Introduction to Systematic Programming Unit 4 - Doing Arithmetic; Producing Better Output

4.1 Arithmetic expressions

When an algorithm involves some calculation, we show it by writing down an appropriate arithmetic expression, eg. on the right hand side of the assignment step:

TaxablePay := 52 * WeeklyPay - 10 * TaxCode

So far we have tacitly assumed that provided such expressions are formed according to the normal rules of arithmetic, they can be transferred directly into Ada programs (after writing * for multiplication for example). This is indeed generally correct, but as with all facets of programming, it is important to have an exact understanding, so let us now be more precise.

Expressions

Expressions are composed of **operands** (items from which we can obtain a value, such as variables, literal constants, and other expressions enclosed in brackets) and **operators** (eq. +, -, *, which act on values to yield new values).

Operators	+,-	represent ado – is also useo	ition and subtraction in the usual way. in representing negative quantities, eg. –35			
	*	stands for multiplication, but note that (unlike in normal arithmetic), it can never be omitted; ie. implied multiplication is not allowed, eg:				
			wrong:	a(b+c)		
			right:	a*(b+c)		
	**	stands for exp represents a	conentiation, ie. r cubed (which cou	aising a number to a power, eg: a**3 uld also be written as a*a*a)		
perators are applied	d in the us	sual order, ie. firs	st **, next * , the	en + and The operator ** is said t		

Op o have a higher priority than *, and * a higher priority than + and -. Operators are thus applied in order of descending priority. Within groups of operators of equal priority, evaluation proceeds from left to right, eg:

3+4*2	gives	11 <i>not</i>	14	(* before +, descending priority)
10-7+2	gives	5 <i>not</i>	1	(left to right with equal priority)

Where normal priority does not give the desired order, (round) brackets can be used to group operands and operators as required. As is usual, such (sub-)expressions enclosed in brackets are worked out first. Brackets can be nested to any depth always provided that they are properly matched, but care is required; incorrect bracketing is a frequent source of error. Square and curly brackets should not be used to group terms in expressions.

Examples

(3+4)*2	gives	14
2+(3+1)**2	gives	18
10-(7+2)	gives	1
8*[5+3]	!?	illegal in Ada
2-{8-3}	!?	illegal in Ada
Assuming f following (((3*y+2)*y)-	that x, a corre +4*y+21+	y and z are variables, is the ct expression? (x+1)*(x+2))*z Check it and see

4.2 Working with integer and real values

We may use the arithmetic operators +, – and * with either integer or real values but we *cannot mix* integer and real values in the same arithmetic expression. Also, the type of an expression is the same as the type of the operands making up that expression. Thus:

for	+, – or *	if both operands are Integer, these give an Integer result						
for	+, – or *	if both operand	if both operands are Float, these give a Float result					
for	+, – or *	one Float operand and one Integer operand is illegal in Ada						
Thus:	3 * 4	gives	12	(of type Integer)				
	3.0 * 4.0	gives	12.0	(of type Float)				
	3.0 + 4	!? il	legal :	in Ada				

Exponentiation

An exception to the above properties is the exponentiation operation, where the power must always be integer, no matter whether the number being raised to the power is integer or real. Thus:

for	a**b	if a is Integer and b is Integer, this gives an Integer result							
for	a**b	if a is Float and b is Integer, this gives an Float result							
Thus:	2 ** 3	gives 8	(of type Integer)						
	2.5 ** 2	gives 6.25	(of type Float)						
	2.0 ** -3	gives 0.125	(of type Float)						
	2.5 ** 0.5	!? illegal	in Ada						
	2 ** -3	!? illegal	in Ada (produces a non-integer value)						

Real division

For real values division is straightforward: if x and y are values of type Float then x/y denotes the division of x by y and produces a Float result. Thus:

11.0	/	5.0	gives	2.2	(of type Float)
10.0	/	5.0	gives	2.0	(of type Float) not 2 (of type Integer)

The operator / has the same priority as *. Thus:

11.0 + 4.0/2.0	gives	13.0	not	7.5	(/ before +, descending priority)
11.0/5.0/2.0	gives	1.1	not	4.4	(left to right with equal priority)

Note that as real arithmetic is only approximate, the value 11.0/5.0 might actually be 'stored' as 2.200001 or 2.199999 rather than the 'true' value 2.200000. The precise form will vary from computer to computer according to the precision with which real values are stored internally within that computer.

