
Extending and Embedding Python

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Guido van Rossum
and the Python development team

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Python Software Foundation
Email: docs@python.org

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This document describes how to write modules in C or C++ to extend the Python interpreter with new modules. Those modules can not only define new functions but also new object types and their methods. The document also describes how to embed the Python interpreter in another application, for use as an extension language. Finally, it shows how to compile and link extension modules so that they can be loaded dynamically (at run time) into the interpreter, if the underlying operating system supports this feature.

This document assumes basic knowledge about Python. For an informal introduction to the language, see [tutorial-index](#). [reference-index](#) gives a more formal definition of the language. [library-index](#) documents the existing object types, functions and modules (both built-in and written in Python) that give the language its wide application range.

For a detailed description of the whole Python/C API, see the separate [c-api-index](#).

Recommended third party tools

This guide only covers the basic tools for creating extensions provided as part of this version of CPython. Third party tools like [Cython](#), [cffi](#), [SWIG](#) and [Numba](#) offer both simpler and more sophisticated approaches to creating C and C++ extensions for Python.

Ayrıca bkz.:

Python Packaging User Guide: Binary Extensions The Python Packaging User Guide not only covers several available tools that simplify the creation of binary extensions, but also discusses the various reasons why creating an extension module may be desirable in the first place.

Creating extensions without third party tools

This section of the guide covers creating C and C++ extensions without assistance from third party tools. It is intended primarily for creators of those tools, rather than being a recommended way to create your own C extensions.

2.1 Extending Python with C or C++

It is quite easy to add new built-in modules to Python, if you know how to program in C. Such *extension modules* can do two things that can't be done directly in Python: they can implement new built-in object types, and they can call C library functions and system calls.

To support extensions, the Python API (Application Programmers Interface) defines a set of functions, macros and variables that provide access to most aspects of the Python run-time system. The Python API is incorporated in a C source file by including the header `"Python.h"`.

The compilation of an extension module depends on its intended use as well as on your system setup; details are given in later chapters.

Not: The C extension interface is specific to CPython, and extension modules do not work on other Python implementations. In many cases, it is possible to avoid writing C extensions and preserve portability to other implementations. For example, if your use case is calling C library functions or system calls, you should consider using the `ctypes` module or the `cffi` library rather than writing custom C code. These modules let you write Python code to interface with C code and are more portable between implementations of Python than writing and compiling a C extension module.

2.1.1 A Simple Example

Let's create an extension module called `spam` (the favorite food of Monty Python fans...) and let's say we want to create a Python interface to the C library function `system()`¹. This function takes a null-terminated character string as argument and returns an integer. We want this function to be callable from Python as follows:

```
>>> import spam
>>> status = spam.system("ls -l")
```

Begin by creating a file `spammodule.c`. (Historically, if a module is called `spam`, the C file containing its implementation is called `spammodule.c`; if the module name is very long, like `spammify`, the module name can be just `spammify.c`.)

The first two lines of our file can be:

```
#define PY_SSIZE_T_CLEAN
#include <Python.h>
```

which pulls in the Python API (you can add a comment describing the purpose of the module and a copyright notice if you like).

Not: Since Python may define some pre-processor definitions which affect the standard headers on some systems, you *must* include `Python.h` before any standard headers are included.

It is recommended to always define `PY_SSIZE_T_CLEAN` before including `Python.h`. See [Extracting Parameters in Extension Functions](#) for a description of this macro.

All user-visible symbols defined by `Python.h` have a prefix of `Py` or `PY`, except those defined in standard header files. For convenience, and since they are used extensively by the Python interpreter, "`Python.h`" includes a few standard header files: `<stdio.h>`, `<string.h>`, `<errno.h>`, and `<stdlib.h>`. If the latter header file does not exist on your system, it declares the functions `malloc()`, `free()` and `realloc()` directly.

The next thing we add to our module file is the C function that will be called when the Python expression `spam.system(string)` is evaluated (we'll see shortly how it ends up being called):

```
static PyObject *
spam_system(PyObject *self, PyObject *args)
{
    const char *command;
    int sts;

    if (!PyArg_ParseTuple(args, "s", &command))
        return NULL;
    sts = system(command);
    return PyLong_FromLong(sts);
}
```

There is a straightforward translation from the argument list in Python (for example, the single expression `"ls -l"`) to the arguments passed to the C function. The C function always has two arguments, conventionally named *self* and *args*.

The *self* argument points to the module object for module-level functions; for a method it would point to the object instance.

The *args* argument will be a pointer to a Python tuple object containing the arguments. Each item of the tuple corresponds to an argument in the call's argument list. The arguments are Python objects — in order to do anything with them in our C function we have to convert them to C values. The function `PyArg_ParseTuple()` in the Python API checks the

¹ An interface for this function already exists in the standard module `os` — it was chosen as a simple and straightforward example.

argument types and converts them to C values. It uses a template string to determine the required types of the arguments as well as the types of the C variables into which to store the converted values. More about this later.

`PyArg_ParseTuple()` returns true (nonzero) if all arguments have the right type and its components have been stored in the variables whose addresses are passed. It returns false (zero) if an invalid argument list was passed. In the latter case it also raises an appropriate exception so the calling function can return `NULL` immediately (as we saw in the example).

2.1.2 Intermezzo: Errors and Exceptions

An important convention throughout the Python interpreter is the following: when a function fails, it should set an exception condition and return an error value (usually a `NULL` pointer). Exceptions are stored in a static global variable inside the interpreter; if this variable is `NULL` no exception has occurred. A second global variable stores the “associated value” of the exception (the second argument to `raise`). A third variable contains the stack traceback in case the error originated in Python code. These three variables are the C equivalents of the result in Python of `sys.exc_info()` (see the section on module `sys` in the Python Library Reference). It is important to know about them to understand how errors are passed around.

The Python API defines a number of functions to set various types of exceptions.

The most common one is `PyErr_SetString()`. Its arguments are an exception object and a C string. The exception object is usually a predefined object like `PyExc_ZeroDivisionError`. The C string indicates the cause of the error and is converted to a Python string object and stored as the “associated value” of the exception.

Another useful function is `PyErr_SetFromErrno()`, which only takes an exception argument and constructs the associated value by inspection of the global variable `errno`. The most general function is `PyErr_SetObject()`, which takes two object arguments, the exception and its associated value. You don’t need to `Py_INCREF()` the objects passed to any of these functions.

You can test non-destructively whether an exception has been set with `PyErr_Occurred()`. This returns the current exception object, or `NULL` if no exception has occurred. You normally don’t need to call `PyErr_Occurred()` to see whether an error occurred in a function call, since you should be able to tell from the return value.

When a function *f* that calls another function *g* detects that the latter fails, *f* should itself return an error value (usually `NULL` or `-1`). It should *not* call one of the `PyErr_*`() functions — one has already been called by *g*. *f*’s caller is then supposed to also return an error indication to *its* caller, again *without* calling `PyErr_*`(), and so on — the most detailed cause of the error was already reported by the function that first detected it. Once the error reaches the Python interpreter’s main loop, this aborts the currently executing Python code and tries to find an exception handler specified by the Python programmer.

(There are situations where a module can actually give a more detailed error message by calling another `PyErr_*`() function, and in such cases it is fine to do so. As a general rule, however, this is not necessary, and can cause information about the cause of the error to be lost: most operations can fail for a variety of reasons.)

To ignore an exception set by a function call that failed, the exception condition must be cleared explicitly by calling `PyErr_Clear()`. The only time C code should call `PyErr_Clear()` is if it doesn’t want to pass the error on to the interpreter but wants to handle it completely by itself (possibly by trying something else, or pretending nothing went wrong).

Every failing `malloc()` call must be turned into an exception — the direct caller of `malloc()` (or `realloc()`) must call `PyErr_NoMemory()` and return a failure indicator itself. All the object-creating functions (for example, `PyLong_FromLong()`) already do this, so this note is only relevant to those who call `malloc()` directly.

Also note that, with the important exception of `PyArg_ParseTuple()` and friends, functions that return an integer status usually return a positive value or zero for success and `-1` for failure, like Unix system calls.

Finally, be careful to clean up garbage (by making `Py_XDECREF()` or `Py_DECREF()` calls for objects you have already created) when you return an error indicator!

The choice of which exception to raise is entirely yours. There are predeclared C objects corresponding to all built-in Python exceptions, such as `PyExc_ZeroDivisionError`, which you can use directly. Of course, you should choose exceptions wisely — don't use `PyExc_TypeError` to mean that a file couldn't be opened (that should probably be `PyExc_IOError`). If something's wrong with the argument list, the `PyArg_ParseTuple()` function usually raises `PyExc_TypeError`. If you have an argument whose value must be in a particular range or must satisfy other conditions, `PyExc_ValueError` is appropriate.

You can also define a new exception that is unique to your module. For this, you usually declare a static object variable at the beginning of your file:

```
static PyObject *SpamError;
```

and initialize it in your module's initialization function (`PyInit_spam()`) with an exception object:

```
PyMODINIT_FUNC
PyInit_spam(void)
{
    PyObject *m;

    m = PyModule_Create(&spammodule);
    if (m == NULL)
        return NULL;

    SpamError = PyErr_NewException("spam.error", NULL, NULL);
    Py_XINCREF(SpamError);
    if (PyModule_AddObject(m, "error", SpamError) < 0) {
        Py_XDECREF(SpamError);
        Py_CLEAR(SpamError);
        Py_DECREF(m);
        return NULL;
    }

    return m;
}
```

Note that the Python name for the exception object is `spam.error`. The `PyErr_NewException()` function may create a class with the base class being `Exception` (unless another class is passed in instead of `NULL`), described in `bltin-exceptions`.

Note also that the `SpamError` variable retains a reference to the newly created exception class; this is intentional! Since the exception could be removed from the module by external code, an owned reference to the class is needed to ensure that it will not be discarded, causing `SpamError` to become a dangling pointer. Should it become a dangling pointer, C code which raises the exception could cause a core dump or other unintended side effects.

We discuss the use of `PyMODINIT_FUNC` as a function return type later in this sample.

The `spam.error` exception can be raised in your extension module using a call to `PyErr_SetString()` as shown below:

```
static PyObject *
spam_system(PyObject *self, PyObject *args)
{
    const char *command;
    int sts;

    if (!PyArg_ParseTuple(args, "s", &command))
        return NULL;
    sts = system(command);
```

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```

    if (sts < 0) {
        PyErr_SetString(SpamError, "System command failed");
        return NULL;
    }
    return PyLong_FromLong(sts);
}

```

2.1.3 Back to the Example

Going back to our example function, you should now be able to understand this statement:

```

if (!PyArg_ParseTuple(args, "s", &command))
    return NULL;

```

It returns `NULL` (the error indicator for functions returning object pointers) if an error is detected in the argument list, relying on the exception set by `PyArg_ParseTuple()`. Otherwise the string value of the argument has been copied to the local variable `command`. This is a pointer assignment and you are not supposed to modify the string to which it points (so in Standard C, the variable `command` should properly be declared as `const char *command`).

The next statement is a call to the Unix function `system()`, passing it the string we just got from `PyArg_ParseTuple()`:

```
sts = system(command);
```

Our `spam.system()` function must return the value of `sts` as a Python object. This is done using the function `PyLong_FromLong()`.

```
return PyLong_FromLong(sts);
```

In this case, it will return an integer object. (Yes, even integers are objects on the heap in Python!)

If you have a C function that returns no useful argument (a function returning `void`), the corresponding Python function must return `None`. You need this idiom to do so (which is implemented by the `Py_RETURN_NONE` macro):

```

Py_INCREF(Py_None);
return Py_None;

```

`Py_None` is the C name for the special Python object `None`. It is a genuine Python object rather than a `NULL` pointer, which means “error” in most contexts, as we have seen.

2.1.4 The Module’s Method Table and Initialization Function

I promised to show how `spam_system()` is called from Python programs. First, we need to list its name and address in a “method table”:

```

static PyMethodDef SpamMethods[] = {
    ...
    {"system", spam_system, METH_VARARGS,
     "Execute a shell command."},
    ...
    {NULL, NULL, 0, NULL} /* Sentinel */
};

```

Note the third entry (`METH_VARARGS`). This is a flag telling the interpreter the calling convention to be used for the C function. It should normally always be `METH_VARARGS` or `METH_VARARGS | METH_KEYWORDS`; a value of 0 means that an obsolete variant of `PyArg_ParseTuple()` is used.

When using only `METH_VARARGS`, the function should expect the Python-level parameters to be passed in as a tuple acceptable for parsing via `PyArg_ParseTuple()`; more information on this function is provided below.

The `METH_KEYWORDS` bit may be set in the third field if keyword arguments should be passed to the function. In this case, the C function should accept a third `PyObject *` parameter which will be a dictionary of keywords. Use `PyArg_ParseTupleAndKeywords()` to parse the arguments to such a function.

The method table must be referenced in the module definition structure:

```
static struct PyModuleDef spammodule = {
    PyModuleDef_HEAD_INIT,
    "spam",      /* name of module */
    spam_doc,    /* module documentation, may be NULL */
    -1,          /* size of per-interpreter state of the module,
                  or -1 if the module keeps state in global variables. */
    SpamMethods
};
```

This structure, in turn, must be passed to the interpreter in the module's initialization function. The initialization function must be named `PyInit_name()`, where *name* is the name of the module, and should be the only non-static item defined in the module file:

```
PyMODINIT_FUNC
PyInit_spam(void)
{
    return PyModule_Create(&spammodule);
}
```

Note that `PyMODINIT_FUNC` declares the function as `PyObject *` return type, declares any special linkage declarations required by the platform, and for C++ declares the function as `extern "C"`.

When the Python program imports module `spam` for the first time, `PyInit_spam()` is called. (See below for comments about embedding Python.) It calls `PyModule_Create()`, which returns a module object, and inserts built-in function objects into the newly created module based upon the table (an array of `PyMethodDef` structures) found in the module definition. `PyModule_Create()` returns a pointer to the module object that it creates. It may abort with a fatal error for certain errors, or return `NULL` if the module could not be initialized satisfactorily. The init function must return the module object to its caller, so that it then gets inserted into `sys.modules`.

When embedding Python, the `PyInit_spam()` function is not called automatically unless there's an entry in the `PyImport_Inittab` table. To add the module to the initialization table, use `PyImport_AppendInittab()`, optionally followed by an import of the module:

```
int
main(int argc, char *argv[])
{
    wchar_t *program = Py_DecodeLocale(argv[0], NULL);
    if (program == NULL) {
        fprintf(stderr, "Fatal error: cannot decode argv[0]\n");
        exit(1);
    }

    /* Add a built-in module, before Py_Initialize */
    if (PyImport_AppendInittab("spam", PyInit_spam) == -1) {
        fprintf(stderr, "Error: could not extend in-built modules table\n");
    }
}
```

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```

        exit(1);
    }

    /* Pass argv[0] to the Python interpreter */
    Py_SetProgramName(program);

    /* Initialize the Python interpreter.  Required.
       If this step fails, it will be a fatal error. */
    Py_Initialize();

    /* Optionally import the module; alternatively,
       import can be deferred until the embedded script
       imports it. */
    PyObject *pmodule = PyImport_ImportModule("spam");
    if (!pmodule) {
        PyErr_Print();
        fprintf(stderr, "Error: could not import module 'spam'\n");
    }

    ...

    PyMem_RawFree(program);
    return 0;
}

```

Not: Removing entries from `sys.modules` or importing compiled modules into multiple interpreters within a process (or following a `fork()` without an intervening `exec()`) can create problems for some extension modules. Extension module authors should exercise caution when initializing internal data structures.

A more substantial example module is included in the Python source distribution as `Modules/xxmodule.c`. This file may be used as a template or simply read as an example.

Not: Unlike our `spam` example, `xxmodule` uses *multi-phase initialization* (new in Python 3.5), where a `PyModuleDef` structure is returned from `PyInit_spam`, and creation of the module is left to the import machinery. For details on multi-phase initialization, see [PEP 489](#).

2.1.5 Compilation and Linkage

There are two more things to do before you can use your new extension: compiling and linking it with the Python system. If you use dynamic loading, the details may depend on the style of dynamic loading your system uses; see the chapters about building extension modules (chapter *Building C and C++ Extensions*) and additional information that pertains only to building on Windows (chapter *Building C and C++ Extensions on Windows*) for more information about this.

If you can't use dynamic loading, or if you want to make your module a permanent part of the Python interpreter, you will have to change the configuration setup and rebuild the interpreter. Luckily, this is very simple on Unix: just place your file (`spammodule.c` for example) in the `Modules/` directory of an unpacked source distribution, add a line to the file `Modules/Setup.local` describing your file:

```
spam spammodule.o
```

and rebuild the interpreter by running **make** in the toplevel directory. You can also run **make** in the `Modules/` subdirectory, but then you must first rebuild `Makefile` there by running **'make Makefile'**. (This is necessary each time you

change the Setup file.)

If your module requires additional libraries to link with, these can be listed on the line in the configuration file as well, for instance:

```
spam spammodule.o -lX11
```

2.1.6 Calling Python Functions from C

So far we have concentrated on making C functions callable from Python. The reverse is also useful: calling Python functions from C. This is especially the case for libraries that support so-called “callback” functions. If a C interface makes use of callbacks, the equivalent Python often needs to provide a callback mechanism to the Python programmer; the implementation will require calling the Python callback functions from a C callback. Other uses are also imaginable.

Fortunately, the Python interpreter is easily called recursively, and there is a standard interface to call a Python function. (I won’t dwell on how to call the Python parser with a particular string as input — if you’re interested, have a look at the implementation of the `-c` command line option in `Modules/main.c` from the Python source code.)

Calling a Python function is easy. First, the Python program must somehow pass you the Python function object. You should provide a function (or some other interface) to do this. When this function is called, save a pointer to the Python function object (be careful to `Py_INCREF()` it!) in a global variable — or wherever you see fit. For example, the following function might be part of a module definition:

```
static PyObject *my_callback = NULL;

static PyObject *
my_set_callback(PyObject *dummy, PyObject *args)
{
    PyObject *result = NULL;
    PyObject *temp;

    if (PyArg_ParseTuple(args, "O:set_callback", &temp)) {
        if (!PyCallable_Check(temp)) {
            PyErr_SetString(PyExc_TypeError, "parameter must be callable");
            return NULL;
        }
        Py_XINCREF(temp);           /* Add a reference to new callback */
        Py_XDECREF(my_callback);   /* Dispose of previous callback */
        my_callback = temp;        /* Remember new callback */
        /* Boilerplate to return "None" */
        Py_INCREF(Py_None);
        result = Py_None;
    }
    return result;
}
```

This function must be registered with the interpreter using the `METH_VARARGS` flag; this is described in section *The Module’s Method Table and Initialization Function*. The `PyArg_ParseTuple()` function and its arguments are documented in section *Extracting Parameters in Extension Functions*.

The macros `Py_XINCREF()` and `Py_XDECREF()` increment/decrement the reference count of an object and are safe in the presence of `NULL` pointers (but note that `temp` will not be `NULL` in this context). More info on them in section *Reference Counts*.

Later, when it is time to call the function, you call the C function `PyObject_CallObject()`. This function has two arguments, both pointers to arbitrary Python objects: the Python function, and the argument list. The argument list must always be a tuple object, whose length is the number of arguments. To call the Python function with no arguments, pass

in NULL, or an empty tuple; to call it with one argument, pass a singleton tuple. `Py_BuildValue()` returns a tuple when its format string consists of zero or more format codes between parentheses. For example:

```
int arg;
PyObject *arglist;
PyObject *result;
...
arg = 123;
...
/* Time to call the callback */
arglist = Py_BuildValue("(i)", arg);
result = PyObject_CallObject(my_callback, arglist);
Py_DECREF(arglist);
```

`PyObject_CallObject()` returns a Python object pointer: this is the return value of the Python function. `PyObject_CallObject()` is “reference-count-neutral” with respect to its arguments. In the example a new tuple was created to serve as the argument list, which is `Py_DECREF()`-ed immediately after the `PyObject_CallObject()` call.

The return value of `PyObject_CallObject()` is “new”: either it is a brand new object, or it is an existing object whose reference count has been incremented. So, unless you want to save it in a global variable, you should somehow `Py_DECREF()` the result, even (especially!) if you are not interested in its value.

Before you do this, however, it is important to check that the return value isn’t NULL. If it is, the Python function terminated by raising an exception. If the C code that called `PyObject_CallObject()` is called from Python, it should now return an error indication to its Python caller, so the interpreter can print a stack trace, or the calling Python code can handle the exception. If this is not possible or desirable, the exception should be cleared by calling `PyErr_Clear()`. For example:

```
if (result == NULL)
    return NULL; /* Pass error back */
...use result...
Py_DECREF(result);
```

Depending on the desired interface to the Python callback function, you may also have to provide an argument list to `PyObject_CallObject()`. In some cases the argument list is also provided by the Python program, through the same interface that specified the callback function. It can then be saved and used in the same manner as the function object. In other cases, you may have to construct a new tuple to pass as the argument list. The simplest way to do this is to call `Py_BuildValue()`. For example, if you want to pass an integral event code, you might use the following code:

```
PyObject *arglist;
...
arglist = Py_BuildValue("(l)", eventcode);
result = PyObject_CallObject(my_callback, arglist);
Py_DECREF(arglist);
if (result == NULL)
    return NULL; /* Pass error back */
/* Here maybe use the result */
Py_DECREF(result);
```

Note the placement of `Py_DECREF(arglist)` immediately after the call, before the error check! Also note that strictly speaking this code is not complete: `Py_BuildValue()` may run out of memory, and this should be checked.

You may also call a function with keyword arguments by using `PyObject_Call()`, which supports arguments and keyword arguments. As in the above example, we use `Py_BuildValue()` to construct the dictionary.

```
PyObject *dict;
...
```

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```
dict = Py_BuildValue("{s:i}", "name", val);
result = PyObject_Call(my_callback, NULL, dict);
Py_DECREF(dict);
if (result == NULL)
    return NULL; /* Pass error back */
/* Here maybe use the result */
Py_DECREF(result);
```

2.1.7 Extracting Parameters in Extension Functions

The `PyArg_ParseTuple()` function is declared as follows:

```
int PyArg_ParseTuple(PyObject *arg, const char *format, ...);
```

The *arg* argument must be a tuple object containing an argument list passed from Python to a C function. The *format* argument must be a format string, whose syntax is explained in arg-parsing in the Python/C API Reference Manual. The remaining arguments must be addresses of variables whose type is determined by the format string.

Note that while `PyArg_ParseTuple()` checks that the Python arguments have the required types, it cannot check the validity of the addresses of C variables passed to the call: if you make mistakes there, your code will probably crash or at least overwrite random bits in memory. So be careful!

Note that any Python object references which are provided to the caller are *borrowed* references; do not decrement their reference count!

Some example calls:

```
#define PY_SSIZE_T_CLEAN /* Make "s#" use Py_ssize_t rather than int. */
#include <Python.h>
```

```
int ok;
int i, j;
long k, l;
const char *s;
Py_ssize_t size;

ok = PyArg_ParseTuple(args, ""); /* No arguments */
/* Python call: f() */
```

```
ok = PyArg_ParseTuple(args, "s", &s); /* A string */
/* Possible Python call: f('whoops!') */
```

```
ok = PyArg_ParseTuple(args, "lls", &k, &l, &s); /* Two longs and a string */
/* Possible Python call: f(1, 2, 'three') */
```

```
ok = PyArg_ParseTuple(args, "(ii)s#", &i, &j, &s, &size);
/* A pair of ints and a string, whose size is also returned */
/* Possible Python call: f((1, 2), 'three') */
```

```
{
    const char *file;
    const char *mode = "r";
    int bufsize = 0;
```

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```

ok = PyArg_ParseTuple(args, "s|si", &file, &mode, &bufsize);
/* A string, and optionally another string and an integer */
/* Possible Python calls:
    f('spam')
    f('spam', 'w')
    f('spam', 'wb', 100000) */
    }
    
```

```

{
    int left, top, right, bottom, h, v;
    ok = PyArg_ParseTuple(args, "((ii)(ii))(ii)",
        &left, &top, &right, &bottom, &h, &v);
    /* A rectangle and a point */
    /* Possible Python call:
        f(((0, 0), (400, 300)), (10, 10)) */
    }
    
```

```

{
    Py_complex c;
    ok = PyArg_ParseTuple(args, "D:myfunction", &c);
    /* a complex, also providing a function name for errors */
    /* Possible Python call: myfunction(1+2j) */
    }
    
```

2.1.8 Keyword Parameters for Extension Functions

The `PyArg_ParseTupleAndKeywords()` function is declared as follows:

```

int PyArg_ParseTupleAndKeywords(PyObject *arg, PyObject *kwdict,
                                const char *format, char *kwlist[], ...);
    
```

The *arg* and *format* parameters are identical to those of the `PyArg_ParseTuple()` function. The *kwdict* parameter is the dictionary of keywords received as the third parameter from the Python runtime. The *kwlist* parameter is a NULL-terminated list of strings which identify the parameters; the names are matched with the type information from *format* from left to right. On success, `PyArg_ParseTupleAndKeywords()` returns true, otherwise it returns false and raises an appropriate exception.

Not: Nested tuples cannot be parsed when using keyword arguments! Keyword parameters passed in which are not present in the *kwlist* will cause `TypeError` to be raised.

