

# **Chapter 1**

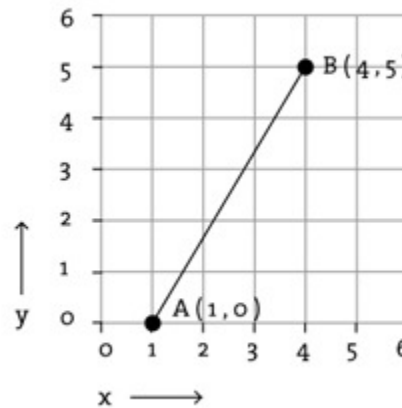
# **Coordinate System**

# Coordinate System and Shapes

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## Coordinate Space

Before we begin programming with Processing, we must first channel our eighth grade selves, pull out a piece of graph paper, and draw a line. The shortest distance between two points is a good old fashioned line, and this is where we begin, with two points on that graph paper.



The above figure shows a line between point A (1,0) and point B (4,5). If you wanted to direct a friend of yours to draw that same line, you would give them a shout and say "draw a line from the point one-zero to the point four-five, please." Well, for the moment, imagine your friend was a computer and you wanted to instruct this digital pal to display that same line on its screen. The same command applies (only this time you can skip the pleasantries and you will be required to employ a precise formatting). Here, the instruction will look like this:

```
line(1, 0, 4, 5);
```

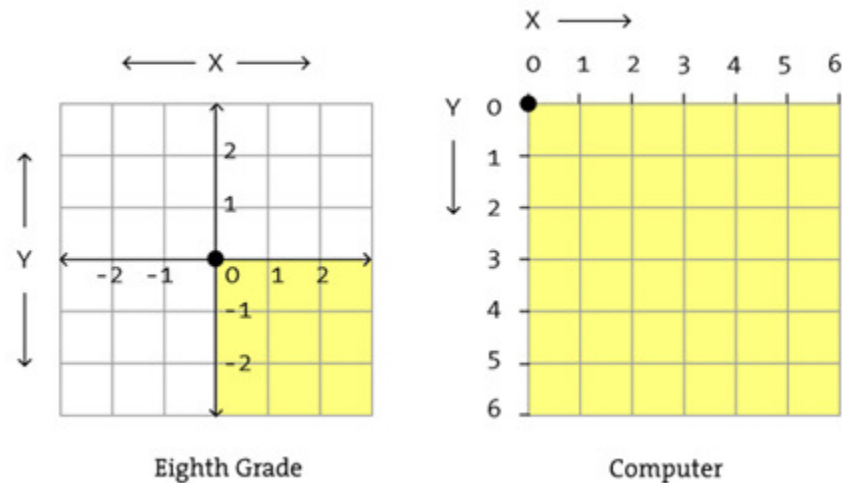
Even without having studied the syntax of writing code, the above statement should make a fair amount of sense. We are providing a *command* (which we will refer to as a "function") for the machine to follow entitled "line." In addition, we are specifying some arguments for how that line should be drawn, from point A (1,0) to point B (4,5). If you think of that line of code as a sentence, the function is a verb and the arguments are the objects of the sentence. The code sentence also ends with a semicolon instead of a period.

Draw a line from (1, 0) to (4, 5).

verb                      object                      object

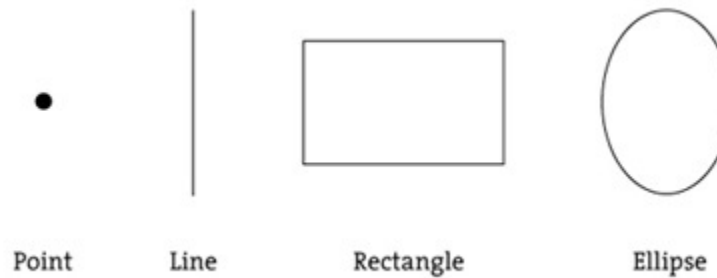
The key here is to realize that the computer screen is nothing more than a fancier piece of graph paper. Each pixel of the screen is a coordinate - two numbers, an "x" (horizontal) and a "y" (vertical) - that determines the location of a point in space. And it is our job to specify what shapes and colors should appear at these pixel coordinates.

Nevertheless, there is a catch here. The graph paper from eighth grade ("Cartesian coordinate system") placed (0,0) in the center with the y-axis pointing up and the x-axis pointing to the right (in the positive direction, negative down and to the left). The coordinate system for pixels in a computer window, however, is reversed along the y-axis. (0,0) can be found at the top left with the positive direction to the right horizontally and down vertically.



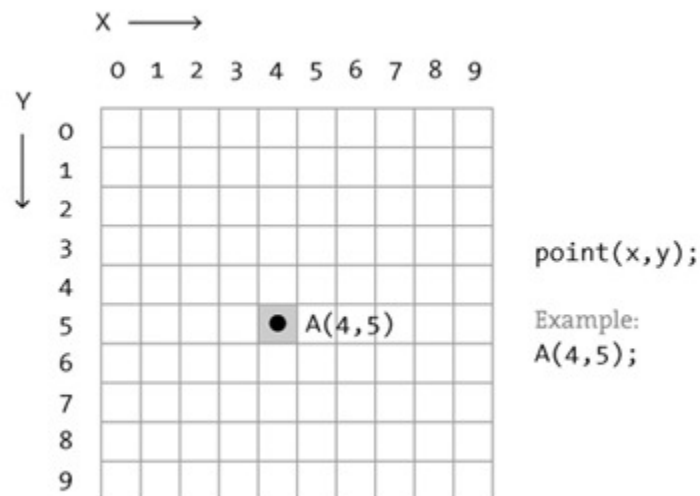
## Simple Shapes

The vast majority of the programming examples you'll see with Processing are visual in nature. These examples, at their core, involve drawing shapes and setting pixels. Let's begin by looking at four primitive shapes.



