# Python for Image Processing

#### **BIMU3930**

Görüntü İşleme

gitlab.com/deshalb/bimu3930



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• Programming Languages

- Programming Languages
- Language Processors

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- Programming Paradigms

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- The Static/Dynamic Distinction

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- Static Type Checking
- Dynamic Type Checking
- Strong and Weak Type Systems

• Python

• Python

O 2 or 3

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Before a program can be run, it first must be translated into a form in which it can be executed by a computer.

The software systems that do this translation are called **compilers**.

A compiler is a program that can read a program in one language and translate it into an equivalent program in another language.

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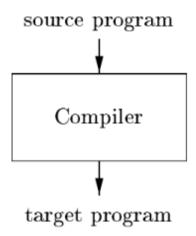


Figure 1.1: A compiler

If the target program is an executable machine-language program, it can then be called by the user to process inputs and produce outputs.

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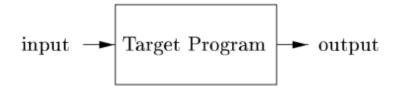


Figure 1.2: Running the target program

An interpreter is another common kind of language processor.

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Instead of producing a target program as a translation, an interpreter appears to directly execute the operations specified in the source program on inputs supplied by the user.

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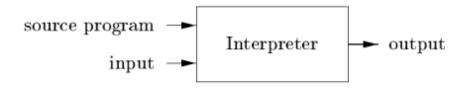


Figure 1.3: An interpreter

The machine-language target program produced by a compiler is usually much faster than an interpreter at mapping inputs to outputs.

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Python is an interpreted, high-level, general-purpose programming language.

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- Logic (Prolog, Datalog)



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Object-oriented



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- Imperative



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- Imperative
- Functional

## The Static/Dynamic Distinction

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On the other hand, a policy that only allows a decision to be made when we execute the program is said to be a dynamic policy or to require a decision at run time.

Python is a **dynamically-typed** language.

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Static typing usually results in compiled code that executes faster.

Statically typed languages that lack type inference require that programmers declare the types that a method or function must use.



However, a language can be statically typed without requiring type declarations (examples include Haskell, Scala, OCaml), so explicit type declaration is not a necessary requirement for static typing in all languages.

# **Dynamic Type Checking**

Dynamic typing performs type checks mostly at run time.

#### Dynamic Type Checking

Dynamic typing performs type checks mostly at run time.

Dynamic typing may allow compilers to run faster and interpreters to dynamically load new code, because changes to source code in dynamically typed languages may result in less checking to perform and less code to revisit.



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For example if I can pass a string to the addition operator, in a weakly typed language it will automatically be interpreted as a number or cause an error if the contents of the string cannot be translated into a number.

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```
λ> "image processing" + 2019
<interactive>:1:1: error:
    • No instance for (Num [Char]) arising from a use of '+'
    • In the expression: "image processing" + 2019
    In an equation for 'it': it = "image processing" + 2019
```

Strong vs. weak typing is comparable to static vs. dynamic typing.

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In a statically typed language, type checking is performed at compile time; in a dynamically typed language type checking is performed at run time.

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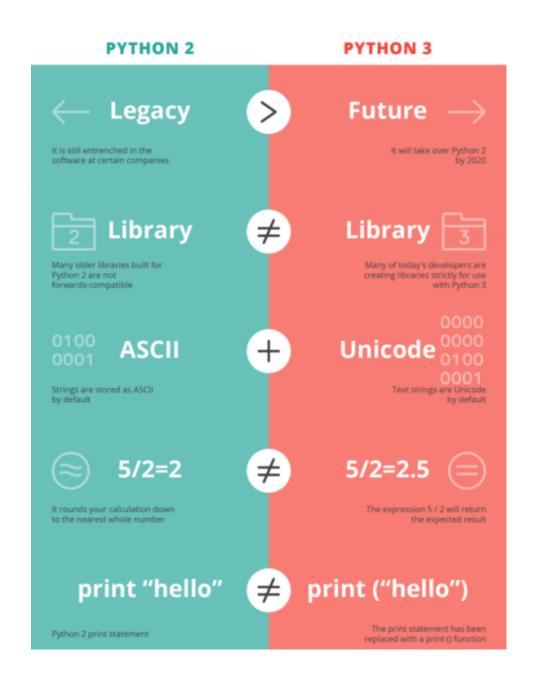
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In practice, weakly typed languages are usually dynamically typed.

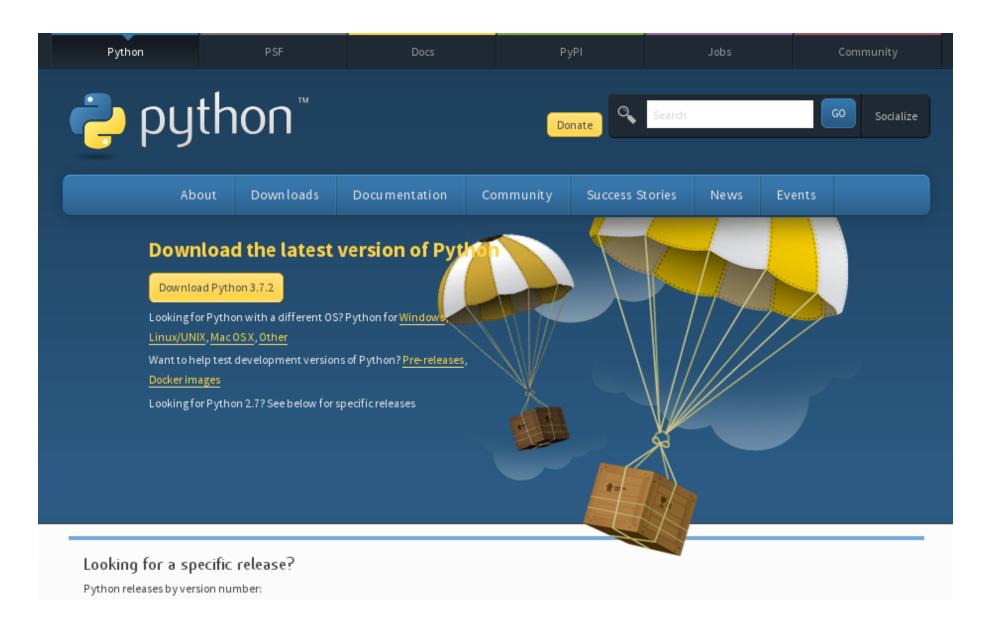
#### Back to Python

