

CS 211 Notes

Introduction to Programming

Jaeden Bardati

September 23, 2021

1 Course Overview

September 10, 2021

1.1 Objectives

The course is intended to teach how to develop a computer program to solve a problem. C++ is a tools that will be used to develop these skills and logical thinking. These skills will be transferable to other languages.

2 Computer Organization

2.1 Hardware

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2.1.1 Components

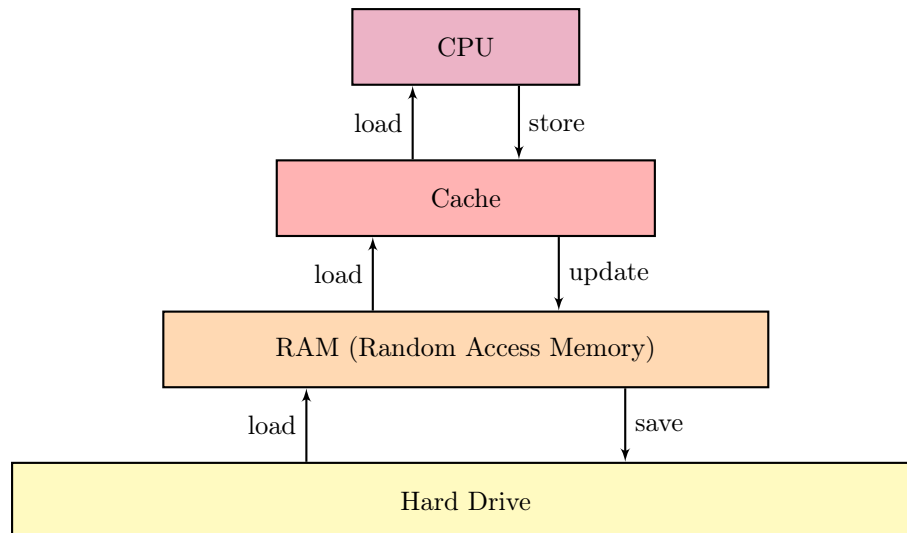
Modern computers are built using the **Von Neumann machine**. There are three aspects:

- **Architecture:** **I/O** (User interaction) + **Memory** (Storage) + **CPU** (*CU*: Control Unit, *ALU*: Arithmetic and Logic Unit). These are all connected by a shared bus.
- **Stored Programs:** All programs and data are stored in memory (binary).
- **Sequential Execution:** Also called the **fetch-decode-execute** cycle. Instructions are **fetch**ed from memory, **dec**oded by the CU and then **exec**uted by the ALU. If there is a result, it is stored back in memory.

2.2 Memory

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The memory is organized in a **hierarchy**. At the bottom of the hierarchy is the Hard Drive (in TB). At the top is the CPU. Since the hard drive is slow, when some data from the hard drive is needed, it is first loaded into **RAM (Random Access Memory)** (in GB). The RAM is still too slow for the CPU, so the data is stored in **cache** (in KB or MB). Yet still, this is not fast enough for the CPU, so **registers** (in Bytes) in the CPU itself are used to store variables.



As you **go up** the hierarchy, the **speed increases**, but the **size decreases** and the **cost increases**.

2.2.1 RAM

Random access memory is organized in an array of Bytes (“words”).

Words in RAM are addressed with a byte themselves (e.g. 01101101 is an address). These are typically written in hexadecimal (e.g. 6D).

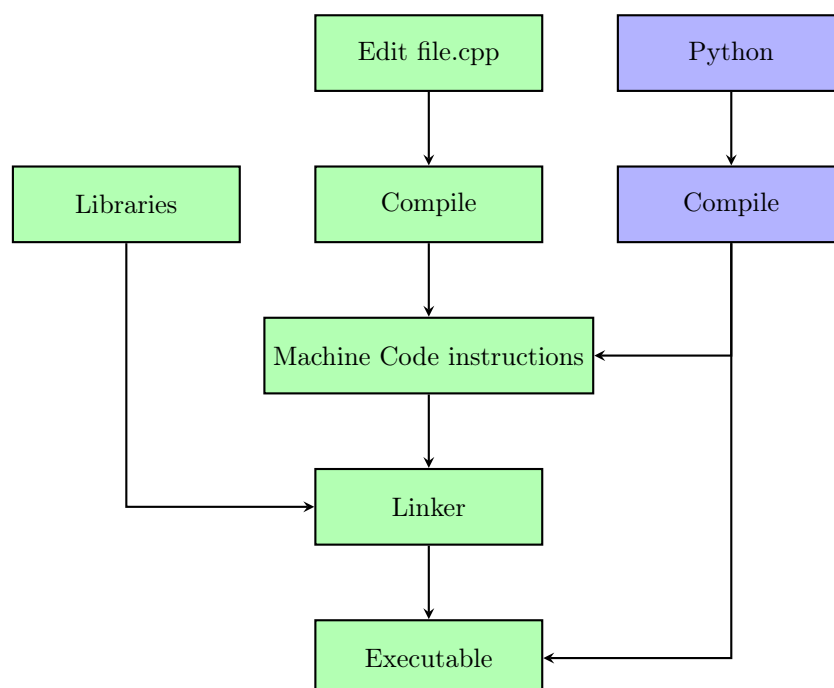
Words in RAM can be data or machine code instructions. Instructions contain a binary code for each operation (for example, addition). Instructions codes are dependent on the CPU.

