

Python Operator Precedence and Associativity

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Syntax vs. semantics

Each rule below has two parts:

- **Syntax** — what makes the expression a *valid* Python program.
- **Semantics** — what the expression *evaluates to*.

Constants and brackets

- A constant (e.g. 2) is the most basic expression.
- If `x` is a valid expression then `(x)` is also a valid expression — bracketed expressions get evaluated first. Whitespace inside brackets is ignored, and brackets can nest arbitrarily `((2))`.
- An unmatched closing bracket `(2)` is a `SyntaxError`.

Negation and affirmation

- If x is a valid expression then $+x$ and $-x$ are valid expressions.
- $+x$ is equivalent to multiplying x by 1; $-x$ is equivalent to multiplying x by -1 .
- These can be chained ($--3$ is 3, $+-+-3$ is -3), but a trailing operator with nothing after it ($3+$) is a `SyntaxError`.

Arithmetic operators

If x and y are valid expressions, then all of the following are valid expressions, evaluated according to the rules of math:

Operator	Meaning
$x + y$	Addition
$x - y$	Subtraction
$x * y$	Multiplication
x / y	Division
$x // y$	Integer (floor) division
$x \% y$	Remainder
$x ** y$	Exponentiation

Order of operations

From highest to lowest precedence:

Operator	Description
$()$	Parenthesis
$**$	Exponents
$-x, +x$	Negation, Affirmation
$*, /, //, \%$	Multiplication, Division, Integer Division, Remainder
$+, -$	Addition, Subtraction

$*, /, //$, and $\%$ share a precedence level, as do $+$ and $-$ — see [Associativity](#) below for how ties between operators of equal precedence get resolved.

Associativity

An order of operations alone doesn't remove all ambiguity — e.g. $1 - 2 + 3$ needs a rule for whether it means $(1 - 2) + 3$ or $1 - (2 + 3)$. Python evaluates $1 - 2 + 3$ as $(1 - 2) + 3 = 2$, so $+$ / $-$ are **left-associative**.

Operators of equal precedence are left-associative in general, **except exponentiation ($**$)**, which is **right-associative**:

- $3 * 1 // 2 = (3 * 1) // 2 = 1$ (left-associative $*///$)
- $2 ** 1 ** 0 = 2 ** (1 ** 0) = 2$ (right-associative $**$, *not* $(2 ** 1) ** 0 = 1$)

In general, if $\#$ and $@$ are operators of equal precedence, $a \# b @ c = (a \# b) @ c$ (left-associative case).

Division and floats

- $/$ always returns a **float**, even when the division is exact ($4 / 2$ is 2.0 , not 2) — `type(2)` is `int`, `type(2.0)` is `float`.
- $1 / 3$ gives an *approximate* result (0.3333333333333333) since floats have finite precision.
- $1 / 0$ raises `ZeroDivisionError`; $1 / \text{float}('inf')$ is 0.0 .

Exponentiation edge cases

- $2 ** 3$ is 8 (`int`); $2 ** 3.0$ is 8.0 (`float`) — a float exponent/base produces a float result.
- $2 ** -1$ is 0.5 .
- $2 ** 0$ and $0 ** 0$ are both 1 .

Warning: $\wedge$ is not exponentiation

The caret $\wedge$ is Python's **bit-wise xor** operator, not exponentiation — e.g. $2 \wedge 3$ is 1 and $4 \wedge 1$ is 5 . Using $\wedge$ where you meant $**$ does *not* raise an error, so this mistake can silently produce wrong results.

Integer division (the division algorithm)

For positive integers x and y , there is a unique quotient q and remainder r (with $0 \leq r < y$) satisfying $x = q * y + r$ — “grade school” division. E.g. for $x = 17$, $y = 3$: $17 = 5 * 3 + 2$, so $17 // 3$ is 5 (the quotient) and $17 \% 3$ is 2 (the remainder), and $3 * (17 // 3) + (17 \% 3) == 17$.

The division algorithm can be computed directly (repeated subtraction) or recursively:

```
def remainder(x: int, y: int) -> int:
    ans = x
    while ans >= y:
        ans = ans - y
    return ans
```

```
def remainder(x: int, y: int) -> int:
    return x if x < y else remainder(x - y, y)
```

Both give `remainder(17, 7) == 3`.