Here is an example module which uses keywords, based on an example by Geoff Philbrick (philbrick@hks.com):

```

#define PY_SSIZE_T_CLEAN /* Make "s#" use Py_ssize_t rather than int. */
#include <Python.h>

static PyObject *
keywdarg_parrot(PyObject *self, PyObject *args, PyObject *keywds)
{
    int voltage;
    const char *state = "a stiff";
    const char *action = "voom";
    const char *type = "Norwegian Blue";
    
```

(continues on next page)

```

static char *kwlist[] = {"voltage", "state", "action", "type", NULL};

if (!PyArg_ParseTupleAndKeywords(args, keywds, "i|sss", kwlist,
                                &voltage, &state, &action, &type))

    return NULL;

printf("-- This parrot wouldn't %s if you put %i Volts through it.\n",
        action, voltage);
printf("-- Lovely plumage, the %s -- It's %s!\n", type, state);

Py_RETURN_NONE;
}

static PyMethodDef keywdarg_methods[] = {
    /* The cast of the function is necessary since PyCFunction values
     * only take two PyObject* parameters, and keywdarg_parrot() takes
     * three.
     */
    {"parrot", (PyCFunction)(void (*)(void))keywdarg_parrot, METH_VARARGS | METH_
↪KEYWORDS,
    "Print a lovely skit to standard output."},
    {NULL, NULL, 0, NULL} /* sentinel */
};

static struct PyModuleDef keywdargmodule = {
    PyModuleDef_HEAD_INIT,
    "keywdarg",
    NULL,
    -1,
    keywdarg_methods
};

PyMODINIT_FUNC
PyInit_keywdarg(void)
{
    return PyModule_Create(&keywdargmodule);
}

```

2.1.9 Building Arbitrary Values

This function is the counterpart to `PyArg_ParseTuple()`. It is declared as follows:

```
PyObject *Py_BuildValue(const char *format, ...);
```

It recognizes a set of format units similar to the ones recognized by `PyArg_ParseTuple()`, but the arguments (which are input to the function, not output) must not be pointers, just values. It returns a new Python object, suitable for returning from a C function called from Python.

One difference with `PyArg_ParseTuple()`: while the latter requires its first argument to be a tuple (since Python argument lists are always represented as tuples internally), `Py_BuildValue()` does not always build a tuple. It builds a tuple only if its format string contains two or more format units. If the format string is empty, it returns `None`; if it contains exactly one format unit, it returns whatever object is described by that format unit. To force it to return a tuple of size 0 or one, parenthesize the format string.

Examples (to the left the call, to the right the resulting Python value):

<code>Py_BuildValue("")</code>	<code>None</code>
<code>Py_BuildValue("i", 123)</code>	<code>123</code>
<code>Py_BuildValue("iii", 123, 456, 789)</code>	<code>(123, 456, 789)</code>
<code>Py_BuildValue("s", "hello")</code>	<code>'hello'</code>
<code>Py_BuildValue("y", "hello")</code>	<code>b'hello'</code>
<code>Py_BuildValue("ss", "hello", "world")</code>	<code>('hello', 'world')</code>
<code>Py_BuildValue("s#", "hello", 4)</code>	<code>'hell'</code>
<code>Py_BuildValue("y#", "hello", 4)</code>	<code>b'hell'</code>
<code>Py_BuildValue("()")</code>	<code>()</code>
<code>Py_BuildValue("(i)", 123)</code>	<code>(123,)</code>
<code>Py_BuildValue("(ii)", 123, 456)</code>	<code>(123, 456)</code>
<code>Py_BuildValue("(i,i)", 123, 456)</code>	<code>(123, 456)</code>
<code>Py_BuildValue("[i,i]", 123, 456)</code>	<code>[123, 456]</code>
<code>Py_BuildValue("{s:i,s:i}",</code>	
<code> "abc", 123, "def", 456)</code>	<code>{'abc': 123, 'def': 456}</code>
<code>Py_BuildValue("((ii)(ii)) (ii)",</code>	
<code> 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6)</code>	<code>((1, 2), (3, 4)), (5, 6))</code>

2.1.10 Reference Counts

In languages like C or C++, the programmer is responsible for dynamic allocation and deallocation of memory on the heap. In C, this is done using the functions `malloc()` and `free()`. In C++, the operators `new` and `delete` are used with essentially the same meaning and we'll restrict the following discussion to the C case.

Every block of memory allocated with `malloc()` should eventually be returned to the pool of available memory by exactly one call to `free()`. It is important to call `free()` at the right time. If a block's address is forgotten but `free()` is not called for it, the memory it occupies cannot be reused until the program terminates. This is called a *memory leak*. On the other hand, if a program calls `free()` for a block and then continues to use the block, it creates a conflict with re-use of the block through another `malloc()` call. This is called *using freed memory*. It has the same bad consequences as referencing uninitialized data — core dumps, wrong results, mysterious crashes.

Common causes of memory leaks are unusual paths through the code. For instance, a function may allocate a block of memory, do some calculation, and then free the block again. Now a change in the requirements for the function may add a test to the calculation that detects an error condition and can return prematurely from the function. It's easy to forget to free the allocated memory block when taking this premature exit, especially when it is added later to the code. Such leaks, once introduced, often go undetected for a long time: the error exit is taken only in a small fraction of all calls, and most modern machines have plenty of virtual memory, so the leak only becomes apparent in a long-running process that uses the leaking function frequently. Therefore, it's important to prevent leaks from happening by having a coding convention or strategy that minimizes this kind of errors.

Since Python makes heavy use of `malloc()` and `free()`, it needs a strategy to avoid memory leaks as well as the use of freed memory. The chosen method is called *reference counting*. The principle is simple: every object contains a counter, which is incremented when a reference to the object is stored somewhere, and which is decremented when a reference to it is deleted. When the counter reaches zero, the last reference to the object has been deleted and the object is freed.

An alternative strategy is called *automatic garbage collection*. (Sometimes, reference counting is also referred to as a garbage collection strategy, hence my use of "automatic" to distinguish the two.) The big advantage of automatic garbage collection is that the user doesn't need to call `free()` explicitly. (Another claimed advantage is an improvement in speed or memory usage — this is no hard fact however.) The disadvantage is that for C, there is no truly portable automatic garbage collector, while reference counting can be implemented portably (as long as the functions `malloc()` and `free()` are available — which the C Standard guarantees). Maybe some day a sufficiently portable automatic garbage collector will be available for C. Until then, we'll have to live with reference counts.

While Python uses the traditional reference counting implementation, it also offers a cycle detector that works to detect reference cycles. This allows applications to not worry about creating direct or indirect circular references; these are the

weakness of garbage collection implemented using only reference counting. Reference cycles consist of objects which contain (possibly indirect) references to themselves, so that each object in the cycle has a reference count which is non-zero. Typical reference counting implementations are not able to reclaim the memory belonging to any objects in a reference cycle, or referenced from the objects in the cycle, even though there are no further references to the cycle itself.

The cycle detector is able to detect garbage cycles and can reclaim them. The `gc` module exposes a way to run the detector (the `collect()` function), as well as configuration interfaces and the ability to disable the detector at runtime. The cycle detector is considered an optional component; though it is included by default, it can be disabled at build time using the `--without-cycle-gc` option to the **configure** script on Unix platforms (including Mac OS X). If the cycle detector is disabled in this way, the `gc` module will not be available.

Reference Counting in Python

There are two macros, `Py_INCREF(x)` and `Py_DECREF(x)`, which handle the incrementing and decrementing of the reference count. `Py_DECREF()` also frees the object when the count reaches zero. For flexibility, it doesn't call `free()` directly — rather, it makes a call through a function pointer in the object's *type object*. For this purpose (and others), every object also contains a pointer to its *type object*.

The big question now remains: when to use `Py_INCREF(x)` and `Py_DECREF(x)`? Let's first introduce some terms. Nobody “owns” an object; however, you can *own a reference* to an object. An object's reference count is now defined as the number of owned references to it. The owner of a reference is responsible for calling `Py_DECREF()` when the reference is no longer needed. Ownership of a reference can be transferred. There are three ways to dispose of an owned reference: pass it on, store it, or call `Py_DECREF()`. Forgetting to dispose of an owned reference creates a memory leak.

It is also possible to *borrow*² a reference to an object. The borrower of a reference should not call `Py_DECREF()`. The borrower must not hold on to the object longer than the owner from which it was borrowed. Using a borrowed reference after the owner has disposed of it risks using freed memory and should be avoided completely³.

The advantage of borrowing over owning a reference is that you don't need to take care of disposing of the reference on all possible paths through the code — in other words, with a borrowed reference you don't run the risk of leaking when a premature exit is taken. The disadvantage of borrowing over owning is that there are some subtle situations where in seemingly correct code a borrowed reference can be used after the owner from which it was borrowed has in fact disposed of it.

A borrowed reference can be changed into an owned reference by calling `Py_INCREF()`. This does not affect the status of the owner from which the reference was borrowed — it creates a new owned reference, and gives full owner responsibilities (the new owner must dispose of the reference properly, as well as the previous owner).

Ownership Rules

Whenever an object reference is passed into or out of a function, it is part of the function's interface specification whether ownership is transferred with the reference or not.

Most functions that return a reference to an object pass on ownership with the reference. In particular, all functions whose function it is to create a new object, such as `PyLong_FromLong()` and `Py_BuildValue()`, pass ownership to the receiver. Even if the object is not actually new, you still receive ownership of a new reference to that object. For instance, `PyLong_FromLong()` maintains a cache of popular values and can return a reference to a cached item.

Many functions that extract objects from other objects also transfer ownership with the reference, for instance `PyObject_GetAttrString()`. The picture is less clear, here, however, since a few common routines are exceptions: `PyTuple_GetItem()`, `PyList_GetItem()`, `PyDict_GetItem()`, and `PyDict_GetItemString()` all return references that you borrow from the tuple, list or dictionary.

² The metaphor of “borrowing” a reference is not completely correct: the owner still has a copy of the reference.

³ Checking that the reference count is at least 1 **does not work** — the reference count itself could be in freed memory and may thus be reused for another object!

The function `PyImport_AddModule()` also returns a borrowed reference, even though it may actually create the object it returns: this is possible because an owned reference to the object is stored in `sys.modules`.

When you pass an object reference into another function, in general, the function borrows the reference from you — if it needs to store it, it will use `Py_INCREF()` to become an independent owner. There are exactly two important exceptions to this rule: `PyTuple_SetItem()` and `PyList_SetItem()`. These functions take over ownership of the item passed to them — even if they fail! (Note that `PyDict_SetItem()` and friends don't take over ownership — they are “normal.”)

When a C function is called from Python, it borrows references to its arguments from the caller. The caller owns a reference to the object, so the borrowed reference's lifetime is guaranteed until the function returns. Only when such a borrowed reference must be stored or passed on, it must be turned into an owned reference by calling `Py_INCREF()`.

The object reference returned from a C function that is called from Python must be an owned reference — ownership is transferred from the function to its caller.

Thin Ice

There are a few situations where seemingly harmless use of a borrowed reference can lead to problems. These all have to do with implicit invocations of the interpreter, which can cause the owner of a reference to dispose of it.

The first and most important case to know about is using `Py_DECREF()` on an unrelated object while borrowing a reference to a list item. For instance:

```
void
bug(PyObject *list)
{
    PyObject *item = PyList_GetItem(list, 0);

    PyList_SetItem(list, 1, PyLong_FromLong(0L));
    PyObject_Print(item, stdout, 0); /* BUG! */
}
```

This function first borrows a reference to `list[0]`, then replaces `list[1]` with the value 0, and finally prints the borrowed reference. Looks harmless, right? But it's not!

Let's follow the control flow into `PyList_SetItem()`. The list owns references to all its items, so when item 1 is replaced, it has to dispose of the original item 1. Now let's suppose the original item 1 was an instance of a user-defined class, and let's further suppose that the class defined a `__del__()` method. If this class instance has a reference count of 1, disposing of it will call its `__del__()` method.

Since it is written in Python, the `__del__()` method can execute arbitrary Python code. Could it perhaps do something to invalidate the reference to `item` in `bug()`? You bet! Assuming that the list passed into `bug()` is accessible to the `__del__()` method, it could execute a statement to the effect of `del list[0]`, and assuming this was the last reference to that object, it would free the memory associated with it, thereby invalidating `item`.

The solution, once you know the source of the problem, is easy: temporarily increment the reference count. The correct version of the function reads:

```
void
no_bug(PyObject *list)
{
    PyObject *item = PyList_GetItem(list, 0);

    Py_INCREF(item);
    PyList_SetItem(list, 1, PyLong_FromLong(0L));
    PyObject_Print(item, stdout, 0);
}
```

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```
Py_DECREF(item);
}
```

This is a true story. An older version of Python contained variants of this bug and someone spent a considerable amount of time in a C debugger to figure out why his `__del__()` methods would fail...

The second case of problems with a borrowed reference is a variant involving threads. Normally, multiple threads in the Python interpreter can't get in each other's way, because there is a global lock protecting Python's entire object space. However, it is possible to temporarily release this lock using the macro `Py_BEGIN_ALLOW_THREADS`, and to re-acquire it using `Py_END_ALLOW_THREADS`. This is common around blocking I/O calls, to let other threads use the processor while waiting for the I/O to complete. Obviously, the following function has the same problem as the previous one:

```
void
bug(PyObject *list)
{
    PyObject *item = PyList_GetItem(list, 0);
    Py_BEGIN_ALLOW_THREADS
    ...some blocking I/O call...
    Py_END_ALLOW_THREADS
    PyObject_Print(item, stdout, 0); /* BUG! */
}
```

NULL Pointers

In general, functions that take object references as arguments do not expect you to pass them `NULL` pointers, and will dump core (or cause later core dumps) if you do so. Functions that return object references generally return `NULL` only to indicate that an exception occurred. The reason for not testing for `NULL` arguments is that functions often pass the objects they receive on to other function — if each function were to test for `NULL`, there would be a lot of redundant tests and the code would run more slowly.

It is better to test for `NULL` only at the “source:” when a pointer that may be `NULL` is received, for example, from `malloc()` or from a function that may raise an exception.

The macros `Py_INCREF()` and `Py_DECREF()` do not check for `NULL` pointers — however, their variants `Py_XINCREF()` and `Py_XDECREF()` do.

The macros for checking for a particular object type (`Pytype_Check()`) don't check for `NULL` pointers — again, there is much code that calls several of these in a row to test an object against various different expected types, and this would generate redundant tests. There are no variants with `NULL` checking.

The C function calling mechanism guarantees that the argument list passed to C functions (`args` in the examples) is never `NULL` — in fact it guarantees that it is always a tuple⁴.

It is a severe error to ever let a `NULL` pointer “escape” to the Python user.

⁴ These guarantees don't hold when you use the “old” style calling convention — this is still found in much existing code.

2.1.11 Writing Extensions in C++

It is possible to write extension modules in C++. Some restrictions apply. If the main program (the Python interpreter) is compiled and linked by the C compiler, global or static objects with constructors cannot be used. This is not a problem if the main program is linked by the C++ compiler. Functions that will be called by the Python interpreter (in particular, module initialization functions) have to be declared using `extern "C"`. It is unnecessary to enclose the Python header files in `extern "C" { ... }` — they use this form already if the symbol `__cplusplus` is defined (all recent C++ compilers define this symbol).

2.1.12 Providing a C API for an Extension Module

Many extension modules just provide new functions and types to be used from Python, but sometimes the code in an extension module can be useful for other extension modules. For example, an extension module could implement a type “collection” which works like lists without order. Just like the standard Python list type has a C API which permits extension modules to create and manipulate lists, this new collection type should have a set of C functions for direct manipulation from other extension modules.

At first sight this seems easy: just write the functions (without declaring them `static`, of course), provide an appropriate header file, and document the C API. And in fact this would work if all extension modules were always linked statically with the Python interpreter. When modules are used as shared libraries, however, the symbols defined in one module may not be visible to another module. The details of visibility depend on the operating system; some systems use one global namespace for the Python interpreter and all extension modules (Windows, for example), whereas others require an explicit list of imported symbols at module link time (AIX is one example), or offer a choice of different strategies (most Unices). And even if symbols are globally visible, the module whose functions one wishes to call might not have been loaded yet!

Portability therefore requires not to make any assumptions about symbol visibility. This means that all symbols in extension modules should be declared `static`, except for the module’s initialization function, in order to avoid name clashes with other extension modules (as discussed in section *The Module’s Method Table and Initialization Function*). And it means that symbols that *should* be accessible from other extension modules must be exported in a different way.

Python provides a special mechanism to pass C-level information (pointers) from one extension module to another one: Capsules. A Capsule is a Python data type which stores a pointer (`void *`). Capsules can only be created and accessed via their C API, but they can be passed around like any other Python object. In particular, they can be assigned to a name in an extension module’s namespace. Other extension modules can then import this module, retrieve the value of this name, and then retrieve the pointer from the Capsule.

There are many ways in which Capsules can be used to export the C API of an extension module. Each function could get its own Capsule, or all C API pointers could be stored in an array whose address is published in a Capsule. And the various tasks of storing and retrieving the pointers can be distributed in different ways between the module providing the code and the client modules.

Whichever method you choose, it’s important to name your Capsules properly. The function `PyCapsule_New()` takes a name parameter (`const char *`); you’re permitted to pass in a `NULL` name, but we strongly encourage you to specify a name. Properly named Capsules provide a degree of runtime type-safety; there is no feasible way to tell one unnamed Capsule from another.

In particular, Capsules used to expose C APIs should be given a name following this convention:

```
modulename.attributename
```

The convenience function `PyCapsule_Import()` makes it easy to load a C API provided via a Capsule, but only if the Capsule’s name matches this convention. This behavior gives C API users a high degree of certainty that the Capsule they load contains the correct C API.

The following example demonstrates an approach that puts most of the burden on the writer of the exporting module, which is appropriate for commonly used library modules. It stores all C API pointers (just one in the example!) in an

array of `void` pointers which becomes the value of a Capsule. The header file corresponding to the module provides a macro that takes care of importing the module and retrieving its C API pointers; client modules only have to call this macro before accessing the C API.

The exporting module is a modification of the `spam` module from section [A Simple Example](#). The function `spam.system()` does not call the C library function `system()` directly, but a function `PySpam_System()`, which would of course do something more complicated in reality (such as adding “spam” to every command). This function `PySpam_System()` is also exported to other extension modules.

The function `PySpam_System()` is a plain C function, declared `static` like everything else:

```
static int
PySpam_System(const char *command)
{
    return system(command);
}
```

The function `spam_system()` is modified in a trivial way:

```
static PyObject *
spam_system(PyObject *self, PyObject *args)
{
    const char *command;
    int sts;

    if (!PyArg_ParseTuple(args, "s", &command))
        return NULL;
    sts = PySpam_System(command);
    return PyLong_FromLong(sts);
}
```

In the beginning of the module, right after the line

```
#include <Python.h>
```

two more lines must be added:

```
#define SPAM_MODULE
#include "spammodule.h"
```

The `#define` is used to tell the header file that it is being included in the exporting module, not a client module. Finally, the module’s initialization function must take care of initializing the C API pointer array:

```
PyMODINIT_FUNC
PyInit_spam(void)
{
    PyObject *m;
    static void *PySpam_API[PySpam_API_pointers];
    PyObject *c_api_object;

    m = PyModule_Create(&spammodule);
    if (m == NULL)
        return NULL;

    /* Initialize the C API pointer array */
    PySpam_API[PySpam_System_NUM] = (void *)PySpam_System;

    /* Create a Capsule containing the API pointer array's address */
```

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```

c_api_object = PyCapsule_New((void *)PySpam_API, "spam._C_API", NULL);

if (PyModule_AddObject(m, "_C_API", c_api_object) < 0) {
    Py_XDECREF(c_api_object);
    Py_DECREF(m);
    return NULL;
}

return m;
}
    
```

Note that `PySpam_API` is declared `static`; otherwise the pointer array would disappear when `PyInit_spam()` terminates!

The bulk of the work is in the header file `spammodule.h`, which looks like this:

```

#ifndef Py_SPAMMODULE_H
#define Py_SPAMMODULE_H
#ifdef __cplusplus
extern "C" {
#endif

/* Header file for spammodule */

/* C API functions */
#define PySpam_System_NUM 0
#define PySpam_System_RETURN int
#define PySpam_System_PROTO (const char *command)

/* Total number of C API pointers */
#define PySpam_API_pointers 1

#ifdef SPAM_MODULE
/* This section is used when compiling spammodule.c */

static PySpam_System_RETURN PySpam_System PySpam_System_PROTO;

#else
/* This section is used in modules that use spammodule's API */

static void **PySpam_API;

#define PySpam_System \
    (*(PySpam_System_RETURN (*)(PySpam_System_PROTO) PySpam_API[PySpam_System_NUM])

/* Return -1 on error, 0 on success.
 * PyCapsule_Import will set an exception if there's an error.
 */
static int
import_spam(void)
{
    PySpam_API = (void **)PyCapsule_Import("spam._C_API", 0);
    return (PySpam_API != NULL) ? 0 : -1;
}

#endif
    
```

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```
#ifdef __cplusplus
}
#endif

#endif /* !defined(Py_SPAMMODULE_H) */
```

All that a client module must do in order to have access to the function `PySpam_System()` is to call the function (or rather macro) `import_spam()` in its initialization function:

```
PyMODINIT_FUNC
PyInit_client(void)
{
    PyObject *m;

    m = PyModule_Create(&clientmodule);
    if (m == NULL)
        return NULL;
    if (import_spam() < 0)
        return NULL;
    /* additional initialization can happen here */
    return m;
}
```

The main disadvantage of this approach is that the file `spammodule.h` is rather complicated. However, the basic structure is the same for each function that is exported, so it has to be learned only once.

Finally it should be mentioned that Capsules offer additional functionality, which is especially useful for memory allocation and deallocation of the pointer stored in a Capsule. The details are described in the Python/C API Reference Manual in the section capsules and in the implementation of Capsules (files `Include/pycapsule.h` and `Objects/pycapsule.c` in the Python source code distribution).

2.2 Defining Extension Types: Tutorial

Python allows the writer of a C extension module to define new types that can be manipulated from Python code, much like the built-in `str` and `list` types. The code for all extension types follows a pattern, but there are some details that you need to understand before you can get started. This document is a gentle introduction to the topic.

2.2.1 The Basics

The *CPython* runtime sees all Python objects as variables of type `PyObject*`, which serves as a “base type” for all Python objects. The `PyObject` structure itself only contains the object’s *reference count* and a pointer to the object’s “type object”. This is where the action is; the type object determines which (C) functions get called by the interpreter when, for instance, an attribute gets looked up on an object, a method called, or it is multiplied by another object. These C functions are called “type methods”.

So, if you want to define a new extension type, you need to create a new type object.

This sort of thing can only be explained by example, so here’s a minimal, but complete, module that defines a new type named `Custom` inside a C extension module `custom`:

Not: What we’re showing here is the traditional way of defining *static* extension types. It should be adequate for most uses. The C API also allows defining heap-allocated extension types using the `PyType_FromSpec()` function, which

isn't covered in this tutorial.

```
#define PY_SSIZE_T_CLEAN
#include <Python.h>

typedef struct {
    PyObject_HEAD
    /* Type-specific fields go here. */
} CustomObject;

static PyTypeObject CustomType = {
    PyVarObject_HEAD_INIT(NULL, 0)
    .tp_name = "custom.Custom",
    .tp_doc = "Custom objects",
    .tp_basicsize = sizeof(CustomObject),
    .tp_itemsize = 0,
    .tp_flags = Py_TPFLAGS_DEFAULT,
    .tp_new = PyType_GenericNew,
};

static PyModuleDef custommodule = {
    PyModuleDef_HEAD_INIT,
    .m_name = "custom",
    .m_doc = "Example module that creates an extension type.",
    .m_size = -1,
};

PyMODINIT_FUNC
PyInit_custom(void)
{
    PyObject *m;
    if (PyType_Ready(&CustomType) < 0)
        return NULL;

    m = PyModule_Create(&custommodule);
    if (m == NULL)
        return NULL;

    Py_INCREF(&CustomType);
    if (PyModule_AddObject(m, "Custom", (PyObject *) &CustomType) < 0) {
        Py_DECREF(&CustomType);
        Py_DECREF(m);
        return NULL;
    }

    return m;
}
```

Now that's quite a bit to take in at once, but hopefully bits will seem familiar from the previous chapter. This file defines three things:

1. What a Custom **object** contains: this is the CustomObject struct, which is allocated once for each Custom instance.
2. How the Custom **type** behaves: this is the CustomType struct, which defines a set of flags and function pointers that the interpreter inspects when specific operations are requested.
3. How to initialize the custom module: this is the PyInit_custom function and the associated

custommodule struct.

The first bit is:

```
typedef struct {
    PyObject_HEAD
} CustomObject;
```

This is what a Custom object will contain. `PyObject_HEAD` is mandatory at the start of each object struct and defines a field called `ob_base` of type `PyObject`, containing a pointer to a type object and a reference count (these can be accessed using the macros `Py_REFCNT` and `Py_TYPE` respectively). The reason for the macro is to abstract away the layout and to enable additional fields in debug builds.

Not: There is no semicolon above after the `PyObject_HEAD` macro. Be wary of adding one by accident: some compilers will complain.

Of course, objects generally store additional data besides the standard `PyObject_HEAD` boilerplate; for example, here is the definition for standard Python floats:

```
typedef struct {
    PyObject_HEAD
    double ob_fval;
} PyFloatObject;
```

The second bit is the definition of the type object.

