

Part II

Basic Mathematics

Outline

4 Basic arithmetic

5 Types and conversions

6 Branching

7 Logical operations

Basic mathematics

The basic operators $+$, $-$, $*$, $/$ exist and act more-or-less as you would expect.

```
int a = 5;
int b = 3;
int c = a*b + 5;
std::cout << "c = " << c << std::endl;
c = c * 2;
std::cout << "c = " << c << std::endl;
```

Modulus operator: $7 \% 3 == 1$.

This has the same precedence as $*$ and $/$.

These operators may not quite act as you expect if the numbers involved overflow their types. Of which, more later...

Literals

- Decimal integers are specified as:
`10, 42, 0, 12, 1e3`
- Double-precision floating-point numbers are specified as:
`1.23e4, 1e-3`
- Binary integers are specified as:
`0b101010`
- Hexadecimal integers are specified as:
`0xa, 0x100, 0xffff`
- Octal integers are specified with a leading zero:
`010, 077, 0123`
- Single characters are specified as:
`'a', 'b'`
- “Strings” of characters are specified as:
`"Hello"`

Short-hand operators

There are short-hand versions of some operate-and-assign operations:

`+= -= *= /= %=`

Both the following lines do the same thing (on basic arithmetic types)

```
a = a + 5;  
a += 5;
```

Also the increment and decrement operators `++ --`:

Both the following lines do the same thing (on basic arithmetic types).

```
i++; j--;  
i = i+1; j = j-1;
```

(Hence the name C++)

Pre- and post-increment

- There is a difference between `i++` and `++i`:
- The pre-increment `++i` increments `i` and evaluates to the result after the increment.
- The post-increment `i++` evaluates `i` and then increments it

```
int i=2;  
int j=(i++); // j=2, i=3  
int k=(++i); // k=4, i=4
```

- You are advised not to write code that relies subtly on the distinction between the two.

Bitwise operators

- C++ also has operators that act bitwise
- Left-shift << and right-shift >>
- These shift the binary representation of an integer to the left or right:

```
int a = 43; // 101011 in binary
int b = a << 2; // b = 172 (or 10101100 in binary)
int c = a >> 2; // c = 10 (or 1010 in binary)
```

- Bitwise NOT: `int a = ~5;`
- Now `a = -6` or `111...1010`
- Bitwise OR: `int a = 11 | 12; // a = 15`
- Bitwise AND: `int a = 11 & 12; // a = 8`

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Basic types

Definition

The kind of information stored in a variable is referred to as its “type”.

- Examples of fundamental types in C++ are: `int`, `float`, `double`, `bool`, `unsigned int`
- C++ performs static type-checking: the types used must be known at compile-time so that the function to be called can be determined.
- This allows for higher-performance than other dynamically-typed languages that check types at run-time.
- If a function cannot be called with precisely the given types, then either types may be converted (using standard conversions such as `int` \mapsto `float`) or the compilation may fail.

Basic types ctd.

- Integral types:
 - `bool`
 - `char`, `int`, `short int`, `long int`
(can be preceded by signed (the default) or unsigned)
- Floating point types:
 - `float` single precision - usually 32-bit
 - `double` double precision - usually 64-bit
 - `long double` extended double precision
- `void` - absence of information

Type ranges

Typical for current 64-bit computers - not mandated by the C++ standard

Type	Bits	Range
signed char	8	-128 to 127
unsigned char	8	0 to 255
signed short int	16	-32768 to 32767
unsigned short int	16	0 to 65535
signed int	32	$-(2^{31})$ to $2^{31} - 1$
unsigned int	32	0 to $2^{32} - 1$
signed long int	64	$-(2^{63})$ to $2^{63} - 1$
unsigned long int	64	0 to $2^{64} - 1$
float	32	$\pm 3.4 \times 10^{38}$ (~ 7 s.f.)
double	64	$\pm 1.7 \times 10^{308}$ (~ 15 s.f.)

Programmatically discovering numeric type properties

- You may wish to write a portable program that can check the properties of the numeric types at run-time.
- For all built-in integral types, such as `int`, the following are available:

```
#include <limits>
int std::numeric_limits<int>::digits; // Binary digits
bool std::numeric_limits<int>::is_signed;
bool std::numeric_limits<int>::is_integer;
int std::numeric_limits<int>::min();
int std::numeric_limits<int>::max();
```

- For floating-point types, the following are available:

```
int std::numeric_limits<float>::digits; // Binary digits in
    the mantissa
float std::numeric_limits<float>::min();
float std::numeric_limits<float>::max();
float std::numeric_limits<float>::epsilon();
```

where ϵ is the smallest s.t. $1 + \epsilon > 1$.

- See a reference manual for all available values.

Variable declaration

- It is possible to declare multiple variables on a single line:

```
int a,b,c=5;  
double x=0.9, y=1.1, z;
```

- will declare integers `a`, `b`, `c`,
- initializing `c` to be 5,
- and double-precision variables `x`, `y`, `z`,
- initializing `x` and `y`, but not `z`.