```
Use Python for...
                                                    >>> More
Web Development: Django , Pyramid , Bottle , Tornado , Flask ,
web2py
GUI Development: tkInter, PyGObject, PyQt, PySide, Kivy,
wxPython
Scientific and Numeric: SciPy , Pandas , IPython
Software Development: Buildbot , Trac , Roundup
System Administration: Ansible , Salt , OpenStack
```

#### 2 or 3?



## **Download Python**



#### Interpreter

#### trinket.io/python3

```
deshalb@foundation:~$ python3.5
Python 3.5.3 (default, Sep 27 2018, 17:25:39)
[GCC 6.3.0 20170516] on linux
Type "help", "copyright", "credits" or "license" for more information.
>>> [
```

(https://packaging.python.org/tutorials/installing-packages)

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Download **get-pip.py** -> https://bootstrap.pypa.io/get-pip.py

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Run python get-pip.py. This will install or upgrade pip.

Additionally, it will install setuptools and wheel if they're not installed already.

#### Whetting Your Appetite

```
1 # Python 3: Fibonacci series up to n
2 def fib(n):
3     a, b = 0, 1
4     while a < n:
5         print(a, end=' ')
6         a, b = b, a+b
7     print()
8
9 fib(1000)</pre>
```

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8
9 fib(1000)

deshalb@foundation:~/slides/sources$ python3.5 fib.py
0 1 1 2 3 5 8 13 21 34 55 89 144 233 377 610 987</pre>
```

# An Informal Introduction to Python

Python documentation is your friend.

(docs.python.org/3)

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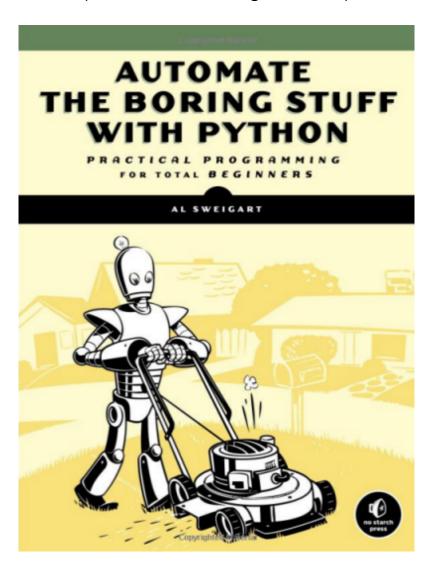
**Additional Resources** 

stanfordpython.com

## An Informal Introduction to Python

Automate the Boring Stuff with Python Programming

(automatetheboringstuff.com)



**Numbers** 

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Expression syntax is straightforward: The operators +, -, \* and / work just like in most other languages; parentheses (()) can be used for grouping.

```
>>> 2 + 2
4
>>> 50 - 5*6
20
>>> (50 - 5*6) / 4
5.0
>>> 8 / 5 # division always returns a floating point number
1.6
```

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5.0
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```

The integer numbers (2, 4, 20) have type int, the ones with a fractional part (5.0, 1.6) have type float.

You can use type() to check the types of your expressions.

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```
deshalb@foundation:~/slides/sources$ python3.5
Python 3.5.3 (default, Sep 27 2018, 17:25:39)
[GCC 6.3.0 20170516] on linux
Type "help", "copyright", "credits" or "license" for more information.
>>> type(2019)
<class 'int'>
>>> type(2019.0)
<class 'float'>
>>> type("image processing")
<class 'str'>
```

Division (/) always returns a float.

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To do floor division and get an integer result (discarding any fractional result) you can use the // operator

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To calculate the remainder you can use %.