3 Computer Organization

3.1 A Flow Chart: Program to Binary

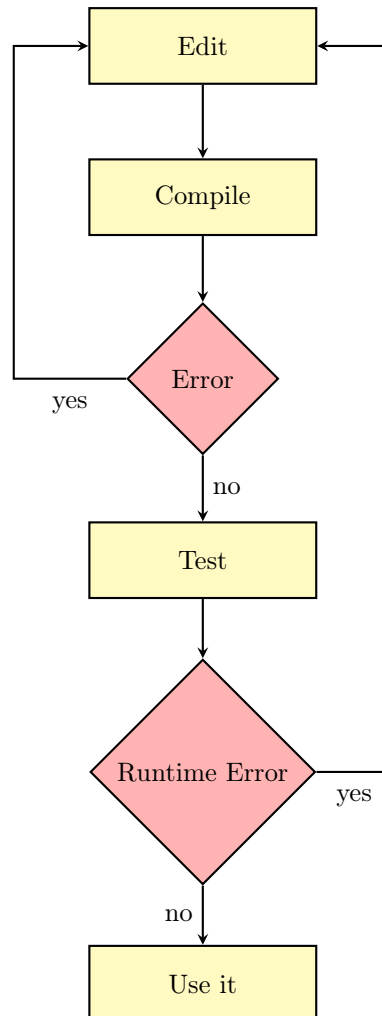
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This is a flow chart of what is done by the computer when compiling a C++ file. In blue is the Python equivalent.



Note that the bottom of the flow chart is the same for all programming languages, because in all languages, CPU-specific machine code is needed to execute code.

The process of catching errors is as according to the following flow chart.



In this context, **errors** are caught by the compiler. This is opposed to **runtime errors**, which are not caught by the compiler. These can be something like division by zero or infinite loops.

3.2 First C++ Code

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The following code is a hello world program in C++.

```
// helloworld.cpp
#include <iostream> // include statement allows the use of C++ libraries
#include <stdio.h> // this library contains getchar()

using namespace std; // a standard environment (input from keyboard, output is the screen)

int main() {

    cout << "Hello world!" << endl; // Prints "Hello world!" to the screen

    getchar(); // wait for user to type a character

    return 0; // 0 means that the execution was successful
}
```

3.3 Data types

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Variables are referred to as identifiers. Identifiers are memory locations accessed and modified.

Inside a main function (as above), the following code declares a variable of integer type in C++.

```
int numYears;    // allocated space in memory to contain num of years
```

You can also initialize the variable with a value on declaration:

```
int number = 5;  // declare and initialize (give a value too)
```

Some rules to follow when naming variables are:

- Names have meanings
- Must be case sensitive (e.g. numYears is not numyears)
- Consists of letters, numbers and underscores
- First character cannot be a number

Some types of variables are:

- Integers (e.g. -5, 0, +2) [int]
- Real numbers (floating point numbers or doubles, e.g. 2.453, -4.1987e7) [float or double]
- Booleans (e.g. true, false) [bool]
- Characters [char]

You can assign a value to a variable after declaring it:

```
int width, height;
int area;

width = 5;
height = 3;

area = width * height;
```

Constants (denoted with the keyword “const”) cannot be changed throughout the program. The convention is to use capital letters for constants.

```
const double PI = 3.14159265;

int radius = 6;
double area = PI * radius * radius;
```

You would get an error if you were to try to reassign a constant.

```
const double PI = 3.14159265;
PI = 3.14;    /// ERROR
```

3.4 Arithmetic operations

September 22, 2021

There are 5 basic arithmetic operations supported by C++

- Addition (+)
- Subtraction (-)
- Multiplication (*)
- Division (/)
- Modulus or “Remainder” (%)

For example,

```
int a = 5;
int b = 2;

cout << a + b / 2 << endl;    /// 6
cout << (a + b) / 2 << endl;  /// 3
cout << a / 2 + 3 << endl;    /// 5
cout << a / b / 3 << endl;    /// 0
```

