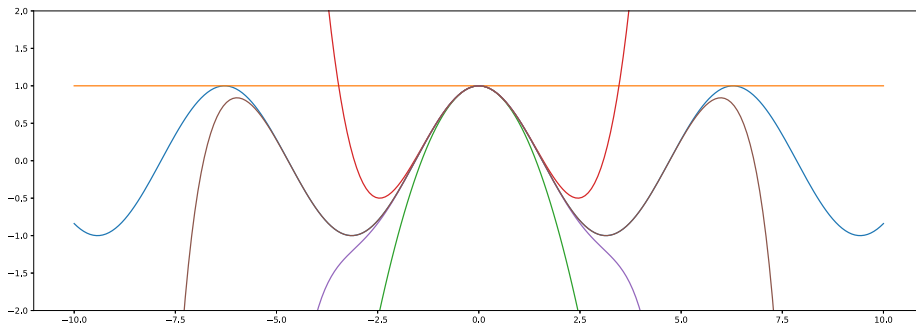


# Numpy ♥ Matplotlib

---

Fast and elegant numeric calculations in python using numpy  
and easy plotting using matplotlib



Enable native scrolling

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*But first:*  
solutions to the last homework

2/30

## Guessing game

---

```
1 def game_iteration(bound_lower, bound_upper):
2     ...
3
4     if cmd == '1':
5         return(game_iteration(bound_lower,guess)+1)
6     elif cmd == '2':
7         return(game_iteration(guess,bound_upper)+1)
8     elif cmd == '3':
9         return(1)
```

...

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## Fixed tic tac toe game

---

```
1 # Check rows
2 if self.field[0][0]==player and self.field[1][0]...
3     return True
4
5 if self.field[0][1]==player and self.field[1][1]...
6     return True
```

...

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# Optimized tic tac toe game

---

```
1 # Check if player owns all the fields in a row
2 for col in range(3):
3     if all(
4         self.field[row][col] == player
5         for row in range(3)):
6
7     return True
```

...

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*Back to numpy & matplotlib*

6/30

## Importing numpy and matplotlib

---

Open an interactive python session by running `python3 / python` on the commandline and enter the import statements below:

```
1 >>> import numpy as np
2 >>> import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
```

The statements above tell the interpreter that we want to use the `numpy` and `matplotlib.pyplot` modules and that we want to use `np` and `plt` as a shorthand for their name

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## Everything is a vector

---

`numpy` is centered around a similar concept as Matlab: everything is a vector  
To find out what that means we will create a vector that will be used as our x-axis

```
1 >>> x = np.linspace(-10, 10, 1024)
```

The statement above will create an array of 1024-elements between -10 and 10

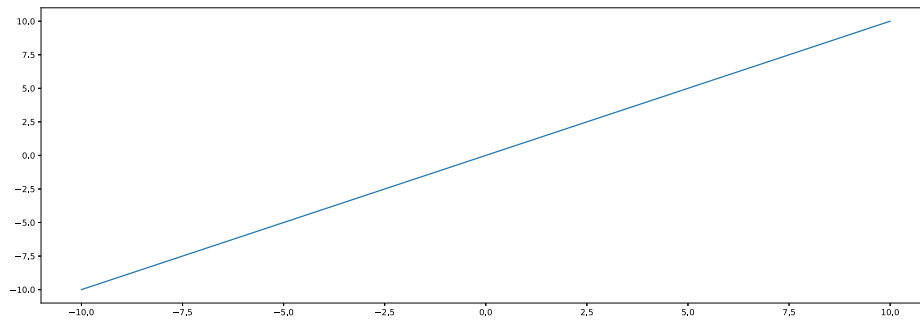
```
1 >>> print(x)
2 [-10. -9.98044966 ... 9.98044966 10.]
3 >>> print(len(x), x[0], x[-1])
4 1024 -10.0 10.0
```