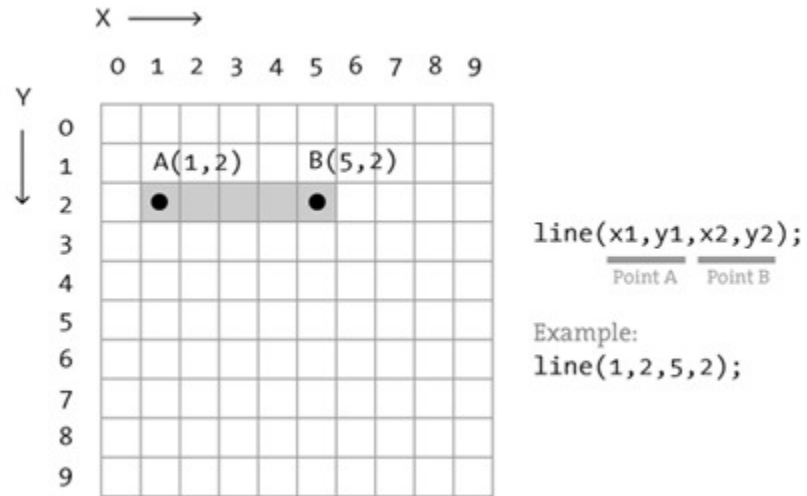
For each shape, we will ask ourselves what information is required to specify the location and size (and later color) of that shape and learn how Processing expects to receive that information. In each of the diagrams below, we'll assume a window with a width of 10 pixels and height of 10 pixels. This isn't particularly realistic since when you really start coding you will most likely work with much larger windows (10x10 pixels is barely a few millimeters of screen space.) Nevertheless for demonstration purposes, it is nice to work with smaller numbers in order to present the pixels as they might appear on graph paper (for now) to better illustrate the inner workings of each line of code.

A `point()` is the easiest of the shapes and a good place to start. To draw a point, we only need an x and y coordinate.

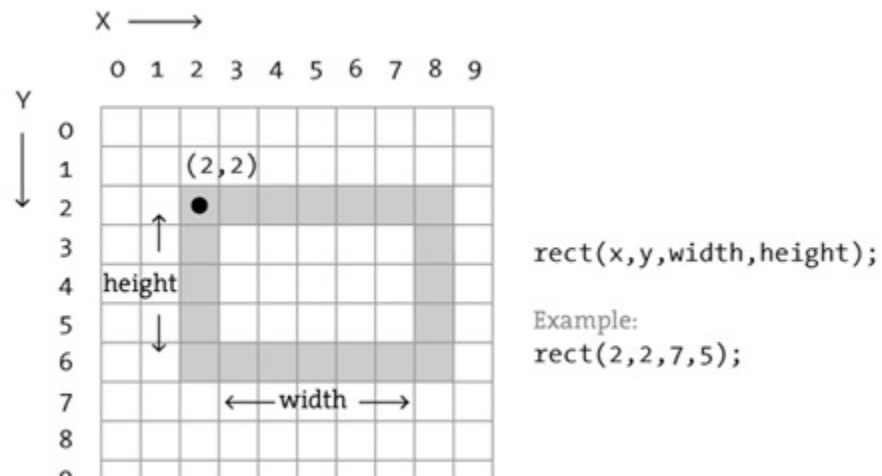


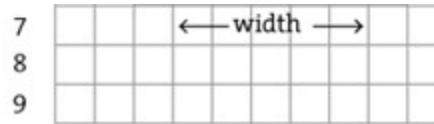


A `line()` isn't terribly difficult either and simply requires two points: (x1,y1) and (x2,y2):

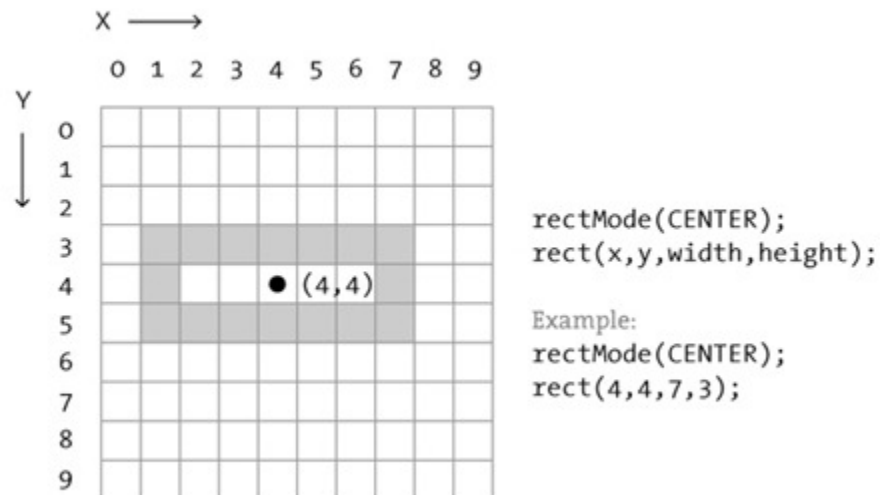


Once we arrive at drawing a `rect()`, things become a bit more complicated. In Processing, a rectangle is specified by the coordinate for the top left corner of the rectangle, as well as its width and height.

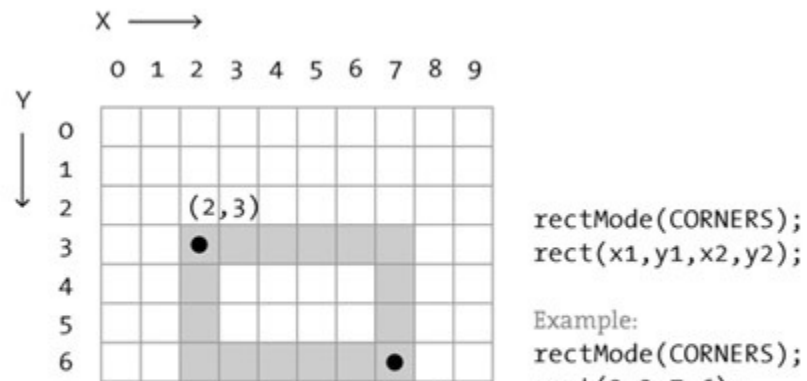


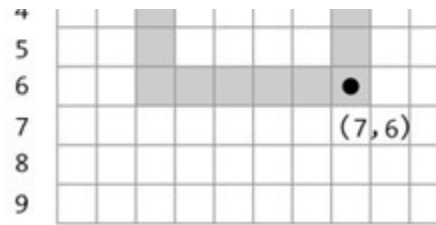


A second way to draw a rectangle involves specifying the centerpoint, along with width and height. If we prefer this method, we first indicate that we want to use the "CENTER" mode before the instruction for the rectangle itself. Note that Processing is case-sensitive.



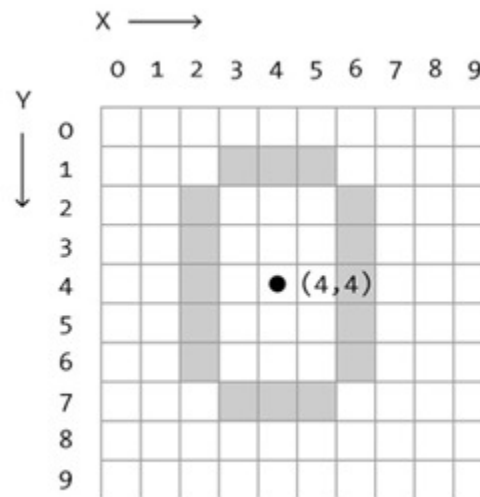
Finally, we can also draw a rectangle with two points (the top left corner and the bottom right corner). The mode here is "CORNERS".





