

## 20.1 Variables and assignments

### Remembering a value

Here's a variation on a common school child riddle.

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#### PARTICIPATION ACTIVITY

#### 20.1.1: People on bus.



For each step, keep track of the current number of people by typing in the num\_people box (it's editable).

Start

You are driving a bus.  
The bus starts with 5 people.

num\_people:

5

1

2

3

4

5

Check

Next

By the way, the real riddle's ending question is actually, "What is the bus driver's name?" The subject usually says, "How should I know?" The riddler then says, "I started with YOU are driving a bus."

The box above serves the same purpose as a *variable* in a program, introduced below.

### Variables and assignments

In a program, a **variable** is a named item, such as `x` or `num_people`, used to hold a value.

An **assignment statement** assigns a variable with a value, such as `x = 5`. That statement means `x` is assigned with 5, and `x` keeps that value during subsequent statements, until `x` is assigned again.

An assignment statement's left side must be a variable. The right side can be an expression, so a statement may be `x = 5`, `y = x`, or `z = x + 2`. The 5, `x`, and `x + 2` are each an expression that evaluates to a value.

#### PARTICIPATION ACTIVITY

#### 20.1.2: Variables and assignments.



## Animation captions:

1. In programming, a variable is a place to hold a value. Here, variables  $x$ ,  $y$ , and  $z$  are depicted graphically as boxes.
2. An assignment statement assigns the left-side variable with the right-side expression's value.  $x = 5$  assigns  $x$  with 5.
3.  $y = x$  assigns  $y$  with  $x$ 's value, which presently is 5.  $z = x + 2$  assigns  $z$  with  $x$ 's present value plus 2, so  $5 + 2$  or 7.
4. A subsequent  $x = 3$  statement assigns  $x$  with 3.  $x$ 's former value of 5 is overwritten and thus lost. Note that the values held in  $y$  and  $z$  are unaffected, remaining as 5 and 7.
5. In algebra, an equation means "the item on the left always equals the item on the right." So for  $x + y = 5$  and  $x * y = 6$ , one can determine  $x = 2$  and  $y = 3$ .
6. Assignment statements look similar but have VERY different meaning. The left side MUST be one variable.
7. The  $=$  isn't "equals," but is an action that PUTS a value into the variable. Assignment statements only make sense when executed in sequence.

$=$  is not equals

*In programming,  $=$  is an assignment of a left-side variable with a right-side value.  $=$  is NOT equality as in mathematics. Thus,  $x = 5$  is read as "x is assigned with 5," and not as "x equals 5." When one sees  $x = 5$ , one might think of a value being put into a box.*

### PARTICIPATION ACTIVITY

#### 20.1.3: Valid assignment statements.



Indicate which assignment statements are valid.

1)  $x = 1$



☐ Valid

☐ Invalid

2)  $x = y$



☐ Valid

☐ Invalid

3)  $x = y + 2$

☐ Valid☐ Invalid

4)  $x + 1 = 3$

☐ Valid☐ Invalid

5)  $x + y = y + x$

☐ Valid☐ Invalid

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**PARTICIPATION  
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## 20.1.4: Variables and assignment statements.



Given variables  $x$ ,  $y$ , and  $z$ .

1)  $x = 9$

$y = x + 1$

What is  $y$ ?

**Check**[Show answer](#)

2)  $x = 9$

$y = x + 1$

What is  $x$ ?

**Check**[Show answer](#)

3)  $x = 9$

$y = x + 1$

$x = 5$

What is  $y$ ?

**Check**[Show answer](#)

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20.1.5: Trace the variable value.



Select the correct value for x, y, and z after the following statements execute.

**Start**

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```
int x = 6;  
int y = 0;  
int z = 3;  
x = 2;  
y = 7;  
z = 9;  
x = 0;
```

x is

6	2	0
---	---	---

y is

6	0	7
---	---	---

z is

9	1	3
---	---	---

**1**

2

3

4

**Check****Next****CHALLENGE  
ACTIVITY**

20.1.1: Enter the output of the variable assignments.



422102.2723990.qx3zqy7

**Start**

Type the program's output

```
x = 7  
y = 5  
print(x, y)
```

7 5
-----

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**1**

2

3

4

5

**Check****Next**

## Assignments with variable on left and right

Because in programming = means assignment, a variable may appear on both the left and right as in  $x = x + 1$ . If  $x$  was originally 6,  $x$  is assigned with  $6 + 1$ , or 7. The statement overwrites the original 6 in  $x$ .

Increasing a variable's value by 1, as in  $x = x + 1$ , is common and known as **incrementing** the variable.

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### PARTICIPATION ACTIVITY

20.1.6: A variable may appear on the left and right of an assignment statement.



### Animation content:

undefined

### Animation captions:

1. A variable may appear on both sides of an assignment statement. After  $x = 1$ , then  $x = x * 20$  assigns  $x$  with  $1 * 20$  or 20, overwriting  $x$ 's previous 1.
2. Another  $x = x * 20$  assigns  $x$  with  $20 * 20$  or 400, which overwrites  $x$ 's previous 20.
3. Only the latest value is held in  $x$ .

### PARTICIPATION ACTIVITY

20.1.7: Variable on both sides.



Indicate the value of  $x$  after the statements execute.

- 1)  $x = 5$   
 $x = x + 7$

Check

Show answer

- 2)  $x = 2$   
 $y = 3$

$x = x * y$

$x = x * y$

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**Check**[Show answer](#)

3)  $y = 30$   
 $x = y + 2$   
 $x = x + 1$

**Check**[Show answer](#)

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4) Complete this statement to  
increment y:  
 $y = \underline{\hspace{2cm}}$

**Check**[Show answer](#)**CHALLENGE  
ACTIVITY**

20.1.2: Assigning a sum.

Write a statement that assigns `total_coins` with the sum of `nickel_count` and `dime_count`.  
Sample output for 100 nickels and 200 dimes is:

**300**

422102.2723990.qx3zqy7

```
1 total_coins = 0
2
3 nickel_count = int(input())
4 dime_count = int(input())
5
6 ''' Your solution goes here '''
7
8 print(total_coins)
```

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**Run****CHALLENGE  
ACTIVITY**

20.1.3: Multiplying the current value of a variable.



Write a statement that assigns `cell_count` with `cell_count` multiplied by 10. `*` performs multiplication. If the input is 10, the output should be:

**100**

422102.2723990.qx3zqy7