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# Plotting

---

To get an idea of what  $x$  looks like we can plot it over itself



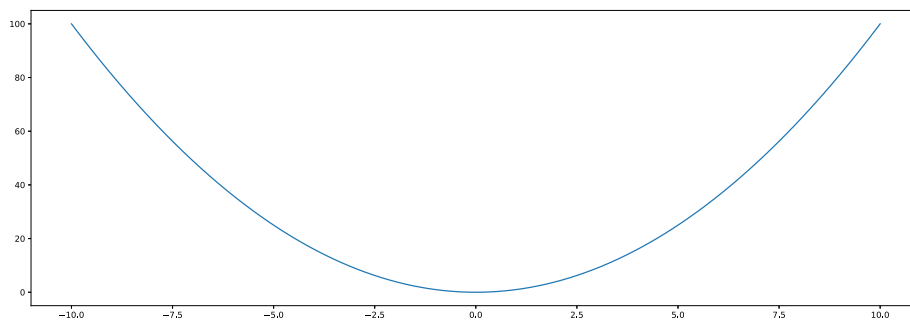
```
1 >>> plt.plot(x, x) # Plot x over x
2 >>> plt.show()    # Show the plot in a window
```

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## Everything is a vector

---

Numpy lets us work with vectors as if they were numbers



```
1 >>> plt.plot(x, x**2) # Plot x^2 over x
2 >>> plt.show()
```

$x**2$  calculates  $x^2$  for every element of  $x$

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## Working with vectors

---

The "everything is a vector" concept lets us express complex problems with little code

```
1 >>> y = x**2
2 >>> dy = y[1:] - y[:-1]
3 >>> dx = x[1:] - x[:-1]
4 >>> plt.plot(x[1:], dy/dx)
5 >>> plt.show()
```

What is the purpose of the snippet above?

11/30

# Choose your track

---

Based on your programming experience you can now decide how you want to continue this tutorial:

- [Green](#) track - a simple example demonstrating the taylor-expansion
- [Red](#) track - a more complex example that performs basic digital signal processing on an actual radio signal

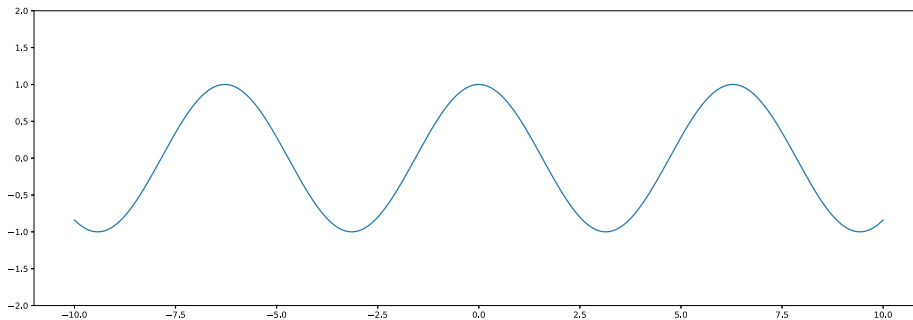
To learn how to use numpy and matplotlib you should follow the green track

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## Green track

---

The [taylor expansion](#) is a method to approximate some function using polynomials



We want to plot the taylor expansion of a cosine  
Download the [skeleton code](#) that plots a cosine and run it

13/30

## Taylor expansion

---

Look up the taylor expansion of a cosine on [wikipedia](#)  
and continue the expansion started in the [skeleton code](#)

```
1 f_t1= 1 * x**0
2 f_t2= f_t1 - 1/2 * x**2
3 f_t3= 0 # TODO
4 f_t4= 0 # TODO
```

