial.STOPBITS_TWO,
bytesize=serial.SEVENBITS)
```

Controlling Raspberry Pi using Bluetooth

Serial data can also be sent through Bluetooth by connecting a HC-05 Bluetooth module that supports the **Serial Port Profile (SPP)** to the GPIO serial RX/TX pins. This allows the serial connection to become wireless, which allows Android tablets or smartphones to be used to control things and to read data from Raspberry Pi:



The HC-05 Bluetooth module for the TTL serial

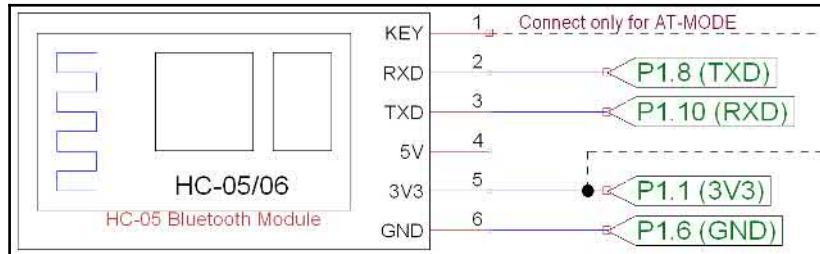


While it is possible to achieve a similar result using a USB Bluetooth dongle, additional configuration would be required depending on the particular dongle used. The TTL Bluetooth module provides a drop-in replacement for a physical cable, requiring very little additional configuration.

Getting ready

Ensure that the serial console has been disabled (see the previous *There's more...* section).

The module should be connected using the following pins:



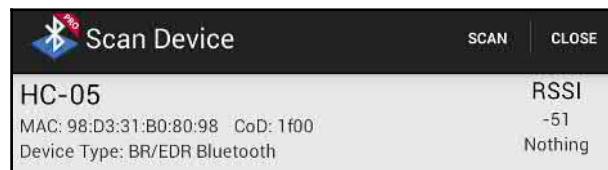
Connection to a Bluetooth module for the TTL serial

How to do it...

With the Bluetooth module configured and connected, we can pair the module with a laptop or smartphone to send and receive commands wirelessly. Bluetooth spp pro provides an easy way to use a serial connection over Bluetooth to control or monitor Raspberry Pi for Android devices.

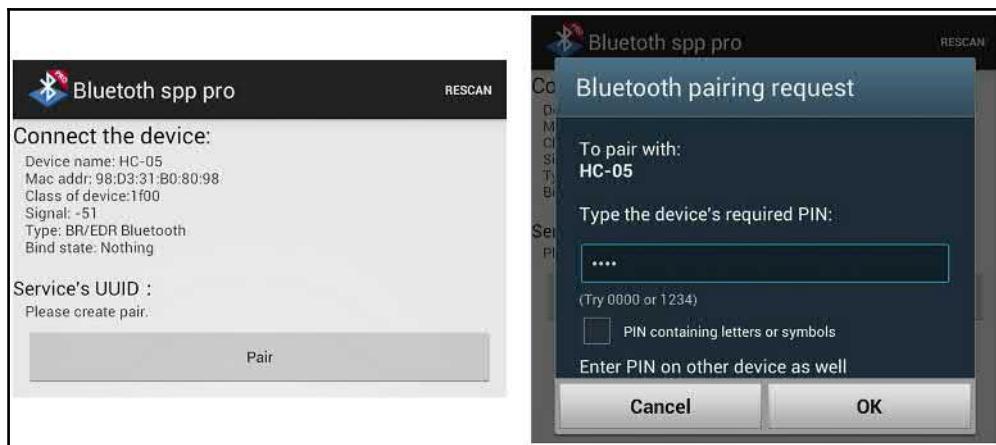
Alternatively, you may be able to set up a Bluetooth COM port on your PC/laptop and use it in the same way as the previous wired example:

1. When the device is connected initially, the LED flashes quickly to indicate that it is waiting to be paired. Enable Bluetooth on your device and select the **HC-05** device:



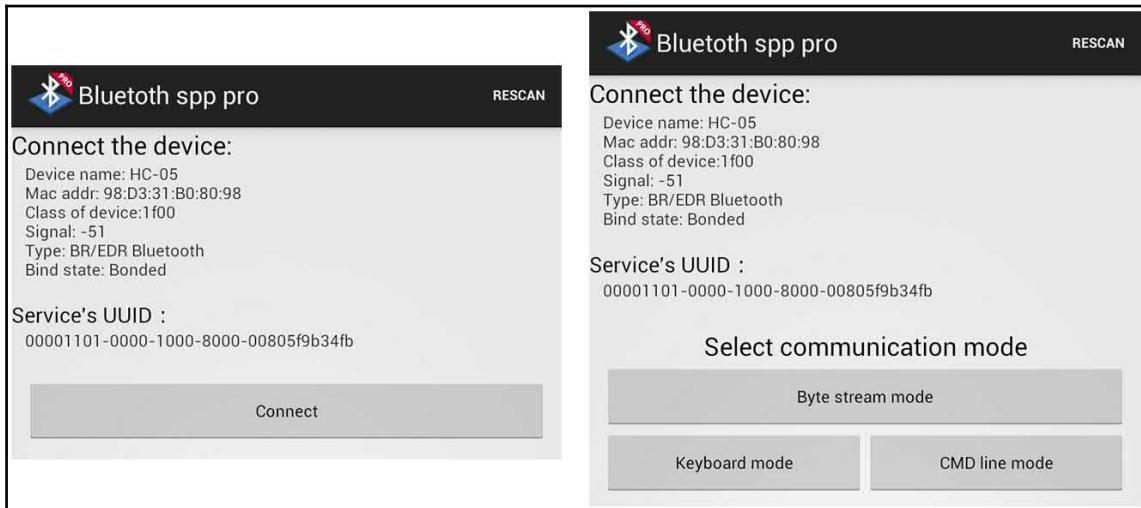
The HC-05 Bluetooth module viewable in Bluetooth spp pro

2. Click on the **Pair** button to begin the pairing process and enter the device's PIN (the default is 1234):



Pair the Bluetooth device with the PIN code (1234)

3. If the pairing was successful, you will be able to connect with the device and send and receive messages to and from Raspberry Pi:



Connect to the device and select the control method

4. In **Keyboard mode**, you can define actions for each of the buttons to send suitable commands when pressed.

For example, **Pin12 ON** can be set to send `gpio 12 on` and **Pin12 OFF** can be set to send `gpio 12 off`.

5. Ensure that you set the end flag to `rn` via the menu options.
6. Ensure that `menuSerial.py` is set to use the GPIO serial connection:

```
serName="/dev/ttymA0"
```

7. Run the `menuSerial.py` script (with the LEDs attached):

```
sudo python3 menuSerial.py
```

8. Check that the Bluetooth serial app displays the GPIO Serial Control menu as shown in the following screenshot:



GPIO control over Bluetooth

We can see from the output in the following screenshot that the commands have been received and the LED connected to pin 12 has been switched on and off as required:

```
pi@raspberrypi: ~userdata/chapter10/scripts
File Edit Tabs Help
pi@raspberrypi ~userdata/chapter10/scripts $ sudo python3 serialMenu.py
/dev/ttymA0
Serial<id=0xb6a15f50, open=True>(port='/dev/ttymA0', baudrate=9600, bytesize=8,
parity='N', stopbits=1, timeout=None, xonxoff=False, rtscts=False, dsrdtr=False
)
Waiting for command...
Received: ['GPIO', '12', 'ON']
GPIO pin is valid
Switch GPIO 12 ON
Waiting for command...
Received: ['GPIO', '12', 'OFF']
GPIO pin is valid
Switch GPIO 12 OFF
Waiting for command...
```

Raspberry Pi receiving GPIO control over Bluetooth

How it works...

By default, the Bluetooth module is set up to act like a TTL serial slave device, so we can simply plug it in to the GPIO RX and TX pins. Once the module is paired with a device, it will transfer the serial communication over the Bluetooth connection. This allows us to send commands and receive data via Bluetooth and to control Raspberry Pi using a smartphone or PC.

This means you can attach a second module to another device (such as an Arduino) that has TTL serial pins and control it using Raspberry Pi (either by pairing it with another TTL Bluetooth module or suitably configuring a USB Bluetooth dongle). If the module is set up as a master device, then you will need to reconfigure it to act as a slave (see the *There's more...* section).

There's more...

Now, let's understand how to configure the Bluetooth settings.

Configuring Bluetooth module settings

The Bluetooth module can be set to one of two different modes using the KEY pin.

In a normal operation, serial messages are sent over Bluetooth; however, if we need to change the settings of the Bluetooth module itself, we can do so by connecting the KEY pin to 3V3 and putting it into AT mode.

AT mode allows us to directly configure the module, allowing us to change the baud rate, the pairing code, the device name, or even set it up as a master/slave device.

You can use miniterm, which is part of pySerial, to send the required messages, as shown in the following code:

```
python3 -m serial.tools.miniterm
```

The miniterm program, when started, will prompt you for the port to use:

```
Enter port name: /dev/ttyAMA0
```

You can send the following commands (you will need to do this quickly, or paste them in, as the module will time out if there is a gap and respond with an error):

- AT: This command should respond with **OK**.
- AT+UART?: This command will report the current settings as **UART=<Param1>, <Param2>, <Param3>**. The output of this command will be **OK**.
- To change the current settings, use **AT+UART=<Param1>, <Param2>, <Param3>**, that is, **AT+UART=19200, 0, 0**.

<Param1> Baud Rate (bits/s)									
4800	9600	19200	38400	57600	115200	23400	460800	921600	1382400
<Param2> Stop Bit			0	1 Bit				1	2 Bits
<Param3> Parity Bit		0	None	1	Odd Parity		2	Even Parity	

HC-05 AT mode AT+UART command parameters

Zak Kemble has written an excellent guide on how to configure modules as paired master and slave devices (for example, between two Raspberry Pi devices). It is available at the following link:

<http://blog.zakkembla.co.uk/getting-bluetooth-modules-talking-to-each-other/>.

For additional documentation on the HC-05 module, visit the following link:

http://www.robotshop.com/media/files/pdf/rb-ite-12-bluetooth_hc05.pdf.

Controlling USB devices

The **Universal Serial Bus (USB)** is used extensively by computers to provide additional peripherals and expansion through a common standard connection. We will use the **pyusb** Python library to send custom commands to connected devices over USB.

The following example controls a USB toy missile launcher, which in turn allows it to be controlled by our Python control panel. We can see that the same principle can be applied to other USB devices, such as a robotic arm, using similar techniques, and the controls can be activated using a sensor connected to the Raspberry Pi GPIO:



The USB Tenx Technology SAM missile launcher

Getting ready

We will need to install pyusb for Python 3 using pip-3.2 as follows:

```
sudo pip-3.2 install pyusb
```

You can test whether pyusb has installed correctly by running the following:

```
python3
> import usb
> help (usb)
> exit()
```

This should allow you to view the package information, if it was installed correctly.

How to do it...

We will create the following `missileControl.py` script, which will include two classes and a default `main()` function to test it:

1. Import the required modules as follows:

```
#!/usr/bin/python3
# missileControl.py
import time
import usb.core
```

2. Define the `SamMissile()` class, which provides the specific commands for the USB device, as follows:

```
class SamMissile():
    idVendor=0x1130
    idProduct=0x0202
    idName="Tenx Technology SAM Missile"
    # Protocol control bytes
    bmRequestType=0x21
    bmRequest=0x09
    wValue=0x02
    wIndex=0x01
    # Protocol command bytes
    INITA      = [ord('U'), ord('S'), ord('B'), ord('C'),
                  0, 0, 4, 0]
    INITB      = [ord('U'), ord('S'), ord('B'), ord('C'),
                  0, 64, 2, 0]
    CMDFILL   = [ 8, 8,
                  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, 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, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0,
                  0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0] #48 zeros
    STOP       = [ 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0]
    LEFT        = [ 0, 1, 0, 0, 0, 0]
    RIGHT       = [ 0, 0, 1, 0, 0, 0]
    UP          = [ 0, 0, 0, 1, 0, 0]
    DOWN        = [ 0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 0]
    LEFTUP      = [ 0, 1, 0, 1, 0, 0]
    RIGHTUP     = [ 0, 0, 1, 1, 0, 0]
    LEFTDOWN    = [ 0, 1, 0, 0, 1, 0]
    RIGHTDOWN   = [ 0, 0, 1, 0, 1, 0]
    FIRE        = [ 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1]
```

```

def __init__(self):
    self.dev = usb.core.find(idVendor=self.idVendor,
                             idProduct=self.idProduct)
def move(self,cmd,duration):
    print("Move:%s %d sec"% (cmd,duration))
    self.dev.ctrl_transfer(self.bmRequestType,
                          self.bmRequest, self.wValue,
                          self.wIndex, self.INITA)
    self.dev.ctrl_transfer(self.bmRequestType,
                          self.bmRequest, self.wValue,
                          self.wIndex, self.INITB)
    self.dev.ctrl_transfer(self.bmRequestType,
                          self.bmRequest, self.wValue,
                          self.wIndex, cmd+self.CMDFILL)
    time.sleep(duration)
    self.dev.ctrl_transfer(self.bmRequestType,
                          self.bmRequest, self.wValue,
                          self.wIndex, self.INITA)
    self.dev.ctrl_transfer(self.bmRequestType,
                          self.bmRequest, self.wValue,
                          self.wIndex, self.INITB)
    self.dev.ctrl_transfer(self.bmRequestType,
                          self.bmRequest, self.wValue,
                          self.wIndex, self.STOP+self.CMDFILL)

```

3. Define the `Missile()` class, which allows you to detect the USB device and provide command functions, as follows:

```

class Missile():
    def __init__(self):
        print("Initialize Missiles")
        self.usbDevice=SamMissile()
        if self.usbDevice.dev is not None:
            print("Device Initialized:" +
                  " %s" % self.usbDevice.idName)
            #Detach the kernel driver if active
            if self.usbDevice.dev.is_kernel_driver_active(0):
                print("Detaching kernel driver 0")
                self.usbDevice.dev.detach_kernel_driver(0)
            if self.usbDevice.dev.is_kernel_driver_active(1):
                print("Detaching kernel driver 1")
                self.usbDevice.dev.detach_kernel_driver(1)
                self.usbDevice.dev.set_configuration()
        else:
            raise Exception("Missile device not found")
    def __enter__(self):
        return self

```