Integer division

Sometimes we want a form of division that gives whole number, rather than fractional, results. For example, if we share 14 apples amongst 5 people, asking how many they will get each, we want the answer 2, not 2.8. This form of division, known as **integer division**, is expressed using the same operator as for real division, but when applied to two integer operands it produces an integer result by discarding any remainder, ie:

14	/	5	gives	2
16	/	3	gives	5
18	/	6	gives	3

In this sort of calculation, we often want to know how much is "left over", ie. what the remainder is. This is given by another operator, REM, which is represented by a keyword rather than an operator symbol. Thus:

14	REM	5	gives	4
15	REM	5	gives	0
16	REM	5	gives	1

Notes: In the above examples, all operands are shown (for simplicity) as literal constants, but they could (of course) be replaced by any other sort of operands producing the values shown, eg. by variables or arithmetic expressions (in brackets).

The operator REM has the same priority as * (multiplication) and / (division).

In Ada we cannot use REM with Float operands or with operands of mixed type.

4.3 Relational operators

We have already used some of these in conditions to express comparison between numbers. The full list of relational operators is:

>	meaning	greater than
<	meaning	less than
>=	meaning	greater than or equal to (\geq)
<=	meaning	less than or equal to (\leq)
=	meaning	equal to
/=	meaning	not equal to (\neq)

When placed between numeric operands (both Integer or both Float, but *not* mixed), they yield the truth value True or False according to whether the specified relation does, or does not, hold (respectively); eg:

3 >= 2	gives	True	
3 >= (2 + 1)	gives	True	
3.0 >= 3.5	gives	False	
7 = (14 / 2)	gives	True	
7 /= 7	gives	False	
7 = 7.0	!? i	llegal in	Ada

Relational operators have lower priority than arithmetic operators, so that comparands which involve arithmetic operators need not be bracketed; eg: (x*3) = (y+k*2) can also validly be written as: x*3 = y+k*2. Note that using brackets where they are not strictly necessary is *not* an error and, indeed, can often help make the structure of a complicated expression easier to understand.

4.4 Converting between integer and real values

We stated above that all the operands in a algebraic expression must be of the same type (with the exception of the exponentiation operator). This also applies in an assignment step, where the variable which appears on the left hand side of the := must be of the same type as the expression which appears on the right hand side. However we often need to combine Integer and Float values in an expression, or to assign the value held in an Integer variable to a variable of type Float, or vice versa.

For example, we may wish to calculate the total cost of Quantity items each costing £3.43 where Quantity is a Integer variable, and assign the result to the Float variable TotalCost. We could not simply write:

TotalCost := Quantity * 3.43; -- !? mixed Integer and Float operands

as the left hand operand of the * operator, ie. Quantity, has an Integer value (20 say) and the right hand operand 3.43 is a Float value. To overcome such problems Ada provides a special 'built-in' function Float which converts an Integer value into its corresponding Float value. Thus we should write:

TotalCost := Float(Quantity) * 3.43;

Hence if the value of Quantity is 20, Float(Quantity) produces the Float result 20.0 which can then be multiplied by 3.43 to produce the required total as a Float value. This value can then be assigned to the Float variable TotalCost.

Similarly, suppose we need to perform the calculation:

Assuming WeeklyPay and TaxThreshold are Integer variables and TaxDue and TaxRate are of type Float, we must write:

```
TaxDue := Float(52 * WeeklyPay - TaxThreshold) * TaxRate / Float(52);
```

or possibly:

```
TaxDue := Float(52 * WeeklyPay - TaxThreshold) * TaxRate / 52.0;
```

It is also possible to perform conversions the other way round, ie. to convert from a value of type Float to a value of type Integer. In this case the 'built-in' function Integer can be used which converts a real value into an integer by rounding the real value to the nearest whole number. Thus, for example, to output the value held in the variable TotalCost to the nearest £ we could write:

```
Put(Item => "Total cost to the nearest pound is ");
Put(Item => Integer(TotalCost));
```

4.5 More on output

In previous units we have used the procedure Put to output results. We now consider the use of this procedure in more detail for outputting integer and real values according to different layouts or **formats**.

4.5.1 Formatted integer output

Assuming that Number and Size are integer values the step:

Put(Item => Number, Width => Size);

will cause Number to be printed using at least Size print positions. If Number has exactly Size digits, then only these Size digits are printed (no blank spaces are left either before or after the value). If Number has fewer than Size digits, enough blank spaces are 'printed' before the value of Number so

that exactly Size print positions are used. If Number is negative, one of these print positions will be occupied by a minus sign. We will see later what happens if Number has more than Size digits.