This is done with integer operations since both arguments of each operation are integers (round down if the result of a division is a decimal). If one argument is a double/float, the result is a double/float. For example,

```
int a = 5;
int b = 2;

cout << a + b / 2 << endl;    /// 6
cout << (a + b) / 2 << endl;  /// 3.5
cout << a / 2 + 3 << endl;    /// 5
cout << a / b / 3 << endl;    /// 0.83333333
```

3.4.1 Assigning and operations

When you are assigning a variable and performing an operation to it at the same time you can do the following:

```
int x = 25;

x += 1    // equivalent to x = x + 1
x -= 2;   // equivalent to x = x - 2
x *= 3;   // equivalent to x = x * 3
x /= 4;   // equivalent to x = x / 4
x %= 5;   // equivalent to x = x / 5
```

3.4.2 Division when initializing or assigning a variable

Naively, to initialize a variable to the result of a division, you could try

```
int div = 7/3;    /// 2
```

However, this results in 2, not the desired result of 2.3333. You could also try changing the variable type

```
double div = 7/3;    /// 2
```

This does not work either, since the integer division happens before the result is assigned to the variable `div`. Instead, you have to force the compiler to recognize an argument as a float.

```
double div = 7.0/3;    /// 2.333333
```

If instead you had decided to make the variable type of `div` an integer and run it

```
int div = 7.0/3;    /// 2
```

It will perform the double operation, but save it in `var` as an integer.

A way of doing the float operation with two integers is by **casting** types. This can be done as follows.

```
double div = (double) 7/3;    /// 2.333333
double div2 = 7/(double)3;    /// 2.333333

int c = 7
double div3 = (double) c/3;    /// 2.333333
// Note, this does not change the type of c.
```

The remainder (%) operation returns the remainder of the division between two integers:

```
cout << 7 % 3 << endl;    /// 1
cout << 10 % 6 << endl;    /// 4
cout << 13 % 4 << endl;    /// 1
```

3.4.3 Type conversion

We can also convert types from doubles to integers by truncation or rounding:

```
double price = 2.55;

int sum = price;    /// truncate
int sum2 = price + 0.5    /// round to the nearest int
```

3.5 I/Os

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To do this, we will use the `iostream` library and standard namespace.

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
```

3.5.1 Reading inputs

You can get input from the keyboard using `cin`. For example,

```
int number;

cout << "Please enter a value between 0 and 10." << endl;

cin >> number;    // reads integer

cout << "The entered number is " << number;
```

You can also get multiple variables with the same cin.

```
int length, width;

cout << "Please enter the length and width of the rectangle: ";

cin >> length >> width;

int area = length * width;
cout << "The area is " << area
```

3.5.2 Formatting outputs

When outputting the result of a float, we inevitably run into an issue:

```
double result = 123456789.1284567;  /// 1.23457e+008

cout << result << endl;
```

This returns 1.23457e+008. To see all the digits, we must first pass result to fixed before cout.

```
double result = 123456789.1284567;

cout << fixed << result << endl;  /// 123456789.128457
```

To properly format the output of doubles, we must include the iomanip library and use the setprecision(n) function.

```
#include <iomanip>

double result = 123456789.1284567;

cout << fixed << setprecision(2) << result << endl;  /// 123456789.13
cout << result << endl;  /// 123456789.13
```

This rounds the double to the nearest nth decimal. Note that result will now format that way if outputted without the fixed and setprecision call. However, this does not actually change the value of the result variable.

```
double result2 = result + 1;

cout << setprecision(3) << result2 << endl;  /// 123456790.128
```

Finally, to set a limit to the number of characters that are displayed to an integer n, we can use the setw(n) function from the iomanip library like this

```
cout << fixed << setprecision(2) << setw(15) << left << result << "End of line" << endl;
```

The result is “123456789.13 End of line”. Note the exactly 15 characters until “End of line”.

3.6 Strings

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To use strings, you have to include the string library:

```
#include <string>
```

3.6.1 Declaration

You can declare, initialize, assign, and output strings as such

```
string lname;  
string fname = "Jaeden";  
lname = "Bardati";  
  
cout << fname << " " << lname;    /// Jaeden Bardati
```

3.6.2 Concatenation

To combine strings together, we must use **concatenation**.

```
string name = fname + " " + lname;    /// Jaeden Bardati
```

This method does not work for constants

```
string greeting = "Hello" + " " + "World";    /// ERROR
```

An error occurs because we are trying to add the string “ ” to the constant string “Hello”. A way to get around this is by adding a dummy variable before the concatenation.

```
string empty;    /// empty = ""  
string greeting = empty + "Hello" + " " + "World";    /// Hello World
```

3.6.3 Inputting strings

To read in a string, we can naively try

```
string myname;  
  
cin >> myname;    /// Jaeden Bardati  
  
cout << myname;    /// Jaeden
```

Only one word at a time is read in because cin treats things separated by spaces as distinct.