```
static PyTypeObject CustomType = {
    PyVarObject_HEAD_INIT(NULL, 0)
    .tp_name = "custom.Custom",
    .tp_doc = "Custom objects",
    .tp_basicsize = sizeof(CustomObject),
    .tp_itemsize = 0,
    .tp_flags = Py_TPFLAGS_DEFAULT,
    .tp_new = PyType_GenericNew,
};
```

Not: We recommend using C99-style designated initializers as above, to avoid listing all the `PyTypeObject` fields that you don't care about and also to avoid caring about the fields' declaration order.

The actual definition of `PyTypeObject` in `object.h` has many more fields than the definition above. The remaining fields will be filled with zeros by the C compiler, and it's common practice to not specify them explicitly unless you need them.

We're going to pick it apart, one field at a time:

```
PyVarObject_HEAD_INIT(NULL, 0)
```

This line is mandatory boilerplate to initialize the `ob_base` field mentioned above.

```
.tp_name = "custom.Custom",
```

The name of our type. This will appear in the default textual representation of our objects and in some error messages, for example:

```
>>> "" + custom.Custom()
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<stdin>", line 1, in <module>
TypeError: can only concatenate str (not "custom.Custom") to str
```

Note that the name is a dotted name that includes both the module name and the name of the type within the module. The module in this case is `custom` and the type is `Custom`, so we set the type name to `custom.Custom`. Using the real dotted import path is important to make your type compatible with the `pydoc` and `pickle` modules.

```
.tp_basicsize = sizeof(CustomObject),
.tp_itemsize = 0,
```

This is so that Python knows how much memory to allocate when creating new `Custom` instances. `tp_itemsize` is only used for variable-sized objects and should otherwise be zero.

Not: If you want your type to be subclassable from Python, and your type has the same `tp_basicsize` as its base type, you may have problems with multiple inheritance. A Python subclass of your type will have to list your type first in its `__bases__`, or else it will not be able to call your type's `__new__()` method without getting an error. You can avoid this problem by ensuring that your type has a larger value for `tp_basicsize` than its base type does. Most of the time, this will be true anyway, because either your base type will be `object`, or else you will be adding data members to your base type, and therefore increasing its size.

We set the class flags to `Py_TPFLAGS_DEFAULT`.

```
.tp_flags = Py_TPFLAGS_DEFAULT,
```

All types should include this constant in their flags. It enables all of the members defined until at least Python 3.3. If you need further members, you will need to OR the corresponding flags.

We provide a doc string for the type in `tp_doc`.

```
.tp_doc = "Custom objects",
```

To enable object creation, we have to provide a `tp_new` handler. This is the equivalent of the Python method `__new__()`, but has to be specified explicitly. In this case, we can just use the default implementation provided by the API function `PyType_GenericNew()`.

```
.tp_new = PyType_GenericNew,
```

Everything else in the file should be familiar, except for some code in `PyInit_custom()`:

```
if (PyType_Ready(&CustomType) < 0)
    return;
```

This initializes the `Custom` type, filling in a number of members to the appropriate default values, including `ob_type` that we initially set to `NULL`.

```
Py_INCREF(&CustomType);
if (PyModule_AddObject(m, "Custom", (PyObject *) &CustomType) < 0) {
    Py_DECREF(&CustomType);
    Py_DECREF(m);
    return NULL;
}
```

This adds the type to the module dictionary. This allows us to create `Custom` instances by calling the `Custom` class:

```
>>> import custom
>>> mycustom = custom.Custom()
```

That's it! All that remains is to build it; put the above code in a file called `custom.c` and:

```
from distutils.core import setup, Extension
setup(name="custom", version="1.0",
      ext_modules=[Extension("custom", ["custom.c"])]])
```

in a file called `setup.py`; then typing

```
$ python setup.py build
```

at a shell should produce a file `custom.so` in a subdirectory; move to that directory and fire up Python — you should be able to import `custom` and play around with `Custom` objects.

That wasn't so hard, was it?

Of course, the current `Custom` type is pretty uninteresting. It has no data and doesn't do anything. It can't even be subclassed.

Not: While this documentation showcases the standard `distutils` module for building C extensions, it is recommended in real-world use cases to use the newer and better-maintained `setuptools` library. Documentation on how to do this is out of scope for this document and can be found in the [Python Packaging User's Guide](#).

2.2.2 Adding data and methods to the Basic example

Let's extend the basic example to add some data and methods. Let's also make the type usable as a base class. We'll create a new module, `custom2` that adds these capabilities:

```
#define PY_SSIZE_T_CLEAN
#include <Python.h>
#include "structmember.h"

typedef struct {
    PyObject_HEAD
    PyObject *first; /* first name */
    PyObject *last;  /* last name */
    int number;
} CustomObject;

static void
Custom_dealloc(CustomObject *self)
{
    Py_XDECREF(self->first);
    Py_XDECREF(self->last);
    Py_TYPE(self)->tp_free((PyObject *) self);
}

static PyObject *
Custom_new(PyTypeObject *type, PyObject *args, PyObject *kwargs)
{
    CustomObject *self;
    self = (CustomObject *) type->tp_alloc(type, 0);
```

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```

    if (self != NULL) {
        self->first = PyUnicode_FromString("");
        if (self->first == NULL) {
            Py_DECREF(self);
            return NULL;
        }
        self->last = PyUnicode_FromString("");
        if (self->last == NULL) {
            Py_DECREF(self);
            return NULL;
        }
        self->number = 0;
    }
    return (PyObject *) self;
}

static int
Custom_init(CustomObject *self, PyObject *args, PyObject *kwds)
{
    static char *kwlist[] = {"first", "last", "number", NULL};
    PyObject *first = NULL, *last = NULL, *tmp;

    if (!PyArg_ParseTupleAndKeywords(args, kwds, "|OOi", kwlist,
                                     &first, &last,
                                     &self->number))

        return -1;

    if (first) {
        tmp = self->first;
        Py_INCREF(first);
        self->first = first;
        Py_XDECREF(tmp);
    }
    if (last) {
        tmp = self->last;
        Py_INCREF(last);
        self->last = last;
        Py_XDECREF(tmp);
    }
    return 0;
}

static PyMemberDef Custom_members[] = {
    {"first", T_OBJECT_EX, offsetof(CustomObject, first), 0,
     "first name"},
    {"last", T_OBJECT_EX, offsetof(CustomObject, last), 0,
     "last name"},
    {"number", T_INT, offsetof(CustomObject, number), 0,
     "custom number"},
    {NULL} /* Sentinel */
};

static PyObject *
Custom_name(CustomObject *self, PyObject *Py_UNUSED(ignored))
{
    if (self->first == NULL) {
        PyErr_SetString(PyExc_AttributeError, "first");
    }
}

```

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```

        return NULL;
    }
    if (self->last == NULL) {
        PyErr_SetString(PyExc_AttributeError, "last");
        return NULL;
    }
    return PyUnicode_FromFormat("%S %S", self->first, self->last);
}

static PyMethodDef Custom_methods[] = {
    {"name", (PyCFunction) Custom_name, METH_NOARGS,
     "Return the name, combining the first and last name"},
    {NULL} /* Sentinel */
};

static PyTypeObject CustomType = {
    PyVarObject_HEAD_INIT(NULL, 0)
    .tp_name = "custom2.Custom",
    .tp_doc = "Custom objects",
    .tp_basicsize = sizeof(CustomObject),
    .tp_itemsize = 0,
    .tp_flags = Py_TPFLAGS_DEFAULT | Py_TPFLAGS_BASETYPE,
    .tp_new = Custom_new,
    .tp_init = (initproc) Custom_init,
    .tp_dealloc = (destructor) Custom_dealloc,
    .tp_members = Custom_members,
    .tp_methods = Custom_methods,
};

static PyModuleDef custommodule = {
    PyModuleDef_HEAD_INIT,
    .m_name = "custom2",
    .m_doc = "Example module that creates an extension type.",
    .m_size = -1,
};

PyMODINIT_FUNC
PyInit_custom2(void)
{
    PyObject *m;
    if (PyType_Ready(&CustomType) < 0)
        return NULL;

    m = PyModule_Create(&custommodule);
    if (m == NULL)
        return NULL;

    Py_INCREF(&CustomType);
    if (PyModule_AddObject(m, "Custom", (PyObject *) &CustomType) < 0) {
        Py_DECREF(&CustomType);
        Py_DECREF(m);
        return NULL;
    }

    return m;
}

```

This version of the module has a number of changes.

We've added an extra include:

```
#include <structmember.h>
```

This include provides declarations that we use to handle attributes, as described a bit later.

The `Custom` type now has three data attributes in its C struct, *first*, *last*, and *number*. The *first* and *last* variables are Python strings containing first and last names. The *number* attribute is a C integer.

The object structure is updated accordingly:

```
typedef struct {
    PyObject_HEAD
    PyObject *first; /* first name */
    PyObject *last; /* last name */
    int number;
} CustomObject;
```

Because we now have data to manage, we have to be more careful about object allocation and deallocation. At a minimum, we need a deallocation method:

```
static void
Custom_dealloc(CustomObject *self)
{
    Py_XDECREF(self->first);
    Py_XDECREF(self->last);
    Py_TYPE(self)->tp_free((PyObject *) self);
}
```

which is assigned to the `tp_dealloc` member:

```
.tp_dealloc = (destructor) Custom_dealloc,
```

This method first clears the reference counts of the two Python attributes. `Py_XDECREF()` correctly handles the case where its argument is `NULL` (which might happen here if `tp_new` failed midway). It then calls the `tp_free` member of the object's type (computed by `Py_TYPE(self)`) to free the object's memory. Note that the object's type might not be `CustomType`, because the object may be an instance of a subclass.

Not: The explicit cast to destructor above is needed because we defined `Custom_dealloc` to take a `CustomObject *` argument, but the `tp_dealloc` function pointer expects to receive a `PyObject *` argument. Otherwise, the compiler will emit a warning. This is object-oriented polymorphism, in C!

We want to make sure that the first and last names are initialized to empty strings, so we provide a `tp_new` implementation:

```
static PyObject *
Custom_new(PyTypeObject *type, PyObject *args, PyObject *kwds)
{
    CustomObject *self;
    self = (CustomObject *) type->tp_alloc(type, 0);
    if (self != NULL) {
        self->first = PyUnicode_FromString("");
        if (self->first == NULL) {
            Py_DECREF(self);
            return NULL;
        }
    }
}
```

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```

    }
    self->last = PyUnicode_FromString("");
    if (self->last == NULL) {
        Py_DECREF(self);
        return NULL;
    }
    self->number = 0;
}
return (PyObject *) self;
}

```

and install it in the `tp_new` member:

```
.tp_new = Custom_new,
```

The `tp_new` handler is responsible for creating (as opposed to initializing) objects of the type. It is exposed in Python as the `__new__()` method. It is not required to define a `tp_new` member, and indeed many extension types will simply reuse `PyType_GenericNew()` as done in the first version of the `Custom` type above. In this case, we use the `tp_new` handler to initialize the `first` and `last` attributes to non-NULL default values.

`tp_new` is passed the type being instantiated (not necessarily `CustomType`, if a subclass is instantiated) and any arguments passed when the type was called, and is expected to return the instance created. `tp_new` handlers always accept positional and keyword arguments, but they often ignore the arguments, leaving the argument handling to initializer (a.k.a. `tp_init` in C or `__init__` in Python) methods.

Not: `tp_new` shouldn't call `tp_init` explicitly, as the interpreter will do it itself.

The `tp_new` implementation calls the `tp_alloc` slot to allocate memory:

```
self = (CustomObject *) type->tp_alloc(type, 0);
```

Since memory allocation may fail, we must check the `tp_alloc` result against `NULL` before proceeding.

Not: We didn't fill the `tp_alloc` slot ourselves. Rather `PyType_Ready()` fills it for us by inheriting it from our base class, which is `object` by default. Most types use the default allocation strategy.

Not: If you are creating a co-operative `tp_new` (one that calls a base type's `tp_new` or `__new__()`), you must *not* try to determine what method to call using method resolution order at runtime. Always statically determine what type you are going to call, and call its `tp_new` directly, or via `type->tp_base->tp_new`. If you do not do this, Python subclasses of your type that also inherit from other Python-defined classes may not work correctly. (Specifically, you may not be able to create instances of such subclasses without getting a `TypeError`.)

We also define an initialization function which accepts arguments to provide initial values for our instance:

```

static int
Custom_init(CustomObject *self, PyObject *args, PyObject *kwds)
{
    static char *kwlist[] = {"first", "last", "number", NULL};
    PyObject *first = NULL, *last = NULL, *tmp;

    if (!PyArg_ParseTupleAndKeywords(args, kwds, "|OOi", kwlist,

```

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```

                                &first, &last,
                                &self->number))

    return -1;

    if (first) {
        tmp = self->first;
        Py_INCREF(first);
        self->first = first;
        Py_XDECREF(tmp);
    }
    if (last) {
        tmp = self->last;
        Py_INCREF(last);
        self->last = last;
        Py_XDECREF(tmp);
    }
    return 0;
}

```

by filling the `tp_init` slot.

```
.tp_init = (initproc) Custom_init,
```

The `tp_init` slot is exposed in Python as the `__init__()` method. It is used to initialize an object after it's created. Initializers always accept positional and keyword arguments, and they should return either 0 on success or -1 on error.

Unlike the `tp_new` handler, there is no guarantee that `tp_init` is called at all (for example, the `pickle` module by default doesn't call `__init__()` on unpickled instances). It can also be called multiple times. Anyone can call the `__init__()` method on our objects. For this reason, we have to be extra careful when assigning the new attribute values. We might be tempted, for example to assign the `first` member like this:

```

if (first) {
    Py_XDECREF(self->first);
    Py_INCREF(first);
    self->first = first;
}

```

But this would be risky. Our type doesn't restrict the type of the `first` member, so it could be any kind of object. It could have a destructor that causes code to be executed that tries to access the `first` member; or that destructor could release the *Global interpreter Lock* and let arbitrary code run in other threads that accesses and modifies our object.

To be paranoid and protect ourselves against this possibility, we almost always reassign members before decrementing their reference counts. When don't we have to do this?

- when we absolutely know that the reference count is greater than 1;
- when we know that deallocation of the object¹ will neither release the *GIL* nor cause any calls back into our type's code;
- when decrementing a reference count in a `tp_dealloc` handler on a type which doesn't support cyclic garbage collection².

We want to expose our instance variables as attributes. There are a number of ways to do that. The simplest way is to define member definitions:

¹ This is true when we know that the object is a basic type, like a string or a float.

² We relied on this in the `tp_dealloc` handler in this example, because our type doesn't support garbage collection.

```
static PyMemberDef Custom_members[] = {
    {"first", T_OBJECT_EX, offsetof(CustomObject, first), 0,
     "first name"},
    {"last", T_OBJECT_EX, offsetof(CustomObject, last), 0,
     "last name"},
    {"number", T_INT, offsetof(CustomObject, number), 0,
     "custom number"},
    {NULL} /* Sentinel */
};
```

and put the definitions in the `tp_members` slot:

```
.tp_members = Custom_members,
```

Each member definition has a member name, type, offset, access flags and documentation string. See the [Generic Attribute Management](#) section below for details.

A disadvantage of this approach is that it doesn't provide a way to restrict the types of objects that can be assigned to the Python attributes. We expect the first and last names to be strings, but any Python objects can be assigned. Further, the attributes can be deleted, setting the C pointers to NULL. Even though we can make sure the members are initialized to non-NULL values, the members can be set to NULL if the attributes are deleted.

We define a single method, `Custom.name()`, that outputs the objects name as the concatenation of the first and last names.

```
static PyObject *
Custom_name(CustomObject *self, PyObject *Py_UNUSED(ignored))
{
    if (self->first == NULL) {
        PyErr_SetString(PyExc_AttributeError, "first");
        return NULL;
    }
    if (self->last == NULL) {
        PyErr_SetString(PyExc_AttributeError, "last");
        return NULL;
    }
    return PyUnicode_FromFormat("%S %S", self->first, self->last);
}
```

The method is implemented as a C function that takes a `Custom` (or `Custom` subclass) instance as the first argument. Methods always take an instance as the first argument. Methods often take positional and keyword arguments as well, but in this case we don't take any and don't need to accept a positional argument tuple or keyword argument dictionary. This method is equivalent to the Python method:

```
def name(self):
    return "%s %s" % (self.first, self.last)
```

Note that we have to check for the possibility that our `first` and `last` members are NULL. This is because they can be deleted, in which case they are set to NULL. It would be better to prevent deletion of these attributes and to restrict the attribute values to be strings. We'll see how to do that in the next section.

Now that we've defined the method, we need to create an array of method definitions:

```
static PyMethodDef Custom_methods[] = {
    {"name", (PyCFunction) Custom_name, METH_NOARGS,
     "Return the name, combining the first and last name"},
    },
```

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```
{NULL} /* Sentinel */
};
```

(note that we used the METH_NOARGS flag to indicate that the method is expecting no arguments other than *self*) and assign it to the `tp_methods` slot:

```
.tp_methods = Custom_methods,
```

Finally, we'll make our type usable as a base class for subclassing. We've written our methods carefully so far so that they don't make any assumptions about the type of the object being created or used, so all we need to do is to add the `Py_TPFLAGS_BASETYPE` to our class flag definition:

```
.tp_flags = Py_TPFLAGS_DEFAULT | Py_TPFLAGS_BASETYPE,
```

We rename `PyInit_custom()` to `PyInit_custom2()`, update the module name in the `PyModuleDef` struct, and update the full class name in the `PyTypeObject` struct.

Finally, we update our `setup.py` file to build the new module:

```
from distutils.core import setup, Extension
setup(name="custom", version="1.0",
      ext_modules=[
          Extension("custom", ["custom.c"]),
          Extension("custom2", ["custom2.c"]),
      ])
```

2.2.3 Providing finer control over data attributes

In this section, we'll provide finer control over how the `first` and `last` attributes are set in the `Custom` example. In the previous version of our module, the instance variables `first` and `last` could be set to non-string values or even deleted. We want to make sure that these attributes always contain strings.

```
#define PY_SSIZE_T_CLEAN
#include <Python.h>
#include "structmember.h"

typedef struct {
    PyObject_HEAD
    PyObject *first; /* first name */
    PyObject *last; /* last name */
    int number;
} CustomObject;

static void
Custom_dealloc(CustomObject *self)
{
    Py_XDECREF(self->first);
    Py_XDECREF(self->last);
    Py_TYPE(self)->tp_free((PyObject *) self);
}

static PyObject *
Custom_new(PyTypeObject *type, PyObject *args, PyObject *kwds)
{

```

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```

CustomObject *self;
self = (CustomObject *) type->tp_alloc(type, 0);
if (self != NULL) {
    self->first = PyUnicode_FromString("");
    if (self->first == NULL) {
        Py_DECREF(self);
        return NULL;
    }
    self->last = PyUnicode_FromString("");
    if (self->last == NULL) {
        Py_DECREF(self);
        return NULL;
    }
    self->number = 0;
}
return (PyObject *) self;
}

static int
Custom_init(CustomObject *self, PyObject *args, PyObject *kwargs)
{
    static char *kwlist[] = {"first", "last", "number", NULL};
    PyObject *first = NULL, *last = NULL, *tmp;

    if (!PyArg_ParseTupleAndKeywords(args, kwargs, "|UUi", kwlist,
                                     &first, &last,
                                     &self->number))

        return -1;

    if (first) {
        tmp = self->first;
        Py_INCREF(first);
        self->first = first;
        Py_DECREF(tmp);
    }
    if (last) {
        tmp = self->last;
        Py_INCREF(last);
        self->last = last;
        Py_DECREF(tmp);
    }
    return 0;
}

static PyMemberDef Custom_members[] = {
    {"number", T_INT, offsetof(CustomObject, number), 0,
     "custom number"},
    {NULL} /* Sentinel */
};

static PyObject *
Custom_getfirst(CustomObject *self, void *closure)
{
    Py_INCREF(self->first);
    return self->first;
}
    
```

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```

static int
Custom_setfirst(CustomObject *self, PyObject *value, void *closure)
{
    PyObject *tmp;
    if (value == NULL) {
        PyErr_SetString(PyExc_TypeError, "Cannot delete the first attribute");
        return -1;
    }
    if (!PyUnicode_Check(value)) {
        PyErr_SetString(PyExc_TypeError,
            "The first attribute value must be a string");
        return -1;
    }
    tmp = self->first;
    Py_INCREF(value);
    self->first = value;
    Py_DECREF(tmp);
    return 0;
}

static PyObject *
Custom_getlast(CustomObject *self, void *closure)
{
    Py_INCREF(self->last);
    return self->last;
}

static int
Custom_setlast(CustomObject *self, PyObject *value, void *closure)
{
    PyObject *tmp;
    if (value == NULL) {
        PyErr_SetString(PyExc_TypeError, "Cannot delete the last attribute");
        return -1;
    }
    if (!PyUnicode_Check(value)) {
        PyErr_SetString(PyExc_TypeError,
            "The last attribute value must be a string");
        return -1;
    }
    tmp = self->last;
    Py_INCREF(value);
    self->last = value;
    Py_DECREF(tmp);
    return 0;
}

static PyGetSetDef Custom_getsetters[] = {
    {"first", (getter) Custom_getfirst, (setter) Custom_setfirst,
     "first name", NULL},
    {"last", (getter) Custom_getlast, (setter) Custom_setlast,
     "last name", NULL},
    {NULL} /* Sentinel */
};

static PyObject *
Custom_name(CustomObject *self, PyObject *Py_UNUSED(ignored))

```

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```

{
    return PyUnicode_FromFormat("%S %S", self->first, self->last);
}

static PyMethodDef Custom_methods[] = {
    {"name", (PyCFunction) Custom_name, METH_NOARGS,
     "Return the name, combining the first and last name"
    },
    {NULL} /* Sentinel */
};

static PyTypeObject CustomType = {
    PyVarObject_HEAD_INIT(NULL, 0)
    .tp_name = "custom3.Custom",
    .tp_doc = "Custom objects",
    .tp_basicsize = sizeof(CustomObject),
    .tp_itemsize = 0,
    .tp_flags = Py_TPFLAGS_DEFAULT | Py_TPFLAGS_BASETYPE,
    .tp_new = Custom_new,
    .tp_init = (initproc) Custom_init,
    .tp_dealloc = (destructor) Custom_dealloc,
    .tp_members = Custom_members,
    .tp_methods = Custom_methods,
    .tp_getset = Custom_getsetters,
};

static PyModuleDef custommodule = {
    PyModuleDef_HEAD_INIT,
    .m_name = "custom3",
    .m_doc = "Example module that creates an extension type.",
    .m_size = -1,
};

PyMODINIT_FUNC
PyInit_custom3(void)
{
    PyObject *m;
    if (PyType_Ready(&CustomType) < 0)
        return NULL;

    m = PyModule_Create(&custommodule);
    if (m == NULL)
        return NULL;

    Py_INCREF(&CustomType);
    if (PyModule_AddObject(m, "Custom", (PyObject *) &CustomType) < 0) {
        Py_DECREF(&CustomType);
        Py_DECREF(m);
        return NULL;
    }

    return m;
}

```

To provide greater control, over the `first` and `last` attributes, we'll use custom getter and setter functions. Here are the functions for getting and setting the `first` attribute:

```
static PyObject *
Custom_getfirst(CustomObject *self, void *closure)
{
    Py_INCREF(self->first);
    return self->first;
}

static int
Custom_setfirst(CustomObject *self, PyObject *value, void *closure)
{
    PyObject *tmp;
    if (value == NULL) {
        PyErr_SetString(PyExc_TypeError, "Cannot delete the first attribute");
        return -1;
    }
    if (!PyUnicode_Check(value)) {
        PyErr_SetString(PyExc_TypeError,
                        "The first attribute value must be a string");
        return -1;
    }
    tmp = self->first;
    Py_INCREF(value);
    self->first = value;
    Py_DECREF(tmp);
    return 0;
}
```

The getter function is passed a Custom object and a “closure”, which is a void pointer. In this case, the closure is ignored. (The closure supports an advanced usage in which definition data is passed to the getter and setter. This could, for example, be used to allow a single set of getter and setter functions that decide the attribute to get or set based on data in the closure.)

The setter function is passed the Custom object, the new value, and the closure. The new value may be NULL, in which case the attribute is being deleted. In our setter, we raise an error if the attribute is deleted or if its new value is not a string.

We create an array of PyGetSetDef structures:

```
static PyGetSetDef Custom_getsetters[] = {
    {"first", (getter) Custom_getfirst, (setter) Custom_setfirst,
     "first name", NULL},
    {"last", (getter) Custom_getlast, (setter) Custom_setlast,
     "last name", NULL},
    {NULL} /* Sentinel */
};
```

and register it in the tp_getset slot:

```
.tp_getset = Custom_getsetters,
```

The last item in a PyGetSetDef structure is the “closure” mentioned above. In this case, we aren’t using a closure, so we just pass NULL.

We also remove the member definitions for these attributes:

```
static PyMemberDef Custom_members[] = {
    {"number", T_INT, offsetof(CustomObject, number), 0,
     "custom number"},
};
```

(continues on next page)

```
{NULL} /* Sentinel */
};
```

We also need to update the `tp_init` handler to only allow strings³ to be passed:

```
static int
Custom_init(CustomObject *self, PyObject *args, PyObject *kwds)
{
    static char *kwlist[] = {"first", "last", "number", NULL};
    PyObject *first = NULL, *last = NULL, *tmp;

    if (!PyArg_ParseTupleAndKeywords(args, kwds, "|UUi", kwlist,
                                     &first, &last,
                                     &self->number))

        return -1;

    if (first) {
        tmp = self->first;
        Py_INCREF(first);
        self->first = first;
        Py_DECREF(tmp);
    }
    if (last) {
        tmp = self->last;
        Py_INCREF(last);
        self->last = last;
        Py_DECREF(tmp);
    }
    return 0;
}
```

With these changes, we can assure that the `first` and `last` members are never `NULL` so we can remove checks for `NULL` values in almost all cases. This means that most of the `Py_XDECREF()` calls can be converted to `Py_DECREF()` calls. The only place we can't change these calls is in the `tp_dealloc` implementation, where there is the possibility that the initialization of these members failed in `tp_new`.

We also rename the module initialization function and module name in the initialization function, as we did before, and we add an extra definition to the `setup.py` file.

2.2.4 Supporting cyclic garbage collection

Python has a *cyclic garbage collector (GC)* that can identify unneeded objects even when their reference counts are not zero. This can happen when objects are involved in cycles. For example, consider:

```
>>> l = []
>>> l.append(l)
>>> del l
```

In this example, we create a list that contains itself. When we delete it, it still has a reference from itself. Its reference count doesn't drop to zero. Fortunately, Python's cyclic garbage collector will eventually figure out that the list is garbage and free it.

³ We now know that the `first` and `last` members are strings, so perhaps we could be less careful about decrementing their reference counts, however, we accept instances of string subclasses. Even though deallocating normal strings won't call back into our objects, we can't guarantee that deallocating an instance of a string subclass won't call back into our objects.

In the second version of the `Custom` example, we allowed any kind of object to be stored in the first or last attributes⁴. Besides, in the second and third versions, we allowed subclassing `Custom`, and subclasses may add arbitrary attributes. For any of those two reasons, `Custom` objects can participate in cycles:

```
>>> import custom3
>>> class Derived(custom3.Custom): pass
...
>>> n = Derived()
>>> n.some_attribute = n
```

To allow a `Custom` instance participating in a reference cycle to be properly detected and collected by the cyclic GC, our `Custom` type needs to fill two additional slots and to enable a flag that enables these slots:

```
#define PY_SSIZE_T_CLEAN
#include <Python.h>
#include "structmember.h"

typedef struct {
    PyObject_HEAD
    PyObject *first; /* first name */
    PyObject *last; /* last name */
    int number;
} CustomObject;

static int
Custom_traverse(CustomObject *self, visitproc visit, void *arg)
{
    Py_VISIT(self->first);
    Py_VISIT(self->last);
    return 0;
}

static int
Custom_clear(CustomObject *self)
{
    Py_CLEAR(self->first);
    Py_CLEAR(self->last);
    return 0;
}

static void
Custom_dealloc(CustomObject *self)
{
    PyObject_GC_UnTrack(self);
    Custom_clear(self);
    Py_TYPE(self)->tp_free((PyObject *) self);
}

static PyObject *
Custom_new(PyTypeObject *type, PyObject *args, PyObject *kwds)
{
    CustomObject *self;
    self = (CustomObject *) type->tp_alloc(type, 0);
    if (self != NULL) {
        self->first = PyUnicode_FromString("");
        if (self->first == NULL) {
```

(continues on next page)

⁴ Also, even with our attributes restricted to strings instances, the user could pass arbitrary `str` subclasses and therefore still create reference cycles.

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```

        Py_DECREF(self);
        return NULL;
    }
    self->last = PyUnicode_FromString("");
    if (self->last == NULL) {
        Py_DECREF(self);
        return NULL;
    }
    self->number = 0;
}
return (PyObject *) self;
}

static int
Custom_init(CustomObject *self, PyObject *args, PyObject *kwargs)
{
    static char *kwlist[] = {"first", "last", "number", NULL};
    PyObject *first = NULL, *last = NULL, *tmp;

    if (!PyArg_ParseTupleAndKeywords(args, kwargs, "|UUU", kwlist,
                                     &first, &last,
                                     &self->number))

        return -1;

    if (first) {
        tmp = self->first;
        Py_INCREF(first);
        self->first = first;
        Py_DECREF(tmp);
    }
    if (last) {
        tmp = self->last;
        Py_INCREF(last);
        self->last = last;
        Py_DECREF(tmp);
    }
    return 0;
}

static PyMemberDef Custom_members[] = {
    {"number", T_INT, offsetof(CustomObject, number), 0,
     "custom number"},
    {NULL} /* Sentinel */
};

static PyObject *
Custom_getfirst(CustomObject *self, void *closure)
{
    Py_INCREF(self->first);
    return self->first;
}

static int
Custom_setfirst(CustomObject *self, PyObject *value, void *closure)
{
    if (value == NULL) {
        PyErr_SetString(PyExc_TypeError, "Cannot delete the first attribute");
    }

```

(continues on next page)

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```

        return -1;
    }
    if (!PyUnicode_Check(value)) {
        PyErr_SetString(PyExc_TypeError,
            "The first attribute value must be a string");
        return -1;
    }
    Py_INCREF(value);
    Py_CLEAR(self->first);
    self->first = value;
    return 0;
}

static PyObject *
Custom_getlast(CustomObject *self, void *closure)
{
    Py_INCREF(self->last);
    return self->last;
}

static int
Custom_setlast(CustomObject *self, PyObject *value, void *closure)
{
    if (value == NULL) {
        PyErr_SetString(PyExc_TypeError, "Cannot delete the last attribute");
        return -1;
    }
    if (!PyUnicode_Check(value)) {
        PyErr_SetString(PyExc_TypeError,
            "The last attribute value must be a string");
        return -1;
    }
    Py_INCREF(value);
    Py_CLEAR(self->last);
    self->last = value;
    return 0;
}

static PyGetSetDef Custom_getsetters[] = {
    {"first", (getter) Custom_getfirst, (setter) Custom_setfirst,
     "first name", NULL},
    {"last", (getter) Custom_getlast, (setter) Custom_setlast,
     "last name", NULL},
    {NULL} /* Sentinel */
};

static PyObject *
Custom_name(CustomObject *self, PyObject *Py_UNUSED(ignored))
{
    return PyUnicode_FromFormat("%S %S", self->first, self->last);
}

static PyMethodDef Custom_methods[] = {
    {"name", (PyCFunction) Custom_name, METH_NOARGS,
     "Return the name, combining the first and last name"},
    {NULL} /* Sentinel */
};
    
```

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```
};

static PyObject CustomType = {
    PyVarObject_HEAD_INIT(NULL, 0)
    .tp_name = "custom4.Custom",
    .tp_doc = "Custom objects",
    .tp_basicsize = sizeof(CustomObject),
    .tp_itemsize = 0,
    .tp_flags = Py_TPFLAGS_DEFAULT | Py_TPFLAGS_BASETYPE | Py_TPFLAGS_HAVE_GC,
    .tp_new = Custom_new,
    .tp_init = (initproc) Custom_init,
    .tp_dealloc = (destructor) Custom_dealloc,
    .tp_traverse = (traverseproc) Custom_traverse,
    .tp_clear = (inquiry) Custom_clear,
    .tp_members = Custom_members,
    .tp_methods = Custom_methods,
    .tp_getset = Custom_getsetters,
};

static PyModuleDef custommodule = {
    PyModuleDef_HEAD_INIT,
    .m_name = "custom4",
    .m_doc = "Example module that creates an extension type.",
    .m_size = -1,
};

PyMODINIT_FUNC
PyInit_custom4(void)
{
    PyObject *m;
    if (PyType_Ready(&CustomType) < 0)
        return NULL;

    m = PyModule_Create(&custommodule);
    if (m == NULL)
        return NULL;

    Py_INCREF(&CustomType);
    if (PyModule_AddObject(m, "Custom", (PyObject *) &CustomType) < 0) {
        Py_DECREF(&CustomType);
        Py_DECREF(m);
        return NULL;
    }

    return m;
}
```

First, the traversal method lets the cyclic GC know about subobjects that could participate in cycles:

```
static int
Custom_traverse(CustomObject *self, visitproc visit, void *arg)
{
    int vret;
    if (self->first) {
        vret = visit(self->first, arg);
        if (vret != 0)
            return vret;
    }
}
```

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```

    }
    if (self->last) {
        vret = visit(self->last, arg);
        if (vret != 0)
            return vret;
    }
    return 0;
}

```

For each subobject that can participate in cycles, we need to call the `visit()` function, which is passed to the traversal method. The `visit()` function takes as arguments the subobject and the extra argument `arg` passed to the traversal method. It returns an integer value that must be returned if it is non-zero.

Python provides a `Py_VISIT()` macro that automates calling visit functions. With `Py_VISIT()`, we can minimize the amount of boilerplate in `Custom_traverse`:

```

static int
Custom_traverse(CustomObject *self, visitproc visit, void *arg)
{
    Py_VISIT(self->first);
    Py_VISIT(self->last);
    return 0;
}

```

Not: The `tp_traverse` implementation must name its arguments exactly `visit` and `arg` in order to use `Py_VISIT()`.

Second, we need to provide a method for clearing any subobjects that can participate in cycles:

```

static int
Custom_clear(CustomObject *self)
{
    Py_CLEAR(self->first);
    Py_CLEAR(self->last);
    return 0;
}

```

Notice the use of the `Py_CLEAR()` macro. It is the recommended and safe way to clear data attributes of arbitrary types while decrementing their reference counts. If you were to call `Py_XDECREF()` instead on the attribute before setting it to `NULL`, there is a possibility that the attribute's destructor would call back into code that reads the attribute again (*especially* if there is a reference cycle).

Not: You could emulate `Py_CLEAR()` by writing:

```

PyObject *tmp;
tmp = self->first;
self->first = NULL;
Py_XDECREF(tmp);

```

Nevertheless, it is much easier and less error-prone to always use `Py_CLEAR()` when deleting an attribute. Don't try to micro-optimize at the expense of robustness!

The deallocator `Custom_dealloc` may call arbitrary code when clearing attributes. It means the circular GC can be triggered inside the function. Since the GC assumes reference count is not zero, we need to untrack the object from the

GC by calling `PyObject_GC_UnTrack()` before clearing members. Here is our reimplemented deallocator using `PyObject_GC_UnTrack()` and `Custom_clear`:

```
static void
Custom_dealloc(CustomObject *self)
{
    PyObject_GC_UnTrack(self);
    Custom_clear(self);
    Py_TYPE(self)->tp_free((PyObject *) self);
}
```

Finally, we add the `Py_TPFLAGS_HAVE_GC` flag to the class flags:

```
.tp_flags = Py_TPFLAGS_DEFAULT | Py_TPFLAGS_BASETYPE | Py_TPFLAGS_HAVE_GC,
```

That's pretty much it. If we had written custom `tp_alloc` or `tp_free` handlers, we'd need to modify them for cyclic garbage collection. Most extensions will use the versions automatically provided.

2.2.5 Subclassing other types

It is possible to create new extension types that are derived from existing types. It is easiest to inherit from the built in types, since an extension can easily use the `PyTypeObject` it needs. It can be difficult to share these `PyTypeObject` structures between extension modules.

In this example we will create a `SubList` type that inherits from the built-in `list` type. The new type will be completely compatible with regular lists, but will have an additional `increment()` method that increases an internal counter:

```
>>> import sublist
>>> s = sublist.SubList(range(3))
>>> s.extend(s)
>>> print(len(s))
6
>>> print(s.increment())
1
>>> print(s.increment())
2
```

```
#define PY_SSIZE_T_CLEAN
#include <Python.h>

typedef struct {
    PyListObject list;
    int state;
} SubListObject;

static PyObject *
SubList_increment(SubListObject *self, PyObject *unused)
{
    self->state++;
    return PyLong_FromLong(self->state);
}

static PyMethodDef SubList_methods[] = {
    {"increment", (PyCFunction) SubList_increment, METH_NOARGS,
     PyDoc_STR("increment state counter")},
    {NULL},
}
```

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```

};

static int
SubList_init(SubListObject *self, PyObject *args, PyObject *kwds)
{
    if (PyList_Type.tp_init((PyObject *) self, args, kwds) < 0)
        return -1;
    self->state = 0;
    return 0;
}

static PyTypeObject SubListType = {
    PyVarObject_HEAD_INIT(NULL, 0)
    .tp_name = "sublist.SubList",
    .tp_doc = "SubList objects",
    .tp_basicsize = sizeof(SubListObject),
    .tp_itemsize = 0,
    .tp_flags = Py_TPFLAGS_DEFAULT | Py_TPFLAGS_BASETYPE,
    .tp_init = (initproc) SubList_init,
    .tp_methods = SubList_methods,
};

static PyModuleDef sublistmodule = {
    PyModuleDef_HEAD_INIT,
    .m_name = "sublist",
    .m_doc = "Example module that creates an extension type.",
    .m_size = -1,
};

PyMODINIT_FUNC
PyInit_sublist(void)
{
    PyObject *m;
    SubListType.tp_base = &PyList_Type;
    if (PyType_Ready(&SubListType) < 0)
        return NULL;

    m = PyModule_Create(&sublistmodule);
    if (m == NULL)
        return NULL;

    Py_INCREF(&SubListType);
    if (PyModule_AddObject(m, "SubList", (PyObject *) &SubListType) < 0) {
        Py_DECREF(&SubListType);
        Py_DECREF(m);
        return NULL;
    }

    return m;
}
    
```

As you can see, the source code closely resembles the Custom examples in previous sections. We will break down the main differences between them.

```

typedef struct {
    PyListObject list;
    
```

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```

    int state;
} SubListObject;
    
```

The primary difference for derived type objects is that the base type's object structure must be the first value. The base type will already include the `PyObject_HEAD()` at the beginning of its structure.

When a Python object is a `SubList` instance, its `PyObject *` pointer can be safely cast to both `PyListObject *` and `SubListObject *`:

```

static int
SubList_init(SubListObject *self, PyObject *args, PyObject *kwds)
{
    if (PyList_Type.tp_init((PyObject *) self, args, kwds) < 0)
        return -1;
    self->state = 0;
    return 0;
}
    
```

We see above how to call through to the `__init__` method of the base type.

This pattern is important when writing a type with custom `tp_new` and `tp_dealloc` members. The `tp_new` handler should not actually create the memory for the object with its `tp_alloc`, but let the base class handle it by calling its own `tp_new`.

The `PyTypeObject` struct supports a `tp_base` specifying the type's concrete base class. Due to cross-platform compiler issues, you can't fill that field directly with a reference to `PyList_Type`; it should be done later in the module initialization function:

```

PyMODINIT_FUNC
PyInit_sublist(void)
{
    PyObject* m;
    SubListType.tp_base = &PyList_Type;
    if (PyType_Ready(&SubListType) < 0)
        return NULL;

    m = PyModule_Create(&sublistmodule);
    if (m == NULL)
        return NULL;

    Py_INCREF(&SubListType);
    if (PyModule_AddObject(m, "SubList", (PyObject *) &SubListType) < 0) {
        Py_DECREF(&SubListType);
        Py_DECREF(m);
        return NULL;
    }

    return m;
}
    
```

Before calling `PyType_Ready()`, the type structure must have the `tp_base` slot filled in. When we are deriving an existing type, it is not necessary to fill out the `tp_alloc` slot with `PyType_GenericNew()` – the allocation function from the base type will be inherited.

After that, calling `PyType_Ready()` and adding the type object to the module is the same as with the basic `Custom` examples.

2.3 Defining Extension Types: Assorted Topics

This section aims to give a quick fly-by on the various type methods you can implement and what they do.

Here is the definition of `PyObject`, with some fields only used in debug builds omitted:

```
typedef struct _typeobject {
    PyObject_VAR_HEAD
    const char *tp_name; /* For printing, in format "<module>.<name>" */
    Py_ssize_t tp_basicsize, tp_itemsize; /* For allocation */

    /* Methods to implement standard operations */

    destructor tp_dealloc;
    Py_ssize_t tp_vectorcall_offset;
    getattrofunc tp_getattr;
    setattrofunc tp_setattr;
    PyAsyncMethods *tp_as_async; /* formerly known as tp_compare (Python 2)
                                   or tp_reserved (Python 3) */
    reprfunc tp_repr;

    /* Method suites for standard classes */

    PyNumberMethods *tp_as_number;
    PySequenceMethods *tp_as_sequence;
    PyMappingMethods *tp_as_mapping;

    /* More standard operations (here for binary compatibility) */

    hashfunc tp_hash;
    ternaryfunc tp_call;
    reprfunc tp_str;
    getattrofunc tp_getattro;
    setattrofunc tp_setattro;

    /* Functions to access object as input/output buffer */
    PyBufferProcs *tp_as_buffer;

    /* Flags to define presence of optional/expanded features */
    unsigned long tp_flags;

    const char *tp_doc; /* Documentation string */

    /* call function for all accessible objects */
    traverseproc tp_traverse;

    /* delete references to contained objects */
    inquiry tp_clear;

    /* rich comparisons */
    richcmpfunc tp_richcompare;

    /* weak reference enabler */
    Py_ssize_t tp_weaklistoffset;

    /* Iterators */
    getiterfunc tp_iter;
```

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```

iternextfunc tp_iternext;

/* Attribute descriptor and subclassing stuff */
struct PyMethodDef *tp_methods;
struct PyMemberDef *tp_members;
struct PyGetSetDef *tp_getset;
struct _typeobject *tp_base;
PyObject *tp_dict;
descrgetfunc tp_descr_get;
descrsetfunc tp_descr_set;
Py_ssize_t tp_dictoffset;
initproc tp_init;
allocfunc tp_alloc;
newfunc tp_new;
freefunc tp_free; /* Low-level free-memory routine */
inquiry tp_is_gc; /* For PyObject_IS_GC */
PyObject *tp_bases;
PyObject *tp_mro; /* method resolution order */
PyObject *tp_cache;
PyObject *tp_subclasses;
PyObject *tp_weaklist;
destructor tp_del;

/* Type attribute cache version tag. Added in version 2.6 */
unsigned int tp_version_tag;

destructor tp_finalize;
} PyTypeObject;
    
```

Now that's a *lot* of methods. Don't worry too much though – if you have a type you want to define, the chances are very good that you will only implement a handful of these.

As you probably expect by now, we're going to go over this and give more information about the various handlers. We won't go in the order they are defined in the structure, because there is a lot of historical baggage that impacts the ordering of the fields. It's often easiest to find an example that includes the fields you need and then change the values to suit your new type.

```

const char *tp_name; /* For printing */
    
```

The name of the type – as mentioned in the previous chapter, this will appear in various places, almost entirely for diagnostic purposes. Try to choose something that will be helpful in such a situation!

```

Py_ssize_t tp_basicsize, tp_itemsize; /* For allocation */
    
```

These fields tell the runtime how much memory to allocate when new objects of this type are created. Python has some built-in support for variable length structures (think: strings, tuples) which is where the `tp_itemsize` field comes in. This will be dealt with later.

```

const char *tp_doc;
    
```

Here you can put a string (or its address) that you want returned when the Python script references `obj.__doc__` to retrieve the doc string.

Now we come to the basic type methods – the ones most extension types will implement.

2.3.1 Finalization and De-allocation

```
destructor tp_dealloc;
```

This function is called when the reference count of the instance of your type is reduced to zero and the Python interpreter wants to reclaim it. If your type has memory to free or other clean-up to perform, you can put it here. The object itself needs to be freed here as well. Here is an example of this function:

```
static void
newdatatype_dealloc(newdatatypeobject *obj)
{
    free(obj->obj_UnderlyingDatatypePtr);
    Py_TYPE(obj)->tp_free(obj);
}
```

One important requirement of the deallocator function is that it leaves any pending exceptions alone. This is important since deallocators are frequently called as the interpreter unwinds the Python stack; when the stack is unwound due to an exception (rather than normal returns), nothing is done to protect the deallocators from seeing that an exception has already been set. Any actions which a deallocator performs which may cause additional Python code to be executed may detect that an exception has been set. This can lead to misleading errors from the interpreter. The proper way to protect against this is to save a pending exception before performing the unsafe action, and restoring it when done. This can be done using the `PyErr_Fetch()` and `PyErr_Restore()` functions:

```
static void
my_dealloc(PyObject *obj)
{
    PyObject *self = (PyObject *) obj;
    PyObject *cbresult;

    if (self->my_callback != NULL) {
        PyObject *err_type, *err_value, *err_traceback;

        /* This saves the current exception state */
        PyErr_Fetch(&err_type, &err_value, &err_traceback);

        cbresult = PyObject_CallObject(self->my_callback, NULL);
        if (cbresult == NULL)
            PyErr_WriteUnraisable(self->my_callback);
        else
            Py_DECREF(cbresult);

        /* This restores the saved exception state */
        PyErr_Restore(err_type, err_value, err_traceback);

        Py_DECREF(self->my_callback);
    }
    Py_TYPE(obj)->tp_free((PyObject*) self);
}
```

Not: There are limitations to what you can safely do in a deallocator function. First, if your type supports garbage collection (using `tp_traverse` and/or `tp_clear`), some of the object's members can have been cleared or finalized by the time `tp_dealloc` is called. Second, in `tp_dealloc`, your object is in an unstable state: its reference count is equal to zero. Any call to a non-trivial object or API (as in the example above) might end up calling `tp_dealloc` again, causing a double free and a crash.

Starting with Python 3.4, it is recommended not to put any complex finalization code in `tp_dealloc`, and instead use

the new `tp_finalize` type method.

Ayrıca bkz.:

PEP 442 explains the new finalization scheme.

2.3.2 Object Presentation

In Python, there are two ways to generate a textual representation of an object: the `repr()` function, and the `str()` function. (The `print()` function just calls `str()`.) These handlers are both optional.

```
reprfunc tp_repr;
reprfunc tp_str;
```

The `tp_repr` handler should return a string object containing a representation of the instance for which it is called. Here is a simple example:

```
static PyObject *
newdatatype_repr(newdatatypeobject * obj)
{
    return PyUnicode_FromFormat("Repr-ified_newdatatype{{size:%d}}",
                                obj->obj_UnderlyingDatatypePtr->size);
}
```

If no `tp_repr` handler is specified, the interpreter will supply a representation that uses the type's `tp_name` and a uniquely-identifying value for the object.

The `tp_str` handler is to `str()` what the `tp_repr` handler described above is to `repr()`; that is, it is called when Python code calls `str()` on an instance of your object. Its implementation is very similar to the `tp_repr` function, but the resulting string is intended for human consumption. If `tp_str` is not specified, the `tp_repr` handler is used instead.

Here is a simple example:

```
static PyObject *
newdatatype_str(newdatatypeobject * obj)
{
    return PyUnicode_FromFormat("Stringified_newdatatype{{size:%d}}",
                                obj->obj_UnderlyingDatatypePtr->size);
}
```

2.3.3 Attribute Management

For every object which can support attributes, the corresponding type must provide the functions that control how the attributes are resolved. There needs to be a function which can retrieve attributes (if any are defined), and another to set attributes (if setting attributes is allowed). Removing an attribute is a special case, for which the new value passed to the handler is `NULL`.

Python supports two pairs of attribute handlers; a type that supports attributes only needs to implement the functions for one pair. The difference is that one pair takes the name of the attribute as a `char*`, while the other accepts a `PyObject*`. Each type can use whichever pair makes more sense for the implementation's convenience.

```
getattrfunc tp_getattr;    /* char * version */
setattrfunc tp_setattr;
```

(continues on next page)

(önceki sayfadan devam)

```

/* ... */
getattrfunc tp_getattro;      /* PyObject * version */
setattrfunc tp_setattro;
    
```

If accessing attributes of an object is always a simple operation (this will be explained shortly), there are generic implementations which can be used to provide the `PyObject *` version of the attribute management functions. The actual need for type-specific attribute handlers almost completely disappeared starting with Python 2.2, though there are many examples which have not been updated to use some of the new generic mechanism that is available.

Generic Attribute Management

Most extension types only use *simple* attributes. So, what makes the attributes simple? There are only a couple of conditions that must be met:

1. The name of the attributes must be known when `PyType_Ready()` is called.
2. No special processing is needed to record that an attribute was looked up or set, nor do actions need to be taken based on the value.

Note that this list does not place any restrictions on the values of the attributes, when the values are computed, or how relevant data is stored.

When `PyType_Ready()` is called, it uses three tables referenced by the type object to create *descriptors* which are placed in the dictionary of the type object. Each descriptor controls access to one attribute of the instance object. Each of the tables is optional; if all three are `NULL`, instances of the type will only have attributes that are inherited from their base type, and should leave the `tp_getattro` and `tp_setattro` fields `NULL` as well, allowing the base type to handle attributes.

The tables are declared as three fields of the type object:

```

struct PyMethodDef *tp_methods;
struct PyMemberDef *tp_members;
struct PyGetSetDef *tp_getset;
    
```

If `tp_methods` is not `NULL`, it must refer to an array of `PyMethodDef` structures. Each entry in the table is an instance of this structure:

```

typedef struct PyMethodDef {
    const char *ml_name;      /* method name */
    PyCFunction ml_meth;      /* implementation function */
    int ml_flags;             /* flags */
    const char *ml_doc;       /* docstring */
} PyMethodDef;
    
```

One entry should be defined for each method provided by the type; no entries are needed for methods inherited from a base type. One additional entry is needed at the end; it is a sentinel that marks the end of the array. The `ml_name` field of the sentinel must be `NULL`.