```
def left(self,duration=1):
    self.usbDevice.move(self.usbDevice.LEFT,duration)
def right(self,duration=1):
    self.usbDevice.move(self.usbDevice.RIGHT,duration)
def up(self,duration=1):
    self.usbDevice.move(self.usbDevice.UP,duration)
def down(self,duration=1):
    self.usbDevice.move(self.usbDevice.DOWN,duration)
def fire(self,duration=1):
    self.usbDevice.move(self.usbDevice.FIRE,duration)
def stop(self,duration=1):
    self.usbDevice.move(self.usbDevice.STOP,duration)
def __exit__(self, type, value, traceback):
    print("Exit")
```

4. Finally, create a `main()` function, which provides a quick test of our `missileControl.py` module if the file is run directly, as follows:

```
def main():
    try:
        with Missile() as myMissile:
            myMissile.down()
            myMissile.up()
    except Exception as detail:
        time.sleep(2)
        print("Error: %s" % detail)
if __name__ == '__main__':
    main()
#End
```

5. When the script is run using the following command, you should see the missile launcher move downwards and then up again:

```
sudo python3 missileControl.py
```

6. To have easy control of the device, create the following GUI:



The Missile Command GUI

Although simple commands have been used here, you could use a series of preset commands if desired.

7. Create the GUI for the `missileMenu.py` `missile` command:

```
#!/usr/bin/python3
#missileMenu.py
import tkinter as TK
import missileControl as MC

BTN_SIZE=10

def menuInit():
    btnLeft = TK.Button(root, text="Left",
                         command=sendLeft, width=BTN_SIZE)
    btnRight = TK.Button(root, text="Right",
                          command=sendRight, width=BTN_SIZE)
    btnUp = TK.Button(root, text="Up",
                      command=sendUp, width=BTN_SIZE)
    btnDown = TK.Button(root, text="Down",
                        command=sendDown, width=BTN_SIZE)
    btnFire = TK.Button(root, text="Fire", command=sendFire,
                        width=BTN_SIZE, bg="red")
    btnLeft.grid(row=2,column=0)
    btnRight.grid(row=2,column=2)
    btnUp.grid(row=1,column=1)
    btnDown.grid(row=3,column=1)
    btnFire.grid(row=2,column=1)

def sendLeft():
    print("Left")
    myMissile.left()
def sendRight():
    print("Right")
    myMissile.right()
def sendUp():
    print("Up")
    myMissile.up()
def sendDown():
    print("Down")
    myMissile.down()
def sendFire():
    print("Fire")
    myMissile.fire()

root = TK.Tk()
root.title("Missile Command")
```

```
prompt = "Select action"
label1 = TK.Label(root, text=prompt, width=len(prompt),
                  justify=TK.CENTER, bg='lightblue')
label1.grid(row=0, column=0, columnspan=3)
menuInit()
with MC.Missile() as myMissile:
    root.mainloop()
#End
```

How it works...

The control script consists of two classes: one called `Missile`, which provides a common interface for the control, and another called `SamMissile`, which provides all the specific details of the particular USB device being used.

In order to drive a USB device, we need a lot of information about the device, such as its USB identification, its protocol, and the control messages it requires to be controlled.

The USB ID for the Tenx Technology SAM missile device is determined by the vendor ID (0x1130) and the product ID (0x0202). This is the same identification information you would see within **Device Manager** in Windows. These IDs are usually registered with www.usb.org; therefore, each device should be unique. Again, you can use the `dmesg | grep usb` command to discover these.

We use the device IDs to find the USB device using `usb.core.find`; then, we can send messages using `ctrl_transfer()`.

The USB message has five parts:

- **Request type (0x21)**: This defines the type of the message request, such as the message direction (host to device), its type (vendor), and the recipient (interface).
- **Request (0x09)**: This is the set configuration.
- **Value (0x02)**: This is the configuration value.
- **Index (0x01)**: This is the command we want to send.
- **Data**: This is the command we want to send (as described next).

The SamMissile device requires the following commands to move:

- It requires two initialization messages (`INITA` and `INITB`).
- It also requires the control message. This consists of the `CMD`, which includes one of the control bytes that has been set to 1 for the required component. The `CMD` is then added to `CMDFILL` to complete the message.

You will see that the other missile devices and the robot arm (see the following *There's more...* section) have similar message structures.

For each device, we created the `__init__()` and `move()` functions and defined values for each of the valid commands, which the `missile` class will use whenever the `left()`, `right()`, `up()`, `down()`, `fire()`, and `stop()` functions are called.

For the control GUI for our missile launcher, we create a small Tkinter window with five buttons, each of which will send a command to the missile device.

We import `missileControl` and create a `missile` object called `myMissile` that will be controlled by each of the buttons.

There's more...

The example only shows how to control one particular USB device; however, it is possible to extend this to support several types of missile devices and even other USB devices in general.

Controlling similar missile-type devices

There are several variants of USB missile-type devices, each with their own USB IDs and USB commands. We can add support for these other devices by defining their own classes to handle them.

Use `lsusb -vv` to determine the vendor and product ID that matches your device.

For Chesen Electronics/Dream Link, we have to add the following code:

```
class ChesenMissile():
    idVendor=0x0a81
    idProduct=0x0701
    idName="Chesen Electronics/Dream Link"
    # Protocol control bytes
    bmRequestType=0x21
```

```
bmRequest=0x09
wValue=0x0200
wIndex=0x00
# Protocol command bytes
DOWN    = [0x01]
UP      = [0x02]
LEFT    = [0x04]
RIGHT   = [0x08]
FIRE    = [0x10]
STOP    = [0x20]
def __init__(self):
    self.dev = usb.core.find(idVendor=self.idVendor,
                             idProduct=self.idProduct)
def move(self,cmd,duration):
    print ("Move:%s"%cmd)
    self.dev.ctrl_transfer(self.bmRequestType,
                           self.bmRequest,
                           self.wValue, self.wIndex, cmd)
    time.sleep(duration)
    self.dev.ctrl_transfer(self.bmRequestType,
                           self.bmRequest, self.wValue,
                           self.wIndex, self.STOP)
```

For Dream Cheeky Thunder, we need the following code:

```
class ThunderMissile():
    idVendor=0x2123
    idProduct=0x1010
    idName="Dream Cheeky Thunder"
    # Protocol control bytes
    bmRequestType=0x21
    bmRequest=0x09
    wValue=0x00
    wIndex=0x00
    # Protocol command bytes
    CMDFILL = [0,0,0,0,0,0]
    DOWN    = [0x02,0x01]
    UP      = [0x02,0x02]
    LEFT    = [0x02,0x04]
    RIGHT   = [0x02,0x08]
    FIRE    = [0x02,0x10]
    STOP    = [0x02,0x20]
    def __init__(self):
        self.dev = usb.core.find(idVendor=self.idVendor,
                               idProduct=self.idProduct)
    def move(self,cmd,duration):
        print ("Move:%s"%cmd)
        self.dev.ctrl_transfer(self.bmRequestType,
```

```
        self.bmRequest, self.wValue,
        self.wIndex, cmd+self.CMDFILL)