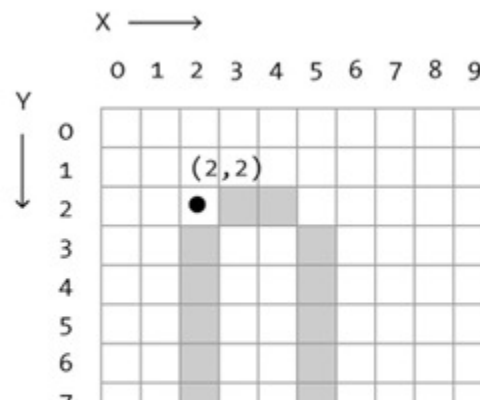
Example:  
`rectMode(CORNERS);`  
`rect(2,3,7,6);`

Once we have become comfortable with the concept of drawing a rectangle, an `ellipse()` is a snap. In fact, it is identical to `rect()` with the difference being that an ellipse is drawn where the bounding box of the rectangle would be. The default mode for `ellipse()` is "CENTER", rather than "CORNER."



`ellipseMode(CENTER);`  
`ellipse(x,y,width,height);`

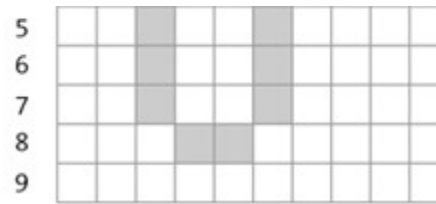
Example:  
`ellipseMode(CENTER);`  
`ellipse(4,4,5,7);`



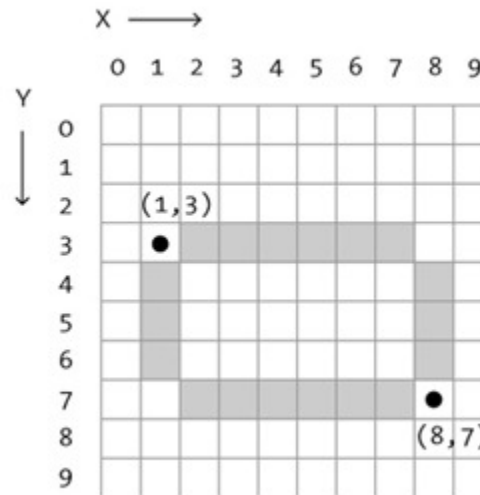
`ellipseMode(CORNER);`  
`ellipse(x,y,width,height);`

Example:  
`ellipseMode(CORNER);`  
`ellipse(2,2,4,7);`





Example:  
`ellipseMode(CORNER);`  
`ellipse(2,2,4,7);`

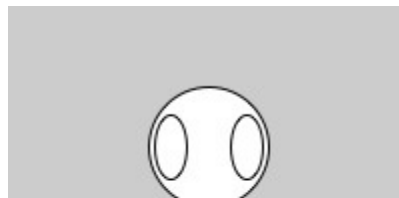


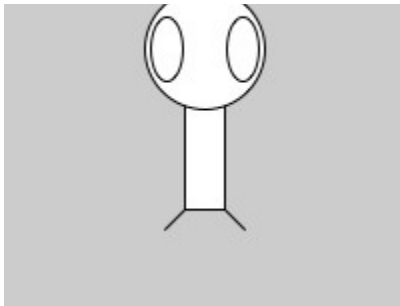
`ellipseMode(CORNERS);`  
`ellipse(x1,y1,x2,y2);`

Example:  
`ellipseMode(CORNERS);`  
`ellipse(1,3,8,7);`

It is important to acknowledge that these ellipses do not look particularly circular. Processing has a built-in methodology for selecting which pixels should be used to create a circular shape. Zoomed in like this, we get a bunch of squares in a circle-like pattern, but zoomed out on a computer screen, we get a nice round ellipse. Processing also gives us the power to develop our own algorithms for coloring in individual pixels (in fact, we can already imagine how we might do this using "point" over and over again), but for now, we are content with allowing the "ellipse" statement to do the hard work. (For more about pixels, start with: [the pixels reference page](#), though be warned this is a great deal more advanced than this tutorial.)

Now let's look at what some code with shapes in more realistic setting, with window dimensions of 200 by 200. Note the use of the `size()` function to specify the width and height of the window.





```
size(200,200);  
rectMode(CENTER);  
rect(100,100,20,100);  
ellipse(100,70,60,60);  
ellipse(81,70,16,32);  
ellipse(119,70,16,32);  
line(90,150,80,160);  
line(110,150,120,160);
```

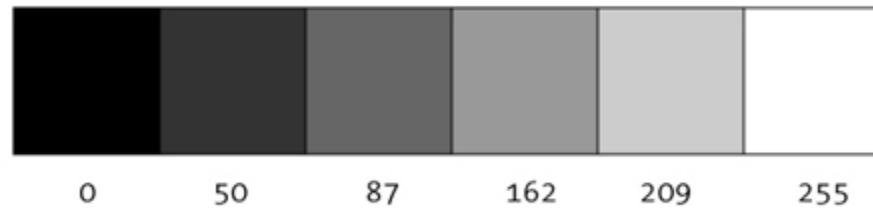
## **Colors**

# Color

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## Grayscale Color

In the digital world, when we want to talk about a color, precision is required. Saying "Hey, can you make that circle bluish-green?" will not do. Color, rather, is defined as a range of numbers. Let's start with the simplest case: black & white or grayscale. 0 means black, 255 means white. In between, every other number - 50, 87, 162, 209, and so on - is a shade of gray ranging from black to white.



*Does 0-255 seem arbitrary to you?*

Color for a given shape needs to be stored in the computer's memory. This memory is just a long sequence of 0's and 1's (a whole bunch of on or off switches.) Each one of these switches is a bit, eight of them together is a byte. Imagine if we had eight bits (one byte) in sequence - how many ways can we configure these switches? The answer is (and doing a little [research into binary numbers](#) will prove this point) 256 possibilities, or a range of numbers between 0 and 255. We will use eight bit color for our grayscale range and 24 bit for full color (eight bits for each of the red, green, and blue color components).

and 255. We will use eight bit color for our grayscale range and 24 bit for full color (eight bits for each of the red, green, and blue color components).

