1 % °= X +

Expressions and assignments

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Arithmetic expressions

Operator precedence or strength: order of evaluation of expressions with more than one operator. (Parentheses can always be used to specify order explicitly.)

Operators are usually grouped:

- exponentiation (**)
- unary operators (abs, unary + and etc.) (not is a unary operator, too)
- multiplicative (*, /, div, mod etc.) (and is multiplicative, too)
- additive (binary +, binary etc.) (or is additive, too)

Rules are confusing and widely different.

Pascal: multiplicative > additive

C: self-increment, unary > multiplicative > additive

Ada: ** > multiplicative > unary +, - > additive

** > multiplicative > additive Fortran:

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Associativity

Let \(\mathbf{Y} \) be any binary operator.

Left to right: x Y Y Y z = (x Y Y) Y zPascal, Ada, C (all normal operators)

Right to left: x Y Y Y z = x Y (y Y z)

C (self-increment operators ++ and --)

Nonassociative (exponentiation in Ada):

x**y**z is syntactically incorrect, though $(x^*y)^*z$ and $x^*(y^*z)$ are OK.

No precedence, one associativity rule

This is what we have in APL: always right to left.

$$x + y * z means x + (y * z)$$

 $x * y + z means x * (y + z)$ (!?)

In Smalltalk: always left to right.

$$x + y * z means (x + y) * z (!?)$$

x * y + z means (x * y) + z

Evaluation of arguments, side-effects

A function that appears in an expression may have a side-effect (change to some non-local object, not mentioned in the expression). Example:

```
function twice(var x: real): real;
begin x := x + x; twice := x end;
In the statement
```

z := twice(y);

the value of y is changed "secretly".

Such effects are to be avoided, if possible. Built-in functions seldom have side-effects, arithmetic functions—never!

Conditional expressions

In Algol 60:

```
if x > 0 then 1 else if x = 0 then 0 else -1
```

The same in C:

```
(x > 0 ? 1 : (x == 0 ? 0 : -1))
```

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Now, we can use this operator as follows:

```
DT := (18, 10, 1994) + 2;
```

Ada also has only two standard I/O procedure names: get, put—both heavily overloaded.

Overloading may be quite confusing. In C:

- & means "bitwise conjunction" and "address of",
- * means "multiplication" and "dereference".

In PL/I, = means "equality" and "assignment".

Overloading

One name or symbol—more than one distinct use.

Examples in Pascal:

integer addition, floating-point addition, string concatenation, set union

integer and floating-point multiplication, set intersection

abs integer \rightarrow integer, real \rightarrow real mod, div no overloading

Overloading can be always resolved by context (all operands have known types):

In Ada, overloading is an important element of design. Ada is extendible: a new meaning can be given to an operator in addition to what it already means. Overloading is also possible in C++.

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In Prolog, the comma is overloaded in a rather careless manner.

This comma can be read "and": a :- b, c, d.

This comma separates arguments: a(b, c, d)

This comma separates list elements:

[b, c, d]

This comma is a functor:

(b, c, d) means



Coercion

If objects of two numeric types appear as operands, we "upgrade" the "lower" type.

Hierarchy in Fortran:

integer < real < double < complex

In Pascal:

integer < real

Logical expressions

Six comparison operators

```
equal
                                      .EQ.
not equal
                                      .NE.
                    <>
                          /=
                                ! =
less
                                      .LT.
                    <
less or equal
                                      LE.
                    <=
                          =<
greater
                                      .GT.
greater or equal
                                      .GE.
```

Equality is well-defined for all types, but no natural ordering usually exists for non-scalar types.

```
function "<"(L, R: date) return boolean is
earlier: boolean := true;
begin
  if L.year > R.year then
    earlier := false;
elsif L.year = R.year then
  if L.month > R.month then
    earlier := false;
elsif L.month = R.month then
  if L.day >= R.day then
    earlier := false;
end if;
end if;
endif;
return earlier;
end;
```

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Assignment

A single assignment is obvious:

```
target := expression
target ← expression
```

Multiple assignment is more interesting.

```
PL/I: A, B := EXPR;
Algol 60: A := B := EXPR;
```

- (1) Find the value of EXPR.
- (2') Assign this value to A, then B.
- (2") Assign this value to B, then A.

This is not quite unimportant. Consider

```
I := 5; A[I] := I := 10;
```

The order in which target addresses are found also matters!

- (1) Find all target addresses.
- (2) Find the value of EXPR.
- (3) Assign this value to A and B.

With this method, A[5] := 10.

Testing that involves sets

```
equality: =, <>
membership: in, not in
inclusion (only in Pascal): <=, >=
```

Logical operators

Pascal: not, and, or

Ada: not, and, and then, or, or else, xor

Short-circuit operations are based on these facts:

```
true or else anything \equiv true false and then anything \equiv false
```

Evaluating P and Q and R may mean evaluating all of P, Q, R, or stopping after the first false.

P and then Q and then R must stop after computing the first false.

Similarly, P or else Q or else R must stop after computing the first true.

```
A: array(1..10)of integer;
Unsafe: if n>10 or (A(n)=0) then --
Safe: if n>10 or else (A(n)=0) then --
```

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- (1) Find the value of EXPR.
- (2) Find target addresses left-to-right, assign the value to every address.

With this method, still A[5] := 10.

- (1) Find the value of EXPR.
- (2) Find target addresses right-to-left, assign the value to every address.

With this method, A[10] := 10.

This statement in C is not a multiple assignment:

$$A = B = EXPR_{i}$$

Here, B = EXPR has a value (the value of EXPR) that is next assigned to A: the assignment operator in C associates right-to-left.

Another syntactic addition in C: mixing assignment with arithmetic.

```
A += Bi means A = A + Bi

A *= Bi means A = A * Bi etc.
```

Finally, we can have conditional targets (in C++):

```
(x != 0 ? y : z) = 17; or (even less readable):
```

x ? y : z = 17;

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Summary	