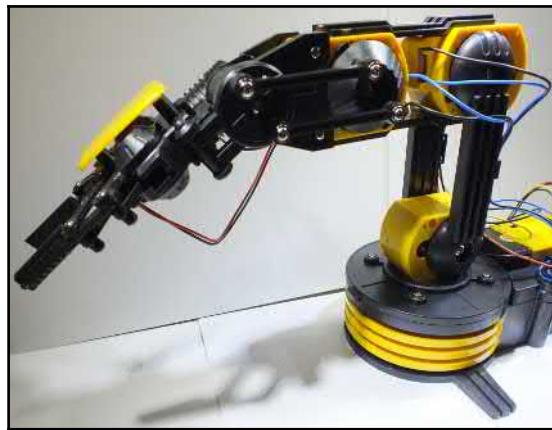
time.sleep(duration)
self.dev.ctrl_transfer(self.bmRequestType,
                      self.bmRequest, self.wValue,
                      self.wIndex, self.STOP+self.CMDFILL)
```

Finally, adjust the script to use the required class as follows:

```
class Missile():
    def __init__(self):
        print("Initialize Missiles")
        self.usbDevice = ThunderMissile()
```

Robot arm

Another device that can be controlled in a similar manner is the OWI Robotic Arm with a USB interface:



The OWI Robotic Arm with a USB interface (image courtesy of Chris Stagg)

This has featured in *The MagPi* magazine several times, thanks to *Stephen Richards's* articles on Skutter; the USB control has been explained in detail in issue 3 (page 14) at https://issuu.com/themagpi/docs/the_magpi_issue_3_final/14. It can also be found at <https://www.raspberrypi.org/magpi/issues/3/>.

The robotic arm can be controlled using the following class. Remember that you will also need to adjust the commands, UP, DOWN, and so on, when calling the `move()` function, as shown in the following code:

```
class OwiArm():
    idVendor=0x1267
    idProduct=0x0000
    idName="Owi Robot Arm"
    # Protocol control bytes
    bmRequestType=0x40
    bmRequest=0x06
    wValue=0x0100
    wIndex=0x00
    # Protocol command bytes
    BASE_CCW      = [0x00, 0x01, 0x00]
    BASE_CW       = [0x00, 0x02, 0x00]
    SHOULDER_UP   = [0x40, 0x00, 0x00]
    SHOULDER_DWN = [0x80, 0x00, 0x00]
    ELBOW_UP     = [0x10, 0x00, 0x00]
    ELBOW_DWN   = [0x20, 0x00, 0x00]
    WRIST_UP    = [0x04, 0x00, 0x00]
    WRIST_DWN  = [0x08, 0x00, 0x00]
    GRIP_OPEN   = [0x02, 0x00, 0x00]
    GRIP_CLOSE  = [0x01, 0x00, 0x00]
    LIGHT_ON    = [0x00, 0x00, 0x01]
    LIGHT_OFF   = [0x00, 0x00, 0x00]
    STOP        = [0x00, 0x00, 0x00]
```

Taking USB control further

The theory and method of control used for the USB missile device can be applied to very complex devices such as the Xbox 360's Kinect (a special 3D camera add-on for the Xbox game console) as well.

Adafruit's website has a very interesting tutorial written by *Limor Fried* (also known as *Ladyada*) on how to analyze and investigate USB commands; access it at <http://learn.adafruit.com/hacking-the-kinect>.

This is well worth a look if you intend to reverse engineer other USB items. In this chapter, we have used Raspberry Pi to control remotely activated mains sockets, to send commands over serial connections from another computer, and to control the GPIO remotely. We have also used SPI to drive an 8 x 8 LED matrix display.

14

Can I Recommend a Movie for You?

In this chapter, we will cover the following recipes:

- Euclidean distance score computation
- Pearson correlation score computation
- How to find similar users in the dataset
- How to develop a movie recommendation module
- Application of recommender systems

Introduction

Movie recommendations are used to predict movies for users based on their interests. The content in the database is filtered and an appropriate movie is recommended for the user. Having the appropriate movie recommended increases the probability of the user purchasing the movie. Collaborative filtering is used to build the movie recommendation system. It considers the behavior of the current user in the past. It also considers the ratings given by my other users. Collaborative filtering involves finding and computing the Euclidean distance, Pearson correlation, and finding similar users in the dataset.

Computing the Euclidean distance score

The first step in building a recommendation engine includes finding similar users in the database. The Euclidean distance score is one of the measures to find similarities.

Getting ready

NumPy (Numerical Python) needs to be installed on Raspberry Pi 3 to calculate Euclidean distance. Readers can install `numpy` by typing the following command in the Raspberry Pi 3 Terminal:

```
sudo apt-get -y install python-numpy
```

How to do it...

1. We will create a new Python file and import the following packages into it:

```
import json
import numpy as np
```

2. To calculate the Euclidean score between two users, we will define a new function. Let's check the presence of the users in the database:

```
# The following code will return the Euclidean distance score
# between user1 and user2:

def euclidean_dist_score(dataset, FirstUser, SecondUser):
    if FirstUser not in dataset:
        raiseTypeError('User ' + FirstUser + ' not present in the
dataset')
    if SecondUser not in dataset:
        raiseTypeError('User ' + SecondUser + ' not present in the
dataset')
```

3. We will now extract the movies that have been rated by both users. Then we will compute the score:

```
# Movies rated by both FirstUser and SecondUser
Both_User_rated = {}
for element in dataset[FirstUser]:
    if element in dataset[SecondUser]:
        Both_User_rated[element] = 1
```

4. No movies in common indicates no similarities between the first and second user. (otherwise unable to compute the ratings in database):

```
# Score 0 indicate no common movies
if len(Both_User_rated) == 0:
    return 0
```

5. If the ratings are common, calculate the sum of the squared differences, compute the square root of the result obtained, and then normalize it. The score will now be between zero and one:

```
SquareDifference = []
for element in dataset[FirstUser]:
    if element in dataset[SecondUser]:
        SquareDifference.append(np.square(dataset[FirstUser][element] -
dataset[SecondUser][element]))
return 1 / (1 + np.sqrt(np.sum(SquareDifference)))
```

If both user ratings are same, then sum of squared differences will be a small value. Therefore, the score will be high. This the aim here.

6. We will name our data file `movie_rates.json`. We will now load it:

```
if __name__=='__main__':
    data_file = 'movie_rates.json'
    with open(data_file, 'r') as m:
        data = json.loads(m.read())
```

7. Let's calculate the Euclidean distance score for two random users:

```
FirstUser = 'Steven Ferndndes'
SecondUser = 'Ramesh Nayak'
print "nEuclidean score:"
print euclidean_dist_score(data, FirstUser, SecondUser)
```

8. The preceding code will print the Euclidean distance score in the Terminal:

```
manju@manju-HP-Notebook:~/Documents$ python Euclidean_distance.py
Euclidean score:
0.4
```

How it works...

Readers can refer to the article *Similarity and recommender systems* to learn how Euclidean distance works:

<http://www.inf.ed.ac.uk/teaching/courses/inf2b/learnnotes/inf2b-learn-note02-2up.pdf>

There's more...

Readers can refer to the article *Comparison of various metrics used in collaborative filtering for recommendation system* to learn more about various metrics used in recommendation systems:

<http://ieeexplore.ieee.org/document/7346670/>

See also

- *Quick Guide to Build a Recommendation Engine in Python:*

<https://www.analyticsvidhya.com/blog/2016/06/quick-guide-build-recommendation-engine-python/>

Computing a Pearson correlation score

Euclidean distance assumes that the sample points are distributed about the sample mean in a spherical manner, which is not always true. Hence, the Pearson correlation score is used instead of the Euclidean distance score. The computation of the Pearson correlation score is explained next.

How to do it...

1. We will create a new Python file and import the following packages:

```
import json
import numpy as np
```

2. To calculate the Pearson correlation score between two users, we will define a new function. Let's check the presence of the users in the database:

```
# Returns the Pearson correlation score between user1 and user2
def pearson_dist_score(dataset, FirstUser, SecondUser):
    if FirstUser not in dataset:
        raise TypeError('User ' + FirstUser + ' not present in the
dataset')
    if SecondUser not in dataset:
        raise TypeError('User ' + SecondUser + ' not present in the
dataset')
```

3. We will now extract the movies that have been rated by both users:

```
# Movies rated by both FirstUser and SecondUser
Both_User_rated = {}
for item in dataset[FirstUser]:
    if item in dataset[SecondUser]:
        both_User_rated[element] = 1
rating_number= len(both_User_rated)
```

4. No movies in common indicates no similarities between the first and second user; hence, we return zero:

```
# Score 0 indicate no common movies
if rating_number == 0:
    return 0
```

5. Calculate the sum of squared values of common movie ratings:

```
# Calculate the sum of ratings of all the common preferences
FirstUser_sum= np.sum([dataset[FirstUser][element] for item in
both_User_rated])
SecondUser_sum= np.sum([dataset[SecondUser][element] for item in
both_User_rated])
```

6. Calculate the sum of squared ratings of all the common movie ratings:

```
# Calculate the sum of squared ratings of all the common
preferences
FirstUser_squared_sum =
np.sum([np.square(dataset[FirstUser][element]) for element in
both_User_rated])
SecondUser_squared_sum=
np.sum([np.square(dataset[SecondUser][element]) for element
in both_User_rated])
```

7. Now, calculate the sum of the products:

```
# Calculate the sum of products of the common ratings
sum_product = np.sum([dataset[FirstUser][element] *
dataset[SecondUser][element] for item in both_User_rated])
```

8. Calculate the various variables required to calculate the Pearson correlation score:

```
# Pearson correlation calculation
PSxy = sum_product - (FirstUser_sum*
SecondUser_sum/rating_number)
PSxx = FirstUser_squared_sum - np.square(FirstUser_sum) /
rating_number
PSyy = SecondUser_squared_sum - np.square(SecondUser_sum) /
rating_number
```

9. We need to take care of the issue where the denominator becomes zero:

```
if PSxx * PSyy == 0:
    return 0
```

10. Return the Pearson correlation score:

```
return PSxy / np.sqrt(PSxx * PSyy)
```

11. Define the `main` function and calculate the Pearson correlation score between the two users:

```
if __name__=='__main__':
    data_file = 'movie_rates.json'
    with open(data_file, 'r') as m:
        data = json.loads(m.read())
    FirstUser = 'StevenFerndndes'
    SecondUser = 'Rameshnayak'
    print "nPearson score:"
    print pearson_dist_score(data, FirstUser, SecondUser)
```

12. The preceding code will print the Pearson correlation in the Terminal:

```
manju@manju-HP-Notebook:~/Documents$ python Pearson_correlation.py
Pearson score:
0.693375245282
```

How it works...

Readers can refer to *Pearson Correlation Coefficient - Simple Tutorial* to learn how the Pearson correlation coefficient is calculated:

<https://www.spss-tutorials.com/pearson-correlation-coefficient/>

There's more...

Readers can refer to two different variants of Pearson Correlation Coefficient here:

- Correlation Coefficient: Simple Definition, Formula, Easy Steps:

<http://www.statisticshowto.com/how-to-compute-pearsons-correlation-coefficients/>

- A new user similarity model to improve the accuracy of collaborative filtering:

<http://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S0950705113003560>

See also

- *The new similarity measure based on user preference models for collaborative filtering:*

<http://ieeexplore.ieee.org/document/7279353/>

- *Application of artificial immune systems combines collaborative filtering in movie recommendation system:*

<http://ieeexplore.ieee.org/document/6846855/>

Finding similar users in the dataset

Finding similar users in the dataset is a critical step in movie recommendations, and this process is explained next.

How to do it...

1. We will create a new Python file and import the following packages:

```
import json
import numpy as np
from pearson _dist_score import pearson _dist_score
```

2. First, define a function for the input user that will find the similar users. For this, three arguments are needed: the number of similar users, the input user, and the database. Check whether the user is present in the database. If they are present, calculate the Pearson correlation score between the users present in the database and the input user:

```
# Finds a specified number of users who are similar to the input
user
def search_similar_user (dataset, input_user, users_number):
    if input_user not in dataset:
        raiseTypeError('User ' + input_user + ' not present in the
dataset')
    # Calculate Pearson scores for all the users
    scores = np.array([[x, pearson _dist_score(dataset,
input_user, i)] for i in dataset if
user != i])
```

3. Now sort the obtained scores in descending order:

```
# Based on second column, sort the score
sorted_score= np.argsort(scores[:, 1])
# Sorting in decreasing order (highest score first)
dec_sorted_score= sorted_score[::-1]
```

4. We will pick the first k scores:

```
# Pick top 'k' elements
top_q= dec_sorted_score[0:users_number]
return scores[top_q]
```

5. We define the `main` function and load the input database:

```
if __name__=='__main__':
    data_file = 'movie_rates.json'
    with open(data_file, 'r') as m:
        data = json.loads(m.read())
```

6. We find three similar users:

```
user = 'JohnCarson'
print "nUsers similar to " + input_user + ":n"
similar_one = search_similar_user(data, input_user, 3)
print "input_user\tSimilarity score"

for element in similar_one:
    print element[0], '\t', round(float(element[1]), 2)
```

See also

- *Recommendation for Movies and Stars Using YAGO and IMDB:*

<http://ieeexplore.ieee.org/document/5474144/>

Developing a movie recommendation module

We are now ready to build the movie recommendation engine. We will use all the functionalities that we built in the previous recipes. Let's see how it can be done.

How to do it...

1. We will create a new Python file and import the following packages:

```
import json
import numpy as np
from euclidean_score import euclidean_score
from pearson_score import pearson_score
from search_similar_user import search_similar_user
```

2. For movie recommendations for a given user, we will define a function first. We now check whether the user already exists:

```
# Generate recommendations for a given user
def recommendation_generated(dataset, user):
    if user not in dataset:
        raiseTypeError('User ' + user + ' not present in the dataset')
```

3. Compute the person score for the present user:

```
sumofall_scores= {}
identical_sums= {}
for u in [x for x in dataset if x != user]:
    identical_score= pearson_score(dataset, user, u)
    if identical_score<= 0:
        continue
```

4. Find the movies that have not been rated by the user:

```
for element in [x for x in dataset[u] if x not in dataset[user] or
dataset[user][x] == 0]:
    sumofall_scores.update({item: dataset[u][item] * identical_sums})
    identical_sums.update({item: identical_score})
```

5. What if the user has seen all the movies in the dataset? Then there will be no recommendations:

```
if len(sumofall_scores) == 0:
    return ['No recommendations possible']
```

6. We now have a list of these scores. Let's create a normalized list of movie ranks:

```
# Create the normalized list
rank_of_movie= np.array([[total/ identical_sums[element], element]
for element, total in sumofall_scores.element()])
```

7. Based on the score, sort the list in descending order:

```
# Based on first column, sort in decreasing order
rank_of_movie = rank_of_movie[np.argsort(rank_of_movie[:, 0])[:, ::-1]]
```

8. We are finally ready to extract the movie recommendations:

```
# Recommended movies needs to be extracted
recommended = [movie for _, movie in movie_ranks]
return recommended
```

9. Define the `main` function and load the dataset:

```
if __name__=='__main__':
    data_file = rating_of_movie.json'
    with open(data_file, 'r') as f:
        data = json.loads(f.read())
```

10. Let's generate recommendations for Steven Ferndndes:

```
user = ' Steven Ferndndes '
print "nRecommendations for " + user + ":" 
movies = recommendation_generated(data, user)
for i, movie in enumerate(movies):
    print str(i+1) + '. ' + movie
```

11. The user Ramesh Nayak has watched all the movies. Therefore, if we try to generate recommendations for him, it should display zero recommendations:

```
user = ' Ramesh Nayak '
print "nRecommendations for " + user + ":" 
movies = recommendation_generated(data, user)
for i, movie in enumerate(movies):
    print str(i+1) + '. ' + movie
```

12. The preceding code will print the movie recommendations in the Terminal:

```
manju@manju-HP-Notebook:~/Documents$ python movie_recommendations.py
Recommendations for Steven Ferndndes:
1. Avengers
2. Dark night
3. Intersteller

