



# Advanced Programming in C++

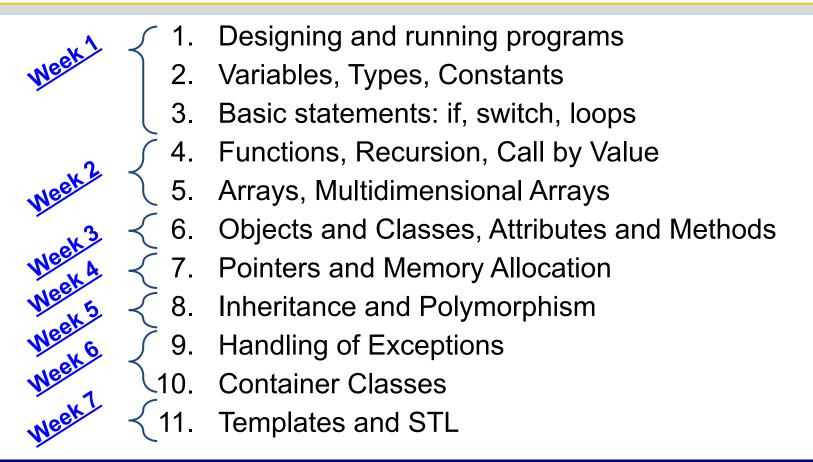
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```
#include <iostream>
#include <vector>
#include <string>
using namespace std;
int main() {
  vector<string> msg {"Welcome", "to", "advanced", "C++!"};
  for (const string& word : msg) { // C++11 standard
    cout << word << " ";
  cout << endl;</pre>
```



## Contents







#### This course in a nutshell



In this course, you learn advanced themes in C++ programming

The course consists of:

- Lecture: 2h per week, basic concepts
- Lab: 2h per week, getting / correcting programming tasks
- Homework: ± 2h per week, solving assignments





## This course in a nutshell



Links to lecture slides and assignments are available on moodle:

- https://moodle.uni-siegen.de/course/view.php?id=34345
- updates to the slides will be made available during the term

We learn C++ by doing, hence: follow lectures and exercises

#### Disclaimer:

This course's material was inspired by similar course from Prof. Roland Wismueller (Uni Siegen) and Prof. Hannah Bast (Uni Freiburg)



## Examination and grading



#### 50% of your grade comes from:

- Set of programming assignments during term and programming on paper
- These need to be delivered in-class
  - => your presence is required in these sessions

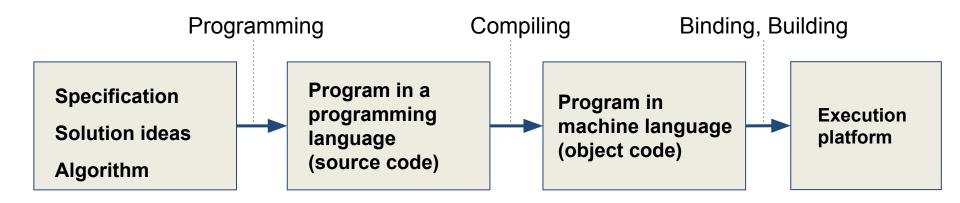
#### 50% of your grade comes from the 1-hour written exam:

- 1 handwritten A4 (double-sided) page is allowed
- Bring a photo ID, your student ID and a pen (blue/black ink only)
- Structure: Programming tasks *very similar* to the exercises





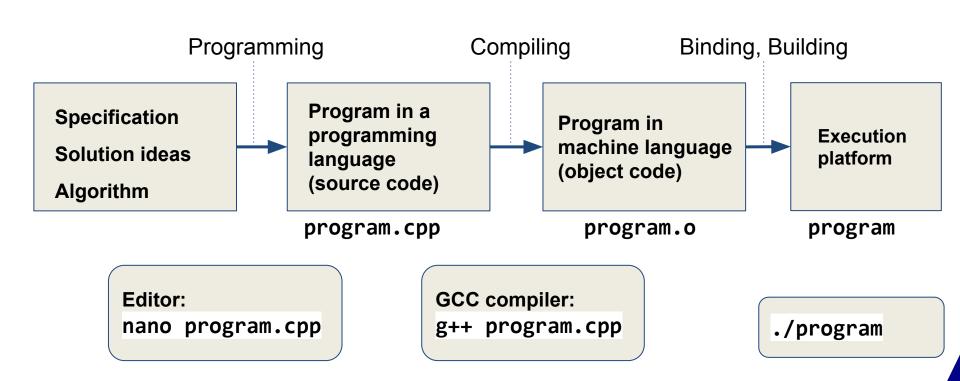
#### Steps in creating a program:







#### Steps in creating a program:







#### 1.1. Program structure:

- A program is essentially a series of machine instructions that tell the system what to do, step by step, similar to a recipe
- Source code allows humans to formulate instructions in an understandable fashion, which then can be translated to machine instructions → In this course, we use C++ to create source code
  - C++ source code files are text files that end with .cpp or .h
  - A compiler then translates these to a program that consists out of machine instructions
- Creating source code needs a file system and operating system





#### 1.2. Using GitHub Repository, g++, editors

We will use a github repository: <a href="https://github.com/kristofvl/AdvancedCPP">https://github.com/kristofvl/AdvancedCPP</a> as a code base for the slides, all exercises, and home works from the lecture

- You will need a github account
- It allows keep track of changes, and distributing larger projects

We'll use <u>GNU g++</u>. For Linux or macOS, you can directly use g++ In Windows, you can install Windows Subsystem for Linux (WSL), to have a Linux environment to use g++ inside it





1.2. Using GitHub Repository, g++, editors

You are free in the use of editor. Here are a few options:

Microsoft Visual Studio Code (VSCode), Sublime, Lapce, Zed

Text-based coding editors: Vim, Emacs, NeoVim, Helix

Not suggested: Notepad, Gedit, and other similar editors