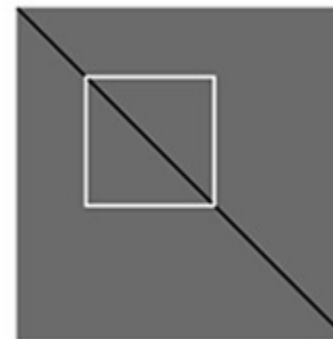
By adding the `stroke()` and `fill()` functions before something is drawn, we can set the color of any given shape. There is also the function `background()`, which sets a background color for the window. Here's an example.

```
background(255);    // Setting the background to white
stroke(0);          // Setting the outline (stroke) to black
fill(150);          // Setting the interior of a shape (fill) to grey
rect(50,50,75,100); // Drawing the rectangle
```

Stroke or fill can be eliminated with the functions: `noStroke()` and `noFill()`. Our instinct might be to say "stroke(0)" for no outline, however, it is important to remember that 0 is not "nothing", but rather denotes the color black. Also, remember not to eliminate both - with `noStroke()` and `noFill()`, nothing will appear!

In addition, if we draw two shapes, Processing will always use the most recently specified stroke and fill, reading the code from top to bottom.

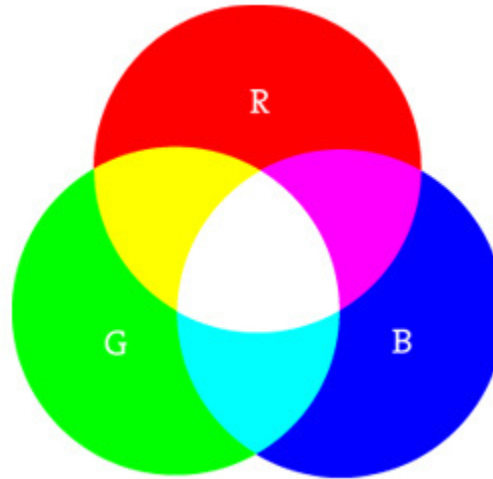
```
background(150);
stroke(0);
line(0,0,100,100);
stroke(255);
noFill();
rect(25,25,50,50);
```



## RGB Color

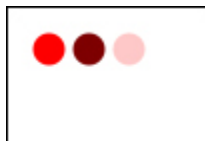
Remember finger painting? By mixing three "primary" colors, any color could be generated. Swirling all colors together resulted in a muddy brown. The more paint you added, the darker it got. Digital colors are also constructed by mixing

Remember finger painting? By mixing three "primary" colors, any color could be generated. Swirling all colors together resulted in a muddy brown. The more paint you added, the darker it got. Digital colors are also constructed by mixing three primary colors, but it works differently from paint. First, the primaries are different: red, green, and blue (i.e., "RGB" color). And with color on the screen, you are mixing light, not paint, so the mixing rules are different as well.



- Red + Green = Yellow
- Red + Blue = Purple
- Green + Blue = Cyan (blue-green)
- Red + Green + Blue = White
- no colors = Black

This assumes that the colors are all as bright as possible, but of course, you have a range of color available, so some red plus some green plus some blue equals gray, and a bit of red plus a bit of blue equals dark purple. While this may take some getting used to, the more you program and experiment with RGB color, the more it will become instinctive, much like swirling colors with your fingers. And of course you can't say "Mix some red with a bit of blue," you have to provide an exact amount. As with grayscale, the individual color elements are expressed as ranges from 0 (none of that color) to 255 (as much as possible), and they are listed in the order R, G, and B. You will get the hang of RGB color mixing through experimentation, but next we will cover some code using some common colors.

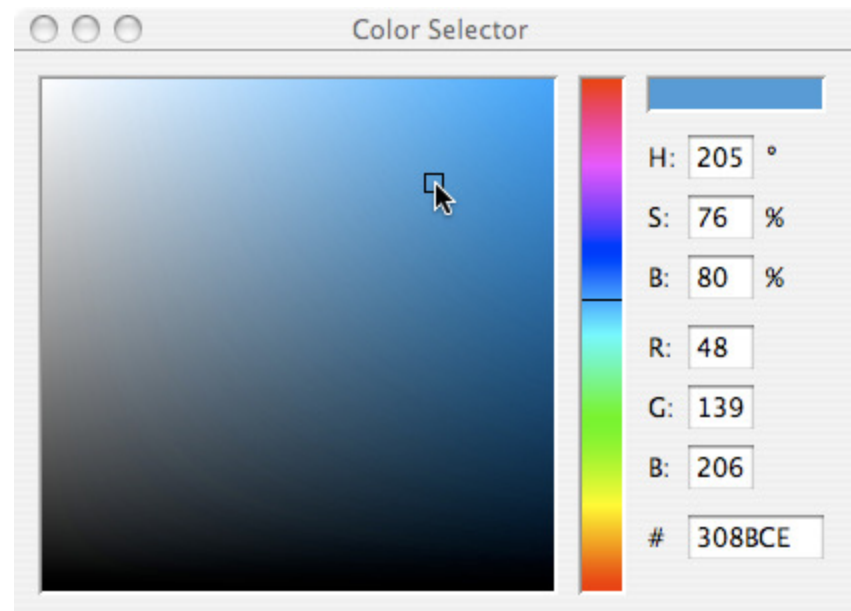




### Example: RGB color

```
background(255);  
noStroke();  
  
// Bright red  
fill(255,0,0);  
ellipse(20,20,16,16);  
  
// Dark red  
fill(127,0,0);  
ellipse(40,20,16,16);  
  
// Pink (pale red)  
fill(255,200,200);  
ellipse(60,20,16,16);
```

Processing also has a color selector to aid in choosing colors. Access this via **TOOLS** (from the menu bar) → **COLOR SELECTOR**.



[https://pythonhosted.org/ete2/reference/reference\\_svgcolors.html](https://pythonhosted.org/ete2/reference/reference_svgcolors.html)

### Red colors

IndianRed	CD 5C 5C	205	92	92
LightCoral	F0 80 80	240	128	128
Salmon	FA 80 72	250	128	114
DarkSalmon	E9 96 7A	233	150	122
LightSalmon	FF A0 7A	255	160	122
Crimson	DC 14 3C	220	20	60
Red	FF 00 00	255	0	0
FireBrick	B2 22 22	178	34	34
DarkRed	8B 00 00	139	0	0

### Pink colors

Pink	FF C0 CB	255	192	203
LightPink	FF B6 C1	255	182	193
HotPink	FF 69 B4	255	105	180
DeepPink	FF 14 93	255	20	147
MediumVioletRed	C7 15 85	199	21	133
PaleVioletRed	DB 70 93	219	112	147

### Orange colors

LightSalmon	FF A0 7A	255	160	122
Coral	FF 7F 50	255	127	80
Tomato	FF 63 47	255	99	71
OrangeRed	FF 45 00	255	69	0
DarkOrange	FF 8C 00	255	140	0
Orange	FF A5 00	255	165	0