The second table is used to define attributes which map directly to data stored in the instance. A variety of primitive C types are supported, and access may be read-only or read-write. The structures in the table are defined as:

```

typedef struct PyMemberDef {
    const char *name;
    int type;
    int offset;
    int flags;
    
```

(continues on next page)

(önceki sayfadan devam)

```
const char *doc;
} PyMemberDef;
```

For each entry in the table, a *descriptor* will be constructed and added to the type which will be able to extract a value from the instance structure. The `type` field should contain one of the type codes defined in the `structmember.h` header; the value will be used to determine how to convert Python values to and from C values. The `flags` field is used to store flags which control how the attribute can be accessed.

The following flag constants are defined in `structmember.h`; they may be combined using bitwise-OR.

Constant	Meaning
READONLY	Never writable.
READ_RESTRICTED	Not readable in restricted mode.
WRITE_RESTRICTED	Not writable in restricted mode.
RESTRICTED	Not readable or writable in restricted mode.

An interesting advantage of using the `tp_members` table to build descriptors that are used at runtime is that any attribute defined this way can have an associated doc string simply by providing the text in the table. An application can use the introspection API to retrieve the descriptor from the class object, and get the doc string using its `__doc__` attribute.

As with the `tp_methods` table, a sentinel entry with a name value of `NULL` is required.

Type-specific Attribute Management

For simplicity, only the `char*` version will be demonstrated here; the type of the name parameter is the only difference between the `char*` and `PyObject*` flavors of the interface. This example effectively does the same thing as the generic example above, but does not use the generic support added in Python 2.2. It explains how the handler functions are called, so that if you do need to extend their functionality, you'll understand what needs to be done.

The `tp_getattr` handler is called when the object requires an attribute look-up. It is called in the same situations where the `__getattr__()` method of a class would be called.

Here is an example:

```
static PyObject *
newdatatype_getattr(newdatatypeobject *obj, char *name)
{
    if (strcmp(name, "data") == 0)
    {
        return PyLong_FromLong(obj->data);
    }

    PyErr_Format(PyExc_AttributeError,
        "%50s' object has no attribute '%400s'",
        tp->tp_name, name);
    return NULL;
}
```

The `tp_setattr` handler is called when the `__setattr__()` or `__delattr__()` method of a class instance would be called. When an attribute should be deleted, the third parameter will be `NULL`. Here is an example that simply raises an exception; if this were really all you wanted, the `tp_setattr` handler should be set to `NULL`.

```
static int
newdatatype_setattr(newdatatypeobject *obj, char *name, PyObject *v)
```

(continues on next page)

(önceki sayfadan devam)

```
{
    PyErr_Format(PyExc_RuntimeError, "Read-only attribute: %s", name);
    return -1;
}
```

2.3.4 Object Comparison

```
richcmpfunc tp_richcompare;
```

The `tp_richcompare` handler is called when comparisons are needed. It is analogous to the rich comparison methods, like `__lt__()`, and also called by `PyObject_RichCompare()` and `PyObject_RichCompareBool()`.

This function is called with two Python objects and the operator as arguments, where the operator is one of `Py_EQ`, `Py_NE`, `Py_LE`, `Py_GT`, `Py_LT` or `Py_GE`. It should compare the two objects with respect to the specified operator and return `Py_True` or `Py_False` if the comparison is successful, `Py_NotImplemented` to indicate that comparison is not implemented and the other object's comparison method should be tried, or `NULL` if an exception was set.

Here is a sample implementation, for a datatype that is considered equal if the size of an internal pointer is equal:

```
static PyObject *
newdatatype_richcmp(PyObject *obj1, PyObject *obj2, int op)
{
    PyObject *result;
    int c, size1, size2;

    /* code to make sure that both arguments are of type
       newdatatype omitted */

    size1 = obj1->obj_UnderlyingDatatypePtr->size;
    size2 = obj2->obj_UnderlyingDatatypePtr->size;

    switch (op) {
        case Py_LT: c = size1 < size2; break;
        case Py_LE: c = size1 <= size2; break;
        case Py_EQ: c = size1 == size2; break;
        case Py_NE: c = size1 != size2; break;
        case Py_GT: c = size1 > size2; break;
        case Py_GE: c = size1 >= size2; break;
    }
    result = c ? Py_True : Py_False;
    Py_INCREF(result);
    return result;
}
```

2.3.5 Abstract Protocol Support

Python supports a variety of *abstract* ‘protocols;’ the specific interfaces provided to use these interfaces are documented in abstract.

A number of these abstract interfaces were defined early in the development of the Python implementation. In particular, the number, mapping, and sequence protocols have been part of Python since the beginning. Other protocols have been added over time. For protocols which depend on several handler routines from the type implementation, the older protocols have been defined as optional blocks of handlers referenced by the type object. For newer protocols there are additional slots in the main type object, with a flag bit being set to indicate that the slots are present and should be checked by the interpreter. (The flag bit does not indicate that the slot values are non-NULL. The flag may be set to indicate the presence of a slot, but a slot may still be unfilled.)

```
PyNumberMethods    *tp_as_number;
PySequenceMethods  *tp_as_sequence;
PyMappingMethods    *tp_as_mapping;
```

If you wish your object to be able to act like a number, a sequence, or a mapping object, then you place the address of a structure that implements the C type `PyNumberMethods`, `PySequenceMethods`, or `PyMappingMethods`, respectively. It is up to you to fill in this structure with appropriate values. You can find examples of the use of each of these in the `Objects` directory of the Python source distribution.

```
hashfunc tp_hash;
```

This function, if you choose to provide it, should return a hash number for an instance of your data type. Here is a simple example:

```
static Py_hash_t
newdatatype_hash(newdatatypeobject *obj)
{
    Py_hash_t result;
    result = obj->some_size + 32767 * obj->some_number;
    if (result == -1)
        result = -2;
    return result;
}
```

`Py_hash_t` is a signed integer type with a platform-varying width. Returning `-1` from `tp_hash` indicates an error, which is why you should be careful to avoid returning it when hash computation is successful, as seen above.

```
ternaryfunc tp_call;
```

This function is called when an instance of your data type is “called”, for example, if `obj1` is an instance of your data type and the Python script contains `obj1('hello')`, the `tp_call` handler is invoked.

This function takes three arguments:

1. *self* is the instance of the data type which is the subject of the call. If the call is `obj1('hello')`, then *self* is `obj1`.
2. *args* is a tuple containing the arguments to the call. You can use `PyArg_ParseTuple()` to extract the arguments.
3. *kwd*s is a dictionary of keyword arguments that were passed. If this is non-NULL and you support keyword arguments, use `PyArg_ParseTupleAndKeywords()` to extract the arguments. If you do not want to support keyword arguments and this is non-NULL, raise a `TypeError` with a message saying that keyword arguments are not supported.

Here is a toy `tp_call` implementation:

```
static PyObject *
newdatatype_call(newdatatypeobject *self, PyObject *args, PyObject *kwargs)
{
    PyObject *result;
    const char *arg1;
    const char *arg2;
    const char *arg3;

    if (!PyArg_ParseTuple(args, "sss:call", &arg1, &arg2, &arg3)) {
        return NULL;
    }
    result = PyUnicode_FromFormat(
        "Returning -- value: [%d] arg1: [%s] arg2: [%s] arg3: [%s]\n",
        obj->obj_UnderlyingDatatypePtr->size,
        arg1, arg2, arg3);
    return result;
}
```

```
/* Iterators */
getiterfunc tp_iter;
iternextfunc tp_iternext;
```

These functions provide support for the iterator protocol. Both handlers take exactly one parameter, the instance for which they are being called, and return a new reference. In the case of an error, they should set an exception and return NULL. `tp_iter` corresponds to the Python `__iter__()` method, while `tp_iternext` corresponds to the Python `__next__()` method.

Any *iterable* object must implement the `tp_iter` handler, which must return an *iterator* object. Here the same guidelines apply as for Python classes:

- For collections (such as lists and tuples) which can support multiple independent iterators, a new iterator should be created and returned by each call to `tp_iter`.
- Objects which can only be iterated over once (usually due to side effects of iteration, such as file objects) can implement `tp_iter` by returning a new reference to themselves – and should also therefore implement the `tp_iternext` handler.

Any *iterator* object should implement both `tp_iter` and `tp_iternext`. An iterator's `tp_iter` handler should return a new reference to the iterator. Its `tp_iternext` handler should return a new reference to the next object in the iteration, if there is one. If the iteration has reached the end, `tp_iternext` may return NULL without setting an exception, or it may set `StopIteration` *in addition* to returning NULL; avoiding the exception can yield slightly better performance. If an actual error occurs, `tp_iternext` should always set an exception and return NULL.

2.3.6 Weak Reference Support

One of the goals of Python's weak reference implementation is to allow any type to participate in the weak reference mechanism without incurring the overhead on performance-critical objects (such as numbers).

Ayrıca bkz.:

Documentation for the `weakref` module.

For an object to be weakly referencable, the extension type must do two things:

1. Include a `PyObject*` field in the C object structure dedicated to the weak reference mechanism. The object's constructor should leave it NULL (which is automatic when using the default `tp_alloc`).

2. Set the `tp_weaklistoffset` type member to the offset of the aforementioned field in the C object structure, so that the interpreter knows how to access and modify that field.

Concretely, here is how a trivial object structure would be augmented with the required field:

```
typedef struct {
    PyObject_HEAD
    PyObject *weakreflist; /* List of weak references */
} TrivialObject;
```

And the corresponding member in the statically-declared type object:

```
static PyTypeObject TrivialType = {
    PyVarObject_HEAD_INIT(NULL, 0)
    /* ... other members omitted for brevity ... */
    .tp_weaklistoffset = offsetof(TrivialObject, weakreflist),
};
```

The only further addition is that `tp_dealloc` needs to clear any weak references (by calling `PyObject_ClearWeakRefs()`) if the field is non-NULL:

```
static void
Trivial_dealloc(TrivialObject *self)
{
    /* Clear weakrefs first before calling any destructors */
    if (self->weakreflist != NULL)
        PyObject_ClearWeakRefs((PyObject *) self);
    /* ... remainder of destruction code omitted for brevity ... */
    Py_TYPE(self)->tp_free((PyObject *) self);
}
```

2.3.7 More Suggestions

In order to learn how to implement any specific method for your new data type, get the *CPython* source code. Go to the `Objects` directory, then search the C source files for `tp_` plus the function you want (for example, `tp_richcompare`). You will find examples of the function you want to implement.

When you need to verify that an object is a concrete instance of the type you are implementing, use the `PyObject_TypeCheck()` function. A sample of its use might be something like the following:

```
if (!PyObject_TypeCheck(some_object, &MyType)) {
    PyErr_SetString(PyExc_TypeError, "arg #1 not a mything");
    return NULL;
}
```

Ayrıca bkz.:

Download CPython source releases. <https://www.python.org/downloads/source/>

The CPython project on GitHub, where the CPython source code is developed. <https://github.com/python/cpython>

2.4 Building C and C++ Extensions

A C extension for CPython is a shared library (e.g. a `.so` file on Linux, `.pyd` on Windows), which exports an *initialization function*.

To be importable, the shared library must be available on `PYTHONPATH`, and must be named after the module name, with an appropriate extension. When using `distutils`, the correct filename is generated automatically.

The initialization function has the signature:

`PyObject* PyInit_modulename (void)`

It returns either a fully-initialized module, or a `PyModuleDef` instance. See `initializing-modules` for details.

For modules with ASCII-only names, the function must be named `PyInit_<modulename>`, with `<modulename>` replaced by the name of the module. When using multi-phase-initialization, non-ASCII module names are allowed. In this case, the initialization function name is `PyInitU_<modulename>`, with `<modulename>` encoded using Python's *punycode* encoding with hyphens replaced by underscores. In Python:

```
def initfunc_name(name):
    try:
        suffix = b'_' + name.encode('ascii')
    except UnicodeEncodeError:
        suffix = b'U_' + name.encode('punycode').replace(b'-', b'_')
    return b'PyInit' + suffix
```

It is possible to export multiple modules from a single shared library by defining multiple initialization functions. However, importing them requires using symbolic links or a custom importer, because by default only the function corresponding to the filename is found. See the “*Multiple modules in one library*” section in [PEP 489](#) for details.

2.4.1 Building C and C++ Extensions with distutils

Extension modules can be built using `distutils`, which is included in Python. Since `distutils` also supports creation of binary packages, users don't necessarily need a compiler and `distutils` to install the extension.

A `distutils` package contains a driver script, `setup.py`. This is a plain Python file, which, in the most simple case, could look like this:

```
from distutils.core import setup, Extension

module1 = Extension('demo',
                    sources = ['demo.c'])

setup (name = 'PackageName',
      version = '1.0',
      description = 'This is a demo package',
      ext_modules = [module1])
```

With this `setup.py`, and a file `demo.c`, running

```
python setup.py build
```

will compile `demo.c`, and produce an extension module named `demo` in the `build` directory. Depending on the system, the module file will end up in a subdirectory `build/lib.system`, and may have a name like `demo.so` or `demo.pyd`.

In the `setup.py`, all execution is performed by calling the `setup` function. This takes a variable number of keyword arguments, of which the example above uses only a subset. Specifically, the example specifies meta-information to build

packages, and it specifies the contents of the package. Normally, a package will contain additional modules, like Python source modules, documentation, subpackages, etc. Please refer to the distutils documentation in `distutils-index` to learn more about the features of distutils; this section explains building extension modules only.

It is common to pre-compute arguments to `setup()`, to better structure the driver script. In the example above, the `ext_modules` argument to `setup()` is a list of extension modules, each of which is an instance of the `Extension`. In the example, the instance defines an extension named `demo` which is build by compiling a single source file, `demo.c`.

In many cases, building an extension is more complex, since additional preprocessor defines and libraries may be needed. This is demonstrated in the example below.

```
from distutils.core import setup, Extension

module1 = Extension('demo',
                    define_macros = [('MAJOR_VERSION', '1'),
                                    ('MINOR_VERSION', '0')],
                    include_dirs = ['/usr/local/include'],
                    libraries = ['tcl83'],
                    library_dirs = ['/usr/local/lib'],
                    sources = ['demo.c'])

setup (name = 'PackageName',
      version = '1.0',
      description = 'This is a demo package',
      author = 'Martin v. Loewis',
      author_email = 'martin@v.loewis.de',
      url = 'https://docs.python.org/extending/building',
      long_description = '''
This is really just a demo package.
''',
      ext_modules = [module1])
```

In this example, `setup()` is called with additional meta-information, which is recommended when distribution packages have to be built. For the extension itself, it specifies preprocessor defines, include directories, library directories, and libraries. Depending on the compiler, distutils passes this information in different ways to the compiler. For example, on Unix, this may result in the compilation commands

```
gcc -DDEBUG -g -O3 -Wall -Wstrict-prototypes -fPIC -DMAJOR_VERSION=1 -DMINOR_
VERSION=0 -I/usr/local/include -I/usr/local/include/python2.2 -c demo.c -o build/
temp.linux-i686-2.2/demo.o

gcc -shared build/temp.linux-i686-2.2/demo.o -L/usr/local/lib -ltcl83 -o build/lib.
linux-i686-2.2/demo.so
```

These lines are for demonstration purposes only; distutils users should trust that distutils gets the invocations right.

2.4.2 Distributing your extension modules

When an extension has been successfully built, there are three ways to use it.

End-users will typically want to install the module, they do so by running

```
python setup.py install
```

Module maintainers should produce source packages; to do so, they run


```
python setup.py sdist
```

In some cases, additional files need to be included in a source distribution; this is done through a `MANIFEST.in` file; see `manifest` for details.

If the source distribution has been built successfully, maintainers can also create binary distributions. Depending on the platform, one of the following commands can be used to do so.

```
python setup.py bdist_wininst
python setup.py bdist_rpm
python setup.py bdist_dumb
```

2.5 Building C and C++ Extensions on Windows

This chapter briefly explains how to create a Windows extension module for Python using Microsoft Visual C++, and follows with more detailed background information on how it works. The explanatory material is useful for both the Windows programmer learning to build Python extensions and the Unix programmer interested in producing software which can be successfully built on both Unix and Windows.

Module authors are encouraged to use the `distutils` approach for building extension modules, instead of the one described in this section. You will still need the C compiler that was used to build Python; typically Microsoft Visual C++.

Not: This chapter mentions a number of filenames that include an encoded Python version number. These filenames are represented with the version number shown as `XY`; in practice, 'X' will be the major version number and 'Y' will be the minor version number of the Python release you're working with. For example, if you are using Python 2.2.1, `XY` will actually be `22`.

2.5.1 A Cookbook Approach

There are two approaches to building extension modules on Windows, just as there are on Unix: use the `distutils` package to control the build process, or do things manually. The `distutils` approach works well for most extensions; documentation on using `distutils` to build and package extension modules is available in `distutils-index`. If you find you really need to do things manually, it may be instructive to study the project file for the `winsound` standard library module.

2.5.2 Differences Between Unix and Windows

Unix and Windows use completely different paradigms for run-time loading of code. Before you try to build a module that can be dynamically loaded, be aware of how your system works.

In Unix, a shared object (`.so`) file contains code to be used by the program, and also the names of functions and data that it expects to find in the program. When the file is joined to the program, all references to those functions and data in the file's code are changed to point to the actual locations in the program where the functions and data are placed in memory. This is basically a link operation.

In Windows, a dynamic-link library (`.dll`) file has no dangling references. Instead, an access to functions or data goes through a lookup table. So the DLL code does not have to be fixed up at runtime to refer to the program's memory; instead, the code already uses the DLL's lookup table, and the lookup table is modified at runtime to point to the functions and data.

In Unix, there is only one type of library file (`.a`) which contains code from several object files (`.o`). During the link step to create a shared object file (`.so`), the linker may find that it doesn't know where an identifier is defined. The linker will look for it in the object files in the libraries; if it finds it, it will include all the code from that object file.

In Windows, there are two types of library, a static library and an import library (both called `.lib`). A static library is like a Unix `.a` file; it contains code to be included as necessary. An import library is basically used only to reassure the linker that a certain identifier is legal, and will be present in the program when the DLL is loaded. So the linker uses the information from the import library to build the lookup table for using identifiers that are not included in the DLL. When an application or a DLL is linked, an import library may be generated, which will need to be used for all future DLLs that depend on the symbols in the application or DLL.

Suppose you are building two dynamic-load modules, B and C, which should share another block of code A. On Unix, you would *not* pass `A.a` to the linker for `B.so` and `C.so`; that would cause it to be included twice, so that B and C would each have their own copy. In Windows, building `A.dll` will also build `A.lib`. You *do* pass `A.lib` to the linker for B and C. `A.lib` does not contain code; it just contains information which will be used at runtime to access A's code.

In Windows, using an import library is sort of like using `import spam`; it gives you access to spam's names, but does not create a separate copy. On Unix, linking with a library is more like `from spam import *`; it does create a separate copy.

2.5.3 Using DLLs in Practice

Windows Python is built in Microsoft Visual C++; using other compilers may or may not work (though Borland seems to). The rest of this section is MSVC++ specific.

When creating DLLs in Windows, you must pass `pythonXY.lib` to the linker. To build two DLLs, `spam` and `ni` (which uses C functions found in `spam`), you could use these commands:

```
cl /LD /I/python/include spam.c ../libs/pythonXY.lib
cl /LD /I/python/include ni.c spam.lib ../libs/pythonXY.lib
```

The first command created three files: `spam.obj`, `spam.dll` and `spam.lib`. `Spam.dll` does not contain any Python functions (such as `PyArg_ParseTuple()`), but it does know how to find the Python code thanks to `pythonXY.lib`.

The second command created `ni.dll` (and `.obj` and `.lib`), which knows how to find the necessary functions from `spam`, and also from the Python executable.

Not every identifier is exported to the lookup table. If you want any other modules (including Python) to be able to see your identifiers, you have to say `_declspec(dllexport)`, as in `void _declspec(dllexport) initspam(void)` or `PyObject _declspec(dllexport) *NiGetSpamData(void)`.

Developer Studio will throw in a lot of import libraries that you do not really need, adding about 100K to your executable. To get rid of them, use the Project Settings dialog, Link tab, to specify *ignore default libraries*. Add the correct `msvcrtxx.lib` to the list of libraries.

Embedding the CPython runtime in a larger application

Sometimes, rather than creating an extension that runs inside the Python interpreter as the main application, it is desirable to instead embed the CPython runtime inside a larger application. This section covers some of the details involved in doing that successfully.

3.1 Python'ı Başka Bir Uygulamaya Gömme

Önceki bölümlerde Python'un nasıl genişletileceği, yani Python'a bir C fonksiyonları kitaplığı ekleyerek Python'un işlevselliğinin nasıl genişletileceği tartışıldı. Bunu ayrıca tam tersi şekilde de yapmak mümkündür: Python'u içine gömerek C/C++ uygulamanızı zenginleştirin. Gömme işlemi, uygulamanıza bazı işlevlerini C veya C++ yerine Python'da uygulama yeteneği sağlar. Bu birçok amaç için kullanılabilir; bir örnek olarak kullanıcıların Python'da bazı komut dosyaları yazarak uygulamayı ihtiyaçlarına göre uyarlamalarına izin vermek olabilir. Bazı işlevler Python'da daha kolay yazılabilecekse kendiniz de kullanabilirsiniz.

Python'u gömmek, onu genişletmeye benzer, ancak tam olarak değil. Aralarındaki farksa Python'u genişlettiğinizde, uygulamanın ana programının hala Python yorumlayıcısı olması; Python'u gömerseniz, ana programın Python ile hiçbir ilgisi olmayabilmesidir — bunun yerine, uygulamanın bazı bölümleri bazı Python kodlarını çalıştırmak için zaman zaman Python yorumlayıcısını çağırır.

Yani Python'u gömüyorsanız, kendi ana programınızı sağlıyorsunuz demektir. Bu ana programın yapması gereken şeylerden biri Python yorumlayıcısını başlatmaktır. En azından `Py_Initialize()` fonksiyonunu çağırmalısınız. Python'a komut satırı argümanlarını iletmek için opsiyonel çağrılar vardır. Daha sonra uygulamanın herhangi bir yerinden yorumlayıcıyı çağırabilirsiniz.

Yorumlayıcıyı çağırmanın birkaç farklı yolu vardır: Python deyimlerini içeren bir dizeyi `PyRun_SimpleString()` ögesine veya bir stdio dosya işaretçisini ve bir dosya adını (yalnızca hata mesajlarında tanımlama için) `PyRun_SimpleFile()` 'a iletebilirsiniz. Python nesnelerini oluşturmak ve kullanmak için önceki bölümlerde açıklanan alt düzey işlemleri de çağırabilirsiniz.

Ayrıca bkz.:

c-api-index Python'un C arayüzünün detayları bu kılavuzda verilmiştir. Çok sayıda gerekli bilgi burada bulunabilir.

3.1.1 Çok Üst Düzey Gömme

Python'u gömmenin en basit şekli, çok yüksek seviyeli arayüzün kullanılmasıdır. Bu arabirim, uygulamayla doğrudan etkileşime girmeye gerek kalmadan bir Python betiği yürütmeyi amaçlamaktadır. Bu örnek olarak bir dosya üzerinde bazı işlemler gerçekleştirmek için kullanılabilir.

```
#define PY_SSIZE_T_CLEAN
#include <Python.h>

int
main(int argc, char *argv[])
{
    wchar_t *program = Py_DecodeLocale(argv[0], NULL);
    if (program == NULL) {
        fprintf(stderr, "Fatal error: cannot decode argv[0]\n");
        exit(1);
    }
    Py_SetProgramName(program); /* optional but recommended */
    Py_Initialize();
    PyRun_SimpleString("from time import time,ctime\n"
                      "print('Today is', ctime(time()))\n");
    if (Py_FinalizeEx() < 0) {
        exit(120);
    }
    PyMem_RawFree(program);
    return 0;
}
```

`Py_SetProgramName()` işlevi, yorumlayıcıyı Python çalışma zamanı kitaplıklarına giden yollar hakkında bilgilendirmek için `Py_Initialize()` öncesinde çağrılmalıdır. Ardından, Python yorumlayıcısı `Py_Initialize()` ile başlatılır, ardından tarih ve saati yazdıran sabit kodlanmış bir Python betiği yürütülür. Daha sonra, `Py_FinalizeEx()` çağrısı yorumlayıcıyı kapatır ve ardından programın sonu gelir. Gerçek bir programda, Python betiğini başka bir kaynaktan, belki bir metin düzenleyici rutininden, bir dosyadan veya bir veri tabanından almak isteyebilirsiniz. Python kodunu bir dosyadan almak, sizi bellek alanı ayırma ve dosya içeriğini yükleme zahmetinden kurtaran `PyRun_SimpleFile()` işlevi kullanılarak daha iyi yapılabilir.

3.1.2 Çok Yüksek Düzeyde Gömmenin Ötesinde: Genel Bir Bakış

Yüksek seviyeli arayüz size uygulamanızdan rastgele Python kodu parçalarını yürütme yeteneği verir, ancak veri değerleri alışverişi en hafif tabirle oldukça zahmetlidir. Bunu istiyorsanız, daha düşük seviyeli aramalar kullanmalısınız. Daha fazla C kodu yazmak zorunda kalma pahasına neredeyse her şeyi başarabilirsiniz.

Farklı amaçlara rağmen Python'u genişletmek ve Python'u gömmek tamamen aynı aktivitedir. Önceki bölümlerde tartışılan konuların çoğu hala geçerlidir. Bunu göstermek için Python'dan C'ye uzantı kodunun gerçekten ne yaptığını düşünün:

1. Veri değerlerini Python'dan C'ye çevirin,
2. Çevrilen değerleri kullanarak bir C rutinine bir fonksiyon çağrısı yapın, ve
3. Çağrıdaki veri değerlerini C'den Python'a çevirin.