```
/* The Birthday Paradox -- an illustration
                                                                                            BDay.cpp
   Author: kvl, Date: first week
                                                  1. Every program
                                                 should mention who
                                                    programmed it
                                               2. Every program needs
                                                   a function "main"
                                               that contains all code to
                                                     be executed
                                                3. The function "main"
int main() {
                                                 will exit and send a
                                               number (usually zero, for
                                                   "no error") to the
  return 0;
                                                  operating system
```





```
/* The Birthday Paradox -- an illustration
                                                                                           BDay.cpp
  Author: kvl, Date: first week
#include <iostream>
class BDay {
 /* p(x) --> probability of x happening, p(x) = 1 - p(\text{not } x)
    p(2 \text{ persons have same birthday}) = 1 - (365-1)/365 * (365-2)/365 * ... * (365 - (n-1))/365 */
 public:
 double prob(int n);
};
double BDay::prob(int n) {
  double p = 1.0; // probability that out of n people, 2 have the same birthday
 for (int i = 0; i < n; i++) { // i = 1, 2, ..., n-1
     p = p * (365-i)/365;
 return 1 - p:
int main() {
  int n = 23;
 BDayP b; // create an object to access the prob() method:
  std::cout << "The chance that 2 out of " << n << " people have a same birthday is " << b.prob(n);</pre>
 return 0;
```





#### 1.3. Compiling and building a program:

- Type g++ to launch the GCC c++ compiler: g++ BDay.cpp
  - g++ creates the program, a file with the default name a.out in the current directory, which can be executed in the terminal: ./a.out
- Add -o to specify another name: g++ BDay.cpp -o BDay
  - o g++ creates the file BDay, which can be executed: ./BDay
- The compiler tries to compile all other needed source files and needs a main function in the files that specifies what your program does
  - o g++ can compile multiple files, e.g.: g++ ex1.cpp ex2.cpp
  - g++ can compile code for later use in a program with -c:
     g++ -c BDay.cpp, which creates BDay.o
     g++ BDayx.o then creates the program a.out





#### 1.3. Compiling and building a program:

Add --std to specify which C++ standard your code is for. If for instance you use features for C++11 you need to add --std=c++11:
 g++ BDay.cpp -o BDay --std=c++11

Features you use may be in different standards, and you can specify them by the option --std to let the compiler compile the source code in different standards





#### 1.4. Including libraries:

- The compiler can include others' code as a library that is mentioned in the source code (for example #include <iostream>)
  - In this course, we will see mostly such standard libraries,
     g++ knows where to search for their files and links these:
     g++ BDaySimple.cpp

```
/* The Birthday Paradox -- a simplification */
#include <iostream>
int main() {
   std::cout << "The chance that 2 out of 23 people have";
   std::cout << " a same birthday is about 0.5" << std::endl;
   return 0;
}</pre>
```





#### 1.4. Including libraries:

- The compiler can include others' code as a library that is mentioned in the source code (for example <u>ncurses</u>: #include <ncurses.h>)
  - Other non-standard libraries need to be linked explicitly with -1:
     g++ BDayCentre.cpp -1 ncurses





#### 1.5. Indenting your code:

- To make everyone's code look the same, we recommend using <u>cpplint</u>
- We also recommend 2-space indentation (see all examples in slideset):

```
void myFunction(bool exec, bool size) { // indent after each {
\diamond\diamondint ret = 0;
◇◇if (exec) { // indent after each {
\diamond\diamond\diamond\diamondfor (int i = 0; i < size; i++) { // indent after each {
◇◇◇◇◇◇◇ ret += i;
◇◇◇◇⟩ // de-indent before each }
◇ else { // indent after each {
\diamond \diamond \diamond \diamond \diamond \diamond ret = 12;
◇◇} // de-indent before each }
} // de-indent before each }
```





#### 2.1. The basic components of a program:

- Reserved keywords
- Preprocessor directives
- Names
- Constants
- Operators
- Braces
- Separators
- Comments