### Yellow colors

Gold	FF D7 00	255	215	0
Yellow	FF FF 00	255	255	0
LightYellow	FF FF E0	255	255	224
LemonChiffon	FF FA CD	255	250	205
LightGoldenrodYellow	FA FA D2	250	250	210
PapayaWhip	FF EF D5	255	239	213
Moccasin	FF E4 B5	255	228	181
PeachPuff	FF DA B9	255	218	185
PaleGoldenrod	EE E8 AA	238	232	170
Khaki	F0 E6 8C	240	230	140
DarkKhaki	BD B7 6B	189	183	107

### Purple colors

Lavender	E6 E6 FA	230	230	250
Thistle	D8 BF D8	216	191	216
Plum	DD A0 DD	221	160	221
Violet	EE 82 EE	238	130	238
Orchid	DA 70 D6	218	112	214
Fuchsia	FF 00 FF	255	0	255
Magenta	FF 00 FF	255	0	255
MediumOrchid	BA 55 D3	186	85	211
BlueViolet	8A 2B E2	138	43	226
DarkViolet	94 00 D3	148	0	211
DarkOrchid	99 32 CC	153	50	204
DarkMagenta	8B 00 8B	139	0	139
Purple	80 00 80	128	0	128
Indigo	4B 00 82	75	0	130
SlateBlue	6A 5A CD	106	90	205
DarkSlateBlue	48 3D 8B	72	61	139
MediumSlateBlue	7B 68 EE	123	104	238

### Green colors

GreenYellow	AD FF 2F	173	255	47
Chartreuse	7F FF 00	127	255	0
LawnGreen	7C FC 00	124	252	0
Lime	00 FF 00	0	255	0
LimeGreen	32 CD 32	50	205	50
PaleGreen	98 FB 98	152	251	152
LightGreen	90 EE 90	144	238	144
MediumSpringGreen	00 FA 9A	0	250	154
SpringGreen	00 FF 7F	0	255	127
MediumSeaGreen	3C B3 71	60	179	113
SeaGreen	2E 8B 57	46	139	87
ForestGreen	22 8B 22	34	139	34
Green	00 80 00	0	128	0
DarkGreen	00 64 00	0	100	0
YellowGreen	9A CD 32	154	205	50
OliveDrab	6B 8E 23	107	142	35
Olive	80 80 00	128	128	0
DarkOliveGreen	55 6B 2F	85	107	47
MediumAquamarine	66 CD AA	102	205	170
DarkSeaGreen	8F BC 8F	143	188	143
LightSeaGreen	20 B2 AA	32	178	170
DarkCyan	00 8B 8B	0	139	139
Teal	00 80 80	0	128	128

### Blue/Cyan colors

Aqua	00 FF FF	0	255	255
Cyan	00 FF FF	0	255	255
LightCyan	E0 FF FF	224	255	255
PaleTurquoise	AF EE EE	175	238	238
Aquamarine	7F FF D4	127	255	212
Turquoise	40 E0 D0	64	224	208
MediumTurquoise	48 D1 CC	72	209	204
DarkTurquoise	00 CE D1	0	206	209
CadetBlue	5F 9E A0	95	158	160
SteelBlue	46 82 B4	70	130	180
LightSteelBlue	B0 C4 DE	176	196	222
PowderBlue	B0 E0 E6	176	224	230
LightBlue	AD D8 E6	173	216	230
SkyBlue	87 CE EB	135	206	235
LightSkyBlue	87 CE FA	135	206	250
DeepSkyBlue	00 BF FF	0	191	255
DodgerBlue	1E 90 FF	30	144	255
CornflowerBlue	64 95 ED	100	149	237
MediumSlateBlue	7B 68 EE	123	104	238
RoyalBlue	41 69 E1	65	105	225
MediumBlue	00 00 CD	0	0	205
DarkBlue	00 00 8B	0	0	139
Navy	00 00 80	0	0	128
MidnightBlue	19 19 70	25	25	112

### Brown colors

Cornsilk	FF F8 DC	255	248	220
BlanchedAlmond	FF EB CD	255	235	205
Bisque	FF E4 C4	255	228	196
NavajoWhite	FF DE AD	255	222	173
Wheat	F5 DE B3	245	222	179
BurlyWood	DE B8 87	222	184	135
Tan	D2 B4 8C	210	180	140
RosyBrown	BC 8F 8F	188	143	143
SandyBrown	F4 A4 60	244	164	96
Goldenrod	DA A5 20	218	165	32
DarkGoldenrod	B8 86 0B	184	134	11
Peru	CD 85 3F	205	133	63
Chocolate	D2 69 1E	210	105	30
SaddleBrown	8B 45 13	139	69	19
Sienna	A0 52 2D	160	82	45
Brown	A5 2A 2A	165	42	42
Maroon	80 00 00	128	0	0

### White colors

White	FF FF FF	255	255	255
Snow	FF FA FA	255	250	250
Honeydew	F0 FF F0	240	255	240
MintCream	F5 FF FA	245	255	250
Azure	F0 FF FF	240	255	255
AliceBlue	F0 F8 FF	240	248	255
GhostWhite	F8 F8 FF	248	248	255
WhiteSmoke	F5 F5 F5	245	245	245
Seashell	FF F5 EE	255	245	238
Beige	F5 F5 DC	245	245	220
OldLace	FD F5 E6	253	245	230
FloralWhite	FF FA F0	255	250	240
Ivory	FF FF F0	255	255	240
AntiqueWhite	FA EB D7	250	235	215
Linen	FA F0 E6	250	240	230
LavenderBlush	FF F0 F5	255	240	245
MistyRose	FF E4 E1	255	228	225

### Gray colors

Gainsboro	DC DC DC	220	220	220
LightGrey	D3 D3 D3	211	211	211
Silver	C0 C0 C0	192	192	192
DarkGray	A9 A9 A9	169	169	169
Gray	80 80 80	128	128	128
DimGray	69 69 69	105	105	105
LightSlateGray	77 88 99	119	136	153
SlateGray	70 80 90	112	128	144
Black	00 00 00	0	0	0



# **Python Comments**

# How to use comments in Python

## Comments

Comments in Python are used to explain what the code does.

## Python Comments

Python has two ways to annotate Python code.

One is by using comments to indicate what some part of the code does.

Single-line comments begin with the hash character ("#") and are terminated by the end of line.

Python is ignoring all text that comes after the # to the end of the line, they are not part of the command.

Comments spanning more than one line are achieved by inserting a multi-line string (with """ as the delimiter one each end) that is not used in assignment or otherwise evaluated, but sits in between other statements.

They are meant as documentation for anyone reading the code.