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## Multiple plots

---

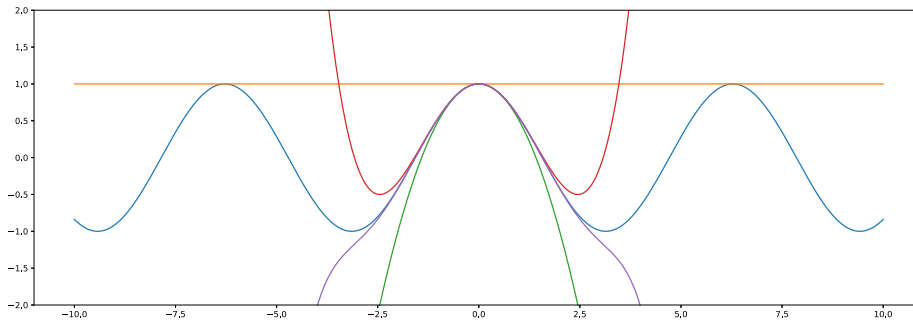
In order to plot multiple plots into the same window you can pass multiple x/y-data pairs to the `.plot` function

```
1 plt.plot(
2     x, f_cos,
3     x, f_t1,
4     x, f_t2,
5     x, f_t3,
6     x, f_t4
7 )
```

15/30

# Solution

---



```
1 f_t1= 1 * x**0
2 f_t2= f_t1 - 1/2 * x**2
3 f_t3= f_t2 + 1/24 * x**4
4 f_t4= f_t3 - 1/720 * x**6
```

...

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# Higher order

---

Manual expansion becomes tedious for higher orders

Download the skeleton code below and implement the cosine Taylor expansion using a for-loop

```
1 for n in range(10):
2     f_taylor+= x # TODO
```

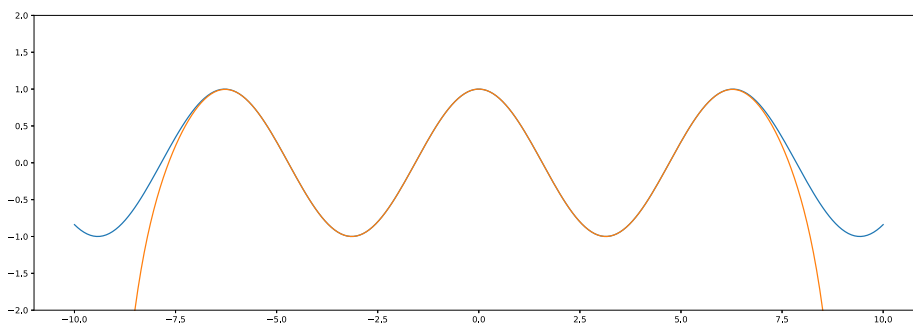
...

*Hint:* use the `math.factorial` function

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# Solution

---



```
1 for n in range(10):
2     f_taylor+= (
3         ((-1)**n)/math.factorial(2*n) * x**(2*n)
4     )
```

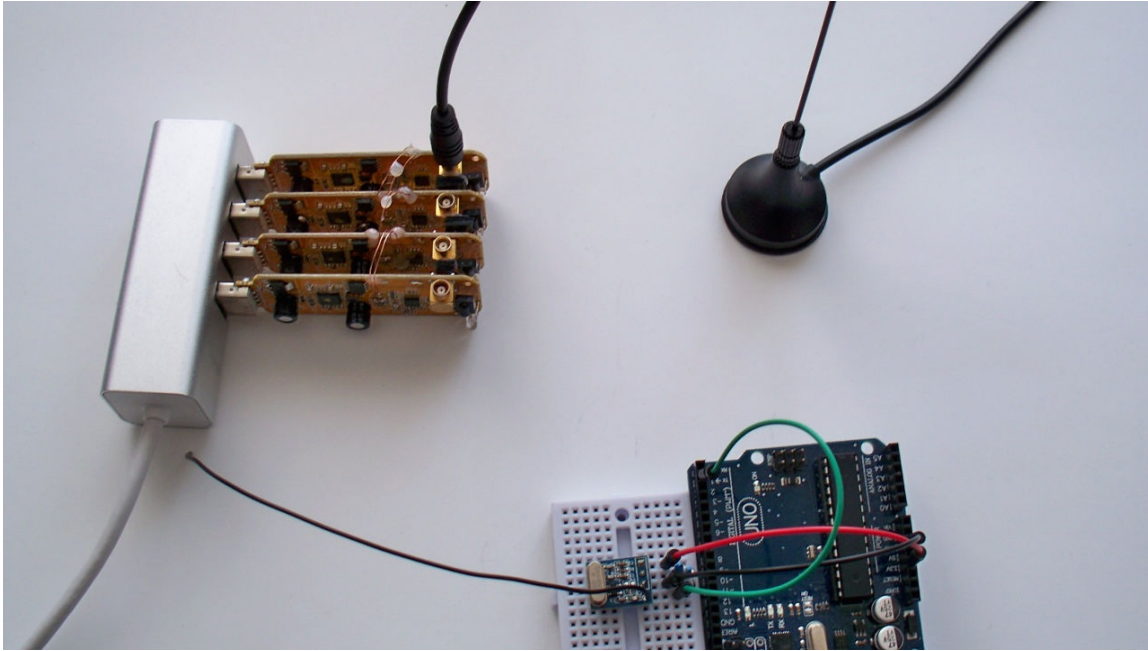
...