Integer division in C++

- A common problem found when learning C++ is that $1/3 == 0$
- Integer division always yields an integer
- $(-4) / 3$ is *probably* equal to -1 (i.e. round-towards-zero)
- but could be -2 depending on the particular implementation (compiler)
- Note that modulo arithmetic is defined such that for integers

$$(a/b) * b + a \% b == a$$

so modular arithmetic is always consistent with division.

- If you need moduli of negative numbers, you should check what $(-4) \% (-3)$ gives.

Integer overflow/wrapping in C++

- Integers are represented using a fixed number of bits
- When the result (or intermediate result) of an operation cannot be represented in this, then what happens?
- `unsigned int` will wrap around, i.e.

```
unsigned int i = 4294967295; //  $2^{32} - 1$   
unsigned int j = i + 1; // Now j == 0
```

- Overflow on signed arithmetic is not defined

```
int i = 2147483647; //  $2^{31} - 1$   
int j = i + 1;
```

- The value of `j` is not defined by the C++ standard
- It may be -2^{31} , but it need not be.
- Your program could even crash at this point from integer overflow. (Misleadingly unlikely.)

Avoiding integer overflow

- Do not assume that all compilers/systems do the same as the one you're currently using
- Further, do not assume that your compiler will give the same answer in all circumstances - may be affected by optimization
- To avoid issues, you would need:

```
signed int a, b, c = 0;  
// Initialize a and b  
if( b == 0 || (b != 0 &&  
abs(std::numeric_limits<signed int>::max() / b) < abs(a)) )  
{  
    c = a * b;  
}
```

- However, this is probably overkill and too expensive for everything except software needing extensive robustness or security checks.
- It's worth bearing in mind, though.

Floating-point arithmetic

- Need to store finite-precision approximations to real numbers
- Floating-point arithmetic is not exact
- Floating-point arithmetic is commutative $x * y == y * x$
- Floating-point arithmetic is not associative:
 $(x+y)+z$ not necessarily the same as $x+(y+z)$.
- You should (almost) never test for exact equality of floating-point numbers: $3*(1.0/3.0)$ may not be equal to 1.
- Floating-point exceptions occur upon division by zero, square-roots of -ve numbers, and similar
- These can be caught and may help in tracking down bugs, but may not be reliable.

Floating-point arithmetic ctd

- NaN stands for Not A Number.
- This can arise from $0/0$, ∞/∞ and similar computations.
- For full details, see “What every computer-scientist should know about floating-point numbers” (available online)

Type conversion

- When assigning an integer to a floating-point value or performing an operation on an integer and a floating-point number:

```
double a = 2 + 5.3;
```

then the 2 is converted to double precision before the addition is performed.

- When performing a division of two integers, any of the following will work:

```
double oneThird = 1.0/3.0;  
double oneThird = 1/(double)3;  
double oneThird = (double)1/3;
```

- Note that specifying a floating-point number gives double precision by default.
- To specify single-precision, use a suffix `f`: `3.2f`.

Exponential notation

- Larger/smaller numbers can be specified by using exponential notation:
`float b = 1.3e10f; float c = -9e-13f;`
- Note that specifying a number out of range leads to undefined behaviour:
`double s = 1.3e400; // Contents of s at run-time are undefined`
- In theory, your program could crash here. Again, misleadingly unlikely.

Truncation

- Assigning a `float` to `int` truncates the value:

```
float a = 5.2f;  
int b = a; // Now b == 5  
float c = -3.141f;  
int d = c; // Now d == -3
```

- Assigning a value larger than that which can be contained by the destination type gives undefined results.

```
float e = 1e10; // Bigger than  $2^{32}$   
int f = e; // result undefined
```

Mathematical functions

Include these using `#include <cmath>`

- Various standard functions exist, in both single-precision and double-precision forms.
- `sin`, `cos`, `tan`, `sqrt`, `log`, `exp`, `asin`, `acos`
- `fabs` - floating-point absolute-value
- `abs` - integer absolute-value
- `ceil`, `floor` - round up/down
- `atan2(y,x) = $\tan^{-1}(y/x)$` and deals with $x, y = 0$ appropriately

pow

- $\text{pow}(x, y) = x^y$
- `pow` has four forms:
 - `float pow(float, float)`
 - `double pow(double, double)`
 - `long double pow(long double, long double)`
 - `ResultType pow(Arithmetic1 base, Arithmetic2 exp)`
- Note that integral powers are not covered in this.
- `pow(2,3)` will convert 2 to double-precision floating-point and then calculate `2.0*2.0*2.0`
- The third option mentions `long double` - extended precision. May or may not give better accuracy.
- The fourth option allows all combinations of arithmetic types not covered by the first three. The return type is always `double` or `long double`.