```
>>> 17 / 3 # classic division returns a float
5.6666666666667
>>> 17 // 3 # floor division discards the fractional part
5
>>> 17 % 3 # the % operator returns the remainder of the division
2
>>> 5 * 3 + 2 # result * divisor + remainder
17
```

With Python, it is possible to use the \*\* operator to calculate powers.

```
>>> 5 ** 2 # 5 squared
25
>>> 2 ** 7 # 2 to the power of 7
128
```

The equal sign (=) is used to assign a value to a variable.

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Afterwards, no result is displayed before the next interactive prompt.

```
>>> width = 20
>>> height = 5 * 9
>>> width * height
900
```

If a variable is not "defined" (assigned a value), trying to use it will give you an error.

```
>>> n # try to access an undefined variable
Traceback (most recent call last):
File "<stdin>", line 1, in <module>
NameError: name 'n' is not defined
```

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

There is full support for floating point; operators with mixed type operands convert the integer operand to floating point

```
>>> 4 * 3.75 - 1
14.0
```

In interactive mode, the last printed expression is assigned to the variable \_.

In interactive mode, the last printed expression is assigned to the variable \_.

This means that when you are using Python as a desk calculator, it is somewhat easier to continue calculations, for example:

```
>>> tax = 12.5 / 100

>>> price = 100.50

>>> price * tax

12.5625

>>> price + _

113.0625

>>> round(_, 2)

113.06
```

**Strings** 

### **Strings**

Besides numbers, Python can also manipulate strings, which can be expressed in several ways.

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Besides numbers, Python can also manipulate strings, which can be expressed in several ways.

They can be enclosed in single quotes ('...') or double quotes ("...") with the same result. \ can be used to escape quotes.

```
>>> 'spam eggs' # single quotes
'spam eggs'
>>> 'doesn\'t' # use \' to escape the single quote...
"doesn't"
>>> "doesn't" # ...or use double quotes instead
"doesn't"
>>> '"Yes," they said.'
'"Yes," they said.'
'"Yes," they said.'
'"Yes," they said.'
'"Isn\'t," they said.'
'"Isn\'t," they said.'
```

Strings can be concatenated (glued together) with the + operator, and repeated with \*:

```
>>> # 3 times 'un', followed by 'ium'
>>> 3 * 'un' + 'ium'
'unununium'
```

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>>> # 3 times 'un', followed by 'ium'
>>> 3 * 'un' + 'ium'
'unununium'
```

If you want to concatenate variables or a variable and a literal, use +:

```
>>> prefix + 'thon'
'Python'
```

Strings can be indexed (subscripted), with the first character having index 0.

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There is no separate character type; a character is simply a string of size one.

```
>>> word = 'Python'
>>> word[0] # character in position 0
'p'
>>> word[5] # character in position 5
'n'

>>> word[-1] # last character
'n'
>>> word[-2] # second-last character
'o'
>>> word[-6]
'p'
```

In addition to indexing, slicing is also supported.

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While indexing is used to obtain individual characters, slicing allows you to obtain substring.

```
>>> word[0:2] # characters from position 0 (included) to 2 (excluded)
'Py'
>>> word[2:5] # characters from position 2 (included) to 5 (excluded)
'tho'
```

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'tho'
```

Note how the start is always included, and the end always excluded.

This makes sure that s[:i] + s[i:] is always equal to s:

```
>>> word[:2] + word[2:]
'Python'
>>> word[:4] + word[4:]
'Python'
```

Attempting to use an index that is too large will result in an error.

```
>>> word[42] # the word only has 6 characters

Traceback (most recent call last):
   File "<stdin>", line 1, in <module>
   IndexError: string index out of range
```

Attempting to use an index that is too large will result in an error.

```
>>> word[42] # the word only has 6 characters

Traceback (most recent call last):
File "<stdin>", line 1, in <module>
IndexError: string index out of range
```

However, out of range slice indexes are handled gracefully when used for slicing.

```
>>> word[4:42]
'on'
>>> word[42:]
```

Python strings cannot be changed — they are immutable.

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Therefore, assigning to an indexed position in the string results in an error.

```
>>> word[0] = 'J'
Traceback (most recent call last):
   File "<stdin>", line 1, in <module>
TypeError: 'str' object does not support item assignment
>>> word[2:] = 'py'
Traceback (most recent call last):
   File "<stdin>", line 1, in <module>
TypeError: 'str' object does not support item assignment
```

If you need a different string, you should create a new one.

```
>>> 'J' + word[1:]
'Jython'
>>> word[:2] + 'py'
'Pypy'
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```
>>> 'J' + word[1:]
'Jython'
>>> word[:2] + 'py'
'Pypy'
```

The built-in function len() returns the length of a string.