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# Red track

---

The setup that generated the testdata consists of an Arduino, a 433MHz OOK RF-module and a DVB-T stick that is abused to work as a software defined radio



The Arduino generates data that is transmitted by the RF-module  
The SDR receives the signal, does some processing and passes the digitized signal to the PC

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## uart.bin

---

The SDR outputs two 8-bit unsigned values per sample, the real and the imaginary part of a complex number

The SDR was configured to record samples at a rate of 960kHz, meaning one sample every 1.04µs

The SDR was also configured to work at a center-frequency of 433.8MHz, meaning that a signal at 433.8MHz on air appears at 0Hz in the recorded file

The file below contains the raw samples as they were transmitted to the computer

[18\\_sdr\\_uart\\_433.8MHz\\_960kHz.bin](#)

20/30

## uart\_decoder.py

---

The program below uses numpy to decode the data that was transmitted by the Arduino while plotting the signal at every processing step

```
1 baseband= samples * lo_sig
2
3 plt.plot(abs(np.fft.fft(baseband[:2048])))
4 plt.show()
```

...

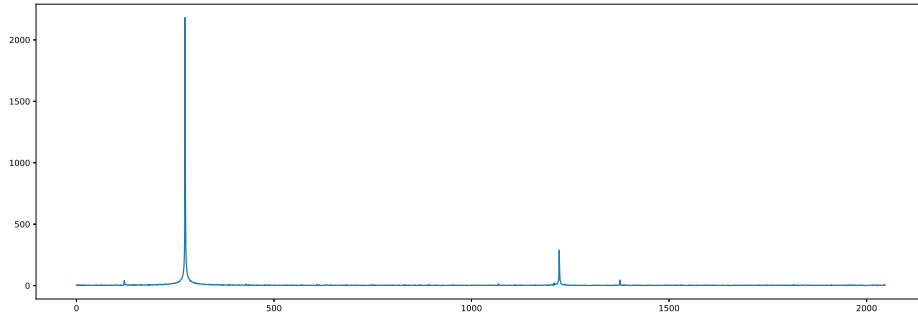
Save the code into the same directory as [18\\_sdr\\_uart\\_433.8MHz\\_960kHz.bin](#) and run it

The following slides will guide you through the output of the program

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# signal FFT

---



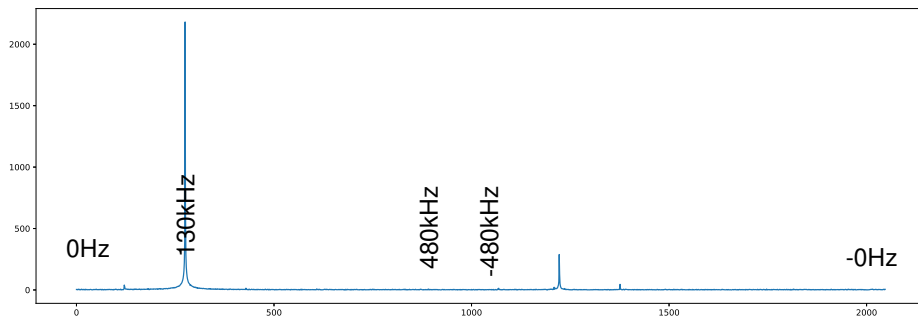
```
1 plt.plot(abs(np.fft.fft(samples[:2048])))
2 plt.show()
```