```
1 cell_count = int(input())
2
3 ''' Your solution goes here '''
4
5 print(cell_count)
```

**Run**

## 20.2 Identifiers

### Rules for identifiers

A programmer gives names to various items, such as variables (and also functions, described later). For example, `x = 5` uses the name "x" to refer to the value 5. An **identifier**, also called a **name**, is a sequence of letters (a-z, A-Z), **underscores** (`_`), and digits (0–9), and must start with a letter or an underscore.

Python is **case sensitive**, meaning upper- and lowercase letters differ. Ex: "Cat" and "cat" are

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different. The following are valid names: `c`, `cat`, `Cat`, `n1m1`, `short1`, and `_hello`. The following are invalid names: `42c` (doesn't start with a letter or underscore), `hi there` (has a space), and `cat$` (has a symbol other than a letter, digit, or underscore).

Names that start and end with double underscores (for example, `__init__`) are allowed but should be avoided because Python has special usages for double underscore names, explained elsewhere. A good variable name should describe the purpose of the variable, such as "temperature" or "age," rather than just "t" or "A."

Certain words like "and" or "True" cannot be used as names. **Reserved words**, or **keywords**, are words that are part of the language, and thus, cannot be used as a programmer-defined name. Many language editors will automatically color a program's reserved words. A list of reserved words appears at the end of this section.

**PARTICIPATION  
ACTIVITY**

20.2.1: Valid names.



Which of the following are valid names?

1) `numCars`

☐ Valid

☐ Invalid



2) `num_cars1`

☐ Valid

☐ Invalid



3) `_num_cars`

☐ Valid

☐ Invalid



4) `__numcars2`

☐ Valid

☐ Invalid



5) `num cars`

☐ Valid

☐ Invalid



6) `3rd_place`





☐ Valid

7) third\_place\_ ☐ Invalid

☐ Valid

☐ Invalid

8) third\_place! ☐ Valid

☐ Valid

☐ Invalid

9) output ☐ Valid

☐ Valid

☐ Invalid

10) return\_copy ☐ Valid

☐ Valid

☐ Invalid

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## Style guidelines for identifiers

A good practice when naming variables is to use all lowercase letters and to place underscores between words. This lowercase and underscore convention for naming variables originates from the Python style guide, [PEP 8](#). **PEP 8** (PEP is an acronym for Python Enhancement Proposal) is a document that outlines the basics of how to write Python code neatly and consistently. Code is read more often than written, so having a consistent variable naming scheme helps to ensure that programmers can understand each other's code.

Programmers should create meaningful names that describe an item's purpose. If a variable will store a person's age, then a name like "age" is better than "a". A good practice when dealing with scientific or engineering names is to append the unit of measure, for example, instead of temperature, use temperature\_celsius. Abbreviations should only be used if widely understandable, as in tv\_model or ios\_app. While meaningful names are important, very long variable names, such as "average\_age\_of\_a\_UCLA\_graduate\_student," can make subsequent statements too long and thus hard to read, so programmers find a balance between meaningful names and short names. Below are some examples of names that perhaps are less meaningful and more meaningful.

Table 20.2.1: Use meaningful variable names.

Purpose	Less meaningful names	More meaningful names
The number of students attending UCLA	ucla num nu	num_students_UCLA
The size of a television set measured as its diagonal length	sz_tv size	diagonal_tv_size_inches
The word for the ratio of a circle's circumference/diameter	p	pi
The number of jelly beans in a jar, as guessed by a user	guess num njb	num_guessed_jelly_beans user_guess_jelly_beans

A list of reserved keywords in the language are shown below:

Table 20.2.2: Python 3 reserved keywords.

False	await	else	import	
pass				
None	break	except	in	
raise				
True	class	finally	is	
return				
and	continue	for	lambda	try
as	def	from	nonlocal	
while				
assert	del	global	not	
with				
async	elif	if	or	
yield				

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Source: [http://docs.python.org/3/reference/lexical\\_analysis.html](http://docs.python.org/3/reference/lexical_analysis.html)

#### PARTICIPATION ACTIVITY

#### 20.2.2: Python 3 name validator.



Use the tool below to test valid and invalid names.

Enter an identifier: \_\_\_\_\_

**Validate**

## 20.3 Objects

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### Objects

The Python interpreter is a program that runs on a computer, just like an Internet browser or a text editor. Instead of displaying a web page or creating a document, the purpose of the interpreter is to run Python programs. An **object** represents a value and is automatically created by the interpreter

when executing a line of code. For example, executing `x = 4` creates a new object to represent the value 4. A programmer does not explicitly create objects; instead, the interpreter creates and manipulates objects as needed to run the Python code. Objects are used to represent everything in a Python program, including integers, strings, functions, lists, etc.

The animation below shows some objects being created while executing Python code statements in an interactive Python interpreter. The interpreter assigns an object to a location somewhere in memory automatically.

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#### PARTICIPATION ACTIVITY

#### 20.3.1: Creating new objects.



#### Animation captions:

1. The interpreter creates a new object with the value 4. The object is stored somewhere in memory.
2. Once 4 is printed, the object is no longer needed and is thrown away.
3. New object created: 'x' references object stored in address 98.
4. Objects are retrieved from memory when needed.

Above, the interpreter performs an addition of `2+2`, resulting in a new object being created with a value of 4. Once 4 is printed the object is no longer needed, so the object is automatically deleted from memory and thrown away. Deleting unused objects is an automatic process called **garbage collection** that helps to keep the memory of the computer less utilized.

## Name binding

**Name binding** is the process of associating names with interpreter objects. An object can have more than one name bound to it, and every name is always bound to exactly one object. Name binding occurs whenever an assignment statement is executed, as demonstrated below.

#### PARTICIPATION ACTIVITY

#### 20.3.2: Manipulating variables.



#### Animation captions:

1. bob\_salary object is created by the interpreter.
2. tom\_salary object is created by the interpreter.
3. bob\_salary is assigned tom\_salary, and the 25000 object is garbage collected.
4. tom\_salary is assigned tom\_salary \* 1.2.
5. total\_salaries object is created by the interpreter and is assigned bob\_salary + tom\_salary

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## Properties of objects

Each Python object has three defining properties: value, type, and identity.

1. **Value:** A value such as "20", "abcdef", or 55.
2. **Type:** The type of the object, such as integer or string.
3. **Identity:** A unique identifier that describes the object.

The *value* of an object is the data associated with the object. For example, evaluating the expression `2 + 2` creates a new object whose value is 4. The value of an object can generally be examined by printing that object.

Figure 20.3.1: Printing displays an object's value.

