

# More About Values





# Casts

- To **cast** is to take a value of one type and return the corresponding value of some other type (or an error, if the cast is impossible)
  - **int(x)** casts a string, float, or boolean *x* to an integer
  - **float(x)** casts a string, integer, or boolean *x* to a float
  - **str(x)** returns the value of *x* as a string
  - **hex(int)** returns a **string** representing the hexadecimal value of the integer *int*
  - **oct(int)** returns a **string** representing the octal value of the integer *int*
  - **bin(int)** returns a **string** representing the binary value of the integer *int*
  - **chr(int)** returns the character represented by the Unicode value *int*
  - **ord(ch)** returns the integer value of the Unicode character *ch*
  - **unichr(x)** is in the textbook, but no longer exists, because in Python 3, all strings are in Unicode



# ASCII and Unicode

- On consumer laptops, memory is organized into *bytes*
  - A *byte* is eight *bits*
  - A *bit* is a single on/off (or 0/1, or true/false) value
- For many years, *ASCII* (*American Standard Code for Information Exchange*) has been the world standard
  - ASCII uses *seven* bits to represent each character
  - This is enough to represent all the characters on a standard (American) keyboard, with one bit left over
  - By also using the leftover *eighth* bit, every company could add more characters (like “smart quotes”)--and every company did
    - This is why smart quotes (and em-dashes, and many other characters) typed in Windows turn into other, weird characters on a Macintosh...and vice versa
- *Unicode* is a much newer standard (~1988) that solves this problem
  - Unicode uses single bytes to represent ASCII characters, and multiple bytes for any additional characters



# Numbers

- In mathematics, *integers* (whole numbers) are **exact** and may be **arbitrarily large**
- In programming, integers are **exact** and in Python (but not most languages) they may be **arbitrarily large**
- In mathematics, *real numbers* have **infinite precision**
  - $\pi$  has been calculated to 2.7 trillion digits
- In programming, *floating point* numbers have limited precision
  - **>>> 10 / 3**  
**3.3333333333333335**



# Equality

- **Rule:** Never compare floating point numbers for exact equality (**==**) or exact inequality (**!=**)
  - This comparison usually works, but you can't trust it
  - It's safe to compare integers
    - Except:

```
>>> i = 12345678901234567890
>>> i == int(float(i))
False
```
- **Rule:** If exact results are required, use only integers.
  - It's probably to use floats to keep track of your own dollars and cents
  - Don't do this for banks or other financial institutions!



# Approximate equality

- What if you want to determine whether two floating point numbers are approximately equal?
  - You can test if the **absolute value of their difference** is small
    - **$\text{abs}(x - y) < \text{epsilon}$**
    - What is **epsilon**?
      - For “ordinary” numbers, maybe **0.00001** is a reasonable value
      - For distances between **atoms**, maybe **1.0e-9** is a better value
      - For distances between **stars**, maybe **1.0e9** is a better value
  - You can test if the **absolute value of their quotient** is near **1**
    - **$\text{abs}(x / y - 1.0) < \text{epsilon}$**
    - With this approach, **epsilon** is more like a “percentage” difference, and doesn’t have to be adjusted for the expected size of x and y
    - Unfortunately, if **y** is zero, this will cause your program to crash



# Short-circuit logic

x	y	x and y	x or y
TRUE	TRUE	TRUE	TRUE
TRUE	FALSE	FALSE	TRUE
FALSE	TRUE	FALSE	TRUE
FALSE	FALSE	FALSE	FALSE

- Consider **x and y**: If **x** is **False**, Python doesn't have to evaluate **y**
- Consider **x or y**: If **x** is **True**, Python doesn't have to evaluate **y**
- Consider:  
 **$(y == 0) \text{ or } (\text{abs}(x / y - 1.0)) < 0.000001$** 
  - What will this do if **y == 0**?
  - Do you think this is a good way to determine if **x** and **y** are approximately equal?



# The *ternary operator*

- Python has an **if-else operator** as well as an **if-else** statement
- **Syntax:** *true\_expr if condition else false\_expr*
- **Semantics:** Evaluate the *condition*; if **True**, evaluate the *true\_expr*, otherwise evaluate the *false\_expr*. Whichever gets evaluated becomes the value of the expression
- **Example:** **abs\_x = x if x >= 0 else -x**
- **Example:**  
**if (x == 0 if y == 0 else abs(x / y - 1.0) < eps):**  
**# do something when x and y are almost equal**
- The outer parentheses are not necessary in the above, but make it somewhat less difficult to read
- I think the ternary operator is usually confusing and should be avoided
- What is the result of this expression if **x == 1.3e-50** and **y == 0**?
- What is the result of this expression if **x == 0** and **y == 1.3e-50**?





# Number systems

- The *binary* (base 2) number system uses two “binary digits,” (abbreviation: bits) -- **0** and **1**
- The *octal* (base 8) number system uses eight digits:  
**0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7**
- The *decimal* (base 10) number system uses ten digits:  
**0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9**
- The *hexadecimal*, or “*hex*” (base 16) number system uses sixteen digits:  
**0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, A, B, C, D, E, F**
- In Python, write binary, octal, or hexadecimal numbers by prefixing them with **0b**, **0o**, or **0x**, respectively
- Regardless of how they are written, numbers are **stored** in binary and **displayed** in decimal



# Using octal and hex

- Computers use binary, but the numbers are too long and confusing for people--it's easy to lose your place
- Octal or hex is better for people
- Translation between **binary** and **octal or hex** is easy

- One octal digit equals three binary digits:

**101101011100101000001011**  
**5 5 3 4 5 0 1 3**

- One hexadecimal digit equals four binary digits:

**101101011100101000001011**  
**B 5 C A 0 B**



# Bitwise operators

x	y	$\sim x$ and y	x & y	x   y	x ^ y
0	0	1	0	0	0
0	1	1	0	1	1
1	0	0	0	1	1
1	1	0	1	1	0

- $\sim$  is “bitwise not” (or “invert” or “toggle”)
- $\&$  is “bitwise and”
- $|$  is “bitwise or”
- $\wedge$  is “bitwise exclusive or” (or “xor”)
- $x \gg i$  shifts the bits in  $x$  to the right  $i$  places
- $x \ll i$  shifts the bits in  $x$  to the left  $i$  places



# Precedence

- **2 + 3 \* 4** is **14**, not **20**
- This is because multiplication has higher precedence than addition
- Here's what you should remember about precedence:
  - Exponentiation (**\*\***) has highest precedence
  - Unary operators have higher precedence than the related binary operators in the same family
    - By “family” I mean arithmetic, logic, or bitwise operators, so **not x or y** means the same as **(not x) or y**
  - Multiplication, division, and “and” operators have higher precedence than additions, subtraction, and “or” operators
    - **x or y and z** means the same as **x or (y and z)**
- For everything else, use parentheses to clarify your meaning, even if they aren't needed



# Comparison chaining

- In Python, you can *chain* comparisons
  - Example:  $x < y < z$  is legal and meaningful
- In every other language that I know,  $x < y$  would result in a *boolean* value, which would then be compared with  $z$
- Comparison chaining is a nice feature, and you should feel free to use it, but...
  - It's not allowed in Java
  - In C or C++ or C# it is allowed, but  $x < y$  will result in **0** or **1**, which is then compared with  $z$



# Shorthand assignments

- **$x += y$**  is shorthand for  **$x = x + y$** 
  - Example:  **$x += 1$**  adds **1** to  **$x$**
- This same shorthand works for all the other binary operators



# The End

- Why do programmers confuse Halloween with Christmas?
- Because Oct 31 == Dec 25.