Python'u yerleştirirken, arayüz kodu şunları yapar:

1. Veri değerlerini C'den Python'a çevirin,
2. Çevrilen değerleri kullanarak bir Python arabirim rutinine bir fonksiyon çağrısı gerçekleştirin ve
3. Çağrıdaki veri değerlerini C'den Python'a dönüştürün.

Gördüğünüz gibi, veri dönüştürme adımları, diller arası aktarımın farklı yönüne uyum sağlamak için basitçe değiştirilir. Tek fark, her iki veri dönüşümü arasında çağırdığınız rutindir. Uzatırken C rutini çağırırsınız, gömerken Python rutini çağırırsınız.

Bu bölüm, verilerin Python'dan C'ye nasıl dönüştürüleceğini ve bunun tam tersini tartışmayacaktır. Ayrıca, referansların doğru kullanımı ve hataların ele alınmasının anlaşıldığı varsayılmaktadır. Bu hususlar, yorumlayıcının genişletilmesinden farklı olmadığı için, gerekli bilgiler için önceki bölümlere başvurabilirsiniz.

3.1.3 Saf Gömme

İlk program, bir Python betiğinde bir fonksiyonu çalıştırmayı amaçlar. Çok yüksek seviyeli arayüzle ilgili bölümde olduğu gibi, Python yorumlayıcısı uygulama ile doğrudan etkileşime girmez (ancak bu bir sonraki bölümde değişecektir).

Python betiğinde tanımlanan bir işlevi çalıştırma kodu:

```
#define PY_SSIZE_T_CLEAN
#include <Python.h>

int
main(int argc, char *argv[])
{
    PyObject *pName, *pModule, *pFunc;
    PyObject *pArgs, *pValue;
    int i;

    if (argc < 3) {
        fprintf(stderr, "Usage: call pythonfile funcname [args]\n");
        return 1;
    }

    Py_Initialize();
    pName = PyUnicode_DecodeFSDefault(argv[1]);
    /* Error checking of pName left out */

    pModule = PyImport_Import(pName);
    Py_DECREF(pName);

    if (pModule != NULL) {
        pFunc = PyObject_GetAttrString(pModule, argv[2]);
        /* pFunc is a new reference */

        if (pFunc && PyCallable_Check(pFunc)) {
            pArgs = PyTuple_New(argc - 3);
            for (i = 0; i < argc - 3; ++i) {
                pValue = PyLong_FromLong(atoi(argv[i + 3]));
                if (!pValue) {
                    Py_DECREF(pArgs);
                    Py_DECREF(pModule);
                    fprintf(stderr, "Cannot convert argument\n");
                    return 1;
                }
                /* pValue reference stolen here: */
                PyTuple_SetItem(pArgs, i, pValue);
            }
            pValue = PyObject_CallObject(pFunc, pArgs);
            Py_DECREF(pArgs);
            if (pValue != NULL) {
```

(continues on next page)

(önceki sayfadan devam)

```

        printf("Result of call: %ld\n", PyLong_AsLong(pValue));
        Py_DECREF(pValue);
    }
    else {
        Py_DECREF(pFunc);
        Py_DECREF(pModule);
        PyErr_Print();
        fprintf(stderr, "Call failed\n");
        return 1;
    }
}
else {
    if (PyErr_Occurred())
        PyErr_Print();
    fprintf(stderr, "Cannot find function \"%s\"\n", argv[2]);
}
Py_XDECREF(pFunc);
Py_DECREF(pModule);
}
else {
    PyErr_Print();
    fprintf(stderr, "Failed to load \"%s\"\n", argv[1]);
    return 1;
}
if (Py_FinalizeEx() < 0) {
    return 120;
}
return 0;
}

```

Bu kod, `argv[1]` kullanarak bir Python betiği yükler ve `argv[2]` içinde adlandırılan fonksiyonu çağırır. Tamsayı argümanları, “argv” dizisinin diğer değerleridir. Bu programı *derler*, ve bağlarsanız (bitmiş yürütülebilir dosyayı **call** olarak adlandıralım) ve onu aşağıdaki gibi bir Python betiğini çalıştırmak için kullanırsanız:

```

def multiply(a,b):
    print("Will compute", a, "times", b)
    c = 0
    for i in range(0, a):
        c = c + b
    return c

```

o zaman sonuç olmalıdır:

```

$ call multiply multiply 3 2
Will compute 3 times 2
Result of call: 6

```

Program işlevselliği açısından oldukça büyük olmasına rağmen, kodun çoğu Python ve C arasında veri dönüştürme ve hata raporlama içindir. Python’u gömmekle ilgili ilginç kısım şununla başlar

```

Py_Initialize();
pName = PyUnicode_DecodeFSDefault(argv[1]);
/* Error checking of pName left out */
pModule = PyImport_Import(pName);

```

Yorumlayıcıyı başlattıktan sonra komut dosyası `PyImport_Import()` kullanılarak yüklenir. Bu rutin, argümanı olarak `PyUnicode_FromString()` veri dönüştürme rutini kullanarak oluşturulan bir Python dizisine ihtiyaç duyar.

```
pFunc = PyObject_GetAttrString(pModule, argv[2]);
/* pFunc is a new reference */

if (pFunc && PyCallable_Check(pFunc)) {
    ...
}
Py_XDECREF(pFunc);
```

Komut dosyası yüklendikten sonra, aradığımız ad `PyObject_GetAttrString()` kullanılarak alınır. Ad varsa ve döndürülen nesne çağrılabilirse bunun bir fonksiyon olduğunu güvenle varsayabilirsiniz. Program daha sonra normal olarak bir dizi argüman oluşturarak devam eder. Python işlevine yapılan çağrı şu şekilde yapılır:

```
pValue = PyObject_CallObject(pFunc, pArgs);
```

Fonksiyon döndürüldüğünde, `pValue` ya `NULL` olur ya da fonksiyonun dönüş değerine bir başvuru içerir. Değeri inceledikten sonra referans bıraktığınızdan emin olun.

3.1.4 Gömülü Python’u Genişletme

Şimdiye kadar, gömülü Python yorumlayıcısının uygulamanın kendisinden işlevselliğe erişimi yoktu. Python API, gömülü yorumlayıcıyı genişleterek buna izin verir. Yani, gömülü yorumlayıcı, uygulama tarafından sağlanan rutinlerle genişletilir. Kulağa karmaşık gelse de, o kadar da kötü değil. Uygulamanın Python yorumlayıcısını başlattığını bir süreliğine unutun. Bunun yerine, uygulamayı bir dizi altyordam olarak düşünün ve tıpkı normal bir Python uzantısı yazacağınız gibi, Python’un bu rutinlere erişmesini sağlayan bir tutkal kodu yazın. Örneğin:

```
static int numargs=0;

/* Return the number of arguments of the application command line */
static PyObject*
emb_numargs(PyObject *self, PyObject *args)
{
    if(!PyArg_ParseTuple(args, ":numargs"))
        return NULL;
    return PyLong_FromLong(numargs);
}

static PyMethodDef EmbMethods[] = {
    {"numargs", emb_numargs, METH_VARARGS,
     "Return the number of arguments received by the process."},
    {NULL, NULL, 0, NULL}
};

static PyModuleDef EmbModule = {
    PyModuleDef_HEAD_INIT, "emb", NULL, -1, EmbMethods,
    NULL, NULL, NULL, NULL
};

static PyObject*
PyInit_emb(void)
{
    return PyModule_Create(&EmbModule);
}
```

Yukarıdaki kodu `main()` fonksiyonunun hemen üstüne ekleyin. Ayrıca, `Py_Initialize()`: çağrısından önce aşağıdaki iki ifadeyi ekleyin:

```
numargs = argc;
PyImport_AppendInittab("emb", &PyInit_emb);
```

Bu iki satır numargs değişkenini başlatır ve emb.numargs() fonksiyonunu gömülü Python yorumlayıcısı için erişilebilir kılar. Bu uzantılarla Python betiği şekilde gibi şeyler yapabilir

```
import emb
print("Number of arguments", emb.numargs())
```

Gerçek bir uygulamada, yöntemler uygulamanın API'sini Python'a gösterir.

3.1.5 Python'u C++'a Gömmek

Python'u bir C++ programına yerleştirmek de mümkündür; bunun tam olarak nasıl yapılacağı, kullanılan C++ sisteminin ayrıntılarına bağlı olacaktır; genel olarak ana programı C++ ile yazmanız ve programınızı derlemek ve bağlamak için C++ derleyicisini kullanmanız gerekecektir. Python'un kendisini C++ kullanarak yeniden derlemeye gerek yoktur.

3.1.6 Unix benzeri sistemler altında Derleme ve Bağlama

Python yorumlayıcısını uygulamanıza gömmek için derleyicinize (ve bağlayıcınıza) iletilecek doğru bayrakları bulmak mutlaka önemli değildir, özellikle Python'un C dinamik uzantıları buna karşı bağlantılı olan (.so dosyaları) olarak uygulanan kitaplık modüllerini yüklemesi gerektiğinden.

Gerekli derleyici ve bağlayıcı bayraklarını bulmak için, yükleme işleminin bir parçası olarak oluşturulan pythonXY-config betiğini çalıştırabilirsiniz (bir python3-config betiği de mevcut olabilir). Bu komut dosyası, size doğrudan yardımcı olacak birkaç seçeneğe sahiptir:

- pythonX.Y-config --cflags derleme sırasında size önerilen bayrakları verecektir:

```
$ /opt/bin/python3.4-config --cflags
-I/opt/include/python3.4m -I/opt/include/python3.4m -DNDEBUG -g -fwrapv -O3 -Wall
↪-Wstrict-prototypes
```

- pythonX.Y-config --ldflags will give you the recommended flags when linking:

```
$ /opt/bin/python3.4-config --ldflags
-L/opt/lib/python3.4/config-3.4m -lpthread -ldl -lutil -lm -lpthon3.4m -Xlinker -
↪export-dynamic
```

Not: Birkaç Python kurulumu arasında (ve özellikle sistem Python ile kendi derlenmiş Python'unuz arasında) karışıklığı önlemek için, yukarıdaki örnekte olduğu gibi mutlak pythonX.Y-config yolunu kullanmanız önerilir.

Bu prosedür sizin için işe yaramazsa (tüm Unix benzeri platformlar için çalışması garanti edilmez; ancak, memnuniyetle karşılıyoruz: hata raporları) dinamik hakkında sisteminizin belgelerini okumanız gerekecektir ve/veya Python'un Makefile (konumunu bulmak için sysconfig.get_makefile_filename() kullanın) ve derleme seçeneklerini bağlamayı inceleyin. Bu durumda, sysconfig modülü, birleştirmek isteyeceğiniz konfigürasyon değerlerini programlı olarak çıkarmak için kullanışlı bir araçtır. Örneğin:

```
>>> import sysconfig
>>> sysconfig.get_config_var('LIBS')
'-lpthread -ldl -lutil'
>>> sysconfig.get_config_var('LINKFORSHARED')
'-Xlinker -export-dynamic'
```


>>> The default Python prompt of the interactive shell. Often seen for code examples which can be executed interactively in the interpreter.

... Şunlara başvurulabilir:

- Girintili bir kod bloğu için kod girerken, eşleşen bir çift sol ve sağ sınırlayıcı (parantez, köşeli parantez, kaşlı ayraç veya üçlü tırnak) içindeyken veya bir dekoratör belirttikten sonra etkileşimli kabuğun varsayılan Python istemi.
- Elipsis yerleşik sabiti.

2to3 Kaynağı ayrıştırarak ve ayrıştırma ağacında gezinerek tespit edilebilecek uyumsuzlukların çoğunu işleyerek Python 2.x kodunu Python 3.x koduna dönüştürmeye çalışan bir araç.

2to3, standart kitaplıkta `lib2to3`; bağımsız bir giriş noktası şu şekilde sağlanır: `file:Tools/scripts/2to3`. Bakınız `2to3-reference`.

soyut temel sınıf Soyut temel sınıflar *duck-typing* 'i, `hasattr()` gibi diğer teknikler beceriksiz veya tamamen yanlış olduğunda arayüzleri tanımlamanın bir yolunu sağlayarak tamamlar (örneğin sihirli yöntemlerle). ABC'ler, bir sınıftan miras almayan ancak yine de `isinstance()` ve `issubclass()` tarafından tanınan sınıflar olan sanal alt sınıfları tanıtır; `abc` modül belgelerine bakın. Python comes with many built-in ABCs for data structures (in the `collections.abc` module), numbers (in the `numbers` module), streams (in the `io` module), import finders and loaders (in the `importlib.abc` module). `abc` modülü ile kendi ABC'lerinizi oluşturabilirsiniz.

dipnot A label associated with a variable, a class attribute or a function parameter or return value, used by convention as a *type hint*.

Yerel değişkenlerin açıklamalarına çalışma zamanında erişilemez, ancak global değişkenlerin, sınıf niteliklerinin ve işlevlerin açıklamaları, sırasıyla modüllerin, sınıfların ve işlevlerin `__annotations__` özel özelliğinde saklanır.

See *variable annotation*, *function annotation*, **PEP 484** and **PEP 526**, which describe this functionality.

argüman A value passed to a *function* (or *method*) when calling the function. There are two kinds of argument:

- *keyword argument*: bir işlev çağrısında bir tanımlayıcının (ör. `ad =`) önüne geçen veya bir sözlükte `**` ile başlayan bir değer olarak geçirilen bir argüman. Örneğin, 3 ve 5, aşağıdaki `complex()`: çağrılarında anah-tar kelimenin argümanleridir:

```
complex(real=3, imag=5)
complex(**{'real': 3, 'imag': 5})
```

- *positional argument*: anahtar kelime argümanı olmayan bir argüman. Konumsal argümanlar, bir argüman listesinin başında görünebilir ve/veya * ile başlayan bir *iterable* öğesinin öğeleri olarak iletilebilir. Örneğin, 3 ve 5, aşağıdaki çağrılarda konumsal argümanlardır:

```
complex(3, 5)
complex(*(3, 5))
```

argümanlar, bir işlev gövdesindeki adlandırılmış yerel değişkenlere atanır. Bu atamayı yöneten kurallar için [calls bölümüne](#) bakın. Sözdizimsel olarak, bir argümanı temsil etmek için herhangi bir ifade kullanılabilir; değerlendirilen değer yerel değişkene atanır.

See also the [parameter](#) glossary entry, the FAQ question on the difference between arguments and parameters, and [PEP 362](#).

asenkron bağlam yöneticisi `async with` ifadesinde görülen ortamı `__aenter__()` ve `__aexit__()` yöntemlerini tanımlayarak kontrol eden bir nesne. [PEP 492](#) de anlatıldı.

asenkron jeneratör *asynchronous generator iterator* döndüren bir işlev. Bir `async for` döngüsünde kullanılabilen bir dizi değer üretmek için `yield` ifadeleri içermesi dışında `async def` ile tanımlanmış bir eşyordam işlevine benziyor.

Genellikle bir asenkron üretici işlevine atıfta bulunur, ancak bazı bağlamlarda bir *asynchronous generator iterator* 'e karşılık gelebilir. Amaçlanan anlamın net olmadığı durumlarda, tam terimlerin kullanılması belirsizliği önler.

Bir asenkron üretici fonksiyonu, `await` ifadelerinin yanı sıra `async for` ve `async with` ifadeleri içerebilir.

asenkron jeneratör yineleyici Bir *asynchronous generator* işlevi tarafından oluşturulan bir nesne.

Bu, `__anext__()` yöntemi kullanılarak çağrıldığında, bir sonraki `yield` ifadesine kadar *asynchronous generator* işlevinin gövdesini yürütecek, beklenebilir bir nesne döndüren bir *asynchronous iterator*.

Her `yield`, konum yürütme durumunu hatırlayarak (yerel değişkenler ve bekleyen `try` ifadeleri dahil) işlemeyi geçici olarak askıya alır. *asynchronous generator iterator*, `__anext__()` tarafından döndürülen başka bir beklenebilir ile etkili bir şekilde devam ettiğinde, kaldığı yerden devam eder. Bkz. [PEP 492](#) ve [PEP 525](#).

eşzamansız yinelenebilir Bir `async for` ifadesinde kullanılabilen bir nesne. `__aiter__()` yönteminden bir *asynchronous iterator* döndürmelidir. [PEP 492](#) 'de tanıtıldı.

asenkron yineleyici An object that implements the `__aiter__()` and `__anext__()` methods. `__anext__()` must return an *awaitable* object. `async for` resolves the awaitables returned by an asynchronous iterator's `__anext__()` method until it raises a `StopAsyncIteration` exception. Introduced by [PEP 492](#).

nitelik A value associated with an object which is referenced by name using dotted expressions. For example, if an object *o* has an attribute *a* it would be referenced as *o.a*.

beklenebilir `await` ifadesinde kullanılabilen bir nesne. Bir *coroutine* veya `__await__()` yöntemine sahip bir nesne olabilir. Ayrıca bakınız [PEP 492](#).

BDFL Benevolent Dictator For Life, namı diğer [Guido van Rossum](#), Python'un yaratıcısı.

ikili dosya Bir *dosya nesnesi* *bayt benzeri nesneler* okuyabilir ve yazabilir. İkili dosya örnekleri, ikili modda açılan dosyalardır ('rb', 'wb' veya 'rb+'), `sys.stdin.buffer`, `sys.stdout.buffer` ve `io.BytesIO` ve `gzip.GzipFile` örnekleri.

Ayrıca `str` nesnelerini okuyabilen ve yazabilen bir dosya nesnesi için *text file* 'a bakın.

bayt benzeri nesne `bufferobjects` 'i destekleyen ve bir *C-contiguous* arabelleğini dışa aktarabilen bir nesne. Bu, tüm `bytes`, `bytearray` ve `array.array` nesnelerinin yanı sıra birçok yaygın `memoryview` nesnesini içerir.

Bayt benzeri nesneler, ikili verilerle çalışan çeşitli işlemler için kullanılabilir; bunlara sıkıştırma, ikili dosyaya kaydetme ve bir soket üzerinden gönderme dahildir.

Bazı işlemler, değişken olması için ikili verilere ihtiyaç duyar. Belgeler genellikle bunlara “okuma-yazma bayt benzeri nesneler” olarak atıfta bulunur. Örnek değiştirilebilir arabellek nesneleri `bytearray` ve bir `bytearray memoryview` içerir. Diğer işlemler, ikili verilerin değişmez nesnelerde (“salt okunur bayt benzeri nesneler”) depolanmasını gerektirir; bunların örnekleri arasında `bytes` ve bir `bytes` nesnesinin `memoryview` bulunur.

bayt kodu Python kaynak kodu, bir Python programının CPython yorumlayıcısındaki dahili temsili olan bayt kodunda derlenir. Bayt kodu ayrıca `.pyc` dosyalarında önbelleğe alınır, böylece aynı dosyanın ikinci kez çalıştırılması daha hızlı olur (kaynaktan bayt koduna yeniden derleme önlenir). Bu “ara dilin”, her bir bayt koduna karşılık gelen makine kodunu yürüten bir *sanal makine* üzerinde çalıştığı söylenir. Bayt kodlarının farklı Python sanal makineleri arasında çalışması veya Python sürümleri arasında kararlı olması beklenmediğini unutmayın.

Bayt kodu talimatlarının bir listesi `bytecodes` dokümanında bulunabilir.

geri çağırma Gelecekte bir noktada yürütülecek bir argüman olarak iletilen bir alt program işlevi.

sınıf Kullanıcı tanımlı nesneler oluşturmak için bir şablon. Sınıf tanımları normalde sınıfın örnekleri üzerinde çalışan yöntem tanımlarını içerir.

sınıf değişkeni Bir sınıfta tanımlanmış ve yalnızca sınıf düzeyinde (yani sınıfın bir örneğinde değil) değiştirilmesi amaçlanan bir değişken.

zorlama Aynı türden iki argüman içeren bir işlem sırasında bir tür örneğinin diğerine örtük olarak dönüştürülmesi. Örneğin, `int(3.15)`, kayan noktalı sayıyı 3 tamsayısına dönüştürür, ancak `3+4.5`’te her argüman farklı türdedir (bir `int`, bir kayan nokta), ve her ikisi de eklenmeden önce aynı türe dönüştürülmelidir, aksi takdirde bir `TypeError` yükseltir. Zorlama olmadan, uyumlu türlerin bile tüm argümanlarının programcı tarafından aynı değere normalleştirilmesi gerekir, örneğin: `3+4, 5` yerine `float(3)+4, 5`.

karmaşık sayı Tüm sayıların bir reel kısım ve bir sanal kısım toplamı olarak ifade edildiği bilinen gerçek sayı sisteminin bir uzantısı. Hayali sayılar, hayali birimin gerçek katlarıdır (-1 ’in karekökü), genellikle matematikte i veya mühendislikte j ile yazılır. Python, bu son gösterimle yazılan karmaşık sayılar için yerleşik desteğe sahiptir; hayali kısım bir j son ekiyle yazılır, örneğin `3+1j`. `math` modülünün karmaşık eşdeğerlerine erişmek için `cmath` kullanın. Karmaşık sayıların kullanımı oldukça gelişmiş bir matematiksel özelliktir. Onlara olan ihtiyacın farkında değilseniz, onları güvenle görmezden gelebileceğiniz neredeyse kesindir.

bağlam yöneticisi `with` ifadesinde görülen ortamı `__enter__()` ve `__exit__()` yöntemlerini tanımlayarak kontrol eden bir nesne. Bakınız [PEP 343](#).

bağlam değişkeni Bağlamına bağlı olarak farklı değerler alabilen bir değişken. Bu, her yürütme iş parçacığının bir değişken için farklı bir değere sahip olabileceği Thread-Local Storage’a benzer. Bununla birlikte, bağlam değişkenleriyle, bir yürütme iş parçacığında birkaç bağlam olabilir ve bağlam değişkenlerinin ana kullanımı, eşzamanlı zaman uyumsuz görevlerde değişkenleri izlemektir. Bakınız `contextvars`.

bitişik Bir arabellek, *C-bitişik* veya *Fortran bitişik* ise tam olarak bitişik olarak kabul edilir. Sıfır boyutlu arabellekler C ve Fortran bitişiktir. Tek boyutlu dizilerde, öğeler sıfırdan başlayarak artan dizinler sırasına göre bellekte yan yana yerleştirilmelidir. Çok boyutlu C-bitişik dizilerde, öğeleri bellek adresi sırasına göre ziyaret ederken son dizin en hızlı şekilde değişir. Ancak, Fortran bitişik dizilerinde, ilk dizin en hızlı şekilde değişir.

eşyordam Eşyordamlar, altıyordamların daha genelleştirilmiş bir biçimidir. Alt programlara bir noktada girilir ve başka bir noktada çıkılır. Eşyordamlar birçok farklı noktada girilebilir, çıkılabilir ve devam ettirilebilir. `async def` ifadesi ile uygulanabilirler. Ayrıca bakınız [PEP 492](#).

eşyordam işlevi Bir *coroutine* nesnesi döndüren bir işlev. Bir eşyordam işlevi `async def` ifadesiyle tanımlanabilir ve `await`, `async for` ve `async with` anahtar kelimelerini içerebilir. Bunlar [PEP 492](#) tarafından tanımlandı.

CPython Python programlama dilinin [python.org](#) üzerinde dağıtıldığı şekliyle kurallı uygulaması. “CPython” terimi, gerektiğinde bu uygulamayı Jython veya IronPython gibi diğerlerinden ayırmak için kullanılır.

dekoratör Genellikle `@wrapper` sözdizimi kullanılarak bir işlev dönüşümü olarak uygulanan, başka bir işlevi döndüren bir işlev. Dekoratörler için yaygın örnekler şunlardır: `classmethod()` ve `staticmethod()`.

Dekoratör sözdizimi yalnızca sözdizimsel şekerdir, aşağıdaki iki işlev tanımı anlamsal olarak eşdeğerdir:

```
def f(...):
    ...
f = staticmethod(f)

@staticmethod
def f(...):
    ...
```

Aynı kavram sınıflar için de mevcuttur, ancak orada daha az kullanılır. Dekoratörler hakkında daha fazla bilgi için `function definitions` ve `class definitions` belgelerine bakın.

tanımlayıcı `__get__()`, `__set__()` veya `__delete__()` yöntemlerini tanımlayan herhangi bir nesne. Bir sınıf özniteliği bir tanımlayıcı olduğunda, öznitelik araması üzerine özel bağlama davranışı tetiklenir. Normalde, bir özniteliği almak, ayarlamak veya silmek için `a.b` kullanmak, `a` için sınıf sözlüğünde `b` adlı nesneyi arar, ancak `b` bir tanımlayıcı ise, ilgili tanımlayıcı yöntemi çağırılır. Tanımlayıcıları anlamak, Python'u derinlemesine anlamamanın anahtarıdır çünkü bunlar, işlevler, yöntemler, özellikler, sınıf yöntemleri, statik yöntemler ve süper sınıflara başvuru gibi birçok özelliğin temelidir.