```
x = 2 + 2      # Create a new object with a value of 4, referenced by 'x'.
print(x)      # Print the value of the object.
print(5)
```

4  
5

The *type* of an object determines the object's supported behavior. For example, integers can be added and multiplied, while strings can be appended with additional text or concatenated together. An object's type never changes once created. The built-in function **`type()`** returns the type of an object.

The type of an object also determines the mutability of an object. **Mutability** indicates whether the object's value is allowed to be changed. Integers and strings are **immutable**; modifying their values with assignment statements results in new objects being created and the names bound to the new object.

Figure 20.3.2: Using `type()` to print an object's type.

```
x = 2 + 2      # Create a new object with a value of 4, referenced by 'x'.
print(type(x)) # Print the type of the object.

print(type('ABC')) # Create and print the type of a string object.
```

<class  
'int'>  
<class  
'str'>

The *identity* of an object is a unique numeric identifier, such as 1, 500, or 505534. Only one object at any time may have a particular identifier. The identity normally refers to the memory address where the object is stored. Python provides a built-in function **id()** that gives the value of an object's identity.

Figure 20.3.3: Using id() to print an object's identity.

```
x = 2 + 2          # Create a new object with a value of 4,
                    # referenced by 'x'
print(id(x))       # Print the identity (memory address) of
                    # the x object

print(id('ABC'))   # Create and print the identity of a
                    # string ('ABC') object
```

1752608  
2330312

### zyDE 20.3.1: Experimenting with objects.

Run the following code and observe the results of str(), type(), and id(). Create a new called "age" that has a value of 19, and then print the id and type of the new object.

Load default template...

Run

```
1 birthday_year = 1986
2 birthday_month = 'April'
3 birthday_day = 22
4
5 print('birthday_year -->')
6 print(' value:', birthday_year)
7 print(' type:', type(birthday_year))
8 print(' id:', id(birthday_year))
9
10 print('\nbirthday_month -->')
11 print(' value:', birthday_month)
12 print(' type:', type(birthday_month))
13 print(' id:', id(birthday_month))
14
15 print('\nbirthday_day -->')
16 print(' value:', birthday_day)
17 print(' type:', type(birthday_day))
```



- 1) Which built-in function finds the type of an object?

[Check](#)[Show answer](#)

- 2) Write an expression that gives the identity of a variable called my\_num.

[Check](#)[Show answer](#)

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## 20.4 Numeric types: Floating-point

### Floating-point numbers and scientific notation

A **floating-point number** is a real number, like 98.6, 0.0001, or -666.667. The term "floating-point" refers to the decimal point being able to appear anywhere ("float") in the number. Thus, **float** is a data type for floating-point numbers.

A **floating-point literal** is written with the fractional part even if that fraction is 0, as in 1.0, 0.0, or 99.0.

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### Figure 20.4.1: A program using float-type variables.

The below program reads in a floating-point value from a user and calculates the time to drive and fly the distance. Note the use of the built-in function `float()` when reading the input to convert the input string into a float.

Note that `print` handles floating-point numbers straightforwardly.

```
miles = float(input('Enter a distance in miles: '))
hours_to_fly = miles / 500.0
hours_to_drive = miles / 60.0

print(miles, 'miles would take:')
print(hours_to_fly, 'hours to fly')
print(hours_to_drive, 'hours to drive')
```

```
Enter a distance in miles:
450
450.0 miles would take:
0.9 hours to fly
7.5 hours to drive
...
Enter a distance in miles:
1800
1800.0 miles would take:
3.6 hours to fly
30.0 hours to drive
```

Scientific notation is useful for representing floating-point numbers that are much greater than or much less than 0, such as  $6.02 \times 10^{23}$ . A floating-point literal using **scientific notation** is written using an `e` preceding the power-of-10 exponent, as in `6.02e23` to represent  $6.02 \times 10^{23}$ . The `e` stands for exponent. Likewise, `0.001` is  $1 \times 10^{-3}$ , so it can be written as `1.0e-3`.

#### PARTICIPATION ACTIVITY

#### 20.4.1: Scientific notation.



- 1) Type `1.0e-4` as a floating-point literal with a single digit before and four digits after the decimal point. Note: Do not use scientific notation.

Check

Show answer



- 2) Type `7.2e-4` as a floating-point literal with a single digit before and five digits after the decimal point. Note: Do not use scientific notation.



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**Check**[Show answer](#)

- 3) Type 540,000,000 as a floating-point literal using scientific notation with a single digit before and after the decimal point.

**Check**[Show answer](#)

- 4) Type 0.000001 as a floating-point literal using scientific notation with a single digit before and after the decimal point.

**Check**[Show answer](#)

- 5) Type 623.596 as a floating-point literal using scientific notation with a single digit before and five digits after the decimal point.

**Check**[Show answer](#)

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## zyDE 20.4.1: Energy to mass conversion.

Albert Einstein's equation  $E = mc^2$  is likely the most widely known mathematical formula. This equation describes the mass-energy equivalence, which states that the mass (amount of matter)  $m$  of a body is directly related to the amount of energy  $E$  of the body, connected by a constant value  $c^2$ , the speed of light squared. The significance of the equation is that mass can be converted to energy, (and theoretically, energy back to matter). The mass-energy equivalence equation can be used to calculate the energy released in nuclear reactions, such as nuclear fission or nuclear fusion, which form the basis of modern technologies like nuclear weapons and nuclear power plants.

The following program reads in a mass in kilograms and prints the amount of energy equivalent to the mass. Also printed is the equivalent number of AA batteries and tons of TNT.

[Load default text](#)

```

1 c_meters_per_sec = 299792458 # Speed of light (m/s)
2 joules_per_AA_battery = 4320.5 # Nickel-Cadmium AA batteries
3 joules_per_TNT_ton = 4.184e9
4
5 #Read in a floating-point number from the user
6 mass_kg = float(input())
7
8 #Compute E = mc^2.
9 energy_joules = mass_kg * (c_meters_per_sec**2) # E = mc^2
10 print('Total energy released:', energy_joules, 'Joules')
11
12 #Calculate equivalent number of AA and tons of TNT.
13 num_AA_batteries = energy_joules / joules_per_AA_battery
14 num_TNT_tons = energy_joules / joules_per_TNT_ton
15
16 print('Which is as much energy as:')
17 print(' ', num_AA_batteries, 'AA batteries')
```



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## Overflow

Float-type objects have a limited range of values that can be represented. For a standard 32-bit installation of Python, the maximum floating-point value is approximately  $1.8 \times 10^{308}$ , and the

minimum floating-point value is  $2.3 \times 10^{-308}$ . Assigning a floating-point value outside of this range generates an **OverflowError**. **Overflow** occurs when a value is too large to be stored in the memory allocated by the interpreter. For example, the program in the figure below tries to store the value  $2.0^{1024}$ , which causes an overflow error.

In general, floating-point types should be used to represent quantities that are measured, such as distances, temperatures, volumes, and weights, whereas integer types should be used to represent quantities that are counted, such as numbers of cars, students, cities, hours, and minutes.

Figure 20.4.2: Float can overflow.