```
/* The Birthday Paradox -- in short */
#include <iostream>
int main() {
   std::cout << "The chance that 2 out of";
   std::cout << " 23 people have a same";
   std::cout << " birthday is about ";
   std::cout << 0.5 << std::endl;
   return 0; // 0 back to operating system
}</pre>
```





#### 2.1.1. Reserved C++ keywords

Reserved keywords are words that are reserved for special meaning by the language standard and cannot be used as identifiers (names for variables, functions, classes, etc.). E.g.:

bool	do	namespace	switch
break	double	new	this
case	else	private	true
catch	false	protected	using
char	float	public	virtual
class	for	return	void
const	if	short	while
delete	int	sizeof	





# 2.1.2. Preprocessor directives Source code can also contain so-called *preprocessor directives* that start with a # : We will use solely:

- #include, followed by a source file either:
  - surrounded by < and > , for example: #include <ncurses.h>
     for source code from standard libraries
  - surrounded by " and " , for example: #include "myCode" for source code in the current directory
- header guards to ensure that code is included only once:

```
#ifndef HEADERFILE
#define HEADERFILE
#endif
```





#### 2.1.3. Names:

You can define names to variables, parameters, functions, etc.

- these names need to be unique (so no keywords)
- they can contain only letters, digits and underscores (\_)
- they need to start with letters or an underscore
- their length is nearly unlimited

•	examples:	correct	wrong	reason
		Sum getName	get Name Ver2-1	no empty spaces minus '-' not allowed
		_all4you	2exp4	starts with a digit
		1_2	while	C++ keyword



#### 2.1.4. Constants:

```
15 (integer) 3.14159f (float) 3.14159 (double)
'p' (character) "brb" (string) true (boolean)
```

#### 2.1.5. Operators:

```
+ - * / && || = == >= <= << >> ...
```

#### 2.1.6. Braces:

```
()[]{}
```

#### 2.1.7. Separators:

, ; . (space) as well as tabs or new lines





#### 2.1.8. Comments:

- // comment till the end of the line
- /\* comment that spans across multiple lines \*/
- note that a multi-line comment cannot contain \*/:

```
/* this example comment */ would
  cause an error */
```

```
// probability that out of n people, 2
/* p(x) --> probability of x happening
  p(x) = 1 - p(not x)
  p(2 persons have same birthday) =
...*/
/** The Birthday Paradox -- illustration
  * Author: kvl
  * Date: last week
  */
```

**IMPORTANT**: Comments should explain your code but never be trivial

```
good: int scrMaxWidth; // maximum screen width
```

bad: float aspectRatio; // this variable holds the aspect ratio





#### 2.1. Example:

```
/* An interactive example */
                                                                     comments
#include <iostream>
                                                                     preprocessor
int main() {
 char name [80]; // symbols array for the user's name
                                                                     separators
 std::cout << "Hi, what's your name?" << std::endl;</pre>
                                                                     operators
  std::cin >> name; // read the name from terminal
  std::cout << "Welcome " << name;</pre>
                                                                     braces
 if (name[0] == 'K') {
                                                                     constants
    std:\cout << ", I like your name!"</pre>
                                                                     names
  std::cout << std::endl;</pre>
                                                                     keywords
  return 0; // return a zero
```





#### 2.2. Variables:

- represent memory space, where data of a certain type can be stored
- need to be declared and ideally initialized before use:
   int keyPressCounter = 0; // how often did user press a key?
- have values that after declaration can be 'read out' and changed:
   if (keyPressCounter > 27) // after 27 key presses,
   keyPressCounter = 0; // we set it back to zero
- can't be changed afterwards, when declared (and initialized) as
   constants: const int answer = 42; // after this, answer stays 42
- live in a certain scope, typically the function in which it was declared.
   After this function ends, the variable is deleted from memory.



# UNIVERSITÄT 2. Data: Variables, Types, Constants



#### 2.3. Data types: Integral

Native Type	Bytes	Range	Fixed width types <pre><cstdint></cstdint></pre>
bool	1	true, false	
char <sup>†</sup>	1	implementation defined	
signed char	1	-128 to 127	int8_t
unsigned char	1	0 to 255	uint8_t
short	2	$-2^{15}$ to $2^{15}$ -1	int16_t
unsigned short	2	0 to $2^{16}$ -1	uint16_t
int	4	$-2^{31}$ to $2^{31}$ -1	int32_t
unsigned int	4	0 to $2^{32}$ -1	uint32_t
long int	4/8		$int32_t/int64_t$
long unsigned int	4/8*		uint32_t/uint64_t
long long int	8	$-2^{63}$ to $2^{63}$ -1	int64_t
long long unsigned int	8	0 to $2^{64}$ -1	uint64_t



# UNIVERSITÄT 2. Data: Variables, Types, Constants



#### 2.3. Data types: Floating-Point

Native Type	IEEE	Bytes	Range	Fixed width types C++23 <stdfloat></stdfloat>
(bfloat16)	N	2	$\pm 1.18 \times 10^{-38}$ to $\pm 3.4 \times 10^{+38}$	std::bfloat16_t
(float16)	Υ	2	0.00006 to 65,536	std::float16_t
float	Υ	4	$\pm 1.18 \times 10^{-38}$ to $\pm 3.4 \times 10^{+38}$	std::float32_t
double	Υ	8	$\pm 2.23 \times 10^{-308}$ to $\pm 1.8 \times 10^{+308}$	std::float64_t





#### 2.3. Data types

- A type defines: what values the variable can have, how much memory is allocated for it, and which operations are possible
- All variables and constants have a type in C++
  - for constants, you can tell the type by their form
  - for variables, this is explicit in the declaration



## UNIVERSITÄT 2. Data: Variables, Types, Constants



2.3. Data types: A (simplified) Memory View