To get an overview of an RF-signal it makes sense to look at it in the frequency-domain  
To get from the time-domain (samples) to the frequency domain the fast fourier transform  
is applied to the first 2048 samples

22/30

## FFT

---

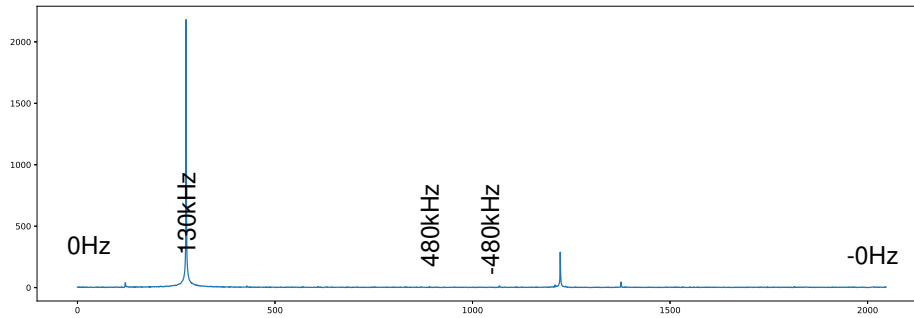


The raw result of a fourier transformation has a few unintuitive properties:

- There are negative frequencies (this makes sense when working with complex-valued signals)
- The negative frequencies occur in the right half of the output (the output is often reorganized for visualization so that 0Hz is in the middle)

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# Downmixing



The plot above shows a peak at 130kHz

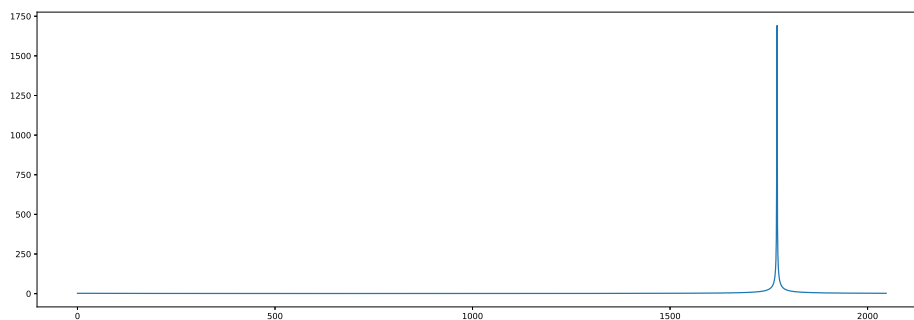
As the center frequency of the receiver was at 433.8Mhz this means, that the signal was originally sent at

$$433.8\text{Mhz} + 130\text{kHz} = 433.93\text{MHz}$$

For further analysis it makes sense to shift the signal to 0Hz, a process called mixing