```
print('2.0 to the power of 256 = ',  
      2.0**256)  
print('2.0 to the power of 512 = ',  
      2.0**512)  
print('2.0 to the power of 1024 = ',  
      2.0**1024)
```

```
2.0 to the power of 256 =  
1.15792089237e+77  
2.0 to the power of 512 =  
1.34078079299e+154  
2.0 to the power of 1024 =  
Traceback (most recent call last):  
  File "<stdin>", line 3, in <module>  
OverflowError: (34, 'Result too  
large')
```

**PARTICIPATION  
ACTIVITY**

20.4.2: Floating-point versus integer.



Choose the right type for a variable to represent each item.

1) The number of cars in a parking lot.



- ☐ float  
☐ int

2) The current temperature in Celsius.



- ☐ float  
☐ int

3) A person's height in centimeters.



- ☐ float  
☐ int

4) The number of hairs on a person's head.



- ☐ float

☐ int

5) The average number of kids per household.

☐ float☐ int

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## Manipulating floating-point output

Some floating-point numbers have many digits after the decimal point. Ex: Irrational numbers (Ex: 3.14159265359...) and repeating decimals (Ex: 4.33333333...) have an infinite number of digits after the decimal. By default, most programming languages output at least 5 digits after the decimal point. But for many simple programs, this level of detail is not necessary. A common approach is to output floating-point numbers with a specific number of digits after the decimal to reduce complexity or produce a certain numerical type (Ex: Representing currency with two digits after the decimal). The syntax for outputting the float `myFloat` with two digits after the decimal point is `print(f'{myFloat:.2f}')`

When outputting a certain number of digits after the decimal using `print()`, Python rounds the last output digit, but the floating-point value remains the same. Manipulating how numbers are output is discussed in detail elsewhere.

### PARTICIPATION ACTIVITY

20.4.3: Reducing the output of Pi.

### Animation content:

undefined

### Animation captions:

1. The mathematical constant Pi ( $\pi$ ) is irrational, a floating-point number whose digits after the decimal point are infinite and non-repeating. The `math` module defines the constant `pi` with the value of Pi.
2. Though Python does not attempt to output the full value of Pi, by default, 15 digits after the decimal are output.
3. `print(f'{math.pi:.4f}')` outputs Pi to only four digits after the decimal. The last digit is rounded up in the output, but the value of Pi remains the same.

### PARTICIPATION ACTIVITY

20.4.4: Reducing floating-point output.

- 1) Which of the following arguments completes `print()` to output two digits after the decimal point?

`print(f'{{(7.0 / 3.0)}_____})`

- ☐ `.2f'`  
☐ `2:f'`  
☐ `:.2f'`

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- 2) What is output by  
`print(f'{{0.125:.1f}}')`?

- ☐ 0  
☐ 0.1  
☐ 0.13

- 3) What is output by  
`print(f'{{9.1357:.3f}}')`?

- ☐ 9.136  
☐ 9.135  
☐ 9.14

#### CHALLENGE ACTIVITY

20.4.1: Gallons of paint needed to paint walls.

Finish the program to compute how many gallons of paint are needed to cover the given square feet of walls. Assume 1 gallon can cover 350.0 square feet. So gallons = the square feet divided by 350.0. If the input is 250.0, the output should be:

**0.7142857142857143**

Note: Do not format the output.

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```
1 wall_area = float(input())
2
3 # Assign gallons_paint below
4
5 ''' Your solution goes here '''
6
7 print(gallons_paint)
```

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## 20.5 Python expressions

Below is a simple program that includes an expression involving integers.

Figure 20.5.1: Expression example: Leasing cost.

```
""" Computes the total cost of leasing a car given
the down payment,
    monthly rate, and number of months """

down_payment = int(input('Enter down payment: '))
payment_per_month = int(input('Enter monthly payment: '))
num_months = int(input('Enter number of months: '))

total_cost = down_payment + (payment_per_month *
num_months)

print ('Total cost:', total_cost)
```

Enter down payment:  
500  
Enter monthly  
payment: 300  
Enter number of  
months: 60  
Total cost: 18500

### PARTICIPATION ACTIVITY

20.5.1: Simple program with an arithmetic expression.



Consider the example above.

- 1) Would removing the parentheses as below have yielded the same result?

```
down_payment +
payment_per_month * num_months
```

- ☐ Yes  
☐ No

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- 2) Would using two assignment statements as below have yielded the same result?

```
all_months_cost =  
payment_per_month * num_months  
total_cost = down_payment +  
all_months_cost
```

- ☐ Yes  
☐ No

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## Style: Single space around operators

A good practice is to include a single space around operators for readability, as in `num_items + 2`, rather than `num_items+2`. An exception is minus used as negative, as in: `x_coordinate = -y_coordinate`. Minus (-) used as negative is known as **unary minus**.

### PARTICIPATION ACTIVITY

#### 20.5.2: Single space around operators.

Retype each statement to follow the good practice of a single space around operators.

Note: If an answer is marked wrong, something differs in the spacing, spelling, capitalization, etc. This activity emphasizes the importance of such details.

- 1) `houses_city = houses_block  
*10`

Check

Show answer

- 2) `total = num1+num2+2`

Check

Show answer

- 3) `num_balls=num_balls+1`

Check

Show answer

- 4) `num_entries =`

(user\_val+1)\*2

[Check](#)[Show answer](#)

## Compound operators

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Special operators called **compound operators** provide a shorthand way to update a variable, such as `age += 1` being shorthand for `age = age + 1`. Other compound operators include `-=`, `*=`, `/=`, and `%=`.