For more information about descriptors' methods, see descriptors.

sözlük Rasgele anahtarların değerlerle eşlendiği ilişkisel bir dizi. Anahtarlar, `__hash__()` ve `__eq__()` yöntemleriyle herhangi bir nesne olabilir. Perl'de karma denir.

sözlük anlama Öğelerin tümünü veya bir kısmını yinelenebilir bir şekilde işlemenin ve sonuçları içeren bir sözlük döndürmenin kompakt bir yolu. `results = {n: n ** 2 for range(10)}`, `n ** 2` değerine eşlenmiş `n` anahtarını içeren bir sözlük oluşturur. Bkz. `comprehensions`.

sözlük görünümü `dict.keys()`, `dict.values()` ve `dict.items()` 'den döndürülen nesnelere sözlük görünümüleri denir. Sözlüğün girişleri üzerinde dinamik bir görünüm sağlarlar; bu, sözlük değiştiğinde görünümün bu değişiklikleri yansıttığı anlamına gelir. Sözlük görünümünü tam liste olmaya zorlamak için `list(dictview)` kullanın. Bakınız `dict-views`.

belge dizisi Bir sınıf, işlev veya modülde ilk ifade olarak görünen bir dize değişmezi. Paket yürütüldüğünde yoksayılırken, derleyici tarafından tanınır ve çevreleyen sınıfın, işlevin veya modülün `__doc__` özniteliğine yerleştirilir. İç gözlem yoluyla erişilebilir olduğundan, nesnenin belgelenmesi için kurallı yerdir.

duck-typing Doğru arayüze sahip olup olmadığını belirlemek için bir nesnenin türüne bakmayan bir programlama stili; bunun yerine, yöntem veya nitelik basitçe çağırılır veya kullanılır ("Ördek gibi görünüyorsa ve ördek gibi vaklıyorsa, ördek olmalıdır.") İyi tasarlanmış kod, belirli türlerden ziyade arayüzleri vurgulayarak, polimorfik ikameye izin vererek esnekliğini artırır. Ördek yazma, `type()` veya `isinstance()` kullanan testleri önler. (Ancak, ördek yazmanın *abstract base class* ile tamamlanabileceğini unutmayın.) Bunun yerine, genellikle `hasattr()` testleri veya *EAFP* programlamasını kullanır.

EAFP Af dilemek izin almaktan daha kolaydır. Bu yaygın Python kodlama stili, geçerli anahtarların veya niteliklerin varlığını varsayar ve varsayımın yanlış çıkması durumunda istisnaları yakalar. Bu temiz ve hızlı stil, birçok `try` ve `except` ifadesinin varlığı ile karakterize edilir. Teknik, C gibi diğer birçok dilde ortak olan *LBYL* stiliyle çelişir.

ifade (değer döndürür) Bir değere göre değerlendirilebilecek bir sözdizimi parçası. Başka bir deyişle, bir ifade, tümü bir değer döndüren sabit değerler, adlar, öznitelik erişimi, işleçler veya işlev çağrıları gibi ifade öğelerinin bir toplamıdır. Diğer birçok dilin aksine, tüm dil yapıları ifade değildir. Ayrıca `while` gibi kullanılamayan *ifadeleler* de vardır. Atamalar da değer döndürmeyen ifadelerdir (statement).

uzatma modülü Çekirdekle ve kullanıcı koduyla etkileşim kurmak için Python'un C API'sini kullanan, C veya C++ ile yazılmış bir modül.

f-string Ön eki 'f' veya 'F' olan dize değişmezleri genellikle “f-strings” olarak adlandırılır; bu, formatted string literals 'ın kısaltmasıdır. Ayrıca bkz. [PEP 498](#).

dosya nesnesi Dosya yönelimli bir API'yi (`read()` veya `write()` gibi yöntemlerle) temel alınan bir kaynağa gösteren bir nesne. Oluşturulma şekline bağlı olarak, bir dosya nesnesi gerçek bir disk üzerindeki dosyaya veya başka bir tür depolama veya iletişim aygıtına (örneğin standart giriş/çıkış, bellek içi arabellekler, yuvalar, borular vb.) erişime aracılık edebilir. Dosya nesneleri ayrıca *file-like objects* veya *streams* olarak da adlandırılır.

Aslında üç dosya nesnesi kategorisi vardır: ham *binary files*, arabelleğe alınmış *binary files* ve *text files*. Arayüzleri `io` modülünde tanımlanmıştır. Bir dosya nesnesi yaratmanın kurallı yolu `open()` işlevini kullanmaktır.

dosya benzeri nesne *dosya nesnesi* ile eşanlamlıdır.

bulucu İçerik aktarılmakta olan bir modül için *loader* 'ı bulmaya çalışan bir nesne.

Python 3.3'ten beri, iki çeşit bulucu vardır: `sys.meta_path` ile kullanılmak üzere *meta yol bulucular*, ve `sys.path_hooks` ile kullanılmak üzere *yol girişi bulucular*.

Daha fazla ayrıntı için [PEP 302](#), [PEP 420](#) ve [PEP 451](#) bakın.

kat bölümü En yakın tam sayıya yuvarlayan matematiksel bölme. Kat bölme operatörü `//` şeklindedir. Örneğin, `11 // 4` ifadesi, gerçek yüzer bölme tarafından döndürülen `2.75` değerinin aksine `2` olarak değerlendirilir. (`-11 // 4` 'ün `-3` olduğuna dikkat edin, çünkü bu `-2.75` yuvarlatılmış *aşağı*. Bakınız [PEP 238](#)).

fonksiyon Bir araya bir değer döndüren bir dizi ifade. Ayrıca, gövdenin yürütülmesinde kullanılabilen sıfır veya daha fazla *argüman* iletebilir. Ayrıca *parameter*, *method* ve *function* bölümüne bakın.

fonksiyon açıklaması Bir işlev parametresinin veya dönüş değerinin *ek açıklaması*.

İşlev ek açıklamaları genellikle *type hints* için kullanılır: örneğin, bu fonksiyonun iki `int` argüman alması ve ayrıca bir `int` dönüş değerine sahip olması beklenir

```
def sum_two_numbers(a: int, b: int) -> int:
    return a + b
```

İşlev açıklama sözdizimi *function* bölümünde açıklanmaktadır.

See *variable annotation* and [PEP 484](#), which describe this functionality.

__future__ A pseudo-module which programmers can use to enable new language features which are not compatible with the current interpreter.

By importing the `__future__` module and evaluating its variables, you can see when a new feature was first added to the language and when it becomes the default:

```
>>> import __future__
>>> __future__.division
_Feature((2, 2, 0, 'alpha', 2), (3, 0, 0, 'alpha', 0), 8192)
```

çöp toplama Artık kullanılmadığında belleği boşaltma işlemi. Python, referans sayımı ve referans döngülerini algılayıp kırabilen bir döngüsel çöp toplayıcı aracılığıyla çöp toplama gerçekleştirir. Çöp toplayıcı `gc` modülü kullanılarak kontrol edilebilir.

jeneratör Bir *generator iterator* döndüren bir işlev. Bir *for* döngüsünde kullanılabilen bir dizi değer üretmek için `yield` ifadeleri içermesi veya `next()` işleviyle birer birer alınabilmesi dışında normal bir işleve benziyor.

Genellikle bir üretici işlevine atıfta bulunur, ancak bazı bağlamlarda bir *jeneratör yineleyicisine* atıfta bulunabilir. Amaçlanan anlamın net olmadığı durumlarda, tam terimlerin kullanılması belirsizliği önler.

jeneratör yineleyici Bir *generator* işlevi tarafından oluşturulan bir nesne.

Her `yield`, konum yürütme durumunu hatırlayarak (yerel değişkenler ve bekleyen `try` ifadeleri dahil) işlemeyi geçici olarak askıya alır. *jeneratör yineleyici* devam ettiğinde, kaldığı yerden devam eder (her çağrıda yeniden başlayan işlevlerin aksine).

jeneratör ifadesi Yineleyici döndüren bir ifade. Bir döngü değişkenini, aralığı ve isteğe bağlı bir `if` yan tümcesini tanımlayan bir `for` yan tümcesinin takip ettiği normal bir ifadeye benziyor. Birleştirilmiş ifade, bir çevreleyen için değerler üretir:

```
>>> sum(i*i for i in range(10))      # sum of squares 0, 1, 4, ... 81
285
```

genel işlev Farklı türler için aynı işlemi uygulayan birden çok işlevden oluşan bir işlev. Bir çağrı sırasında hangi uygulamanın kullanılması gerektiği, gönderme algoritması tarafından belirlenir.

Ayrıca *single dispatch* sözlük girdisine, `functools singledispatch()` dekoratörüne ve **PEP 443**’e bakın.

GIL Bakınız *global interpreter lock*.

genel tercüman kilidi *CPython* yorumlayıcısı tarafından aynı anda yalnızca bir iş parçacığının Python *bytecode*’u yürütmesini sağlamak için kullanılan mekanizma. Bu, nesne modelini (`dict` gibi kritik yerleşik türler dahil) eşzamanlı erişime karşı örtük olarak güvenli hale getirerek *CPython* uygulamasını basitleştirir. Tüm yorumlayıcıyı kilitlemek, çok işlemcili makinelerin sağladığı paralelliğin çoğu pahasına, yorumlayıcının çok iş parçacıklı olmasını kolaylaştırır.

However, some extension modules, either standard or third-party, are designed so as to release the GIL when doing computationally-intensive tasks such as compression or hashing. Also, the GIL is always released when doing I/O.

“Serbest iş parçacıklı” bir yorumlayıcı (paylaşılan verileri çok daha ince bir ayrıntı düzeyinde kilitleyen) oluşturma çabaları, ortak tek işlemcili durumda performans düştüğü için başarılı olmamıştır. Bu performans sorununun üstesinden gelinmesinin uygulamayı çok daha karmaşık hale getireceğine ve dolayısıyla bakımını daha maliyetli hale getireceğine inanılmaktadır.

karma tabanlı pyc Geçerliliğini belirlemek için ilgili kaynak dosyanın son değiştirilme zamanı yerine karma değerini kullanan bir bayt kodu önbellek dosyası. Bakınız `pyc-invalidation`.

yıkanabilir Bir nesne, ömrü boyunca asla değişmeyen bir karma değere sahipse (bir `__hash__()` yöntemine ihtiyaç duyar) ve diğer nesnelerle karşılaştırılabilirse (bir `__eq__()` yöntemine ihtiyaç duyar) *hashable* olur. . Eşit karşılaştıran *Hashable* nesneleri aynı karma değerine sahip olmalıdır.

Hashability, bir nesneyi bir sözlük anahtarı ve bir set üyesi olarak kullanılabilir hale getirir, çünkü bu veri yapıları hash değerini dahili olarak kullanır.

Python’un değişmez yerleşik nesnelerinin çoğu, yıkanabilir; değiştirilebilir kaplar (listeler veya sözlükler gibi) değildir; değişmez kaplar (tüpler ve donmuş kümeler gibi) yalnızca öğelerinin yıkanabilir olması durumunda yıkanabilir. Kullanıcı tanımlı sınıfların örnekleri olan nesneler varsayılan olarak hash edilebilirdir. Hepsi eşit olmayı karşılaştırır (kendileriyle hariç) ve hash değerleri `id()`’lerinden türetilir.

BOŞTA An Integrated Development Environment for Python. IDLE is a basic editor and interpreter environment which ships with the standard distribution of Python.

değişmez Sabit değeri olan bir nesne. Değişmez nesneler arasında sayılar, dizeler ve demetler bulunur. Böyle bir nesne değiştirilemez. Farklı bir değer saklanması gerekiyorsa yeni bir nesne oluşturulmalıdır. Örneğin bir sözlükte anahtar olarak, sabit bir karma değerinin gerekli olduğu yerlerde önemli bir rol oynarlar.

içe aktarım yolu İçe aktarılacak modüller için *path based finder* tarafından aranan konumların (veya *path entries*) listesi. İçe aktarma sırasında, bu konum listesi genellikle `sys.path` adresinden gelir, ancak alt paketler için üst paketin `__path__` özelliğinden de gelebilir.

içe aktarma Bir modüldeki Python kodunun başka bir modüldeki Python koduna sunulması süreci.

içe aktarıcı Bir modülü hem bulan hem de yükleyen bir nesne; hem bir *finder* hem de *loader* nesnesi.

etkileşimli Python'un etkileşimli bir yorumlayıcısı vardır; bu, yorumlayıcı isteminde ifadeler ve ifadeler girebileceğiniz, bunları hemen çalıştırabileceğiniz ve sonuçlarını görebileceğiniz anlamına gelir. Herhangi bir argüman olmadan `python` 'u başlatmanız yeterlidir (muhtemelen bilgisayarınızın ana menüsünden seçerek). Yeni fikirleri test etmenin veya modülleri ve paketleri incelemenin çok güçlü bir yoludur (`help(x)` 'i unutmayın).

yorumlanmış Python, derlenmiş bir dilin aksine yorumlanmış bir dildir, ancak bayt kodu derleyicisinin varlığı nedeniyle ayırım bulanık olabilir. Bu, kaynak dosyaların daha sonra çalıştırılacak bir yürütülebilir dosya oluşturmadan doğrudan çalıştırılabileceği anlamına gelir. Yorumlanan diller genellikle derlenmiş dillerden daha kısa bir geliştirme/hata ayıklama döngüsüne sahiptir, ancak programları genellikle daha yavaş çalışır. Ayrıca bkz. *interactive*.

tercüman kapatma Kapatılması istendiğinde, Python yorumlayıcısı, modüller ve çeşitli kritik iç yapılar gibi tahsis edilen tüm kaynakları kademeli olarak serbest bıraktığı özel bir aşamaya girer. Ayrıca *garbage collector* için birkaç çağrı yapar. Bu, kullanıcı tanımlı yıkıcılarda veya zayıf referans geri aramalarında kodun yürütülmesini tetikleyebilir. Kapatma aşamasında yürütülen kod, dayandığı kaynaklar artık çalışmayabileceğinden çeşitli istisnalarla karşılaşabilir (yaygın örnekler kitaplık modülleri veya uyarı makineleridir).

Yorumlayıcının kapatılmasının ana nedeni, `__main__` modülünün veya çalıştırılan betiğin yürütmeyi bitirmiş olmasıdır.

yenilenebilir Üyelerini teker teker döndürebilen bir nesne. Yineleme örnekleri, tüm dizi türlerini (`list`, `str`, and `tuple` gibi) ve `dict`, *dosya objeleri* gibi bazı dizi olmayan türleri ve bir `__iter__()` yöntemiyle veya *dizi* semantiğini uygulayan bir `__getitem__()` yöntemiyle tanımladığınız tüm sınıfların nesnelerini içerir.

Yenilenebilirler bir `for` döngüsünde ve bir dizinin gerekli olduğu diğer birçok yerde kullanılabilir (`zip()`, `map()`, ...). Yerleşik `iter()` işlevine argüman olarak yenilenebilir bir nesne iletildiğinde, nesne için bir yineleyici döndürür. Bu yineleyici, değerler kümesi üzerinden bir geçiş için iyidir. Yenilenebilirleri kullanırken, genellikle `iter()` çağırmanız veya yineleyici nesnelerle kendiniz ilgilenmeniz gerekmez. `for` ifadesi bunu sizin için otomatik olarak yapar ve yineleyiciyi döngü süresince tutmak için geçici bir adsız değişken oluşturur. Ayrıca bkz. *iterator*, *sequence* ve *generator*.

yineleyici Bir veri akışını temsil eden bir nesne. Yineleyicinin `__next__()` yöntemine (veya yerleşik `next()` işlevine iletilmesi) yenilenen çağrılar, akıştaki ardışık öğeleri döndürür. Daha fazla veri bulunmadığında, bunun yerine bir `StopIteration` istisnası oluşturulur. Bu noktada, yineleyici nesnesi tükenir ve `__next__()` yöntemine yapılan diğer çağrılar yalnızca `StopIteration` ögesini yeniden yükseltir. Yineleyicilerin, yineleyici nesnesinin kendisini döndüren bir `__iter__()` yöntemine sahip olmaları gerekir, böylece her yineleyici de yenilenebilir ve diğer yenilenebilirlerin kabul edildiği çoğu yerde kullanılabilir. Dikkate değer bir istisna, birden çok yineleme geçişini deneyen koddur. Bir kapsayıcı nesnesi (örneğin bir `list`), onu `iter()` işlevine her ilettiğinizde veya onu bir `for` döngüsünde kullandığınızda yeni bir yineleyici üretir. Bunu bir yineleyiciyle denemek, önceki yineleme geçişinde kullanılan aynı tükenmiş yineleyici nesnesini döndürerek boş bir kap gibi görünmesini sağlar.

Daha fazla bilgi `typeiter` içinde bulunabilir.

anahtar işlev Anahtar işlevi veya harmanlama işlevi, sıralama veya sıralama için kullanılan bir değeri döndüren bir çağrılabilir. Örneğin, `locale.strxfrm()`, yerel ayara özgü sıralama kurallarının farkında olan bir sıralama anahtarı üretmek için kullanılır.

Python'daki bir dizi araç, öğelerin nasıl sıralandığını veya gruptandırıldığını kontrol etmek için temel işlevleri kabul eder. Bunlar `min()`, `max()`, `sorted()`, `list.sort()`, `heapq.merge()`, `heapq.nsmallest()`, `heapq.nlargest()` ve `itertools.groupby()`.

Bir tuş işlevi oluşturmanın birkaç yolu vardır. Örneğin. `str.lower()` yöntemi, büyük/küçük harfe duyarlı olmayan sıralamalar için bir anahtar işlev işlevi görebilir. Alternatif olarak, `lambda r: (r[0], r[2])` gibi bir `lambda` ifadesinden bir anahtar işlevi oluşturulabilir. Ayrıca, `operator` modülü üç temel işlev kurucusu sağlar: `attrgetter()`, `itemgetter()` ve `methodcaller()`. Anahtar işlevlerin nasıl oluşturulacağı ve kullanılacağına ilişkin örnekler için *Sorting HOW TO* bölümüne bakın.

anahtar kelime argümanı Bakınız *argument*.

lambda İşlev çağrıldığında değerlendirilen tek bir *expression* 'dan oluşan anonim bir satır içi işlev. Bir `lambda` işlevi oluşturmak için sözdizimi `lambda [parametreler]: ifade` şeklindedir

LBYL Zıplamadan önce Bak. Bu kodlama stili, arama veya arama yapmadan önce ön koşulları açıkça test eder. Bu stil, *EAFP* yaklaşımıyla çelişir ve birçok *if* ifadesinin varlığı ile karakterize edilir.

Çok iş parçacıklı bir ortamda, LBYL yaklaşımı “bakan” ve “sıçrayan” arasında bir yarış koşulu getirme riskini taşıyabilir. Örneğin, `if key in mapping: return mapping[key]` kodu, testten sonra, ancak aramadan önce başka bir iş parçacığı *eşlemeden* `key` kaldırırsa başarısız olabilir. Bu sorun, kilitlerle veya EAFP yaklaşımı kullanılarak çözülebilir.

liste Yerleşik bir Python *dizi*. Adına rağmen, öğelere erişim $O(1)$ olduğundan, diğer dillerdeki bir diziye, bağlantılı bir listeden daha yakındır.

liste anlama Bir dizideki öğelerin tümünü veya bir kısmını işlemenin ve sonuçları içeren bir liste döndürmenin kompakt bir yolu. `sonuç = ['{:04x}'.format(x) for range(256) if x % 2 == 0]`, dizinde çift onaltılık sayılar (0x..) içeren bir diziler listesi oluşturur. 0 ile 255 arasındadır. *if* yan tümcesi isteğe bağlıdır. Atlanırsa, “aralık(256)” içindeki tüm öğeler işlenir.

yükleyici Modül yükleyen bir nesne. `load_module()` adında bir yöntem tanımlanmalıdır. Bir yükleyici genellikle bir *finder* ile döndürülür. Ayrıntılar için **PEP 302** ve bir *soyut temel sınıf* için `importlib.abc.Loader` bölümüne bakın.

sihirli yöntem *special method* için gayri resmi bir eşanlamı.

haritalama Keyfi anahtar aramalarını destekleyen ve Mapping veya MutableMapping collections-abstract-base-classes içinde belirtilen yöntemleri uygulayan bir kapsayıcı nesnesi temel sınıflar. Örnekler arasında `dict`, `collections.defaultdict`, `collections.OrderedDict` ve `collections.Counter` sayılabilir.

meta yol bulucu Bir *finder*, `sys.meta_path` aramasıyla döndürülür. Meta yol bulucular, *yol girişi bulucuları* ile ilişkilidir, ancak onlardan farklıdır.

Meta yol bulucuların uyguladığı yöntemler için `importlib.abc.MetaPathFinder` bölümüne bakın.

metasınıf Bir sınıfın sınıfı. Sınıf tanımları, bir sınıf adı, bir sınıf sözlüğü ve temel sınıfların bir listesini oluşturur. Metasınıf, bu üç argümanı almaktan ve sınıfı oluşturmaktan sorumludur. Çoğu nesne yönelimli programlama dili, varsayılan bir uygulama sağlar. Python’u özel yapan şey, özel metasınıflar oluşturmanın mümkün olmasıdır. Çoğu kullanıcı bu araca hiçbir zaman ihtiyaç duymaz, ancak ihtiyaç duyulduğunda, metasınıflar güçlü ve zarif çözümler sağlayabilir. Nitelik erişimini günlüğe kaydetmek, iş parçacığı güvenliği eklemek, nesne oluşturmaya izlemek, tekileri uygulamak ve diğer birçok görev için kullanılmışlardır.

Daha fazla bilgi metaclasses içinde bulunabilir.

metot Bir sınıf gövdesi içinde tanımlanan bir işlev. Bu sınıfın bir örneğinin özniteliği olarak çağrılırsa, yöntem örnek nesnesini ilk *argument* (genellikle `self` olarak adlandırılır) olarak alır. Bkz. *function* ve *nested scope*.

metot kalite sıralaması Metot Çözüm Sırası, arama sırasında bir üye için temel sınıfların arandığı sıradır. 2.3 sürümünden bu yana Python yorumlayıcısı tarafından kullanılan algoritmanın ayrıntıları için bkz. *The Python 2.3 Method Resolution Order*

modül Python kodunun kuruluş birimi olarak hizmet eden bir nesne. Modüller, rastgele Python nesneleri içeren bir ad alanına sahiptir. Modüller, *importing* işlemiyle Python’a yüklenir.

Ayrıca bakınız *package*.

modül özelliği Bir modülü yüklemek için kullanılan içe aktarmayla ilgili bilgileri içeren bir ad alanı. Bir `importlib.machinery.ModuleSpec` örneği.

MRO Bakınız *metot çözüm sırası*.

değiştirilebilir Değiştirilebilir (mutable) nesneler değerlerini değiştirebilir ancak idlerini koruyabilirler. Ayrıca bkz. *immutable*.

adlandırılmış demet “named tuple” terimi, demetten miras alan ve dizinlenebilir öğelerine de adlandırılmış nitelikler kullanılarak erişilebilen herhangi bir tür veya sınıf için geçerlidir. Tür veya sınıfın başka özellikleri de olabilir.

Çeşitli yerleşik türler, `time.localtime()` ve `os.stat()` tarafından döndürülen değerler de dahil olmak üzere, tanımlama grupları olarak adlandırılır. Başka bir örnek `sys.float_info`:

```
>>> sys.float_info[1]           # indexed access
1024
>>> sys.float_info.max_exp      # named field access
1024
>>> isinstance(sys.float_info, tuple) # kind of tuple
True
```

Bazı adlandırılmış demetler yerleşik türlerdir (yukarıdaki örnekler gibi). Alternatif olarak, `tuple` ögesinden miras alan ve adlandırılmış alanları tanımlayan normal bir sınıf tanımından adlandırılmış bir tanımlama grubu oluşturulabilir. Böyle bir sınıf elle yazılabilir veya fabrika işlevi `collections.namedtuple()` ile oluşturulabilir. İkinci teknik ayrıca elle yazılmış veya yerleşik adlandırılmış demetlerde bulunmayan bazı ekstra yöntemler ekler.

ad alanı Değişkenin saklandığı yer. Ad alanları sözlükler olarak uygulanır. Nesnelerde (yöntemlerde) yerel, genel ve yerleşik ad alanlarının yanı sıra iç içe ad alanları vardır. Ad alanları, adlandırma çakışmalarını önleyerek modülerliği destekler. Örneğin, `builtins.open` ve `os.open()` işlevleri ad alanlarıyla ayırt edilir. Ad alanları, hangi modülün bir işlevi uyguladığını açıkça belirterek okunabilirliğe ve sürdürülebilirliğe de yardımcı olur. Örneğin, `random.seed()` veya `itertools.islice()` yazmak, bu işlevlerin sırasıyla `random` ve `itertools` modülleri tarafından uygulandığını açıkça gösterir.

ad alanı paketi A [PEP 420 package](#), yalnızca alt paketler için bir kap olarak hizmet eder. Ad alanı paketlerinin hiçbir fiziksel temsili olmayabilir ve `__init__.py` dosyası olmadığından özellikle *regular package* gibi değildir.

Ayrıca bkz. *module*.

iç içe kapsam Kapsamlı bir tanımdaki bir değişkene atıfta bulunma yeteneği. Örneğin, başka bir fonksiyonun içinde tanımlanan bir fonksiyon, dış fonksiyondaki değişkenlere atıfta bulunabilir. İç içe kapsamların varsayılan olarak yalnızca başvuru için çalıştığını ve atama için çalışmadığını unutmayın. Yerel değişkenler en içteki kapsamda hem okur hem de yazar. Benzer şekilde, global değişkenler global ad alanını okur ve yazar. `nonlocal`, dış kapsamlara yazmaya izin verir.

yeni stil sınıf Artık tüm sınıf nesneleri için kullanılan sınıfların lezzetinin eski adı. Önceki Python sürümlerinde, yalnızca yeni stil sınıfları Python'un `__slots__`, tanımlayıcılar, özellikler, `__getattr__()`, sınıf yöntemleri ve statik yöntemler gibi daha yeni, çok yönlü özelliklerini kullanabilirdi.

obje Durum (öznitelikler veya değer) ve tanımlanmış davranış (yöntemler) içeren herhangi bir veri. Ayrıca herhangi bir *yeni tarz sınıfın* nihai temel sınıfı.

paket A Python *module* which can contain submodules or recursively, subpackages. Technically, a package is a Python module with an `__path__` attribute.