```
/* reserving variables */
int main() {
 char mySymbol; // store one character
 int myInteger; // store an integer
 bool myBoolean; // store a boolean
 float myFloat; // store a floating point
 myInteger = 12; // 12 = constant integer
 myFloat = 12.0f; // 12.0f= constant floating point
 mySymbol = '@'; // '@' = constant character
 myBoolean = true; // true = constant boolean
 return 0;
```

Memory



## UNIVERSITÄT 2. Data: Variables, Types, Constants



```
/* reserving variables */
int main() {
 char mySymbol; // store one character
 int myInteger; // store an integer
 bool myBoolean; // store a boolean
 float myFloat; // store a floating point
 myInteger = 12; // 12 = constant integer
 myFloat = 12.0f; // 12.0f= constant floating point
 mySymbol = '@'; // '@' = constant character
 myBoolean = true; // true = constant boolean
 return 0;
```

```
Memory
mySymbol=char
 0000
 0000
```





```
/* reserving variables */
int main() {
 char mySymbol; // store one character
 int myInteger; // store an integer
 bool myBoolean; // store a boolean
 float myFloat; // store a floating point
 myInteger = 12; // 12 = constant integer
 myFloat = 12.0f; // 12.0f= constant floating point
 mySymbol = '@'; // '@' = constant character
 myBoolean = true; // true = constant boolean
 return 0;
```

```
Memory
mySymbol=char
  0000
  0000
myInteger=int
  0000
       0000
            0000
                 0000
  0000
       0000
            0000
                  0000
```





```
/* reserving variables */
int main() {
 char mySymbol; // store one character
 int myInteger; // store an integer
 bool myBoolean; // store a boolean
 float myFloat; // store a floating point
 myInteger = 12; // 12 = constant integer
 myFloat = 12.0f; // 12.0f= constant floating point
 mySymbol = '@'; // '@' = constant character
 myBoolean = true; // true = constant boolean
 return 0;
```

```
Memory
mySymbol=char
  0000
 0000
myInteger=int
  0000
       0000
            0000
                 0000
  0000
       0000
            0000
                 0000
myBoolean=bool
  0000
 0000
```





```
/* reserving variables */
int main() {
 char mySymbol; // store one character
 int myInteger; // store an integer
  bool myBoolean; // store a boolean
 float myFloat; // store a floating point
 myInteger = 12; // 12 = constant integer
 myFloat = 12.0f; // 12.0f= constant floating point
 mySymbol = '@'; // '@' = constant character
 myBoolean = true; // true = constant boolean
 return 0;
```

```
Memory
mySymbol=char
  0000
  0000
myInteger=int
  0000
       9999
            0000
                 0000
  0000
       0000
            0000
                 0000
myBoolean=bool
  0000
  0000
myFloat=float
  0000
       0000
            0000
                  0000
  0000
       0000 0000
                 0000
```





```
/* reserving variables */
int main() {
 char mySymbol; // store one character
 int myInteger; // store an integer
  bool myBoolean; // store a boolean
 float myFloat; // store a floating point
 myInteger = 12; // 12 = constant integer
 myFloat = 12.0f; // 12.0f= constant floating point
 mySymbol = '@'; // '@' = constant character
 myBoolean = true; // true = constant boolean
 return 0;
```

```
Memory
mySymbol=char
  0000
  0000
myInteger=int
  0000
       9999
            0000
                  0000
  0000
       0000
            0000 1100
myBoolean=bool
  0000
  0000
myFloat=float
  0000
       0000
            0000
                  0000
  0000 | 0000 | 0000 |
                  0000
```





```
/* reserving variables */
int main() {
 char mySymbol; // store one character
 int myInteger; // store an integer
  bool myBoolean; // store a boolean
 float myFloat; // store a floating point
 myInteger = 12; // 12 = constant integer
 myFloat = 12.0f; // 12.0f= constant floating point
 mySymbol = '@'; // '@' = constant character
 myBoolean = true; // true = constant boolean
 return 0;
```

```
Memory
mySymbol=char
  0000
  0000
myInteger=int
  0000
       9999
            0000
                  0000
            0000 1100
  0000
       0000
myBoolean=bool
  0000
  0000
myFloat=float
  0100
       0100
            0000
                  0000
  0010 | 0000 | 0000 |
                  0000
```