Table 20.5.1: Compound operators.

Compound operator	Expression with compound operator	Equivalent expression
Addition assignment	<code>age += 1</code>	<code>age = age + 1</code>
Subtraction assignment	<code>age -= 1</code>	<code>age = age - 1</code>
Multiplication assignment	<code>age *= 1</code>	<code>age = age * 1</code>
Division assignment	<code>age /= 1</code>	<code>age = age / 1</code>
Modulo (operator further discussed elsewhere) assignment	<code>age %= 1</code>	<code>age = age % 1</code>

### PARTICIPATION ACTIVITY

#### 20.5.3: Compound operators.



- 1) `num_atoms` is initially 7. What is `num_atoms` after:  
`num_atoms += 5`?

[Check](#)[Show answer](#)

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- 2) `num_atoms` is initially 7. What is





num\_atoms after:

```
num_atoms *= ??
```

**Check**[Show answer](#)

- 3) Rewrite the statement using a compound operator, or type: Not possible

```
car_count = car_count /  
2
```

**Check**[Show answer](#)

- 4) Rewrite the statement using a compound operator, or type: Not possible

```
num_items = box_count +  
1
```

**Check**[Show answer](#)

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## No commas allowed

Commas are not allowed in an integer literal. So 1,333,555 is written as 1333555.

### PARTICIPATION ACTIVITY

20.5.4: Assigning an integer literal.

- 1) The following code correctly assigns num\_years with an integer value of 2 billion.

```
num_years = 2,000,000,000
```

☐ True

☐ False

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## 20.5.1: Computing an average.



Write a *single* statement that assigns `avg_sales` with the average of `num_sales1`, `num_sales2`, and `num_sales3`.

Sample output with inputs: 3 4 8

**Average sales: 5.00**

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```
1 avg_sales = 0
2
3 num_sales1 = int(input())
4 num_sales2 = int(input())
5 num_sales3 = int(input())
6
7 ''' Your solution goes here '''
8
9 print(f'Average sales: {avg_sales:.2f}')
```

**Run**

**CHALLENGE  
ACTIVITY**

## 20.5.2: Sphere volume.



Given `sphere_radius` and `pi`, compute the volume of a sphere and assign `sphere_volume` with the volume. Volume of sphere =  $(4.0 / 3.0) \pi r^3$

Sample output with input: 1.0

**Sphere volume: 4.19**

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CHALLENGE  
ACTIVITY

20.5.3: Acceleration of gravity.



Compute the approximate acceleration of gravity for an object above the earth's surface, assigning `accel_gravity` with the result. The expression for the acceleration of gravity is:  $(G * M) / (d^2)$ , where  $G$  is the gravitational constant  $6.673 \times 10^{-11}$ ,  $M$  is the mass of the earth  $5.98 \times 10^{24}$  (in kg), and  $d$  is the distance in meters from the Earth's center (stored in variable `dist_center`).

Sample output with input: 6.3782e6 (100 m above the Earth's surface at the equator)

**Acceleration of gravity: 9.81**

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```
1 G = 6.673e-11
2 M = 5.98e24
3 accel_gravity = 0.0
4
5 dist_center = float(input())
6
7 ''' Your solution goes here '''
8
9 print(f'Acceleration of gravity: {accel_gravity:.2f}')
```

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## 20.6 Division and modulo

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### Division: Integer rounding

The division operator `/` performs division and returns a floating-point number. Ex:

- $20 / 10$  is 2.0.
- $50 / 50$  is 1.0.
- $5 / 10$  is 0.5.

The floor division operator `//` can be used to round down the result of a floating-point division to the closest smaller whole number value. The resulting value is an integer type if both operands are integers; if either operand is a float, then a float is returned:

- $20 // 10$  is 2.
- $50 // 50$  is 1.
- $5 // 10$  is 0. ( $5/10$  is 0 and the remainder 5 is thrown away).
- $5.0 // 2$  is 2.0

For division, the second operand of `/` or `//` must never be 0, because division by 0 is mathematically undefined.

#### PARTICIPATION ACTIVITY

#### 20.6.1: Division and floor division.



Determine the result. Type "Error" if the program would terminate due to division by 0. If the answer is a floating-point number, answer in the form `##`, even if the answer is a whole number.

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1)  $12 / 4$

Check[Show answer](#)

2) 5 / 10

**Check**[Show answer](#)

3) 5.0 // 2

**Check**[Show answer](#)

4) 100 / 0

**Check**[Show answer](#)

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## Modulo (%)

The basic arithmetic operators include not just +, -, \*, /, but also %. The **modulo operator (%)** evaluates the remainder of the division of two integer operands. Ex: 23 % 10 is 3.

Examples:

- 24 % 10 is 4. Reason: 24 / 10 is 2 with remainder 4.
- 50 % 50 is 0. Reason: 50 / 50 is 1 with remainder 0.
- 1 % 2 is 1. Reason: 1 / 2 is 0 with remainder 1.

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## zyDE 20.6.1: Example using expressions: Minutes to hours/minutes.

The program below reads in the number of minutes entered by a user. The program then converts the number of minutes to hours and minutes.

Run the program, then modify the code to work in reverse: The user enters two numbers, hours and minutes and the program outputs total minutes.

[Load default template...](#)

```
1 minutes = int(input('Enter minutes:\n'))
2 hours = minutes // 60
3 minutes_remaining = minutes % 60
4
5 print(minutes, 'minutes is', end=' ')
6 print(hours, 'hours and', end=' ')
7 print(minutes_remaining, 'minutes.\n', end=
8 |
```

**Run****PARTICIPATION  
ACTIVITY**

20.6.2: Modulo.



Determine the result. Type "Error" if appropriate. Only literals appear in these expressions to focus attention on the operators; most practical expressions include variables.

1) 50 % 2

**Check**[Show answer](#)

2) 51 % 2

**Check**[Show answer](#)

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3)  $78 \% 10$ **Check**[Show answer](#)4)  $596 \% 10$ **Check**[Show answer](#)5)  $100 \% (1 // 2)$ **Check**[Show answer](#)**CHALLENGE  
ACTIVITY**

20.6.1: Enter the output of the integer expressions.



422102.2723990.qx3zqy7

**Start**

Type the program's output

```
x = 10
y = x / 4
print(y)
```

**2.5****1**

2

**Check****Next**

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**Modulo examples**

Modulo has several useful applications. Below are just a few.