Ayrıca bkz. *regular package* ve *namespace package*.

parametre Bir *function* (veya yöntem) tanımında, işlevin kabul edebileceği bir *argument* (veya bazı durumlarda, argümanlar) belirten adlandırılmış bir varlık. Beş çeşit parametre vardır:

- *positional-or-keyword*: *pozisyonel* veya bir *keyword argümanı* olarak iletilebilen bir argüman belirtir. Bu, varsayılan parametre türüdür, örneğin aşağıdakilerde *foo* ve *bar*:

```
def func(foo, bar=None): ...
```

- *positional-only*: yalnızca konuma göre sağlanabilen bir argüman belirtir. Yalnızca konumsal parametreler, onlardan sonra fonksiyon tanımının parametre listesine bir `/` karakteri eklenerek tanımlanabilir, örneğin aşağıdakilerde *posonly1* ve *posonly2*:

```
def func(posonly1, posonly2, /, positional_or_keyword): ...
```

- *keyword-only*: sadece anahtar kelime ile sağlanabilen bir argüman belirtir. Yalnızca anahtar kelime (keyword-only) parametreleri, onlardan önceki fonksiyon tanımının parametre listesine tek bir değişken konumlu parametre veya çıplak * dahil edilerek tanımlanabilir, örneğin aşağıdakilerde *kw_only1* ve *kw_only2*:

```
def func(arg, *, kw_only1, kw_only2): ...
```

- *var-positional*: keyfi bir pozisyonel argüman dizisinin sağlanabileceğini belirtir (diğer parametreler tarafından zaten kabul edilmiş herhangi bir konumsal argümana ek olarak). Böyle bir parametre, parametre adının başına * eklenerek tanımlanabilir, örneğin aşağıdakilerde *args*:

```
def func(*args, **kwargs): ...
```

- *var-keyword*: keyfi olarak birçok anahtar kelime argümanının sağlanabileceğini belirtir (diğer parametreler tarafından zaten kabul edilen herhangi bir anahtar kelime argümanına ek olarak). Böyle bir parametre, parametre adının başına **, örneğin yukarıdaki örnekte *kwargs* eklenerek tanımlanabilir.

Parametreler, hem isteğe bağlı hem de gerekli argümanları ve ayrıca bazı isteğe bağlı bağımsız değişkenler için varsayılan değerleri belirtebilir.

Ayrıca bkz. *argüman*, argümanlar ve parametreler arasındaki fark, `inspect.Parameter`, `function` ve **PEP 362**.

yol girişi *path based finder* içe aktarma modüllerini bulmak için başvurduğu *import path* üzerindeki tek bir konum.

yol girişi bulucu Bir *finder* `sys.path_hooks` (yani bir *yol girişi kancası*) üzerinde bir çağrılabilir tarafından döndürülür ve *path entry* verilen modüllerin nasıl bulunacağını bilir.

Yol girişi bulucularının uyguladığı yöntemler için `importlib.abc.PathEntryFinder` bölümüne bakın.

yol giriş kancası `sys.path_hook` listesinde, belirli bir *yol girişindeki* modülleri nasıl bulacağını biliyorsa, bir *yol girişi bulucu* döndüren bir çağrılabilir.

yol tabanlı bulucu Modüller için bir *import path* arayan varsayılan *meta yol buluculardan* biri.

yol benzeri nesne Bir dosya sistemi yolunu temsil eden bir nesne. Yol benzeri bir nesne, bir yolu temsil eden bir `str` veya `bytes` nesnesi veya `os.PathLike` protokolünü uygulayan bir nesnedir. `os.PathLike` protokolünü destekleyen bir nesne, `os.fspath()` işlevi çağrılarak bir `str` veya `bytes` dosya sistemi yoluna dönüştürülebilir; `os.fsdecode()` ve `os.fsencode()`, bunun yerine sırasıyla `str` veya `bytes` sonucunu garanti etmek için kullanılabilir. **PEP 519** tarafından tanıtıldı.

PEP Python Geliştirme Önerisi. PEP, Python topluluğuna bilgi sağlayan veya Python veya süreçleri ya da ortamı için yeni bir özelliği açıklayan bir tasarım belgesidir. PEP'ler, önerilen özellikler için özlü bir teknik şartname ve bir gerekçe sağlamalıdır.

PEP'lerin, önemli yeni özellikler önermek, bir sorun hakkında topluluk girdisi toplamak ve Python'a giren tasarım kararlarını belgelemek için birincil mekanizmalar olması amaçlanmıştır. PEP yazarı, topluluk içinde fikir birliği oluşturmaktan ve muhalif görüşleri belgelemekten sorumludur.

Bakınız **PEP 1**.

kısım **PEP 420** içinde tanımlandığı gibi, bir ad alanı paketine katkıda bulunan tek bir dizindeki (muhtemelen bir zip dosyasında depolanan) bir dizi dosya.

konumsal argüman Bakınız *argument*.

geçici API Geçici bir API, standart kitaplığın geriye dönük uyumluluk garantilerinden kasıtlı olarak hariç tutulan bir API'dir. Bu tür arayüzlerde büyük değişiklikler beklenmese de, geçici olarak işaretlendikleri süreç, çekirdek geliştiriciler tarafından gerekli görüldüğü takdirde geriye dönük uyumsuz değişiklikler (arayüzün kaldırılmasına kadar ve buna kadar) meydana gelebilir. Bu tür değişiklikler karşılıksız yapılmayacaktır - bunlar yalnızca API'nin eklenmesinden önce gözden kaçan ciddi temel kusurlar ortaya çıkarsa gerçekleşecektir.

Geçici API'ler için bile, geriye dönük uyumsuz değişiklikler “son çare çözümü” olarak görülür - tanımlanan herhangi bir soruna geriye dönük uyumlu bir çözüm bulmak için her türlü girişimde bulunulacaktır.

Bu süreç, standart kitaplığın, uzun süreler boyunca sorunlu tasarım hatalarına kilitlenmeden zaman içinde gelişmeye devam etmesini sağlar. Daha fazla ayrıntı için bkz. [PEP 411](#).

geçici paket Bakınız *provisional API*.

Python 3000 Python 3.x sürüm satırının takma adı (uzun zaman önce sürüm 3’ün piyasaya sürülmesi uzak bir gelecekte olduğu zaman ortaya çıktı.) Bu aynı zamanda “Py3k” olarak da kısaltılır.

Pythonic Diğer dillerde ortak kavramları kullanarak kod uygulamak yerine Python dilinin en yaygın deyimlerini yakından takip eden bir fikir veya kod parçası. Örneğin, Python’da yaygın bir deyim, bir `for` ifadesi kullanarak yinelenen bir öğenin tüm öğeleri üzerinde döngü oluşturmaktır. Diğer birçok dilde bu tür bir yapı yoktur, bu nedenle Python’a aşina olmayan kişiler bazen bunun yerine sayısal bir sayaç kullanır:

```
for i in range(len(food)):
    print(food[i])
```

Temizleyicinin aksine, Pythonic yöntemi:

```
for piece in food:
    print(piece)
```

nitelikli isim [PEP 3155](#) içinde tanımlandığı gibi, bir modülün genel kapsamından o modülde tanımlanan bir sınıfa, işleve veya yonteme giden “yolu” gösteren noktalı ad. Üst düzey işlevler ve sınıflar için nitelikli ad, nesnenin adıyla aynıdır:

```
>>> class C:
...     class D:
...         def meth(self):
...             pass
...
>>> C.__qualname__
'C'
>>> C.D.__qualname__
'C.D'
>>> C.D.meth.__qualname__
'C.D.meth'
```

Modüllere atıfta bulunmak için kullanıldığında, *tam nitelenmiş ad*, herhangi bir üst paket de dahil olmak üzere, module giden tüm noktalı yol anlamına gelir, örn. `email.mime.text`:

```
>>> import email.mime.text
>>> email.mime.text.__name__
'email.mime.text'
```

referans sayısı Bir nesneye yapılan başvuruların sayısı. Bir nesnenin referans sayısı sıfıra düştüğünde, yerinden çıkarılır. Referans sayımı genellikle Python kodunda görülmez, ancak *CPython* uygulamasının önemli bir özgesidir. `sys` modülü, programcıların belirli bir nesne için referans sayısını döndürmek üzere çağırabilecekleri bir `getrefcount()` işlevini tanımlar.

sürekli paketleme `__init__.py` dosyası içeren bir dizin gibi geleneksel bir *package*.

Ayrıca bkz. *ad alanı paketi*.

__slots__ Örnek öznitelikleri için önceden yer bildirerek ve örnek sözlüklerini ortadan kaldırarak bellekten tasarruf sağlayan bir sınıf içindeki bildirim. Popüler olmasına rağmen, tekniğin doğru olması biraz zor ve en iyi, bellek açısından kritik bir uygulamada çok sayıda örneğin bulunduğu nadir durumlar için ayrılmıştır.

dizi `__getitem__()` özel yöntemi aracılığıyla tamsayı dizinlerini kullanarak verimli öge erişimini destekleyen ve dizinin uzunluğunu döndüren bir `__len__()` yöntemini tanımlayan bir *iterable*. Bazı yerleşik dizi türleri şunlardır: `list`, `str`, `tuple` ve `bytes`. `dict` ayrıca `__getitem__()` ve `__len__()` 'i de desteklediğine dikkat edin, ancak aramalar tamsayılar yerine rastgele *immutable* anahtarları kullandığından bir diziden ziyade bir eşleme olarak kabul edilir.

`collections.abc.Sequence` soyut temel sınıfı; `count()`, `index()`, `__contains__()`, ve `__reversed__()` ekleyerek sadece `__getitem__()` ve `__len__()` 'in ötesine geçen çok daha zengin bir arayüzü tanımlar. Bu genişletilmiş arabirimi uygulayan türler, `register()` kullanılarak açıkça kaydedilebilir.

anlamak Öğelerin tümünü veya bir kısmını yinelenebilir bir şekilde işlemenin ve sonuçlarla birlikte bir küme döndürmenin kompakt bir yolu. `results = {c for c in 'abracadabra' if c not in 'abc'}, {'r', 'd'}` dizelerini oluşturur. Bakınız *comprehensions*.

tek sevk Uygulamanın tek bir argüman türüne göre seçildiği bir *generic function* gönderimi biçimi.

parçalamak Genellikle bir *sequence* 'nin bir bölümünü içeren bir nesne. Bir dilim, örneğin `variable_name[1:3:5]` 'de olduğu gibi, birkaç tane verildiğinde, sayılar arasında iki nokta üst üste koyarak, `[]` alt simge gösterimi kullanılarak oluşturulur. Köşeli ayraç (alt simge) gösterimi, dahili olarak `slice` nesnelerini kullanır.

özel metod Toplama gibi bir tür üzerinde belirli bir işlemi yürütmek için Python tarafından örtük olarak çağrılan bir yöntem. Bu tür yöntemlerin çift alt çizgi ile başlayan ve biten adları vardır. Özel yöntemler `specialnames` içinde belgelenmiştir.

ifade (değer döndürmez) Bir ifade, bir paketin parçasıdır (kod "bloğu"). Bir ifade, bir *expression* veya `if`, `while` veya `for` gibi bir anahtar kelimeye sahip birkaç yapıdan biridir.

yazı çözümleme A codec which encodes Unicode strings to bytes.

yazı dosyası A *file object* `str` nesnelerini okuyabilir ve yazabilir. Çoğu zaman, bir metin dosyası aslında bir bayt yönelimli veri akışına erişir ve otomatik olarak *text encoding* işler. Metin dosyalarına örnek olarak metin modunda açılan dosyalar ('r' veya 'w'), `sys.stdin`, `sys.stdout` ve `io.StringIO` örnekleri verilebilir.

Ayrıca *ikili dosyaları* okuyabilen ve yazabilen bir dosya nesnesi için *bayt benzeri nesnelere* bakın.

üç tırnaklı dize Üç tırnak işareti (") veya kesme işareti (') ile sınırlanan bir dize. Tek tırnaklı dizelerde bulunmayan herhangi bir işlevsellik sağlamasalar da, birkaç nedenden dolayı faydalıdır. bir dizeye çıkışsız tek ve çift tırnak eklemeniz gerekir ve bunlar, devam karakterini kullanmadan birden çok satıra yayılabilir, bu da onları özellikle belge dizileri yazarken kullanışlı hale getirir.

tip Bir Python nesnesinin türü, onun ne tür bir nesne olduğunu belirler; her nesnenin bir türü vardır. Bir nesnenin tipine `__class__` niteliği ile erişilebilir veya `type(obj)` ile alınabilir.

tip takma adı Bir tanımlayıcıya tür atanarak oluşturulan, bir tür için eş anlamlı.

Tür takma adları, *tür ipuçlarını* basitleştirmek için kullanışlıdır. Örneğin:

```
from typing import List, Tuple

def remove_gray_shades(
    colors: List[Tuple[int, int, int]]) -> List[Tuple[int, int, int]]:
    pass
```

bu şekilde daha okunaklı hale getirilebilir:

```
from typing import List, Tuple

Color = Tuple[int, int, int]
```

(continues on next page)

(önceki sayfadan devam)

```
def remove_gray_shades(colors: List[Color]) -> List[Color]:
    pass
```

Bu işlevi açıklayan `typing` ve **PEP 484** bölümlerine bakın.

tür ipucu Bir değişken, bir sınıf niteliği veya bir işlev parametresi veya dönüş değeri için beklenen türü belirten bir *ek açıklama*.

Tür ipuçları isteğe bağlıdır ve Python tarafından uygulanmaz, ancak bunlar statik tip analiz araçları için faydalıdır ve kod tamamlama ve yeniden düzenleme ile IDE'lere yardımcı olur.

Genel değişkenlerin, sınıf özniteliklerinin ve işlevlerin tür ipuçlarına, yerel değişkenlere değil, `typing.get_type_hints()` kullanılarak erişilebilir.

Bu işlevi açıklayan `typing` ve **PEP 484** bölümlerine bakın.

evrensel yeni satırlar Aşağıdakilerin tümünün bir satırın bitişi olarak kabul edildiği metin akışlarını yorumlamanın bir yolu: Unix satır sonu kuralı `\n`, Windows kuralı `\r\n`, ve eski Macintosh kuralı `\r`. Ek bir kullanım için **PEP 278** ve **PEP 3116** ve ayrıca `bytes.splitlines()` bakın.

değişken açıklama Bir değişkenin veya bir sınıf özniteliğinin *ek açıklaması*.

Bir değişkene veya sınıf niteliğine açıklama eklerken atama isteğe bağlıdır:

```
class C:
    field: 'annotation'
```

Değişken açıklamaları genellikle *tür ipuçları* için kullanılır: örneğin, bu değişkenin `int` değerlerini alması beklenir:

```
count: int = 0
```

Değişken açıklama sözdizimi `annassign` bölümünde açıklanmıştır.

See *function annotation*, **PEP 484** and **PEP 526**, which describe this functionality.

sanal ortam Python kullanıcılarının ve uygulamalarının, aynı sistem üzerinde çalışan diğer Python uygulamalarının davranışına müdahale etmeden Python dağıtım paketlerini kurmasına ve yükseltmesine olanak tanıyan, işbirliği içinde yalıtılmış bir çalışma zamanı ortamı.

Ayrıca bakınız `venv`.

sanal makine Tamamen yazılımla tanımlanmış bir bilgisayar. Python'un sanal makinesi, bayt kodu derleyicisi tarafından yayınlanan *bytecode* 'u çalıştırır.

Python'un Zen'i Dili anlamaya ve kullanmaya yardımcı olan Python tasarım ilkeleri ve felsefelerinin listesi. Liste, etkileşimli komut isteminde `import this` yazarak bulunabilir.

Dokümanlar hakkında

Bu dokümanlar, Python dokümanları için özel olarak yazılmış bir doküman işlecisi olan [Sphinx](#) tarafından [reStructuredText](#) kaynaklarından oluşturulur.

Dokümantasyonun ve araç zincirinin geliştirilmesi, tıpkı Python'un kendisi gibi tamamen gönüllü bir çabadır. Katkıda bulunmak istiyorsanız, nasıl yapacağınıza ilişkin bilgi için lütfen [reporting-bugs](#) sayfasına göz atın. Yeni gönüllülere her zaman açığız!

Destekleri için teşekkürler:

- Fred L. Drake, Jr., orijinal Python dokümantasyon araç setinin yaratıcısı ve içeriğin çoğunun yazarı;
- the [Docutils](#) project for creating reStructuredText and the Docutils suite;
- Fredrik Lundh for his [Alternative Python Reference](#) project from which Sphinx got many good ideas.

B.1 Python Dokümantasyonuna Katkıda Bulunanlar

Birçok kişi Python diline, Python standart kütüphanesine ve Python belgelerine katkıda bulunmuştur. Katkıda bulunanların kısmi listesi için Python kaynak dağıtımında [Misc/ACKS](#) adresine bakın.

Python topluluğunun girdileri ve katkılarıyla Python böyle harika bir dokümantasyona sahip – Teşekkürler!

Tarihçe ve Lisans

C.1 Yazılımın tarihçesi

Python, 1990'ların başında Guido van Rossum tarafından Hollanda'da Stichting Mathematisch Centrum'da (CWI, bkz. <https://www.cwi.nl/>) ABC adlı bir dilin devamı olarak oluşturuldu. Guido, diğerlerinin oldukça katkısı olmasına rağmen, Python'un ana yazarı olmaya devam ediyor.

1995'te Guido, yazılımın çeşitli sürümlerini yayınladığı Virginia, Reston'daki Ulusal Araştırma Girişimleri Kurumu'nda (CNRI, bkz. <https://www.cnri.reston.va.us/>) Python üzerindeki çalışmalarına devam etti.

Mayıs 2000'de, Guido ve Python çekirdek geliştirme ekibi, BeOpen PythonLabs ekibini oluşturmak için BeOpen.com'a taşındı. Aynı yılın Ekim ayında PythonLabs ekibi Digital Creations'a (şimdi Zope Corporation; bkz. <https://www.zope.org/>) taşındı. 2001 yılında, Python Yazılım Vakfı (PSF, bkz. <https://www.python.org/psf/>) kuruldu, özellikle Python ile ilgili Fikri Mülkiyete sahip olmak için oluşturulmuş kar amacı gütmeyen bir organizasyon. Zope Corporation, PSF'nin sponsor üyesidir.

Tüm Python sürümleri Açık Kaynaklıdır (Açık Kaynak Tanımı için bkz. <https://opensource.org/>). Tarihsel olarak, tümü olmasa da çoğu Python sürümleri de GPL uyumluydu; aşağıdaki tablo çeşitli yayınları özetlemektedir.

Yayın	Şundan türedi:	Yıl	Sahibi	GPL uyumlu mu?
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1.3 'dan 1.5.2'ye	1.2	1995-1999	CNRI	evet
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1.6.1	1.6	2001	CNRI	hayır
2.1	2.0+1.6.1	2001	PSF	hayır
2.0.1	2.0+1.6.1	2001	PSF	evet
2.1.1	2.1+2.0.1	2001	PSF	evet
2.1.2	2.1.1	2002	PSF	evet
2.1.3	2.1.2	2002	PSF	evet
2.2 ve üzeri	2.1.1	2001-Günümüz	PSF	evet

Not: GPL uyumlu olması, Python'u GPL kapsamında dağıttığımız anlamına gelmez. Tüm Python lisansları, GPL'den farklı olarak, değişikliklerinizi açık kaynak yapmadan değiştirilmiş bir sürümü dağıtmanıza izin verir. GPL uyumlu lisanslar, Python'u GPL kapsamında yayınlanan diğer yazılımlarla birleştirmeyi mümkün kılar; diğerleri yapmaz.

Bu yayınları mümkün kılmak için Guido'nun yönetimi altında çalışan birçok gönüllüye teşekkürler.

C.2 Python'a erişmek veya başka bir şekilde kullanmak için şartlar ve koşullar

Python yazılımı ve belgeleri *PSF Lisans Anlaşması* kapsamında lisanslanmıştır.

Python 3.8.6'dan başlayarak, belgelerdeki örnekler, tarifler ve diğer kodlar, PSF Lisans Sözleşmesi ve *Zero-Clause BSD license* kapsamında çift lisanslıdır.

Python'a dahil edilen bazı yazılımlar farklı lisanslar altındadır. Lisanslar, bu lisansa giren kodla listelenir. Bu lisansların eksik listesi için bkz. *Tüzel Yazılımlar için Lisanslar ve Onaylar*.

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C.3 Tüzel Yazılımlar için Lisanslar ve Onaylar

Bu bölüm, Python dağıtımına dahil edilmiş üçüncü taraf yazılımlar için tamamlanmamış ancak büyüyen bir lisans ve onay listesidir.

C.3.1 Mersenne Twister'i

`_random` modülü, <http://www.math.sci.hiroshima-u.ac.jp/~m-mat/MT/MT2002/emt19937ar.html> adresinden indirilen kodu temel alır. Orijinal koddan kelimesi kelimesine yorumlar aşağıdadır:

A C-program for MT19937, with initialization improved 2002/1/26.
Coded by Takuji Nishimura and Makoto Matsumoto.

Before using, initialize the state by using `init_genrand(seed)`
or `init_by_array(init_key, key_length)`.

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C.3.2 Soketler

The socket module uses the functions, `getaddrinfo()`, and `getnameinfo()`, which are coded in separate source files from the WIDE Project, <http://www.wide.ad.jp/>.

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C.3.3 Asenkron soket hizmetleri

asynchat ve asyncore modülleri aşağıdaki uyarıyı içerir:

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C.3.4 Çerez yönetimi

`http.cookies` modülü aşağıdaki uyarıyı içerir:

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C.3.5 Çalıştırma izleme

`trace` modülü aşağıdaki uyarıyı içerir:

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Author: Zooko O'Whielacronx
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C.3.6 UUencode ve UUdecode fonksiyonları

uu modülü aşağıdaki uyarıyı içerir:

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Modified by Jack Jansen, CWI, July 1995:

- Use binascii module to do the actual line-by-line conversion between ascii and binary. This results in a 1000-fold speedup. The C version is still 5 times faster, though.
- Arguments more compliant with Python standard

C.3.7 XML Uzaktan Yordam Çağrıları

`xmlrpc.client` modülü aşağıdaki uyarıyı içerir:

```
The XML-RPC client interface is

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```

C.3.8 test_epoll

`test_epoll` modülü aşağıdaki uyarıyı içerir:

```
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```

C.3.9 kqueue seçin

select modülü, kqueue arayüzü için aşağıdaki uyarıyı içerir:

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C.3.10 SipHash24

Python/pyhash.c dosyası, Dan Bernstein'in SipHash24 algoritmasının Marek Majkowski uygulamasını içerir. Burada aşağıdaki not yer alır:

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Original location:
<https://github.com/majek/csiphash/>

Solution inspired by code from:
Samuel Neves (supercop/crypto_auth/siphash24/little)
djb (supercop/crypto_auth/siphash24/little2)
Jean-Philippe Aumasson (<https://131002.net/siphash/siphash24.c>)

C.3.11 strtod ve dtoa

The file `Python/dtoa.c`, which supplies C functions `dtoa` and `strtod` for conversion of C doubles to and from strings, is derived from the file of the same name by David M. Gay, currently available from <http://www.netlib.org/fp/>. The original file, as retrieved on March 16, 2009, contains the following copyright and licensing notice:

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C.3.12 OpenSSL

The modules `hashlib`, `posix`, `ssl`, `crypt` use the OpenSSL library for added performance if made available by the operating system. Additionally, the Windows and Mac OS X installers for Python may include a copy of the OpenSSL libraries, so we include a copy of the OpenSSL license here:

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C.3.13 expat

pyexpat uzantısı, derleme --with-system-expat şeklinde yapılandırılmadığı sürece, expat kaynaklarının dahil edildiği bir kopya kullanılarak oluşturulur:

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C.3.14 libffi

`_ctypes` uzantısı, yapı `--with-system-libffi` olarak yapılandırılmadığı sürece libffi kaynaklarının dahil edildiği bir kopya kullanılarak oluşturulur:

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C.3.15 zlib

zlib uzantısı, sistemde bulunan zlib sürümü derleme için kullanılamayacak kadar eskiyse, zlib kaynaklarının dahil edildiği bir kopya kullanılarak oluşturulur:

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jloup@gzip.org

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C.3.16 cfuhash

tracemalloc tarafından kullanılan hash tablosunun uygulanması cfuhash projesine dayanmaktadır:

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C.3.17 libmpdec

`_decimal` modülü, `yapı --with-system-libmpdec` şeklinde yapılandırılmadığı sürece libmpdec kütüphanesinin dahil edildiği bir kopya kullanılarak oluşturulur:

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C.3.18 W3C C14N test paketi

The C14N 2.0 test suite in the test package (Lib/test/xmltestdata/c14n-20/) was retrieved from the W3C website at <https://www.w3.org/TR/xml-c14n2-testcases/> and is distributed under the 3-clause BSD license:

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