```
/* reserving variables */
int main() {
 char mySymbol; // store one character
 int myInteger; // store an integer
  bool myBoolean; // store a boolean
 float myFloat; // store a floating point
 myInteger = 12; // 12 = constant integer
 myFloat = 12.0f; // 12.0f= constant floating point
 mySymbol = '@'; // '@' = constant character
 myBoolean = true; // true = constant boolean
 return 0;
```

```
Memory
mySymbol=char
  0100
  0000
myInteger=int
  0000
       9999
            0000
                  0000
  0000
       0000
            0000 1100
myBoolean=bool
  0000
  0000
myFloat=float
  0100
       0100
            0000
                  0000
  0010 | 0000 | 0000 |
                  0000
```





### 2.3. Data types: A (simplified) Memory View

```
/* reserving variables */
int main() {
 char mySymbol; // store one character
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  bool myBoolean; // store a boolean
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 myInteger = 12; // 12 = constant integer
 myFloat = 12.0f; // 12.0f= constant floating point
 mySymbol = '@'; // '@' = constant character
 myBoolean = true; // true = constant boolean
 return 0;
```

```
Memory
mySymbol=char
  0100
  0000
myInteger=int
  0000
       9999
            0000
                  0000
            0000 1100
  0000
       0000
myBoolean=bool
  0000
  0001
myFloat=float
  0100
       0100
            0000
                  0000
  0010 | 0000 | 0000 |
                  0000
```





### 2.3. Data types and variables

- There are few basic types in C++:
  - int stored in 4 bytes, range from -2147483648 to 2147483647
  - $\circ$  **float** stored in 4 bytes (<u>IEEE754</u>), range from -3.4 x  $10^{38}$  to 3.4 x  $10^{38}$
  - o **double** stored in 8 bytes (<u>IEEE754</u>), range from -1.7 x  $10^{308}$  to 1.7 x  $10^{308}$
  - char stored in 1 byte (see <u>ASCII</u> table)
  - o bool stored in 1 byte
- Constants for these type are visible from how they are written:
  - o int whole numbers, e.g.: **729**, **-3628**, **0**, **-12632832**
  - o float numbers with decimal range and f, e.g.: 3.612f, 5.2f, 0.001f
  - o double numbers with decimal range, e.g.: 3.612, 5.2, 0.001
  - o char a character between single quotes, e.g.: '?'
  - bool either true or false





### 2.3. Data types and variables

Туре	SUFFIX	Example	Notes
int	/	2	
unsigned int	u, U	3u	
long int	1, L	8L	
long unsigned	ul, UL	2ul	
long long int	11, LL	411	
long long unsigned int	ull, ULL	7ULL	
float	f, F	3.0f	only decimal numbers
double		3.0	only decimal numbers

C++23 Type	SUFFIX	Example	Notes
std::bfloat16_t	bf16, BF16	3.0bf16	only decimal numbers
std::float16_t	f16, F16	3.0f16	only decimal numbers
std::float32_t	f32, F32	3.0f32	only decimal numbers
std::float64_t	f64, F64	3.0f64	only decimal numbers
std::float128_t	f128, F128	3.0f128	only decimal numbers





### 2.3. Data types and variables

Representation	PREFIX	Example	
Binary C++14	0ъ	0b010101	
Octal	0	0307	
Hexadecimal	0x or 0X	OxFFA010	

C++14 also allows *digit separators* for improving the readability 1'000'000





### 2.3. Data types: Impact in memory

```
/* reserving variables */
int main() {
 int sevenInteger = 7;  // seven as integer
 char sevenChar = '7';  // seven as character
 float sevenFloat = 7.0f; // seven as float
 double sevenDouble = 7.0; // seven as double
 return 0;
```

```
Memory
myInteger=int
  0000 0000
             0000
                   0000
  0000 | 0000 | 0000 | 0111
sevenChar=int
  9911
  0111
sevenFloat=float
  0100 | 1110 | 0000 |
                   0000
  0000 | 0000 | 0000 | 0000
myFloat=double
  0100
       0011
             0000
                    0000
  0000
        1000
             0000
                   0000
        0000
             0000
  0000
                    0000
  0000
        0000 0000
                   0000
```





### 2.3. Data types and variables

When you need a variable, you need to **declare** it first (and you can give them a value straight away, this is called **initialization**):

Later, you can give variables **new values**:

```
areWeDone = true; // we have now set this variable to true highPrecision = 0.0; // we have now set this variable to 0.0
```

Multiple variables can be declared at once: int myNum = 3, yourNum = 8;





### 2.3. Data types and variables

Example: Initialize a character to  $\mathbf{a}$ , show its value in the terminal, then change the value to a  $\mathbf{q}$ , then show it in the terminal again.