For example, assuming that the value of Number is 123 then the following output is produced (where a Δ denotes a blank space):

Put(Item	=>	Number,	Width	=>	3);	outputs:	123
Put (Item	=>	Number,	Width	=>	6);	outputs:	ΔΔΔ123
Put(Item	=>	Number,	Width	=>	8);	outputs:	ΔΔΔΔΔ123

After a Put step the 'current print position' is left immediately after the last digit of the number just printed. Thus:

Put(Item => Number, Width => 3); Put(Item => Number, Width => 3); produces the output : 123123 while: Put(Item => Number, Width => 5); Put(Item => Number, Width => 5); produces the output : ΔΔ123ΔΔ123

Since the output produced in the first case might be confused with the output of a single six digit value 123123 it is usually better to avoid this confusion by specifying a value for Width greater than the number of digits in the value expected to be output.

4.5.2 Formatted real output

In addition to the Float value to be 'printed' the procedure Put may have two additional arguments: the second argument specifies the minimum number of print positions to be used before the decimal place; the third argument specifies how many decimal places (ie. the number of digits appearing after the decimal point) are to be printed. If the value to be output has fewer than the number of digits specified to be printed before the decimal place, the leading print positions are padded-out with spaces. If the value to be output is negative, one of these print positions will be occupied by a minus sign. For example assuming that the Float variable RealNum has the value -123.456, then:

Put(Item =>	RealNum,	Fore =>	4,	Aft :	=>	3);	outputs:	-123.456
Put(Item =>	RealNum,	Fore =>	6,	Aft :	=>	1);	outputs:	ΔΔ-123.5
Put(Item =>	RealNum,	Fore =>	8,	Aft :	=>	2);	outputs:	ΔΔΔΔ-123.46

Note: The value printed is rounded so that it is correct to the specified number of decimal places. If the number is positive, no plus sign is output.

4.5.3 Formats which don't 'fit' the value to be output

What happens if the number to be output is too large to fit into the specified format?

- In the case of integer output, if the number has more than Width digits (including a minus sign if it is negative), the value is printed *in full* (ie. it is not truncated in any way) and so uses *more* than the specified number of print positions.
- A similar situation occurs when outputting real values, where if the value to be printed has more digits before the decimal point (including a minus sign if it is negative) than the value of Fore, Put uses the minimum number of print positions needed to output the number to the required precision, and so again uses *more* than the specified number of print positions.

Thus for the example values of the Integer variable Number, and the Float variable RealNum given above, we would have:

<pre>Put(Item => Number, Width => 1);</pre>	outputs:	123
Put(Item => Number, Width => 2);	outputs:	123
<pre>Put(Item => RealNum, Fore => 1, Aft => 2);</pre>	outputs:	-123.46
<pre>Put(Item => RealNum, Fore => 2, Aft => 3);</pre>	outputs:	-123.456

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4.5.4 Default format settings

In fact the above explains approximately what happens if the extra arguments in a Put step are missed out altogether. More precisely, the **default values** of Width = 1 (when outputting integer values), and Fore = 1 and Aft = 2 (when outputting real values) are assumed if their specification is omitted in a Put step. This choice for the values of Width and Fore means that Put uses the minimum number of print positions needed to output the number. Thus, for example, if IntNum is an Integer variable whose value is 8, and FltNum is a Float variable whose value is 6.35, then:

```
Put(Item => "The cost of ");
Put(Item => IntNum);
Put(Item => " items, at f");
Put(Item => FltNum);
Put(Item => " each, is the total cost f");
Put(Item => Float(IntNum) * FltNum);
```

produces the output:

The cost of 8 items, at £6.35 each, is the total cost £50.80

Notice the extra space at the end of the string "The cost of ", and the extra space at the start of the string " items, at f". These are present so that the value of IntNum, which is output as the single digit 8, is surrounded by a single space on either side. Also, the value of FltNum (output using only the four print positions required by 6.35) is preceded directly by a f, so the previously output string " items, at f" does not have a space at the end, but rather finishes with a f. Note that on some printers a f will be displayed as a # character.

We see that using the defaulted form is better when outputting mixed text and numeric values, whereas we shall see in the following example that using Put with specified formatting is better for outputting tables of results.

4.6 Example

Problem:

The program is to ask the user to input an integer data value and if this is 2 or more, list out all possible factorisations of that value into two integers, except for the number itself times 1, which is to be disregarded. The program is then to output a message stating how many factorisations are found, unless none are found, in which case a more suitable message is to be produced. The program then asks the user to input another integer value and repeats the calculation. If the user types a 0 or a 1 the program terminates.