## Example

Let's show this by using an example

```
#this is a comment in Python
```

```
Print("Hello World") #This is also a comment in Python
```

```
""" This is an example of a multiline  
comment that spans multiple lines  
...  
"""
```

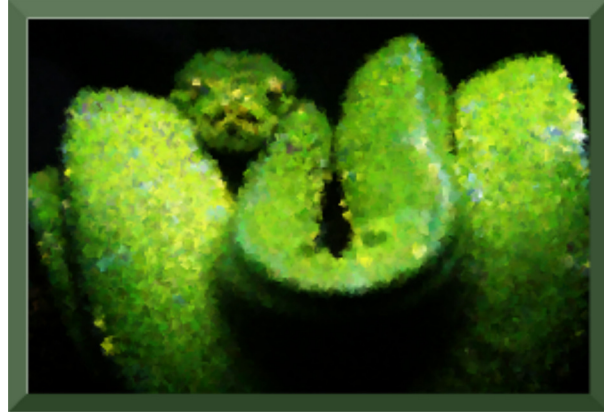
# **The Canvas Object**

# CANVAS WIDGETS

## INTRODUCTION

The Canvas widget supplies graphics facilities for Tkinter. Among these graphical objects are lines, circles, images, and even other widgets. With this widget it's possible to draw graphs and plots, create graphics editors, and implement various kinds of custom widgets.

We demonstrate in our first example, how to draw a line. The method `create_line(coords, options)` is used to draw a straight line. The coordinates "coords" are given as four integer numbers:  $x_1, y_1, x_2, y_2$ . This means that the line goes from the point  $(x_1, y_1)$  to the point  $(x_2, y_2)$ . After these coordinates follows a comma separated list of additional parameters, which may be empty. We set for example the colour of the line to the special green of our website: `fill="#476042"`



We kept the first example intentionally very simple. We create a canvas and draw a straight horizontal line into this canvas. This line vertically cuts the canvas into two areas.

The casting to an integer value in the assignment "`y = int(canvas_height / 2)`" is superfluous, because `create_line` can work with float values as well. They are automatically turned into integer values. In the following you can see the code of our first simple script:

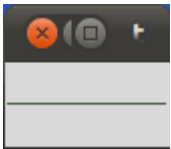
```
from tkinter import *
master = Tk()

canvas_width = 80
canvas_height = 40
w = Canvas(master,
            width=canvas_width,
            height=canvas_height)
w.pack()

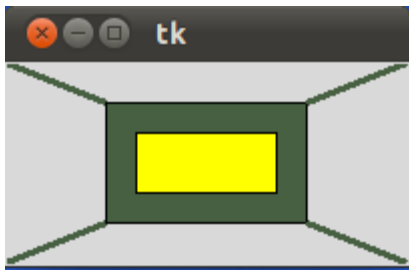
y = int(canvas_height / 2)
w.create_line(0, y, canvas_width, y, fill="#476042")

mainloop()
```

If we start this program, using Python 3, we get the following window:



For creating rectangles we have the method `create_rectangle(coords, options)`. Coords is again defined by two points, but this time the first one is the top left point and the bottom right point of the rectangle.



The window, you see above, is created by the following Python tkinter code:

```
from tkinter import *

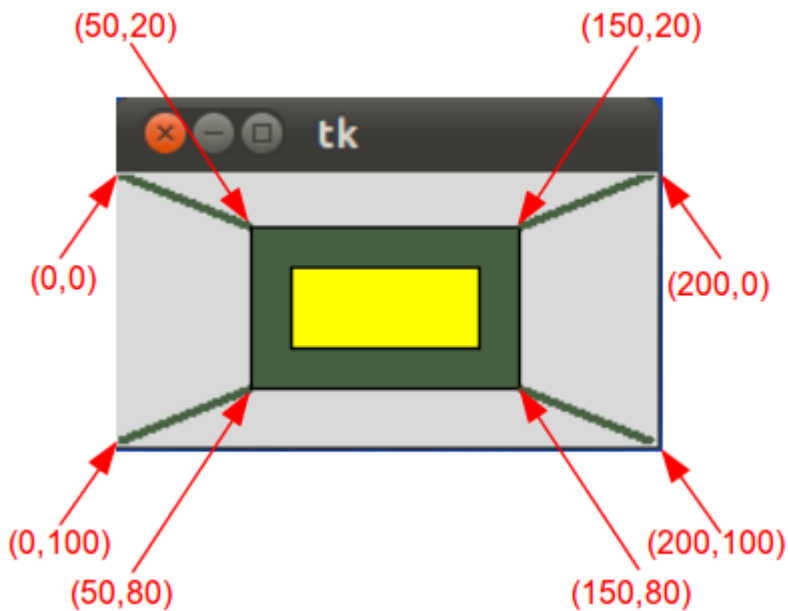
master = Tk()

w = Canvas(master, width=200, height=100)
w.pack()

w.create_rectangle(50, 20, 150, 80, fill="#476042")
w.create_rectangle(65, 35, 135, 65, fill="yellow")
w.create_line(0, 0, 50, 20, fill="#476042", width=3)
w.create_line(0, 100, 50, 80, fill="#476042", width=3)
w.create_line(150, 20, 200, 0, fill="#476042", width=3)
w.create_line(150, 80, 200, 100, fill="#476042", width=3)

mainloop()
```

The following image with the coordinates will simplify the understanding of application of `create_lines` and `create_rectangle` in our previous example.



## TEXT ON CANVAS

We demonstrate now how to print text on a canvas. We will extend and modify the previous example for this purpose. The method `create_text()` can be applied to a canvas object to write text on it. The first two parameters are the x and the y positions of the text object. By default, the text is centred on this position. You can override this with the anchor option. For example, if the coordinate should be the upper left corner, set the anchor to NW. With the keyword parameter `text`, we can define the actual text to be displayed on the canvas.

```
from tkinter import *

canvas_width = 200
canvas_height = 100

colours = ("#476042", "yellow")
box=[]

for ratio in ( 0.2, 0.35 ):
```

```

        box.append( (canvas_width * ratio,
                    canvas_height * ratio,
                    canvas_width * (1 - ratio),
                    canvas_height * (1 - ratio) ) )

master = Tk()

w = Canvas(master,
            width=canvas_width,
            height=canvas_height)
w.pack()

for i in range(2):
    w.create_rectangle(box[i][0], box[i][1], box[i][2], box[i][3], fill=colours[i])

w.create_line(0, 0,                                # origin of canvas
              box[0][0], box[0][1], # coordinates of left upper corner of the box[0]
              fill=colours[0],
              width=3)
w.create_line(0, canvas_height,                    # lower left corner of canvas
              box[0][0], box[0][3], # lower left corner of box[0]
              fill=colours[0],
              width=3)
w.create_line(box[0][2], box[0][1], # right upper corner of box[0]
              canvas_width, 0,      # right upper corner of canvas
              fill=colours[0],
              width=3)
w.create_line(box[0][2], box[0][3], # lower right corner pf box[0]
              canvas_width, canvas_height, # lower right corner of canvas
              fill=colours[0], width=3)

w.create_text(canvas_width / 2,
              canvas_height / 2,
              text="Python")

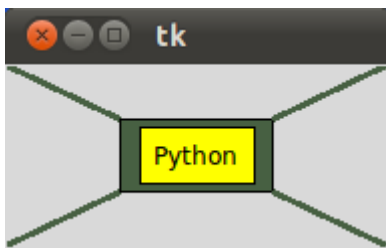
mainloop()

```

Though the code of our example program is changed drastically, the graphical result looks still the same except for the text "Python".