```
#include <iostream> // to allow use of std::cout and std::endl
int main() {
  char mySymbol; // variable to hold a character
  mySymbol = 'a';
  std::cout << mySymbol << std::endl; // prints out "a" and endline</pre>
 mySymbol = 'q';
  std::cout << mySymbol << std::endl; // prints out "q" and endline</pre>
  return 0;
```





### 2.3. Data types and variables: auto

C++11 The auto keyword specifies that the type of the variable will be automatically deduced by the compiler (from its initializer)

```
auto a = 1 + 2;  // 1 is int, 2 is int, 1 + 2 is int!
// -> 'a' is "int"
auto b = 1 + 2.0; // 1 is int, 2.0 is double. 1 + 2.0 is double
// -> 'b' is "double"
```

auto can be very useful for maintainability and for hiding complex type definitions
for (auto i = k; i < size; i++)
...</pre>

On the other hand, it may make the code less readable if excessively used because of type hiding

Example: auto x = 0; in general makes no sense (x is int)





### 2.4. Variables and scope

- A variable only exists within a scope (block of code, usually between curly braces { and } ) and is deleted after the scope ends (after a } )
- Variable names cannot use names that are already taken





### 2.5. Type conversions

- Variables can sometimes take values from other variables and constants that do not have the same type, **implicitly** converting them
- We'll stick to **explicit conversion**, using the type in braces:

```
double myDouble = 1.1;
int aNumber = 5;
char c = 'a';
bool b = true;
myDouble = (double)aNumber; // this works: myDouble == 5.0
myDouble = (double)c; // this works: myDouble == 97.0
aNumber = (int)myDouble; // works: aNumber == 97
c = (char)98.0f; // works too: c == 'b'
```





### 2.5. Type conversions

Example: Find out what the ASCII-codes are for the symbols '?', '&', and '#'

```
#include <iostream> // to allow use of std::cout and std::endl
int main() {
 char question = '?'; // three variables to hold characters
  char ampersand = '&'; // variable to hold a character
  char hash = '#'; // variable to hold a character
 std::cout << (int)question << std::endl; // print ASCII code for '?'</pre>
 std::cout << (int)ampersand << std::endl; // print ASCII code for '&'</pre>
 std::cout << (int)hash << std::endl;  // print ASCII code for '#'</pre>
  return 0;
```

homework: Can you write this program in a more memory-efficient way?





- 3.1. Statements and assignments
- 3.2. Priority
- 3.3. Blocks of statements
- 3.4. if and switch
- 3.5. Repetitions / loops:
  - 3.5.1. the while loop
  - 3.5.2. the **do while** loop
  - 3.5.3. the **for** loop





### 3.1. Statements and assignments:

- Variables are the program's data, statements specify what to do with the data
- Statements always end with; and are executed sequentially
- Assignments always calculate the value of what is right of = and return this:





### 3.1. Statements and assignments:

Operators that we will use in this course:

Arithmetic operators:	+	-	*		/	%	++	
Relational operators:	>	>=	=	=	!=	<b>&lt;=</b>	<	?:
Logical operators:	&&		П	!				
Assignment operators:	=	+=	-:	=	*=	/=	%=	
	<b>&lt;&lt;</b> =	=	>>=					
Three-way comparison operator: <=>								

unary operators binary operators

unary and binary operators ternary operator





### 3.1. Statements and assignments:

Arithmetic operators (try out yourself):

```
int x=5, y=9, width, length, multiply, division, remainder;
width = x + y;
                        // addition: 14
length = width - 1;  // subtraction: 13
multiply = x * y;
               // multiplication: 45
division = x / y;
                 // division: 0 (why?)
                  // modulo (remainder after division): 5
remainder = x % y;
                          // increment: x = x + 1: 6
X++;
                          // decrement: x = x - 1: 8
V--;
length = width = y;  // an assignment returns a value: 8
multiply = (x = 2) * (y = 5); // (bad style) : 10
```





### 3.1. Statements and assignments:

### Import to note:

(Arithmetic) Operators do not exist for each type
 for example, % (modulo) does not exist for float or double

Operators might have different behavior between types





### 3.1. Statements and assignments:

Arithmetic operators, a first example (difficulty level: 

)

```
/**
 Write a program that initializes two integers 'number1' and 'number2',
 and tests whether number1 is a multiple of number2. Put this result in the
 boolean variable 'result' below.
int main() {
 bool result = false;
 return (int) result;
```





### 3.1. Statements and assignments:

Relational and logical operators (try out yourself):

```
double f1 = 15.2, f2 = 31.6;
bool b1 = true, b2 = false;
std::cout << (f1 == f1);
                                          // true -> 1
std::cout << (b1 != b1);
                                          // false -> 0
std::cout << (b1 == true);</pre>
                                          // true -> 1
std::cout << (f1 < f2);
                                        // true -> 1
std::cout << (f1 <= f1);
                                        // true -> 1
std::cout << ((f1 > f1) && (!b1));
                                      // false -> 0
std::cout << ((b1 != b2) || (f2 >= f1) ); // true -> 1
std::cout << (b1 || b2);
                                        // true -> 1
std::cout << ( (f1 > 10.0) ? 'y' : 'n' ); // y
```





### 3.1. Statements and assignments:

Assignment operators (try out yourself):