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Branching

We often want to change what our code does depending on input. We can use `if` statements which evaluate a set of statements only if a given condition holds:

```
int a;  
std::cin >> a;  
if( a == 0 ){  
    std::cout << "a is equal to 0";  
}
```

Note the equality test operator `==` which is different from assignment operator `=`.

Else

The extended construct of `if` is:

```
if( condition )  
    execute-if-true;  
else  
    execute-if-false;
```

```
if( a < 0 ) {  
    std::cout << "a is negative" << std::endl;  
}  
else {  
    std::cout << "a is non-negative" << std::endl;  
}
```

Else-if chains

```
if( a < 0 ){  
    std::cout << "a is negative" << std::endl;  
}  
else if(a > 0){  
    std::cout << "a is positive" << std::endl;  
}  
else{  
    std::cout << "a is zero" << std::endl;  
}
```

The final **else** is associated with the immediately preceeding **if**.
This highlights the importance of grouping statements with braces.

Else-if chains

```
if( a < 0 ){
    std::cout << "a is negative" << std::endl;
}
else { if(a > 0){
    std::cout << "a is positive" << std::endl;
}
}
else{
    std::cout << "a is zero" << std::endl;
}
}
```

The final **else** is associated with the immediately preceeding **if**.
This highlights the importance of grouping statements with braces.

Relational operators

The following operators compare two values and result in a boolean:

- `<` `>` Less/Greater than
- `<=` `>=` Less/Greater than or equal to
- `==` Equal
- `!=` Not equal

```
if( a != 1 ){  
    std::cout << "a is not equal to 1" << std::endl;  
}
```

The result of one of these can also be assigned to a boolean variable:

```
bool aIsPositive = (a > 0);  
if( aIsPositive ){  
    std::cout << "Variable is +ve" << std::endl;  
}
```

Warning

- The equality test operator `==` is not the same as the assignment operator `=`
- So, `a=3` *always* sets `a` to be equal to 3 and the expression returns the new value of `a`.

```
if( a = 3 ){  
    std::cout << "a is 3" << std::endl;  
}
```

will set `a=3` and always print the given statement (because 3 converts to `true`).

- Here, `a==3` should be used instead.
- If you convert a boolean value to an integer, `true` is 1 and `false` is 0.

Boolean/integer equivalence

- If you allocate a non-boolean number to a boolean, some conversion must occur.
- Any non-zero number converts to **true**
- Zero converts to **false**

So, in the following:

```
if( 0 ){  
    std::cout << "Never get here!" << std::endl;  
}  
if( -1 ){  
    std::cout << "Always get here!" << std::endl;  
}
```

only the second message is printed.

Although this has valid uses, you should not usually use this style.

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Logical operations

You can combine the results of comparisons as follows:

- `&&` Logical AND
- `||` Logical OR

so that

```
if( a==0 || b==0 ){  
    std::cout << "At least one of a and b is zero." <<  
    std::endl;  
}
```

works as you would expect

Note that `&&` has higher precedence than `||`, so

```
if( a == 0 && b == 0 || c == 2 ){  
    // More code here.  
}
```

evaluates either if `c==2` OR both `a` and `b` are zero.

Parentheses are usually a good idea here.

Logical NOT

- There is also the NOT operator `!` which has higher precedence than `&&` and `||`

```
bool a = false;
if( !a ){
    std::cout << "a is false" << std::endl;
}
```

and therefore

```
if( !( a && b ) )
```

is the same as

```
if( !a || !b )
```

(so long as evaluating `a` and `b` has no side-effects)

What not to do

The following is valid C++, but will not do what you want:

```
if( 2 <= a <= 5 ){  
    std::cout << "a is between 2 and 5 (inclusive)" << std::endl;  
}
```

will not evaluate precisely when **a** is between 2 and 5.

The compiler will see:

```
if( (2 <= a) <=5 )
```

Whatever **a** is, the result of $(2 \leq a)$ is either **false** or **true**, which convert to 0 or 1, so this always evaluates to **true**.

Short-cut evaluation

When computing the result of a logical expression, only as many tests as are required to determine the result are carried out, working from left to right (taking parentheses and operator precedence into account)

```
int a = 0;
if( a == 0 || b < 0 ){
    //... Code here ...
}
if( a == 1 && b > 0 ){
    //... Code here ...
}
```

In both cases, the second test is not performed.

This is called short-cut evaluation.

It is of more use in the following:

```
if( v.size() >= 5 && v[4] == 5 )
```

where the second test could cause a seg-fault if `v` were not big enough.

Ternary Operator

- As a shortcut to **if-else**, there is the ternary operator **?:**

```
n = ( (n % 2 == 1) ? 3*n+1 : n/2 );
```

which is equivalent to

```
if( n % 2 == 1 ){  
    n = 3*n + 1;  
}  
else{  
    n = n/2;  
}
```

- The ternary operator should only be used to replace very simple **if-else** statements.
- and should usually be contained in parentheses due to its low precedence (only just above =)