### Example 20.6.1: Getting digits.

Given a number, % and // can be used to get each digit. For a 3-digit number user\_val like 927:

```
ones_digit    = user_val % 10    # Ex: 927 % 10 is 7.
tmp_val       = user_val // 10

tens_digit    = tmp_val % 10     # Ex: tmp_val = 927 // 10 is 92. Then
92 % 10 is 2.
tmp_val       = tmp_val // 10

hundreds_digit = tmp_val % 10    # Ex: tmp_val = 92 // 10 = 9. Then 9 %
10 is 9.
```

### Example 20.6.2: Get prefix.

Given a 10-digit phone number stored as an integer, % and // can be used to get any part, such as the prefix. For phone\_num = 9365551212 (whose prefix is 555):

```
tmp_val = phone_num // 10000 # // 10000 shifts right by 4, so 936555.
prefix_num = tmp_val % 1000 # % 1000 gets the right 3 digits, so 555.
```

Dividing by a power of 10 shifts a value right. Ex: 321 // 10 is 32. Ex: 321 // 100 is 3.

% by a power of 10 gets the rightmost digits. Ex: 321 % 10 is 1. Ex: 321 % 100 is 21.

#### PARTICIPATION ACTIVITY

#### 20.6.3: Modulo examples.



- 1) Given a non-negative number x, which expression has the range 5 to 10?



- ☐ x % 5
- ☐ x % 10
- ☐ x % 11
- ☐ (x % 6) + 5

- 2) Given a non-negative number x, which expression has the range -10 to 10?



- ☐ x % -10

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☐  $(x \% 21) - 10$

☐  $(x \% 20) - 10$

3) Which gets the tens digit of  $x$ . Ex: If  $x = 693$ , which expression yields 9?

☐  $x \% 10$

☐  $x \% 100$

☐  $(x // 10) \% 10$

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4) Given a 16-digit credit card number stored in  $x$ , which expression gets the last (rightmost) four digits? (Assume the fourth digit from the right is non-zero).

☐  $x / 10000$

☐  $x \% 10000$

#### CHALLENGE ACTIVITY

20.6.2: Compute change.

A cashier distributes change using the maximum number of five-dollar bills, followed by one-dollar bills. Write a single statement that assigns `num_ones` with the number of distributed one-dollar bills given `amount_to_change`. Hint: Use `%`.

Sample output with input: 19

Change for \$ 19

3 five dollar bill(s) and 4 one dollar bill(s)

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```
1 amount_to_change = int(input())
2
3 num_fives = amount_to_change // 5
4
5 ''' Your solution goes here '''
6
7 print('Change for $', amount_to_change)
8 print(num_fives, 'five dollar bill(s) and', num_ones, 'one dollar bill(s)')
```

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Run

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## 20.7 Module basics

### Modules

The interactive Python interpreter allows a programmer to execute one line of code at a time. This method of programming is mostly used for very short programs or for practicing the language syntax. Instead, programmers typically write Python program code in a file called a **script**, and execute the code by passing the script as input to the Python interpreter.

#### PARTICIPATION ACTIVITY

20.7.1: Scripts are files executed by the interpreter.



#### Animation captions:

1. Programmer writes code in a script file named print\_name.py.
2. The programmer runs the Python interpreter, passing the script as input (shown above using the operating system command line).

Programmers often write code in more than just a single script file. Collections of logically related code can be stored in separate files, and then imported for use into a script that requires that code. A **module** is a file containing Python code that can be used by other modules or scripts. A module is made available for use via the **import** statement. Once a module is imported, any object defined in that module can be accessed using **dot notation**. Ex: A variable speed\_of\_light defined in universe.py is accessed via **universe.speed\_of\_light**.

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#### PARTICIPATION ACTIVITY

20.7.2: Importing modules.



#### Animation captions:

1. Code can be separated into multiple files. The names.py module has some predefined variables.

2. The `print_name.py` script imports variables from `names.py` using dot notation.
3. Running the script imports the module and accesses the module contents using dot notation.

Separating code into different modules makes management of larger programs simpler. For example, a simple Tetris-like game might have a module for input (`buttons.py`), a module for descriptions of each piece shape (`pieces.py`), a module for score management (`score.py`), etc.

The Python standard library, discussed elsewhere, is a collection of useful pre-installed modules. Modules also become more useful when dealing with topics such as functions and classes, where the logical boundaries of what code should be contained within a module is more obvious.

**PARTICIPATION  
ACTIVITY**

## 20.7.3: Basic modules.



If unable to drag and drop, refresh the page.

**module**      **import**      **script**      **dot notation**

A file containing Python code that is passed as input to the interpreter

A file containing Python code that is imported by a script, module, or the interactive interpreter

Used to reference an object in an imported module.

Executes the contents of a file containing Python code and makes the definitions from that file available.

**Reset**

## Importing modules and executing scripts

When a module is imported, all code in the module is immediately executed. Python programs often use the built-in special name `__name__` to determine if the file was executed as a script by the programmer, or if the file was imported by another module. If the value of `__name__` is the string

'\_\_main\_\_', then the file was executed as a script.

In the figure below, two files are provided: `pet_names.py` initializes some variables, and `favorite_pet.py` imports `pet_names.py` as a module and uses some of the variable values to write a message. Running `pet_names.py` as a script (`python pet_names.py`) causes the code within the `if __name__ == '__main__':` block to execute, which prints some pet statistics. When `favorite_pet.py` is run and `pet_names.py` is imported as a module, the pet statistics are not printed.

The `if` construct used in the program below is discussed elsewhere. For now, know that the code indented below the `if __name__ == '__main__':` block only executes when the file is passed to the interpreter directly.

Figure 20.7.1: Checking if a file was executed as a script.

*# The pet\_names.py module*

```
print('Initializing pet variables...')
pet_name1 = 'Ryder'
pet_name2 = 'Jess'
pet_weight1 = 5.1
pet_weight2 = 8.5
```

*# Executes only if file run as a script (e.g., python pet\_names.py)*

```
if __name__ == '__main__':
    print('Pet 1:', pet_name1, 'was born',
          pet_weight1, 'lbs')
    print('Pet 2:', pet_name2, 'was born',
          pet_weight2, 'lbs')
```

*# A script favorite\_pet.py that imports and uses the pet\_names module.*