```
float x = 5.1f, y = 9.2f;
int z = 7;

x = y + 1.0f;
y -= x;
x += 1.0f;
y // results in x having the value 10.2f
// y = y - x
// x = x + 1.0
// y = y / 2.0
// y = y / 2.0
// z = z % 3 (note z is integer)
```





### 3.1. Statements and assignments:

Three-way comparison operator or spaceship operator <=> (C++20) returns an *object* that can be directly compared with a positive, a 0, or negative integer:

```
(3 <=> 5) == 0;  // false

('a' <=> 'a') == 0;  // true

(3 <=> 7) < 0;  // true

(7 <=> 5) < 0;  // false
```





### 3.1. Statements and assignments:

example 00 (difficulty level: ):

```
/**
Try to figure out what is happening in the code below. Then try to compile the
 code, and then change the commented part so that the code's output becomes 1:
*/
#include <iostream> // to allow use of std::cout and std::endl
int main() {
  auto i = 7;  // what type is variable i?
  auto j = 9.0; // what type is variable j?
  bool ret = ((i \leftarrow j) == 0); // change the '== 0' part so that the output is 1
  std::cout << ret << std::endl;</pre>
  return 0;
```



## 3. Basic statements: if, switch, loops



### 3.2. Priority

- Operators are not always executed from left to right, as statements
- Use braces to avoid having to learn the table below by heart:

Prio.	Operators	<b>Associativity</b>
11	,	left to right
10	=, +=, -=, *=, <b>/</b> =, %=, <b>?</b> :	right to left
9	II	left to right
8	&&	left to right
7	<, >, <=, >=	left to right
6	<<, >>	left to right
5	+, -	left to right
4	*, /, %	left to right
3	prefix ++, prefix, unary -, unary +, !, (type), new, delete	right to left
2	suffix ++, suffix, ., ->,	left to right
1	::	left to right





### 3.2. Priority

• Examples:

```
int a = 2, b = 3, c = 4;
a = b * c + d; // a = ((b * c) + d)
a /= b * c % d; // a = a / ((b * c) % d)
a += b = c + d; // a = a + (b = c + d)
```

Beware of prefix and postfix increment / decrement operators:

```
a = 10;
b = ++a;
// a = 11, b = 11
```

```
a = 10;
b = a++;
// a = 11, b = 10
```



## 3. Basic statements: if, switch, loops



#### 3.3. Blocks

- Statement sequences and are executed one by one, from left to right:
   length = 10; width = 15; surface = length \* width;
- A block of statements thus implements a function (e.g., between the curly braces { and } for main) and can be used anywhere where a statement can appear. But beware that variables defined there only 'live' in the block:

```
int main() {
  int length, width, surface;
  {
    length = 10; width = 15;
    surface = length * width;
  }
  return 0;
}
```

```
int main() {
  int length = 10, width = 15;
  {
    int surf = length * width;
  }
  return surf; // error: surf unknown
}
```





#### 3.4. Selection statements: if and switch

- Depending on a condition, selection statements can either execute the next statement, or not
- Simply for one case:

```
if ( number < 0 )  // if number is negative
  sign = '-';  // then the sign is '-'</pre>
```

For both cases:

```
if ( number < 0 )  // if number is negative
  sign = '-';  // then the sign is '-'
else  // otherwise:
  sign = '+';  // the sign is '+'</pre>
```





#### 3.4. Selection statements: if and switch

Conditions often use relational operators:

```
int x, y, sum, counter, minimum;
if (x \rightarrow y) ...
                      // is x bigger than y?
if (x \ge y) \dots
               // is x bigger or equal than y?
if (sum == x + y) \dots // is sum equal to (x+y)?
if (x != y) ... // is x different from y?
if (counter < 100) ... // is counter smaller than 100?</pre>
if (x + 1 \le 1 - y) ... // is (x+1) smaller or equal to (1-y)?
minimum = (x < y)? x : y; // minimum gets a new value of ...
                          // if ( x < y ), then x, else y
```





#### 3.4. Selection statements: if and switch

Conditions also often use logical operators:

```
int x, y, counter;
bool readFlag, writeFlag;
if (readFlag || writeFlag) ... // logical OR: readFlag or
                                 // writeFlag need to be true,
                                 // will be skipped if both are false
if ((x != 0) \&\& (y / x < 5)) ... // logical AND: both y/x needs to be
                                 // smaller than 5 and x shouldn't be 0
if (!(x < 0)) ... // NOT: the same as if (x >= 0)
```





#### 3.4. Selection statements: if and switch

#### Nesting **if** statements:

```
if (number == 0)
    sign = 0;
else
    if (number > 0)
        sign = +1;
    else
        sign = -1;
```

Alternatively, using the (?:) operator:

```
sign = (number == 0) ? 0 : ((number > 0) ? +1 : -1);
```



else

## UNIVERSITÄT 3. Basic statements: if, switch, loops



#### 3.4. Selection statements: if and switch

Nesting if statements can be tricky, use curly braces