You can understand the benefit of our code changes, if you change for example the height of the canvas to 190 and the width to 90 and modify the ratio for the first box to 0.3. Image doing this in the code of our first example. It would be a lot tougher. The result looks like this:



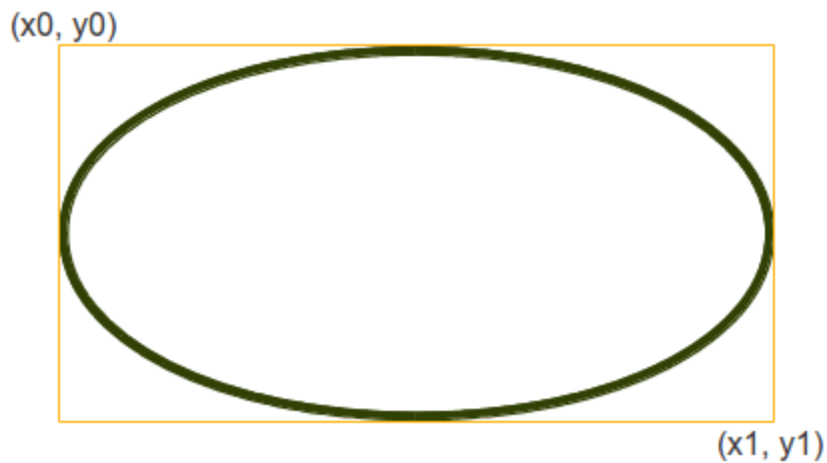
## OVAL OBJECTS

An oval (or an ovoid) is any curve resembling an egg (ovum means egg in Latin). It resembles an ellipse, but it is not an ellipse. The term "oval" is not well-defined. Many different curves are called ovals, but they all have in common:

- They are differentiable, simple (not self-intersecting), convex, closed, plane curves
- They are very similar in shape to ellipses
- There is at least one axis of symmetry

The word oval stems from Latin ovum meaning "egg" and that's what it is: A figure which resembles the form of an egg. An oval is constructed from two pairs of

arcs, with two different radii. A circle is a special case of an oval.



We can create an oval on a canvas `c` with the following method:

```
id = C.create_oval ( x0, y0, x1, y1, option, ... )
```

This method returns the object ID of the new oval object on the canvas `C`.

The following script draws a circle around the point (75,75) with the radius 25:

```
from tkinter import *

canvas_width = 190
canvas_height = 150

master = Tk()

w = Canvas(master,
            width=canvas_width,
            height=canvas_height)
w.pack()

w.create_oval(50,50,100,100)

mainloop()
```

## THE CANVAS IMAGE ITEM

The Canvas method `create_image(x0,y0, options ...)` is used to draw an image on a canvas. `create_image` doesn't accept an image directly. It uses an object which is created by the `PhotoImage()` method. The `PhotoImage` class can only read GIF and PGM/PPM images from files

```
from tkinter import *

canvas_width = 300
canvas_height = 300

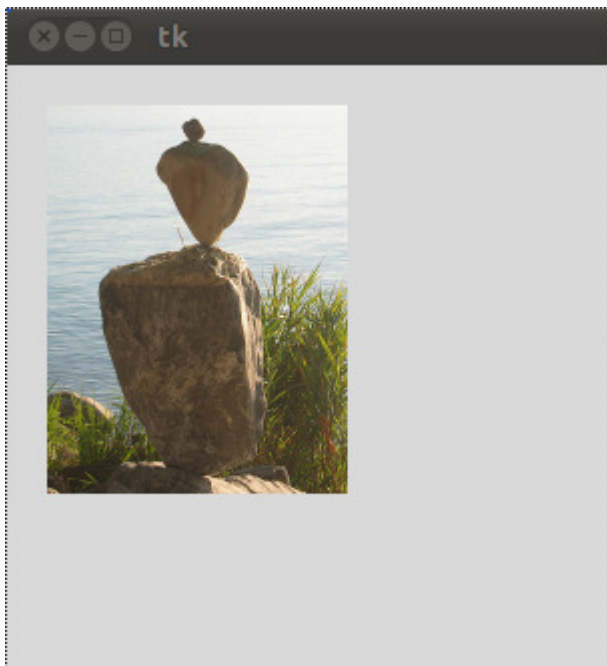
master = Tk()

canvas = Canvas(master,
                 width=canvas_width,
                 height=canvas_height)
canvas.pack()

img = PhotoImage(file="rocks.ppm")
canvas.create_image(20,20, anchor=NW, image=img)

mainloop()
```

The window created by the previous Python script looks like this:





# PYTHON TKINTER CANVAS

[http://www.tutorialspoint.com/python/tk\\_canvas.htm](http://www.tutorialspoint.com/python/tk_canvas.htm)

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The Canvas is a rectangular area intended for drawing pictures or other complex layouts. You can place graphics, text, widgets or frames on a Canvas.

## Syntax:

Here is the simple syntax to create this widget:

```
w = Canvas ( master, option=value, ... )
```

## Parameters:

- **master:** This represents the parent window.
- **options:** Here is the list of most commonly used options for this widget. These options can be used as key-value pairs separated by commas.

Option	Description
bd	Border width in pixels. Default is 2.
bg	Normal background color.
confine	If true (the default), the canvas cannot be scrolled outside of the scrollregion.
cursor	Cursor used in the canvas like <i>arrow</i> , <i>circle</i> , <i>dot</i> etc.
height	Size of the canvas in the Y dimension.
highlightcolor	Color shown in the focus highlight.
relief	Relief specifies the type of the border. Some of the values are SUNKEN, RAISED, GROOVE, and RIDGE.
scrollregion	A tuple (w, n, e, s) that defines over how large an area the canvas can be scrolled, where w is the left side, n the top, e the right side, and s the bottom.
width	Size of the canvas in the X dimension.
xscrollincrement	If you set this option to some positive dimension, the canvas can be positioned only on multiples of that distance, and the value will be used for scrolling by scrolling units, such as when the user clicks on the arrows at the ends of a scrollbar.
xscrollcommand	If the canvas is scrollable, this attribute should be the .set() method of the horizontal scrollbar.
yscrollincrement	Works like xscrollincrement, but governs vertical movement.
yscrollcommand	If the canvas is scrollable, this attribute should be the .set() method of the vertical scrollbar.