```
>>> s = 'supercalifragilisticexpialidocious'
>>> len(s)
34
```

#### Lists

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The most versatile is the list, which can be written as a list of comma-separated values 1 between square brackets.

Lists might contain items of different types, but usually the items all have the same type.

```
>>> squares = [1, 4, 9, 16, 25]
>>> squares
[1, 4, 9, 16, 25]
```

Like strings (and all other built-in sequence type), lists can be indexed and sliced.

```
>>> squares[0] # indexing returns the item

1
>>> squares[-1]
25
>>> squares[-3:] # slicing returns a new list
[9, 16, 25]
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All slice operations return a new list containing the requested elements.

Lists also support operations like concatenation.

```
>>> squares + [36, 49, 64, 81, 100]
[1, 4, 9, 16, 25, 36, 49, 64, 81, 100]
```

Unlike strings, which are immutable, lists are a mutable type. (It is possible to change their content after they've been declared)

```
>>> cubes = [1, 8, 27, 65, 125] # something's wrong here

>>> 4 ** 3 # the cube of 4 is 64, not 65!

64

>>> cubes[3] = 64 # replace the wrong value

>>> cubes

[1, 8, 27, 64, 125]
```

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```
>>> cubes = [1, 8, 27, 65, 125] # something's wrong here
>>> 4 ** 3 # the cube of 4 is 64, not 65!
64
>>> cubes[3] = 64 # replace the wrong value
>>> cubes
[1, 8, 27, 64, 125]
```

You can also add new items at the end of the list, by using the append() method.

```
>>> cubes.append(216) # add the cube of 6
>>> cubes.append(7 ** 3) # and the cube of 7
>>> cubes
[1, 8, 27, 64, 125, 216, 343]
```

Assignment to slices is also possible, and this can even change the size of the list or clear it entirely.

```
>>> letters = ['a', 'b', 'c', 'd', 'e', 'f', 'g']
>>> letters
['a', 'b', 'c', 'd', 'e', 'f', 'g']
>>> # replace some values
>>> letters[2:5] = ['C', 'D', 'E']
>>> letters
['a', 'b', 'C', 'D', 'E', 'f', 'g']
>>> # now remove them
>>> letters[2:5] = []
>>> letters
['a', 'b', 'f', 'g']
>>> # clear the list by replacing all the elements with an empty list
>>> letters[:] = []
>>> letters
[]
```

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['a', 'b', 'f', 'g']
>>> # clear the list by replacing all the elements with an empty list
>>> letters[:] = []
>>> letters
[]
```

The built-in function len() also applies to lists.

```
>>> letters = ['a', 'b', 'c', 'd']
>>> len(letters)
4
```

It is possible to nest lists (create lists containing other lists), for example:

```
>>> a = ['a', 'b', 'c']
>>> n = [1, 2, 3]
>>> x = [a, n]
>>> x
[['a', 'b', 'c'], [1, 2, 3]]
>>> x[0]
['a', 'b', 'c']
>>> x[0][1]
'b'
```

**if Statements** 

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There can be zero or more elif parts, and the else part is optional.

The keyword 'elif' is short for 'else if', and is useful to avoid excessive indentation.

An if ... elif ... sequence is a substitute for the switch or case statements found in other languages.

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Example: case in Haskell

```
mbGetBalance :: State Profile (Maybe Int)
mbGetBalance = State $ \t@(Profile email _ balance) ->
   case email of
   Just _ -> (Just balance, t)
   Nothing -> (Nothing, t)
```

for Statements

#### for Statements

The for statement in Python differs a bit from what you may be used to in other mainstream languages.

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The for statement in Python differs a bit from what you may be used to in other mainstream languages.

Rather than giving the user the ability to define both the iteration step and halting condition (as C), Python's for statement iterates over the items of any sequence (a list or a string), in the order that they appear in the sequence.

```
>>> # Measure some strings:
... words = ['cat', 'window', 'defenestrate']
>>> for w in words:
... print(w, len(w))
...
cat 3
window 6
defenestrate 12
```

If you need to modify the sequence you are iterating over while inside the loop, it is recommended that you first make a copy.

If you need to modify the sequence you are iterating over while inside the loop, it is recommended that you first make a copy.

Iterating over a sequence does not implicitly make a copy. The slice notation makes this especially convenient.

```
>>> for w in words[:]: # Loop over a slice copy of the entire list.
... if len(w) > 6:
... words.insert(0, w)
...
>>> words
['defenestrate', 'cat', 'window', 'defenestrate']
```

The range() Function

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If you do need to iterate over a sequence of numbers, the built-in function range() comes in handy.

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It generates arithmetic progressions.

```
>>> for i in range(5):
... print(i)
...
0
1
2
3
4
```

#### The range() Function

If you do need to iterate over a sequence of numbers, the built-in function range() comes in handy.