```
import pet_names # Importing the module executes the module contents
```

```
print('My favorite pet is', pet_names.pet_name1, '-')
print('I remember when he weighed only',
      pet_names.pet_weight1, 'pounds.')
print('I love', pet_names.pet_name2, 'too, of course.')
```

```
$ python pet_names.py
Initializing pet
variables...
Pet 1: Ryder was born
5.1 lbs
Pet 2: Jess was born
8.5 lbs
```

```
$ python
favorite_pet.py
Initializing pet
variables...
My favorite pet is
Ryder -
I remember when he
weighed only 5.1
pounds.
I love Jess too, of
course.
```



What is the output when running the following commands? Assume valid input of "10" is

provided to the program, if required. If no output is generated, select "NO OUTPUT". Note: The math module, imported in fall\_time.py, provides functions for advanced math operations and is discussed in more detail elsewhere.

constants.py	fall_time.py
<pre># Gravitational constants for various planets  earth_g = 9.81 # m/s^2 mars_g = 3.71  if __name__ == '__main__':     print('Earth constant:', earth_g)     print('Mars constant:', mars_g)</pre>	<pre># Find seconds to drop from a height on some planets. import constants import math  height = int(input('Height in meters: ')) # Meters from planet  if __name__ == '__main__':     print('Earth:', math.sqrt(2 * height / constants.earth_g), 'seconds')     print('Mars:', math.sqrt(2 * height / constants.mars_g), 'seconds')</pre>

1) \$ python constants.py

- ☐ NO OUTPUT
- ☐ Earth constant: 9.81  
Mars constant: 3.71
- ☐ Height in meters:  
Earth: 1.4278431229270645  
seconds  
Mars: 2.32181730106286  
seconds

2) \$ python fall\_time.py

- ☐ NO OUTPUT
- ☐ Earth constant: 9.81  
Mars constant: 3.71
- ☐ Height in meters:  
Earth: 1.4278431229270645  
seconds  
Mars: 2.32181730106286  
seconds

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## 20.8 Math module

## The math module

While basic math operations like `+` or `*` are sufficient for some computations, programmers sometimes wish to perform more advanced math operations such as computing a square root. Python comes with a standard **math module** to support such advanced math operations. A **module** is Python code located in another file. The programmer can import the module for use in their own file, or in an interactive interpreter. The programmer first imports the module to the top of a file.

The math module provides a number of theoretic, trigonometric, and logarithmic operations that a programmer may use. A mathematical operation provided by the math module can be used as follows:

Figure 20.8.1: Importing the math module and calling a math module function.

```
import math

num = 49
num_sqrt =
math.sqrt(num)
```

`sqrt()` is known as a function. A **function** is a list of statements that can be executed simply by referring to the function's name. The statements for `sqrt()` are within the math module itself and are not relevant to the programmer. The programmer provides a value to the function (like `num` above). The function executes its statements and returns the computed value. Thus, `sqrt(num)` above will evaluate to 7.0.

The process of invoking a function is referred to as a **function call**. The item passed to a function is referred to as an **argument**. Some functions have multiple arguments, such as the function `pow(b, e)`, which returns  $b^e$ . The statement `ten_generation_ancestors = 1024 * num_people` could be replaced by `ten_generation_ancestors = math.pow(2, 10) * num_people` to be more clear.

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## zyDE 20.8.1: Example of using a math function: Savings interest program.

Note: Blank print statements are used to go to the next line after reading pre-entered

Load default template...

```
1 import math
2
3 base = float(input('Enter initial savings: '))
4 print()
5
6 rate = float(input('Enter annual interest rate: '))
7 print()
8
9 years = int(input('Enter years that pass: '))
10 print()
11
12 total = base * math.pow(1 + (rate / 100), years)
13
14 print('Savings after', years, 'years is', total)
15
```

5000  
3.5  
20  
Run

### Commonly used functions

Commonly used functions from the math module are listed below. <http://docs.python.org/3.7/library/math.html> has a complete listing.

Table 20.8.1: Functions in the standard math module.

Function	Description	Function	Description
<b>Number representation and theoretic functions</b>			
ceil(x)	Round up value	fabs(x)	Absolute value
factorial(x)	factorial ( $3! = 3 * 2 * 1$ )	floor(x)	Round down value
fmod(x, y)	Remainder of division	fsum(x)	Floating-point sum of a range, list, or array.
<b>Power, exponential, and logarithmic functions</b>			
exp(x)	Exponential function $e^x$	log(x, (base))	Natural logarithm; base is optional
pow(x, y)	Raise x to power y	sqrt(x)	Square root
<b>Trigonometric functions</b>			
acos(x)	Arc cosine	asin(x)	Arc sine
atan(x)	Arc tangent	atan2(y, x)	Arc tangent with two parameters
cos(x)	Cosine	sin(x)	Sine
hypot(x1, x2, x3, ..., xn)	Length of vector from origin	degrees(x)	Convert from radians to degrees
radians(x)	Convert degrees to radians	tan(x)	Tangent
cosh(x)	Hyperbolic cosine	sinh(x)	Hyperbolic sine
<b>Complex number functions</b>			
gamma(x)	Gamma function	erf(x)	Error function
<b>Mathematical constants</b>			
pi (constant)	Mathematical constant 3.141592...	e (constant)	Mathematical constant 2.718281...



**PARTICIPATION  
ACTIVITY**

## 20.8.1: Variable assignments with math functions.



Determine the final value of z.

1)  $x = 2.3$   
 $z = \text{math.ceil}(x)$

**Check**[Show answer](#)

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2)  $x = 2.3$   
 $z = \text{math.floor}(x)$

**Check**[Show answer](#)

3)  $z = 4.5$   
 $z =$   
 $\text{math.pow}(\text{math.floor}(z),$   
 $2.0)$

**Check**[Show answer](#)

4)  $z = 15.75$   
 $z =$   
 $\text{math.sqrt}(\text{math.ceil}(z))$

**Check**[Show answer](#)

5)  $z = 4$   
 $z = \text{math.factorial}(z)$

**Check**[Show answer](#)

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CHALLENGE  
ACTIVITY

## 20.8.1: Math functions.



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Start

Type the program's output

```
import math
x = math.sqrt(16.0)
print(x)
```

4.0

1

2

3

4

Check

Next

CHALLENGE  
ACTIVITY

## 20.8.2: Math functions.



422102.2723990.qx3zqy7

Start

Compute:  $z = \sqrt{x * y}$ 

