Exercise Class 3

1 Expressions

So far in the lectures we have seen three groups of types:

- 1. logical variables: **bool**;
- 2. integers: int and unsigned int;
- 3. floating point numbers: float and double.

We have already seen earlier that expressions may contain subexpressions of different types. To evaluate expressions which contain different types, we need rules for converting between them. The rule is converting to the more general type of the types involved. Below is the order from the least general type bool to the left and the most general type double to the right:

bool < int < unsigned int < float < double

For example, when evaluating the expression 5.0 / 2, the compiler converts the integer 2 to a double 2.0 and then uses the floating point division (and not the integer division) which results in 2.5.

1.1 Exercise: Expressions

1.1.1 Task

- 1. Which of the following character sequences are not C++ expressions, and why not? Here, x and y are variables of type int.
 - a) (y++ < 0 && y < 0)+ 2.0
 - b) y = (x++ = 3)
 - c) 3.0 + 3 4 + 5
 - d) 5 % 4 * 3.0 + true * x++
- 2. For all of the valid expressions that you have identified in 1, decide whether these are lvalues or rvalues, and explain your decisions.
- 3. Determine the values of the expressions and explain how these values are obtained. Assume that x == 1 and y == -1.

1.1.2 Solution

- 1. 1b is invalid because x++ is rvalue and on the left hand side of the assignment there must be a lvalue. All other cases are valid C++ expressions.
- 2. 1a rvalue.
 - 1c rvalue.
 - 1d rvalue.
- 3. 1a: value is 2.0. Step by step computation:

```
(y++ < 0 && y < 0) + 2.0
(-1 < 0 && y < 0) + 2.0 // after this step: y == 0
(true && y < 0) + 2.0
(true && false) + 2.0
(false) + 2.0
0.0 + 2.0
2.0
```

Note: this expression is well defined just because & is short-circuiting.

• 1c: value is 7.0. Step by step computation:

```
((3.0 + 3) - 4) + 5((3.0 + 3.0) - 4) + 5(6.0 - 4) + 5(6.0 - 4.0) + 52.0 + 52.0 + 5.07.0
```

• 1d: value is 4.0. Step by step computation:

```
((5 % 4) * 3.0) + (true * (x++))
(1 * 3.0) + (true * (x++))
(1.0 * 3.0) + (true * (x++))
3.0 + (true * (x++))
3.0 + (true * 1)
3.0 + (1 * 1)
3.0 + 1
3.0 + 1.0
4.0
```

2 Scopes

Scopes define the code segments of our program in which a variable (lvalue) exists. The scope of a variable starts at the point of its definition and ends at the end of the block where it was defined. For example:

```
if (x < 7) {
    int a = 8;
    std::cout << a; // Fine, prints 8.</pre>
```

}
std::cout << a; // Compiler error, a does not exist.</pre>

When a variable scope ends, the variable gets deallocated. Already in two weeks you will see a construct for whose correct use it is very important to know how long each variable lives.

One way to make the example above to compile, would be to declare another variable a in the surrounding scope:

```
int a = 2;
if (x < 7) {
    int a = 8;
    std::cout << a; // Prints 8.
}
std::cout << a; // Prints 2.</pre>
```

While this compiles, it is a bad programming style. First, it is harder to understand for the (human) reader because there are two variables with the same name a. Second, in this example, most likely the programmer had an intention to change the value of the outer a inside the if statement instead of just printing 8. This intention would be written as:

```
int a = 2;
if (x < 7) {
    a = 8;
    std::cout << a; // Prints 8.
}
std::cout << a; // Prints 8.</pre>
```

One important thing to remember regarding scopes and loops is that variables declared in the initialisation of the for-loop last for the entire loop while variables declared in the loop body last only for one loop iteration. For example, in the following code snippet:

```
int sum = 0;
for (int i = 0; i < 5; ++i) {
    int a;
    std::cin >> a;
    sum += a;
}
```

sum is available inside a loop and after it, i is available only in the loop, and a is available only in one loop iteration.

The handout on Program tracing explains how to execute programs that declare variables in nested scopes by hand: https://lec.inf.ethz.ch/mavt/informatik/2020/dl/additional/handouts/ProgramTracing.html. Make sure to get familiar with the notation because we will need it soon for understanding the more complex constructs.

3 Loops

3.1 Exercise: Loop Correctness

3.1.1 Task

Can a user of the program observe the difference between the output produced by these three loops? If yes, how?

// Program: output_till_n.cpp

```
#include <iostream>
```

```
int main () {
  std::cout << "Enter a number: ";</pre>
  unsigned int n;
  std::cin >> n;
  // loop 1
  for (unsigned int i = 1; i \le n; ++i) {
    std::cout << i << "\n";</pre>
  }
 // loop 2
 unsigned int i = 0;
 while (i < n) {</pre>
    std::cout << ++i << "\n";</pre>
  }
 // loop 3
  i = 1;
  do {
    std::cout << i++ << "\n";</pre>
  } while (i <= n);</pre>
  return 0;
}
```

3.1.2 Solution

There are the following differences:

- Unlike loops 1 and 2, loop 3 does output 1 for input n == 0 because the statement in a do-loop is always executed once, before the condition is checked.
- If n is the largest possible integer, then the loops 1 and 3 may be infinite because the condition i <= n is going to be true for all possible i.

3.2 Exercise: Representing Loops in Terms of Other Loops

3.2.1 Task

1. Convert the following for-loop into an equivalent while-loop:

for (int i = 0; i < n; ++i)
 BODY</pre>

2. Convert the following while-loop into an equivalent for-loop:

while (condition) BODY

3. Convert the following do-loop into an equivalent for-loop:

do
 BODY
while (condition);

3.2.2 Solution

1. A possible way to convert a for-loop into an equivalent while-loop:

```
{ // This additional block restricts the scope of i.
int i = 0;
while (i < n) {
    BODY
    ++i;
  }
}
```

2. A possible way to convert a while-loop into an equivalent for-loop:

```
for ( ;condition; )
    BODY
```

3. A possible way to convert a do-loop into an equivalent for-loop:

```
BODY
for ( ;condition; )
BODY
```