It generates arithmetic progressions.

```
>>> for i in range(5):
... print(i)
0
1
2
3
4
```

It's also possible to give start, end and step values.

```
range(5, 10)
5, 6, 7, 8, 9

range(0, 10, 3)
0, 3, 6, 9

range(-10, -100, -30)
-10, -40, -70
```

To iterate over the indices of a sequence, you can combine range() and len() as follows:

```
>>> a = ['Mary', 'had', 'a', 'little', 'lamb']
>>> for i in range(len(a)):
... print(i, a[i])
...
0 Mary
1 had
2 a
3 little
4 lamb
```

To iterate over the indices of a sequence, you can combine range() and len() as follows:

```
>>> a = ['Mary', 'had', 'a', 'little', 'lamb']
>>> for i in range(len(a)):
... print(i, a[i])
...
0 Mary
1 had
2 a
3 little
4 lamb
```

In most such cases, however, it is convenient to use the enumerate() function.

#### enumerate(iterable, start=0)

Return an enumerate object. *iterable* must be a sequence, an iterator, or some other object which supports iteration. The \_\_next\_\_() method of the iterator returned by enumerate() returns a tuple containing a count (from *start* which defaults to 0) and the values obtained from iterating over *iterable*.

```
>>> seasons = ['Spring', 'Summer', 'Fall', 'Winter']
>>> list(enumerate(seasons))
[(0, 'Spring'), (1, 'Summer'), (2, 'Fall'), (3, 'Winter')]
>>> list(enumerate(seasons, start=1))
[(1, 'Spring'), (2, 'Summer'), (3, 'Fall'), (4, 'Winter')]
```

Equivalent to:

```
def enumerate(sequence, start=0):
    n = start
    for elem in sequence:
        yield n, elem
        n += 1
```

A strange thing happens if you just print a range:

```
>>> print(range(10)) range(0, 10)
```

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Though the same line in Python 2.x would return:

```
deshalb@foundation:~$ python2.7
Python 2.7.13 (default, Sep 26 2018, 18:42:22)
[GCC 6.3.0 20170516] on linux2
Type "help", "copyright", "credits" or "license" for more information.
>>> print(range(10))
[0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9]
```

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That's because in many ways the object returned by range() in Python 3.x behaves as if it is a list, but in fact it isn't.

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[0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9]
```

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That's because in many ways the object returned by range() in Python 3.x behaves as if it is a list, but in fact it isn't.

It is an object which returns the successive items of the desired sequence when you iterate over it, but it doesn't really make the list, thus saving space.

We say such an object is iterable, that is, suitable as a target for functions and constructs that expect something from which they can obtain successive items until the supply is exhausted.

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```
>>> list(range(5))
[0, 1, 2, 3, 4]
```

xrange in Python 2.x behaves in a similar way range in Python 3.x does.

# fork(Laziness)

break and continue Statements and else on Loops

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Loop statements may also have an else clause.

The continue statement, also borrowed from C, continues with the next iteration of the loop.

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```
>>> for num in range(2, 10):
... if num % 2 == 0:
... print("Found an even number", num)
... continue
... print("Found a number", num)
Found an even number 2
Found a number 3
Found an even number 4
Found a number 5
Found an even number 6
Found a number 7
Found an even number 8
Found a number 9
```

pass Statements

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```
>>> while True:
... pass # Busy-wait for keyboard interrupt (Ctrl+C)

>>> class MyEmptyClass:
... pass
...

>>> def initlog(*args):
... pass # Remember to implement this!
```

The keyword **def** introduces a function definition.

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It must be followed by the function name and the parenthesized list of formal parameters.

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It must be followed by the function name and the parenthesized list of formal parameters.

The statements that form the body of the function start at the next line, and must be indented.

```
>>> def fib(n):  # write Fibonacci series up to n
    """Print a Fibonacci series up to n."""
    a, b = 0, 1
    while a < n:
        print(a, end=' ')
        a, b = b, a+b
    print()

>>> # Now call the function we just defined:
    fib(2000)
0 1 1 2 3 5 8 13 21 34 55 89 144 233 377 610 987 1597
```

Coming from other languages, you might object that fib is not a function but a procedure since it doesn't return a value.

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This value is called **None** (it's a built-in name).

Coming from other languages, you might object that fib is not a function but a procedure since it doesn't return a value.

In fact, even functions without a return statement do return a value, albeit a rather boring one.

This value is called **None** (it's a built-in name).

```
>>> fib(0)
>>> print(fib(0))
None
```

It is simple to write a function that returns a list of the numbers of the Fibonacci series, instead of printing it.

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```
>>> def fib2(n): # return Fibonacci series up to n

"""Return a list containing the Fibonacci series up to n."""

result = []

a, b = 0, 1

while a < n:

result.append(a) # see below

a, b = b, a+b

return result

>>> f100 = fib2(100) # call it

>>> f100 # write the result

[0, 1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 13, 21, 34, 55, 89]
```

**Default Argument Values** 

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```
def ask_ok(prompt, retries=4, reminder='Please try again!'):
    while True:
        ok = input(prompt)
        if ok in ('y', 'ye', 'yes'):
            return True
        if ok in ('n', 'no', 'nop', 'nope'):
            return False
        retries = retries - 1
        if retries < 0:
            raise ValueError('invalid user response')
        print(reminder)</pre>
```

#### **Keyword Arguments**

Functions can also be called using keyword arguments of the form kwarg=value.