Recommendations for Ramesh Nayak:
1. No recommendations possible
manju@manju-HP-Notebook:~/Documents$
```

See also

- *Recommender systems explained:*

<https://medium.com/recombee-blog/recommender-systems-explained-d98e8221f468>

- *Recommendation System Algorithms:*

<https://blog.statsbot.co/recommendation-system-algorithms-ba67f39ac9a3>

Applications of recommender systems

Recommender systems are currently used in various fields. They play a very prominent role and are utilized in a variety of areas including music, movies, books, news, search queries, social tags, research articles, and products in general. There are also recommender systems for restaurants, experts, collaborators, financial services, jokes, garments, Twitter pages, and life insurance.

Hardware and Software List

In this chapter, we will cover the following topics:

- General component sources
- The hardware list
- The software list

Introduction

This book uses a wide range of hardware to demonstrate what can be achieved by combining hardware and software in various ways. To get the most out of this book, it is highly recommended that you experiment with some of the hardware projects. I feel that it is particularly rewarding to observe physical results from your coding efforts, and this is where Raspberry Pi differs from a typical computer.

A common problem is finding the right components for a project while not spending a fortune on it. All the hardware components used in this book focus on using low-cost items that can usually be purchased from a variety of suppliers, in most cases, for only a few dollars.

To help you locate suitable items, this appendix will list each hardware item used in the chapters with links to where they can be obtained. The list is not exhaustive, and it is likely that the availability of the items (and prices) may vary over time, so whenever you purchase, ensure that you search around for the best value. In this book, practical and enough detail has been provided in the chapters to allow you to source your own components and build your own modules.

This appendix also includes a full list of software and Python modules mentioned in the book, including the specific versions used. If the software used in the book is updated and improved, it is likely that some modules will lose their backward compatibility. Therefore, if you find that the latest version installed does not function as expected, it may be that you will need to install an older version (details on how to do this are provided in the *There's more...* section of the *Software list* recipe).

General component sources

Once you have completed some of the hardware-based recipes in this book, you may find that you want to experiment with other components. There are many places where you can get a good value for components and add-on modules for general electronics, specifically for Raspberry Pi or other electronic-based hobbies. This list is not exhaustive, but it contains a selection of places I have ordered items from in the past and that offer good value for money.

General electronic component retailers

You will probably find that every retailer mentioned in the following list has localized sites for their own country, offers worldwide services, or has local distribution services:

- Farnell/element14/Newark: <http://www.newark.com>
- RS Components: <http://www.rs-components.com>
- Amazon: <http://www.amazon.com>
- eBay: <http://www.ebay.com>
- Tandy UK: <http://www.tandyonline.co.uk>
- Maplin UK: <http://www.maplin.co.uk>

Makers, hobbyists, and Raspberry Pi specialists

There are many companies that specialize in selling modules and add-ons that can be used with computers and devices, such as Raspberry Pi, that are aimed at the hobbyist. Some of them are as follows:

- Adafruit Industries: <http://www.adafruit.com>
- SparkFun Electronics: <http://www.sparkfun.com>
- Mouser Electronics: <http://www.mouser.com>
- Banggood: <http://www.banggood.com>
- DealExtreme: <http://dx.com>
- Pimoroni: <http://shop.pimoroni.com>
- Pi Supply: <http://www.pi-supply.com>
- PiBorg: <http://www.piborg.com>
- Hobbyking: <http://www.hobbyking.com>

- ModMyPi: <http://www.modmypi.com>
- Quick2Wire: <http://quick2wire.com>
- GeekOnFire: <http://www.geekonfire.com>
- Ciseco: <http://shop.ciseco.co.uk>

You can also take a look at my own site, which specializes in educational kits and tutorials:

- Pi Hardware: <http://PiHardware.com>

The hardware list

A summary of the hardware used in the chapters of this book is mentioned in this section.

Chapter 1

A summary of the hardware used in the chapters of this book is mentioned in this section.

This chapter describes the Raspberry Pi setup; the items mentioned include the following:

- Raspberry Pi and its power supply
- An HDMI display and HDMI cable/analog TV and an analog video cable
- Keyboard
- Mouse
- Network cable/Wi-Fi adaptor

Chapters 2 – Chapter 7

No additional hardware has been used in these chapters, as they discuss purely software recipes.

Chapter 8

This chapter only uses the USB webcam hardware.

Chapter 9

The components used in this chapter are available at most electronic component retailers (such as those listed previously in the *General electronic component retailers* section). They are also available as a complete kit from **Pi Hardware**; where items are available from specific retailers, they are highlighted in the text.

The kit for controlling an LED includes the following equipment:

- Four Dupont Female-to-Male Patch Wires (**Pimoroni** Jumper Jerky)
- A mini breadboard (170 tie-point) or a larger one (**Pimoroni**)
- An RGB LED (common-cathode) or 3 standard LEDs (ideally red/green/blue)
- A breadboarding wire (solid core)
- Three 470-ohm resistors

The kit for responding to a button includes the following equipment:

- Two Dupont Female to Male Patch wires (**Pimoroni** Jumper Jerky)
- A mini breadboard (170 tie-point) or a larger one (**Pimoroni**)
- A push button to make switch and momentary switch (or a wire connection to make/break the circuit)
- A breadboarding wire (solid core)
- A 1K ohm resistor

The items used for the controlled shutdown button are as follows:

- Three Dupont Female-to-Male Patch Wires (**Pimoroni** Jumper Jerky)
- A mini breadboard (170 tie-point) or larger (**Pimoroni**)
- A push-button switch (momentary close)
- A normal LED (red)
- Two 470-ohm resistors
- A breadboarding wire (solid core)

The additional items used in the *There's more...* section of the recipe, *A controlled shutdown button*, are as follows:

- A push button
- A 470-ohm resistor
- A pin header and two pins with a jumper connector (or optionally a switch)

- A breadboarding wire (solid core)
- Two 4 pin headers

The items used for the GPIO keypad input are as follows:

- Breadboard: half-sized or larger (**Pimoroni**)
- Seven Dupont Female-to-Male Patch Wires (**Pimoroni Jumper Jerky**)
- Six push buttons
- Six 470-ohm resistors
- Alternatively, a self-solder DPad Kit (**Pi Hardware**)

The items used for multiplexed color LEDs are as follows:

- Five Common-Cathode RGB LEDs
- Three 470-ohm resistors
- Vero-prototype board or large breadboard (**Tandy**)
- A self-solder RGB-LED kit (**Pi Hardware**)

The items used for writing messages require the same items as the preceding recipe, plus the following:

- A mounting stick, rubber bands, USB Wi-Fi, portable USB battery, and so on
- A Tilt Switch (ball-bearing type is suitable) (**4-Tronix**)

Chapter 10

This chapter uses the following hardware:

- A PCF8591 chip or module (**DealExtreme** SKU: 150190 or a **Quick2Wire I2C Analogue Board Kit**)
- Adafruit I2C Bidirectional logic-level translator (**Adafruit** ID: 757)

Chapter 11

No additional hardware has been used in this chapter, as they discuss purely software recipes.

Chapter 12

Pi-Rover requires the following hardware or a hardware similar to that:

- A giant paper clip (76 mm/3 inches) or a caster wheel
- Motor and geared wheels (**ModMyPi** or **PiBorg**)
- Battery/power source
- Chassis: push nightlight
- Motor driver/controller: Darlington Array Module ULN2003 (**DealExtreme** SKU - 153945)
- Small cable ties or wire ties

The following list is also mentioned in the *There's more...* section:

- PicoBorg Motor Controller (**PiBorg** PicoBorg)
- Magician Robot Chassis (**Sparkfun** ID: 10825)
- 4-Motor Smart Car Chassis (**DealExtreme** SKU: 151803)
- 2-Wheel Smart Car Model (**DealExtreme** SKU: 151803)

The advanced motor control example uses the following item:

- The H-Bridge motor controller (**DealExtreme** SKU: 120542 or **GeekOnFire** SKU: A2011100407)

The Hex Pod Pi-Bug requires the following hardware or similar:

- Adafruit I2C 16-Channel 12-bit PWM/Servo Driver (**Adafruit** ID: 815)
- MG90S 9g Metal Gear Servos (**HobbyKing**)
- Three giant paper clips (76mm/3 inches)
- Light gauge wire/cable ties
- A small section of plywood or a fiberboard

A basic servo-based robot arm is used for the ServoBlaster example (**4-Tronix MeArm**).

The Infrared remote control example uses the following component:

- TSOP38238 (**Farnell** 2251359)

The following hardware is used in the remaining sections to expand the available inputs/outputs, avoid obstacles, and determine the direction of the robot:

- MCP23017 I/O Expander (**Ciseco** SKU: K002)
- Micro switches
- HC-SR04 Ultrasonic sensor (**DealExtreme** SKU: 133696)
- The ultrasonic sensor uses a 2K ohm resistor and a 3K ohm resistor
- XLoBorg: MAG3110 Compass Module (**PiBorg** XLoBorg)

Optionally, four Female-to-Male Dupont wires can be used to connect to the XLoBorg (**Pimoroni** Jumper Jerky)

Chapter 13

This chapter uses the following hardware:

- Remote-controlled mains sockets (**Maplin/Amazon**)
- Relay modules (**Banggood** 8-Way SKU075676)
- The alternative is to use the 433Mhz RF Transmitter/Receiver (**Banggood** SKU075671)
- LED 8x8 SPI Matrix Module MAX7219 (**Banggood** self-solder kit SKU072955)
- RS-232 to USB Cable (**Amazon/general computer supplies**)
- RS-232 null-modem cable/adaptor (**Amazon/general computer supplies**)
- RS-232 TTL USB console cable (**Adafruit** ID: 70)
- HC-05 Bluetooth master/slave module with PCB backplate (**Banggood** SKU078642)
- USB Tenx Technology SAM missile launcher
- OWI robotic arm with USB interface (**Maplin/Amazon**)

Chapter 14

No additional hardware has been used in this chapter, as they discuss purely software recipes.

The software list

The book uses a range of software packages to extend the capabilities of the pre-installed software.

PC software utilities

In most cases, the latest version of the software available should be used (versions are listed just in case there is a compatibility issue in a later release). The list of software used is as follows:

- Notepad ++: www.notepad-plus-plus.org (Version 7.5.6)
- PuTTY: www.putty.org (Version 0.62)
- VNC Viewer: www.realvnc.com (Version 6.2.1)
- Xming: www.straightrunning.com/XmingNotes (Version 6.9.0.31 public domain release)
- MobaXterm: mobaxterm.mobatek.net (Version 8.6)
- SD Formatter: www.sdcard.org/downloads/formatter_4 (Version 5.0)
- RealTerm: realterm.sourceforge.net (Version 2.0.0.70)

Raspberry Pi packages

This section lists each of the packages used in the chapters in the book in the following format (versions are listed just in case there is a compatibility issue in a later release):

- Package name (version) Supporting website:

Install command

Chapter 1

- This chapter describes the hardware setup, and, therefore, the following packages are optional (or specific hardware drivers where necessary):
- TightVNC (Version 1.3.9-6.5): <http://www.tightvnc.com>

sudo apt-get install tightvncserver

- Samba (Version 2:4.2.10): <https://www.samba.org>

```
sudo apt-get install samba
```

Chapter 2

Following are the commands used in Chapter 2, *Dividing Text Data and Building Text Classifier*:

```
sudo apt-get install geany
sudo apt-get -y install python-pip
sudo apt-get -y install python-git
sudo apt-get -y install python-numpy
sudo apt-get -y install python-scipy
sudo pip install --upgrade cython
sudo pip install -U scikit-learn
sudo pip install imutils
sudo apt-get -y install python-sklearn
sudo apt-get -y install python-skimage
```

Chapter 3

- Tkinter (Version 3.4.2-1): <https://wiki.python.org/moin/TkInter>

```
sudo apt-get install python3-tk
```

- pip-3.2 (Version 1.5.6-5): <https://pip.pypa.io/en/latest>

```
sudo apt-get install python3-pip
```

- libjpeg-dev (Version 1:1.3.1-12): <http://libjpeg.sourceforge.net>

```
sudo apt-get install libjpeg-dev
```

- Pillow (Version 2.1.0): <http://pillow.readthedocs.io/en/latest>

```
sudo pip-3.2 install pillow
```

Chapter 4

Following are the commands used in Chapter 4, *Predicting Sentiments in Words*:

```
sudo apt-get install geany
sudo apt-get -y install python-pip
sudo apt-get -y install python-git
sudo apt-get -y install python-numpy
sudo apt-get -y install python-scipy
sudo pip install --upgrade cython
sudo pip install -U scikit-learn
sudo pip install imutils
sudo apt-get -y install python-sklearn
sudo apt-get -y install python-skimage
```

Chapter 5

- Tkinter (Version 3.4.2-1): <https://wiki.python.org/moin/TkInter>