24/30

# Downmixing



```
1 offset_freq= -130e3
2 lo_sig= np.exp(2j * np.pi * offset_freq * t_hp)
```

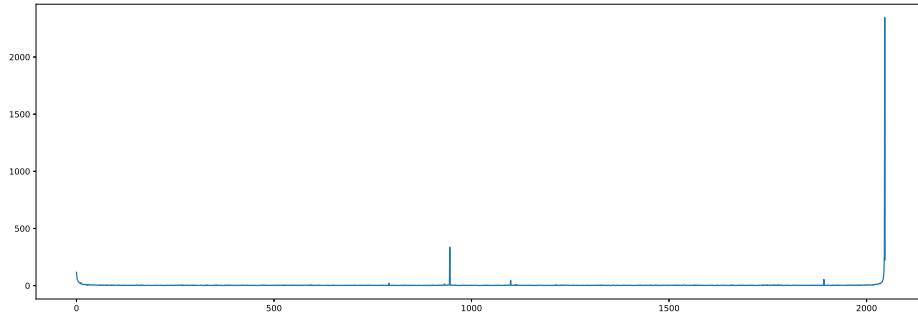
To perform the mixing a signal with a frequency of -130kHz has to be generated (complex numbers are fun)

25/30



# Downmixing

---



```
1 # Perform the shift
2 baseband= samples * lo_sig
```

The mixing is then performed by multiplying the receiver-signal with the generated signal  
The signal is now centered at 0Hz

26/30

# Downsampling

---

After mixing the signal to 0Hz we can filter away high frequencies and reduce the number of samples

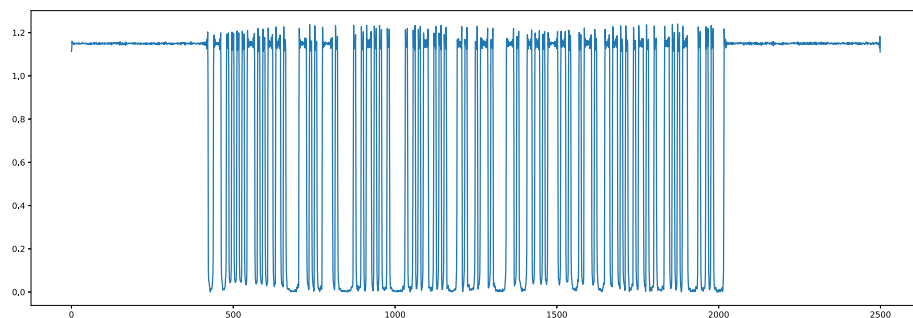
```
1 lowpass= downsample(baseband)
2 sample_rate_lp= sample_rate / 100
```

The downsample function performs the filtering and keeps every 100th sample

27/30

# Downsampling

---



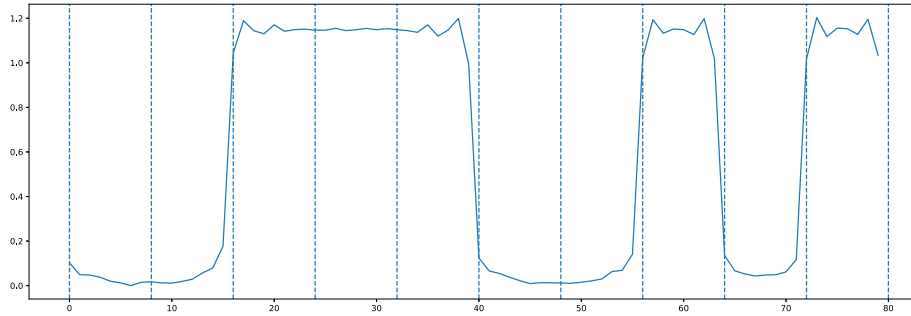
```
1 abssig= abs(lowpass)
2 plt.plot(abssig)
```

After downsampling the signal is short enough to be displayed on screen  
one can already start to see the UART-encoded data frames

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# Decoding

---



To decode the frames one has to find the first sample below a certain threshold afterwards the bits are decoded by slicing the frame into 10 symbols of equal length, according to the baudrate

if a bit is, on average, below the threshold it counts as 0, otherwise as a 1

29/30

# Decoding

---

```
1 >>> decoded_message= decode_message(  
2 ...     abssig, 1200, 0.3)  
3 ... )  
4 >>> print('Message: {}'.format(decoded_message))  
5 Message: Numpy + Matplotlib
```

When the last frame was processed the complete message is printed

*Numpy ♥ Matplotlib*

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