```
1 import math
2
3 x = float(input())
4 y = float(input())
5
6 ''' Your code goes here '''
7
8 print(round(z, 2)) # This will output only 2 decimal places.
9
```

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1

2

3

Check

Next

Show solution

**CHALLENGE  
ACTIVITY**

## 20.8.3: Using math functions to calculate the distance between two points



Assign `point_dist` with the distance between point  $(x_1, y_1)$  and point  $(x_2, y_2)$ . The calculation is:

Distance =  $\text{SquareRootOf}((x_2 - x_1)^2 + (y_2 - y_1)^2)$ .

Sample output with inputs: 1.0 2.0 1.0 5.0

**Points distance: 3.0**

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```
1 import math
2
3 x1 = float(input())
4 y1 = float(input())
5 x2 = float(input())
6 y2 = float(input())
7
8 ''' Your solution goes here '''
9
10 print('Points distance:', point_dist)
```

**Run**

## 20.9 Representing text

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### Unicode

String variables represent text, such as the character 'G' or the word 'Pineapple'. Python uses **Unicode** to represent every possible character as a unique number, known as a **code point**. For example, the character 'G' has the code point decimal value of 71. Below is a table with some Unicode code points and the character represented by each code point. In total, there are over 1 million code points in the Unicode standard character set.

Table 20.9.1: Encoded text values.

Decimal	Character	Decimal	Character	Decimal	Character
32	space	64	@	96	`
33	!	65	A	97	a
34	"	66	B	98	b
35	#	67	C	99	c
36	\$	68	D	100	d
37	%	69	E	101	e
38	&	70	F	102	f
39	'	71	G	103	g
40	(	72	H	104	h
41	)	73	I	105	i
42	*	74	J	106	j
43	+	75	K	107	k
44	,	76	L	108	l
45	-	77	M	109	m
46	.	78	N	110	n
47	/	79	O	111	o
48	0	80	P	112	p
49	1	81	Q	113	q
50	2	82	R	114	r
51	3	83	S	115	s
52	4	84	T	116	t
53	5	85	U	117	u

53	5	85	U	117	u
54	6	86	V	118	v
55	7	87	W	119	w
56	8	88	X	120	x
57	9	89	Y	121	y
58	:	90	Z	122	z
59	;	91	[	123	{
60	<	92	\	124	
61	=	93	]	125	}
62	>	94	^	126	~
63	?	95	_		

#### PARTICIPATION ACTIVITY

20.9.1: Unicode.



- 1) What is the decimal encoding of the '{' character?




Check

Show answer

## Escape sequences

In addition to visible characters like a, \$, or 5, several special characters exist. A **newline** character, which indicates the end of a line of text, is encoded as 10. Since there is no visible character for a newline, the language uses the two-item sequence `\n` to represent a newline character. The `\` is known as a **backslash**. Upon reaching a `\`, the interpreter recognizes that item as the start of a special character's two-item sequence and then looks at the next item to determine the special character. The two-item sequence is called an **escape sequence**.

Table 20.9.2: Common escape sequences.

Escape Sequence	Explanation	Example code	Output
\\	Backslash (\)	<pre>print('\\home\\users\\')</pre>	<pre>\home\users\</pre>
\'	Single quote (')	<pre>print('Name: John O'Donald')</pre>	<pre>Name: John O'Donald</pre>
\"	Double quote (")	<pre>print("He said, \"Hello friend!\".")</pre>	<pre>He said, "Hello friend!".</pre>
\n	Newline	<pre>print('My name...\nIs John...')</pre>	<pre>My name... Is John...</pre>
\t	Tab (indent)	<pre>print('1. Bake cookies\n\t1.1. Preheat oven')</pre>	<pre>1. Bake cookies     1.1. Preheat oven</pre>

**PARTICIPATION  
ACTIVITY**

## 20.9.2: Escape sequences.

1) What is the output of  
`print('\\c\\users\\juan')`

- ☐ `\\c\\users\\juan`
- ☐ `\c\\users\\juan`
- ☐ `\\\c\\users\\\juan`

2) What is the output of  
`print('My name is \'Tator  
Tot\'.')`

- ☐ My name is Tator Tot.
- ☐ My name is "Tator Tot".
- ☐ My name is 'Tator Tot'.

3) What is the output of  
`print('10...\n9...')`

- ☐ 10...9...
- ☐ 10...  
9...
- ☐ 10...\n9...

## Raw strings and converting between an encoding and text

Escape sequences can be ignored using a **raw string**. A raw string is created by adding an 'r' before a string literal, as in `r'this is a raw string\'`, which would output as `this is a raw string\'`.

Figure 20.9.1: Ignoring escape characters with a raw string.

```
my_string = 'This is a \n \'normal\'  
string\n'  
my_raw_string = r'This is a \n \'raw\'  
string'  
  
print(my_string)  
print(my_raw_string)
```

```
This is a  
'normal' string  
  
This is a \n \'raw\'  
string
```

Sometimes converting between a text character and the encoded value is useful. The built-in function **ord()** returns an encoded integer value for a string of length one. The built-in function **chr()** returns a string of one character for an encoded integer.

### PARTICIPATION ACTIVITY

20.9.3: Using `ord()` to convert a character to the encoded value.



Type any character and observe the output of the `ord()` function, which is the numerical encoding of the character. Try upper- and lowercase letters, as well as special characters like "%" or "\$", or a space (should result in "32"). Try copy/pasting any one of these characters (from the Korean Unicode character set) 강남스타일

Type a character: `ord('A')`

Encoded number: **65**

### PARTICIPATION ACTIVITY

20.9.4: Using `chr()` to convert an encoded value to a character.



Type any number greater than or equal to 0 and observe the encoded value's character equivalent. Note that not all numbers will result in a visible character.

Type a number (0-255)

ASCII char: **Z**

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**CHALLENGE  
ACTIVITY**

20.9.1: Enter the output of the print() statements.

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**Start**

Type the program's output

```
print('The name of the dog is "Ruby".')
```

The name of the dog

1

2

3

4

Check

Next

**PARTICIPATION  
ACTIVITY**

20.9.5: Text.

1) Complete the code to output

```
print(  

```

**Check**

[Show answer](#)

2) Use a raw string literal to assign  
"C:\file.doc" to my\_str (without  
quotes).

```
my_str =  

```



**Check**[Show answer](#)

Exploring further:

- [Unicode HOWTO](#) from the official Python documentation.

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