```
if (x == y)
  if (y == z)
     allEqual = true;
else
     allEqual = false;
if (x == y)
  if (y == z)
     allEqual = true;
```

allEqual = false;

```
if ( x == y ) {
   if ( y == z )
      allEqual = true;
}
else
   allEqual = false;
```

```
if ( x == y ) {
   if ( y == z )
      allEqual = true;
   else
      allEqual = false;
}
```





#### 3.4. Selection statements: if and switch

Nesting many **if** statements:

```
if (menuItem == 1) {
} else if (menuItem == 2) {
} else if ((menuItem == 3) ||
           (menuItem == 4)) {
} else if (menuItem == 5) {
} else {
```

Using one **switch** statement:

```
switch (menuItem) {
  case 1: ...
         break;
  case 2: ...
         break;
  case 3:
  case 4: ...
         break;
  case 5: ...
         break;
  default: ...
         break;
```





### 3.5. Loops

#### 3.5.1. The while loop:

#### result:

```
Sum: 0, 1, 3, 5, 9, 14, 20
```

#### 3.5.2. The **do while** loop:

#### result:

```
Sum: 0, 1, 3, 5, 9, 14, 20
```





### 3.5. Loops

#### 3.5.3. The **for** loop:

#### Template:

```
initialization of do we in- or decrease loop variable loop again? the loop variable

for ( statement ; condition ; statement )

<statement>;
```

statement, or block of statements to repeat





### 3.5. Loops: break and continue

• **break** terminates a loop. The rest of the loop body will not be executed:

```
int num = 10;
while (num > 0) {
   if (num == 5) break; // stop after num has reached 5
   num--;
}
```

continue does not terminate the loop, but just skip the rest of the loop body:

```
int num = 10;
while (num > 0) {
   if (num == 5) continue; // when num == 5, don't decrement
   num--;
}
```





### 3.5. Loops: When do we use which loop type?

- for loop:
  - for a given range (e.g. " for all i = 1 ... N ")
  - when you automatically need a loop variable
- while loop:
  - when the (maximal) number of repetitions is not known beforehand
  - when the repetition conditions are more complex
- do while loop:
  - when a block needs to be repeated at least once





### 3.5. Loops: example 02 (difficulty level: 🍎)

```
/**
  Write a program that prints out a series of numbers, starting at 120.0 and where
  each next number is seven less than the previous one. Stop once the number is
  smaller than 43.7
  */
#include <iostream> // to allow use of std::cout and std::endl
int main( ) {
  return 0;
```





### 3.5. Loops: example 03 (difficulty level: 🍎 🥠)

```
/**
 Write a program that asks the user for a number, and then prints out this number
  in the terminal, followed by the half of the previous number until
  the result is smaller than ten. So for 100 it would give out: 100, 50, 25.5, 12.25
  */
#include <iostream> // to allow use of std::cout and std::endl
int main( ) {
  return 0;
```





3.5. Loops: example 04 (difficulty level: )

```
/**
  Write a program that counts from 131 down till 23, one number per line in the
  the terminal, and prints out "hop", if the number is a multiple of 7.
  */
#include <iostream> // to allow use of std::cout and std::endl
int main( ) {
  return 0;
```





3.5. Loops: example 05 (difficulty level: )

```
/**
 Write a program that prints in the terminal all prime numbers from 3 till 99.
 Remember: A number is a prime when any division by a smaller number results in
 a remainder that is never zero.
*/
#include <iostream> // to allow use of std::cout and std::endl
int main( ) {
  return 0;
```





### 3.5. Loops: example 06 (difficulty level: )

```
/**
 Write a program that draws in the terminal a big X out of the character 'X',
 depending on the variable int size (with size = 3, 4, ..., 20):
                        size = 5:
 size = 3:
           size = 4:
                                        etc.
  \mathbf{X}
           XX
                            X X
   X
               XX
                              XX
  \mathbf{X}
                XX
               \mathbf{X}
                               XX
#include <iostream> // to allow use of std::cout and std::endl
int main( ) {
  return 0;
```





### 3.5. Loops: example 07 (difficulty level: 🍎 🍎 🥠)

```
/**
 Write a program that draws in the terminal a bigger X out of the character 'X',
 depending on the variable int size (with size = 3, 4, ..., 20):
 size = 3:
           size = 4:
                        size = 5:
                                      etc.
  XX X
            XX X
                           XX X
   XX
               XXX
                             XX X
  X XX
               XXX
                             XX
              X XX
                             X XX
                             X XX
#include <iostream> // to allow use of std::cout and std::endl
int main( ) {
 return 0;
```



# UNIVERSITÄT 4. Functions, Recursion, Call by Value Computing



- 4.1. Functions and their parameters
- 4.2. Recursive Functions
- 4.3. Call by Value
- 4.4. inline Functions, Overloading, =delete
- 4.5. Default Parameters and Function Attributes
- 4.6. Header files and Modules
- 4.7. Miscellaneous: Variadic arguments and Coroutines