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```
def parrot(voltage, state='a stiff', action='voom', type='Norwegian Blue'):
    print("-- This parrot wouldn't", action, end=' ')
    print("if you put", voltage, "volts through it.")
    print("-- Lovely plumage, the", type)
    print("-- It's", state, "!")
```

```
parrot(1000) # 1 positional argument
parrot(voltage=1000) # 1 keyword argument
parrot(voltage=1000000, action='V00000M') # 2 keyword arguments
parrot(action='V00000M', voltage=1000000) # 2 keyword arguments
parrot('a million', 'bereft of life', 'jump') # 3 positional arguments
parrot('a thousand', state='pushing up the daisies') # 1 positional, 1 keyword
```

```
parrot() # required argument missing
parrot(voltage=5.0, 'dead') # non-keyword argument after a keyword argument
parrot(110, voltage=220) # duplicate value for the same argument
parrot(actor='John Cleese') # unknown keyword argument
```

When a final formal parameter of the form \*\*name is present, it receives a dictionary containing all keyword arguments.

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This may be combined with a formal parameter of the form \*name which receives a tuple containing the positional arguments beyond the formal parameter list.

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```
def cheeseshop(kind, *arguments, **keywords):
    print("-- Do you have any", kind, "?")
    print("-- I'm sorry, we're all out of", kind)
    for arg in arguments:
        print(arg)
    print("-" * 40)
    for kw in keywords:
        print(kw, ":", keywords[kw])
```

```
cheeseshop("Limburger", "It's very runny, sir.",
    "It's really very, VERY runny, sir.",
    shopkeeper="Michael Palin",
    client="John Cleese",
    sketch="Cheese Shop Sketch")
```

**Lambda Expressions** 

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Semantically, they are just syntactic sugar for a normal function definition.

# **Defining Functions**

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Semantically, they are just syntactic sugar for a normal function definition.

```
>>> pairs = [(1, 'one'), (2, 'two'), (3, 'three'), (4, 'four')]
>>> pairs.sort(key=lambda pair: pair[1])
>>> pairs
[(4, 'four'), (1, 'one'), (3, 'three'), (2, 'two')]
```

• Use 4-space indentation, and no tabs.

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- Wrap lines so that they don't exceed 79 characters.

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- When possible, put comments on a line of their own.
- Use spaces around operators and after commas, but not directly inside bracketing constructs: a = f(1, 2) + g(3, 4).

- list.append(x)
  - $^{\circ}$  Add an item to the end of the list.
  - Same as a[len(a):] = [x]

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  - $^{\circ}$  Same as a[len(a):] = iterable.
- list.insert(i, x)
  - O Insert an item at a given position.
  - $^{\circ}$  a.insert(0, x) inserts at the front of the list.
  - $^{\circ}$  a.insert(len(a), x) is equivalent to a.append(x)

- list.remove(x)
  - $^{\circ}$  Remove the first item from the list whose value is equal to x.
  - $^{\circ}$  It raises a ValueError if there is no such item.

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- list.pop([i])
  - O Remove the item at the given position in the list, and return it.
  - O If no index is specified, a.pop() removes and returns the last item in the list.

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- list.pop([i])
  - $^{\circ}$  Remove the item at the given position in the list, and return it.
  - O If no index is specified, a.pop() removes and returns the last item in the list.
- list.clear()
  - O Remove all items from the list. Equivalent to del a[:]

- list.count(x)
  - $^{\circ}$  Return the number of times x appears in the list.

- list.count(x)
  - $^{\circ}$  Return the number of times x appears in the list.
- list.sort(key=None, reverse=False)
  - $\ensuremath{\,^{\bigcirc}}$  Sort the items of the list in place.

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  - $^{\circ}$  Sort the items of the list in place.
- list.reverse()
  - $^{\mbox{\scriptsize O}}$  Reverse the elements of the list in place.
- list.copy()
  - O Return a shallow copy of the list.
  - Same as a[:]

An example that uses most of the list methods:

```
>>> fruits = ['orange', 'apple', 'pear', 'banana', 'kiwi', 'apple', 'banana']
>>> fruits.count('apple')
>>> fruits.count('tangerine')
>>> fruits.index('banana')
>>> fruits.index('banana', 4) # Find next banana starting a position 4
>>> fruits.reverse()
>>> fruits
['banana', 'apple', 'kiwi', 'banana', 'pear', 'apple', 'orange']
>>> fruits.append('grape')
>>> fruits
['banana', 'apple', 'kiwi', 'banana', 'pear', 'apple', 'orange', 'grape']
>>> fruits.sort()
>>> fruits
['apple', 'apple', 'banana', 'banana', 'grape', 'kiwi', 'orange', 'pear']
>>> fruits.pop()
'pear'
```

### **Using Lists as Stacks**

The list methods make it very easy to use a list as a stack, where the last element added is the first element retrieved ("last-in, first-out").