Solution:

i) First thoughts:

What output is to be produced? Perhaps something like this:

```
Type in a number greater than 1 (0 or 1 to quit): 30
Factorisations of 30 are:
ΔΔΔΔΔΔΔ2ΔΔΔΔΔΔΔΔ15
       3
                10
       5
                 6
       6
                 5
      10
                 3
      15
                 2
There were 6 divisors found.
Type another number greater than 1 (0 or 1 to quit): 997
Factorisations of 997 are:
No divisors found - 997 is prime.
Type another number greater than 1 (0 or 1 to quit): 0
```

Notice that we have chosen a particular layout for the table of factors, where the first divisor occupies the first 8 print positions, and the second divisor the next 10 print positions.

ii) Outline a scheme:

How to get this output? In briefest outline:

Ask for user's number. While this number is bigger than 1, deal with this number (ie. find and output the factorisations and number of divisors), then ask for the next user's number. Thus in outline we have:

```
Get(Item => Number)
WHILE Number > 1 LOOP
    Deal with this number
        {ie. find and output the factors of this number}
        Get(Item => Number)
END LOOP
```

Notice how we have re-used the subalgorithm introduced in [2.5]. For the main processing step, we can choose a possible divisor and see if it "goes" exactly into Number (ie. leaves remainder zero - can use the operator REM to check this), and if it does, then output the factorisation found and increment a count of the number of divisors found. Must do this for each integer from 2 up to the largest possible exact divisor (ie. the value of Number divided by 2) => a further repetition involved.

iii) Algorithm (some detail omitted)

```
Get(Item => Number)
WHILE Number > 1 LOOP
    -- Deal with this number, ie. determine and output the factors
    NumOfDivisors := 0
    TrialDivisor := 2
    Output a heading for the table
    WHILE TrialDivisor <= Number / 2 LOOP
         IF Number REM TrialDivisor = 0 THEN
             -- ie. if an exact divisor is found
             Put(Item => TrialDivisor)
             Put(Item => Number / TrialDivisor)
             NumOfDivisors := NumOfDivisors + 1
         END IF
         TrialDivisor := TrialDivisor + 1
    END LOOP
    IF NumOfDivisors > 0 THEN
         Put(Item => NumOfDivisors)
    ELSE
         Put(Item => "No divisors found")
    END IF
    Get(Item => Number)
```

END LOOP

Note: We can now see that an algorithm is, in effect, an informal, incomplete program - it's a step in the process of producing a complete correct program.

iv) Program:

After filling in obligatory items such as declarations, semi-colons and field width specifiers in Put steps, and after adding further suitable output statements to obtain the required format, eg. explanatory text and new lines, we obtain the complete Ada program:

```
WITH CS_Int_IO; USE CS_Int_IO; -- For Get and Put for Integer I/O
WITH Ada.Text_IO; USE Ada.Text_IO; -- For Put for text, and New_Line
WITH CS_Int_IO; USE CS_Int_IO;
PROCEDURE Factors IS
    Number
                   : Integer; -- To hold each number specified by the user
    TrialDivisor : Integer; -- To hold each possible (ie. trial) divisor
    NumOfDivisors : Integer; -- To count the number of divisors
BEGIN
    Put(Item => "Type in a number greater than 1 (0 or 1 to quit): ");
    Get(Item => Number);
    WHILE Number > 1 LOOP
    -- Deal with this number, ie. determine and output the factors
         NumOfDivisors := 0;
         TrialDivisor := 2;
         New Line;
         Put(Item => "Factorisations of ");
         Put(Item => Number);
         Put(Item => " are:");
         New Line;
         -- Note the use of blanks in the strings "Factorisations of "
         -- and " are:" and the unformatted output of the value of
         -- Number to ensure that only one space appears on either
         -- side of the value of Number
         WHILE TrialDivisor <= Number / 2 LOOP
              IF Number REM TrialDivisor = 0 THEN
                   -- ie. if an exact divisor is found
                   Put(Item => TrialDivisor, Width => 8);
                   Put(Item => Number / TrialDivisor, Width => 10);
                   New Line;
                   -- Note how formatted output steps are used here to
                   -- ensure that the two columns in the table of results
                   -- line-up, right justified, at the 8th and 18th
                   -- (ie. 8 + 10) print positions on the page
                  NumOfDivisors := NumOfDivisors + 1;
              END IF;
              TrialDivisor := TrialDivisor + 1;
         END LOOP;
         IF NumOfDivisors > 0 THEN
              Put(Item => "There were ");
              Put(Item => NumOfDivisors);
              Put(Item => " divisors found.");
         ELSE
              Put(Item => "No divisors found - ");
              Put(Item => Number);
              Put(Item => " is prime.");
         END IF;
         New_Line;
         New_Line;
         Put(Item =>
                "Type another number greater than 1 (0 or 1 to quit): ");
         Get(Item => Number);
    END LOOP;
 END Factors;
```