```
string myname;  
string myfname, mylname;  
  
cin >> myfname >> mylname;    /// Jaeden Bardati  
  
myname = myfname + " " + mylname;  
  
cout << myname << endl;    /// Jaeden Bardati
```

3.6.4 String functions

A useful quantity to know for a given string could be its length. You can get it as follows

```
int n = myname.length();  
  
cout << "Your name has " << n-1 << " characters" << endl;
```

Here the number of characters is $n - 1$ since the space is not included.

You can also get substrings using `substr(i , n)` to get the n characters proceeding the character at location i . If only i is entered, it will extract all characters preceding the character at location i .


```
string sub = myname.substr(0, 6);    /// Jaeden
string sub2 = myname.substr(7);     /// Bardati
```

3.6.5 Characters

Characters are strings of length 1, however, they can be declared explicitly with the `char` keyword and are expressed using single quotes.

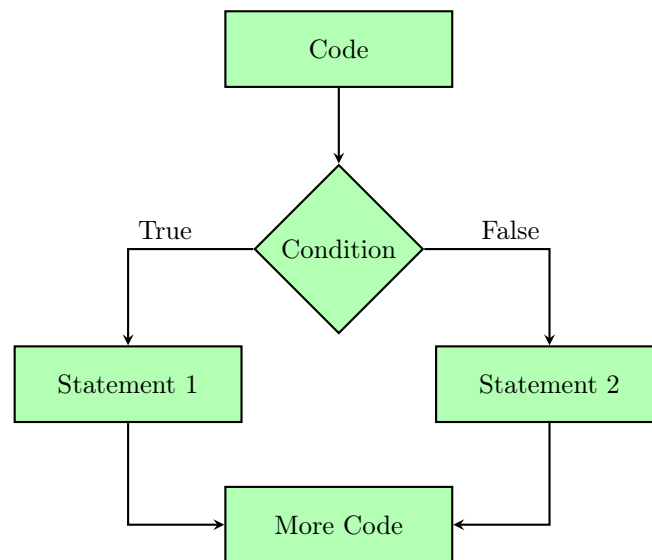
```
char c = 'Y';
```

3.7 The If Statement

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We can also use conditional statements.

3.7.1 Flow Chart



3.7.2 Syntax

The if statement has the syntax

```
if (condition)
    statement1;
else
    statement2;
```

Or, if there is no second statement, simply

```
if (condition)
    statement1;
```

For multiple statements, we can use parentheses

```
if (condition) {
    statement;
    statement;
    ...
}
```

```

else {
    statement;
    statement;
    ...
}

```

3.7.3 The condition

A condition is a **boolean expression**. A boolean type can be **true** or **false**.

Boolean expressions are written using **relational operators**:

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

You can also chain relational operators with **logic operators**:

	OR
&&	AND
!	NOT

For example,

```

if (num < 20 || num % 3 == 1) // if num is < 20 or if the remainder of num / 3 is 1
    num = num * 2
else
    num = num / 2

```

3.7.4 Floating point precision error

Let us show an example of a floating point precision error. Note that here we are including the `cmath` library.

```

double root, number;

root = sqrt(3);
number = pow(root, 2);

cout << setprecision(18) << "Number is : " << number << endl; // 2.99999999999999956, not 3

if (number == 3)
    cout << "sqrt(3) * sqrt(3) = 3" << endl;
else
    cout << "What just happened?" << endl;

```

When running this in a main function, we obtain the “What just happened?” result. What just happened indeed? The issue is that floating point numbers are only precise to a certain number of digits. To account for this, we must set our own precision as follows:

```

double precision = 1E-14;

if (abs(number - 3) < precision)
    cout << "sqrt(3) * sqrt(3) = 3" << endl;
else
    cout << "What just happened?" << endl;

```

This returns the desired result of $\text{sqrt}(3) * \text{sqrt}(3) = 3$.

3.7.5 String comparison (alphabetical order)

We can also use comparison operators for strings. For example,

```
string name1, name2;

cin >> name1 >> name2;

if (name1 < name2)
    cout << name1 << endl << name2;
else
    cout << name2 << endl << name1;
```

This will return two entered strings in alphabetical order.

3.7.6 Nested ifs

Sometimes there are more than one options. To do this we can use nested ifs. You check conditions within conditions for multiple branchings.

For example, we can assign a letter grade for a given percentage grade.

A	80 ≤ grade ≤ 100
B	65 ≤ grade < 80
C	50 ≤ grade < 65
F	0 ≤ grade < 50

The implementation of this in code is

```
int grade;
char letter;

cout << "Please enter a numeric grade: ";
cin >> grade;

if (grade >= 50)
    if (grade >= 65)
        if (grade >= 80)
            letter = 'A';
        else
            letter = 'B';
    else
        letter = 'C';
else
    letter = 'F';

cout << "The letter grade is " << letter << endl;
```