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#### **Using Lists as Stacks**

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To add an item to the top of the stack, use append().

To retrieve an item from the top of the stack, use pop() without an explicit index.

```
>>> stack = [3, 4, 5]
>>> stack.append(6)
>>> stack.append(7)
>>> stack
[3, 4, 5, 6, 7]
>>> stack.pop()
7
>>> stack
[3, 4, 5, 6]
>>> stack.pop()
6
>>> stack.pop()
5
>>> stack
[3, 4]
```

**Using Lists as Queues** 

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To implement a queue, use collections.deque which was designed to have fast appends and pops from both ends.

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**List Comprehensions** 

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List comprehensions provide a concise way to create lists.

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```
>>> squares = []
>>> for x in range(10):
... squares.append(x**2)
...
>>> squares
[0, 1, 4, 9, 16, 25, 36, 49, 64, 81]
```

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Note that this creates (or overwrites) a variable named x that still exists after the loop completes.

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>>> for x in range(10):
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...
>>> squares
[0, 1, 4, 9, 16, 25, 36, 49, 64, 81]
```

Note that this creates (or overwrites) a variable named x that still exists after the loop completes.

We can calculate the list of squares without any side effects using:

```
squares = list(map(lambda x: x**2, range(10)))

or, equivalently:

squares = [x**2 for x in range(10)]
```

#### Another example:

```
>>> [(x, y) for x in [1,2,3] for y in [3,1,4] if x != y]
[(1, 3), (1, 4), (2, 3), (2, 1), (2, 4), (3, 1), (3, 4)]

and it's equivalent to:

>>> combs = []
>>> for x in [1,2,3]:
... for y in [3,1,4]:
... if x != y:
... combs.append((x, y))
...
>>> combs
[(1, 3), (1, 4), (2, 3), (2, 1), (2, 4), (3, 1), (3, 4)]
```

**Nested List Comprehensions** 

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The initial expression in a list comprehension can be any arbitrary expression, including another list comprehension.

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Consider the following example of a 3x4 matrix implemented as a list of 3 lists of length 4:

```
>>> matrix = [
... [1, 2, 3, 4],
... [5, 6, 7, 8],
... [9, 10, 11, 12],
... ]
```

The following list comprehension will transpose rows and columns:

```
>>> [[row[i] for row in matrix] for i in range(4)]
[[1, 5, 9], [2, 6, 10], [3, 7, 11], [4, 8, 12]]
```

As we saw in the previous section, the nested listcomp is evaluated in the context of the for that follows it, so this example is equivalent to:

```
>>> transposed = []
>>> for i in range(4):
... transposed.append([row[i] for row in matrix])
...
>>> transposed
[[1, 5, 9], [2, 6, 10], [3, 7, 11], [4, 8, 12]]
```

which, in turn, is the same as:

```
>>> transposed = []
>>> for i in range(4):
... # the following 3 lines implement the nested listcomp
... transposed_row = []
... for row in matrix:
... transposed_row.append(row[i])
... transposed_append(transposed_row)
>>> transposed
[[1, 5, 9], [2, 6, 10], [3, 7, 11], [4, 8, 12]]
```

The del statement

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```
>>> a = [-1, 1, 66.25, 333, 333, 1234.5]
>>> del a[0]
>>> a
[1, 66.25, 333, 333, 1234.5]
>>> del a[2:4]
>>> a
[1, 66.25, 1234.5]
>>> del a[:]
>>> a
[]
```

**Tuples and Sequences** 

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There is also another standard sequence data type: the tuple.

A tuple consists of a number of values separated by commas, for instance:

```
>>> t = 12345, 54321, 'hello!'
>>> t[0]
12345
>>> t
(12345, 54321, 'hello!')
>>> # Tuples may be nested:
u = t, (1, 2, 3, 4, 5)
>>> U
((12345, 54321, 'hello!'), (1, 2, 3, 4, 5))
>>> # Tuples are immutable:
... t[0] = 88888
Traceback (most recent call last):
 File "<stdin>", line 1, in <module>
TypeError: 'tuple' object does not support item assignment
>>> # but they can contain mutable objects:
v = ([1, 2, 3], [3, 2, 1])
([1, 2, 3], [3, 2, 1])
```

Though tuples may seem similar to lists, they are often used in different situations and for different purposes.

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Tuples are immutable, and usually contain a heterogeneous sequence of elements.

Lists are mutable, and their elements are usually homogeneous.

# Mutable or Immutable

Class	Description	Immutable?
bool	Boolean value	✓
int	integer (arbitrary magnitude)	✓
float	floating-point number	✓
list	mutable sequence of objects	
tuple	immutable sequence of objects	✓
str	character string	<b>✓</b>
set	unordered set of distinct objects	
frozenset	immutable form of set class	<b>√</b>
dict	associative mapping (aka dictionary)	

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Empty tuples are constructed by an empty pair of parentheses; a tuple with one item is constructed by following a value with a comma.