```
sudo apt-get install python3-tk
```

Chapter 6

Following are the commands used in Chapter 6, *Detecting Edges and Contours in Images*:

```
sudo apt-get install geany
sudo apt-get -y install python-pip
sudo apt-get -y install python-opencv
sudo apt-get -y install python-numpy
sudo apt-get -y install python-scipy
sudo pip install --upgrade cython
sudo pip install -U scikit-learn
sudo pip install imutils
sudo apt-get -y install python-sklearn
sudo apt-get -y install python-skimage
```

Chapter 7

- pip-3.2 (Version 1.1-3): <http://www.pip-installer.org/en/latest>

```
sudo apt-get install python3-pip
```

- Pi3D (Version 2.13): <http://pi3d.github.io>

```
pip-3.2 install pi3d
```

Also, take a look at 3D Graphics with Pi3D:

http://paddywooof.github.io/pi3d_book/_build/latex/pi3d_book.pdf

Chapter 8

Following are the commands used in Chapter 8, *Building Face Detector and Face Recognition Applications*:

```
sudo apt-get install geany
sudo apt-get -y install python-pip
sudo apt-get -y install python-opencv
sudo apt-get -y install python-numpy
sudo apt-get -y install python-scipy
sudo pip install --upgrade cython
sudo pip install -U scikit-learn
sudo pip install imutils
sudo apt-get -y install python-sklearn
sudo apt-get -y install python-skimage
```

Chapter 9

- RPi.GPIO is usually pre-installed on Raspbian (Version 0.6.2~jessie-1): <http://sourceforge.net/p/raspberry-gpio-python/wiki/BasicUsage>

```
sudo apt-get install python3-rpi.gpio
```

- flite (Version 1.4 release-12): <http://www.festvox.org/flite>

```
sudo apt-get install flite
```

- uInput (Version 0.11.2): <http://tjjr.fi/sw/python-uinput>

Installation instructions are provided in Chapter 9, *Using Python to Drive Hardware*:

- Fuze: <http://raspi.tv/2012/how-to-install-fuse-zx-spectrum-emulator-on-raspberry-pi>

Chapter 10

- i2c-tools (Version 3.1.1+svn-2): <http://www.lm-sensors.org/wiki/I2CTools>

```
sudo apt-get install i2c-tools
```

- pip-3.2 (Version 1.5-6-5): <http://www.pip-installer.org/en/latest>

```
sudo apt-get install python3-pip
```

- python3-dev (Version 3.4.2-2): header files and static library for Python required for some software

```
sudo apt-get install python3-dev
```

- wiringpi2 (Version 2.32.3): <http://wiringpi.com>

```
sudo pip-3.2 install wiringpi2
```

Chapter 11

Following are the commands used in Chapter 11, *Building Neural Network Module for Optical Character Recognition*:

```
sudo apt-get install geany  
sudo apt-get -y install python-pip  
sudo apt-get -y install python-opencv  
sudo apt-get -y install python-numpy  
sudo apt-get -y install python-scipy  
sudo pip install --upgrade cython  
sudo pip install -U scikit-learn  
sudo pip install imutils  
sudo apt-get -y install python-sklearn  
sudo apt-get -y install python-skimage  
sudo pip install -U nltk  
sudo pip install neurolab
```

Chapter 12

- wiringpi2 (Version 2.32.3): <http://wiringpi.com>
`sudo pip-3.2 install wiringpi2`
- ServoBlaster (Version 2.32.3): <https://github.com/richardghirst/PiBits>
`sudo pip-3.2 install wiringpi2`

Chapter 13

- RPi.GPIO is usually pre-installed on Raspbian (Version 0.6.2~jessie-1):
<http://sourceforge.net/p/raspberry-gpio-python/wiki/BasicUsage>
`sudo apt-get install python3-rpi.gpio`
- Tkinter (Version 3.4.2-1): <https://wiki.python.org/moin/TkInter>
`sudo apt-get install python3-tk`
- wiringpi2 (Version 2.32.2): <http://wiringpi.com>
`sudo pip-3.2 install wiringpi2`
- minicom (Version 2.7-1): <http://linux.die.net/man/1/minicom>
`sudo apt-get install minicom`
- pyserial (Version 2.6): <http://pyserial.sourceforge.net>
`sudo pip-3.2 install pyserial`
- pyusb (Version 1.0.0): <https://github.com/walac/pyusb>
`sudo pip-3.2 install pyusb`

Chapter 14

Following are the commands used in Chapter 14, *Can I Recommend a Movie for You?*:

```
sudo apt-get install geany
sudo apt-get -y install python-pip
sudo apt-get -y install python-opencv
sudo apt-get -y install python-numpy
sudo apt-get -y install python-scipy
sudo pip install --upgrade cython
sudo pip install -U scikit-learn
sudo pip install imutils
sudo apt-get -y install python-sklearn
sudo apt-get -y install python-skimage
```

There's more...

The majority of the Raspberry Pi software packages used in the book have been installed and configured using `apt-get` and `pip`. Useful commands have been given for each in the following sections.

APT commands

The following are the useful commands for APT (this is pre-installed by default on Raspbian):

- Always update the package list to obtain the latest versions and programs before installing a package with the `sudo apt-get update` command
- Find software by searching for any packages that include the `<searchtext>` command in the package name or description using
`sudo apt-cache search <seachtext>`
- Install software with a particular `<packagename>` using
`sudo apt-get install <packagename>`
- Uninstall a particular software package using
`sudo apt-get remove <packagename>`
- Display the currently installed version of a software package using
`sudo apt-cache showpkg <packagename>`

If you want to install a specific version of a software package, use `sudo apt-get install <package name>=<version>`



If you need to use the packages on a system without internet access, you can use the following command to download the packages (and their dependencies) to the specified directory:

```
sudo apt-get -o dir::cache::archives=""  
-d -y install <package name>
```

You can see the details of additional commands by running `sudo apt-get` and `sudo apt-cache`. Alternatively, they are listed by reading the manual pages using the `man` command, the `man apt-get` command, and the `man apt-cache` command.

Pip Python package manager commands

Useful commands for Pip (this is not usually pre-installed on Raspbian) are listed as follows:

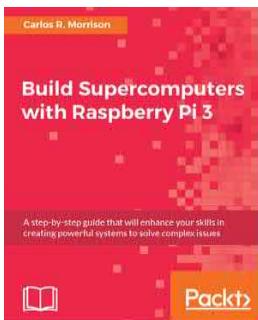
- To install Pip or Python 3, use the `sudo apt-get install python3-pip` command
- Install the required package using `sudo pip-3.2 install <packagename>`
- Uninstall a particular package using `sudo pip-3.2 uninstall <packagename>`
- To find out the version of an installed package, use `pip-3.2 freeze | grep <packagename>`
- Install a specific package version using `sudo pip-3.2 install <packagename>==<version>`

For example, to check the version of Pi3D installed on your system, use `pip-3.2 freeze | grep pi3d`.

To replace the installed version of Pi3D with Version 2.13, use `sudo pip-3.2 uninstall pi3d` and `sudo pip-3.2 install pi3d==2.13`.

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