The Canvas widget can support the following standard items:

**arc** . Creates an arc item, which can be a chord, a pieslice or a simple arc.

```
coord = 10, 50, 240, 210  
arc = canvas.create_arc(coord, start=0, extent=150, fill="blue")
```

**image** . Creates an image item, which can be an instance of either the `BitmapImage` or the `PhotoImage` classes.

```
filename = PhotoImage(file = "sunshine.gif")
image = canvas.create_image(50, 50, anchor=NE, image=filename)
```

**line** . Creates a line item.

```
line = canvas.create_line(x0, y0, x1, y1, ..., xn, yn, options)
```

**oval** . Creates a circle or an ellipse at the given coordinates. It takes two pairs of coordinates; the top left and bottom right corners of the bounding rectangle for the oval.

```
oval = canvas.create_oval(x0, y0, x1, y1, options)
```

**polygon** . Creates a polygon item that must have at least three vertices.

```
oval = canvas.create_polygon(x0, y0, x1, y1, ..., xn, yn, options)
```

## Example:

Try the following example yourself:

```
import Tkinter
import tkMessageBox

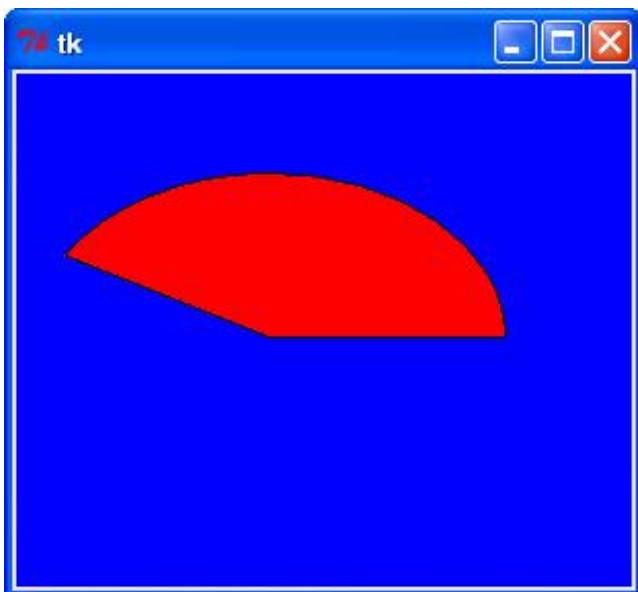
top = Tkinter.Tk()

C = Tkinter.Canvas(top, bg="blue", height=250, width=300)

coord = 10, 50, 240, 210
arc = C.create_arc(coord, start=0, extent=150, fill="red")

C.pack()
top.mainloop()
```

When the above code is executed, it produces the following result:



## **Console Output**

# PRINT

## INTRODUCTION

In principle, every computer program has to communicate with the environment or the "outside world". To this purpose nearly every programming language has special I/O functionalities, i.e. input/output. This ensures the interaction or communication with other components e.g. a data base or a user. Input often comes - as we have already seen - from the keyboard and the corresponding Python command or better the corresponding Python function for reading from the standard input is `input()`.

We have also seen in previous examples of our tutorial, that we can write into the standard output by using `print`. In this chapter of our tutorial we want to have a detailed look at the `print` function. As some might have skipped over it, we want to emphasize that we wrote "print function" and not "print statement". You can easily find out how crucial this difference is, if you take an arbitrary Python program written in version 2.x and if you try to let it run with a Python3 interpreter. In most cases you will receive error messages. One of the most frequently occurring errors will be related to `print`, because most programs contain prints. We can generate the most typical error in the interactive Python shell:

```
$ python3
Python 3.2.3 (default, Apr 10 2013, 05:03:36)
[GCC 4.7.2] on linux2
Type "help", "copyright", "credits" or "license"
for more information.
>>> print 42
      File "<stdin>", line 1
            print 42
              ^
SyntaxError: invalid syntax
>>>
```

This is a familiar error message for most of us: We have forgotten the parentheses. "print" is - as we have already mentioned - a function in version 3.x. Like any other function `print` expects its arguments to be surrounded by parentheses. So parentheses are an easy remedy for this error:

```
>>> print(42)
42
>>>
```

But this is not the only difference to the old `print`. The output behaviour has changed as well:

## PRINT FUNCTION

The arguments of the `print` function are the following ones:

```
print(value1, ..., sep=' ', end='\n', file=sys.stdout, flush=False)
```

The `print` function can print an arbitrary number of values ("value1, value2, ..."), which are separated by commas. In the following example we can see two `print` calls. We are printing two values in both cases, i.e. a string and a float number:



```
>>> print("a = ", a)
a = 3.564
>>> print("a = \n", a)
a =
3.564
>>>
```

We can learn from the second print of the example, that a blank between two values, i.e. "a = \textbackslash n" and "3.564", is always printed, even if the output is continued in the following line. This is different to Python 2, as there will be no blank printed, if a new line has been started. It's possible to redefine the separator between values by assigning an arbitrary string to the keyword parameter "sep", e.e. an empty string or a smiley:

```
>>> print("a", "b")
a b
>>> print("a", "b", sep="")
ab
>>> print(192, 168, 178, 42, sep=". ")
192.168.178.42
>>> print("a", "b", sep=":-) ")
a:-)b
>>>
```

A print call is ended by a newline, as we can see in the following usage:

```
>>> for i in range(4):
...     print(i)
...
0
1
2
3
>>>
```

To change this behaviour, we can assign an arbitrary string to the keyword parameter "end". This string will be used for ending the output of the values of a print call:

```
>>> for i in range(4):
...     print(i, end=" ")
...
0 1 2 3 >>>
>>> for i in range(4):
...     print(i, end=" :-) ")
...
0 :-) 1 :-) 2 :-) 3 :-) >>>
```

The output of the print function is sent to the standard output stream (sys.stdout) by default. By redefining the keyword parameter "file" we can send the output into a different stream e.g. sys.stderr or a file:

```
>>> fh = open("data.txt", "w")
>>> print("42 is the answer, but what is the question?", file=fh)
>>> fh.close()
>>>
```

We can see, that we don't get any output in the interactive shell. The output is sent to the file "data.txt". It's also possible to redirect the output to the standard error channel this way:

```
>>> import sys
>>> # output into sys.stderr:
...
>>> print("Error: 42", file=sys.stderr)
Error: 42
```

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