```
>>> empty = ()
>>> singleton = 'hello', # <-- note trailing comma
>>> len(empty)
0
>>> len(singleton)
1
>>> singleton
('hello',)
```

Sets

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Set objects also support mathematical operations like union, intersection, difference, and symmetric difference.

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```
>>> basket = {'apple', 'orange', 'apple', 'pear', 'orange', 'banana'}
>>> print(basket)
                                      # show that duplicates have been removed
{'orange', 'banana', 'pear', 'apple'}
                                     # fast membership testing
>>> 'orange' in basket
True
>>> 'crabgrass' in basket
False
>>> # Demonstrate set operations on unique letters from two words
>>> a = set('abracadabra')
>>> b = set('alacazam')
                                      # unique letters in a
>>> a
{'a', 'r', 'b', 'c', 'd'}
>>> a - b
                                      # letters in a but not in b
{'r', 'd', 'b'}
                                      # letters in a or b or both
{'a', 'c', 'r', 'd', 'b', 'm', 'z', 'l'}
>>> a & b
                                      # letters in both a and b
{'a', 'c'}
>>> a ^ b
                                      # letters in a or b but not both
{'r', 'd', 'b', 'm', 'z', 'l'}
```

Similarly to list comprehensions, set comprehensions are also supported:

```
>>> a = {x for x in 'abracadabra' if x not in 'abc'}
>>> a
{'r', 'd'}
```

**Dictionaries** 

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Tuples can be used as keys if they contain only strings, numbers, or tuples; if a tuple contains any mutable object either directly or indirectly, it cannot be used as a key.

You can't use lists as keys, since lists can be modified in place using index assignments, slice assignments, or methods like append() and extend().

It is best to think of a dictionary as a set of key: value pairs, with the requirement that the keys are unique (within one dictionary).

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A pair of braces creates an empty dictionary: {}.

```
>>> tel = {'jack': 4098, 'sape': 4139}
>>> tel['guido'] = 4127
>>> tel
{'jack': 4098, 'sape': 4139, 'guido': 4127}
>>> tel['jack']
4098
>>> del tel['sape']
>>> tel['irv'] = 4127
>>> tel
{'jack': 4098, 'guido': 4127, 'irv': 4127}
>>> list(tel)
['jack', 'guido', 'irv']
>>> sorted(tel)
['guido', 'irv', 'jack']
>>> 'guido' in tel
>>> 'jack' not in tel
False
```

The dict() constructor builds dictionaries directly from sequences of key-value pairs:

```
>>> dict([('sape', 4139), ('guido', 4127), ('jack', 4098)])
{'sape': 4139, 'guido': 4127, 'jack': 4098}
```

In addition, dict comprehensions can be used to create dictionaries from arbitrary key and value expressions:

```
>>> {x: x***2 for x in (2, 4, 6)} {2: 4, 4: 16, 6: 36}
```

When the keys are simple strings, it is sometimes easier to specify pairs using keyword arguments:

```
>>> dict(sape=4139, guido=4127, jack=4098)
{'sape': 4139, 'guido': 4127, 'jack': 4098}
```

**Looping Techniques** 

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```
>>> knights = {'gallahad': 'the pure', 'robin': 'the brave'}
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... print(k, v)
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gallahad the pure
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```

When looping through a sequence, the position index and corresponding value can be retrieved at the same time using the enumerate() function.

```
>>> for i, v in enumerate(['tic', 'tac', 'toe']):
... print(i, v)
...
0 tic
1 tac
2 toe
```

To loop over a sequence in reverse, first specify the sequence in a forward direction and then call the reversed() function.

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>>> for i in reversed(range(1, 10, 2)):
... print(i)
...
9
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3
1
```

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This is known as creating a script.

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For instance, use your favorite text editor to create a file called fibo.py in the current directory with the following contents:

```
# Fibonacci numbers module

def fib(n):  # write Fibonacci series up to n
    a, b = 0, 1
    while a < n:
        print(a, end=' ')
        a, b = b, a+b
    print()

def fib2(n):  # return Fibonacci series up to n
    result = []
    a, b = 0, 1
    while a < n:
        result.append(a)
        a, b = b, a+b
    return result</pre>
```

Now enter the Python interpreter and import this module with the following command:

```
>>> import fibo
```

This does not enter the names of the functions defined in fibo directly in the current symbol table; it only enters the module name fibo there. Using the module name you can access the functions:

```
>>> fibo.fib(1000)
0 1 1 2 3 5 8 13 21 34 55 89 144 233 377 610 987
>>> fibo.fib2(100)
[0, 1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 13, 21, 34, 55, 89]
>>> fibo.__name__
'fibo'
```

If you intend to use a function often you can assign it to a local name:

```
>>> fib = fibo.fib
>>> fib(500)
0 1 1 2 3 5 8 13 21 34 55 89 144 233 377
```

# What isn't covered

- IO in detail
- Errors and Exceptions
- Classes