



Variable \approx Box

Variable Declaration

- You give a name for the variable, say *x*.
- Additionally, you need to assign a type for the variable.
- For example,

```
1 ...  
2     int x; // x is a variable declared an interger type.  
3 ...
```

- Variable declaration tells the compiler to **allocate** appropriate memory space for the variable based on its **data type**.¹
- It is worth to mention that, **the date type determines the size**, which is measured in **bytes**.²

¹Actually, all declared variables are created at the **compile time**.

²1 byte = 8 bits; bit = binary digit.

Naming Rules

- Identifiers are the names that identify the elements such as variables, methods, and classes in the program.
- The naming rule excludes the following situations:
 - cannot start with a digit
 - cannot be any reserved word³
 - cannot include any blank between letters
 - cannot contain +, -, *, / and %
- Note that Java is case sensitive⁴.

³See the next page.

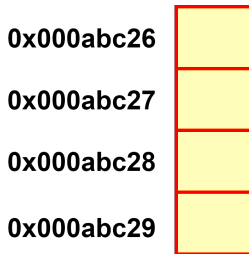
⁴The letter A and a are different.

Reserved Words⁵


abstract	double	int	super
assert	else	interface	switch
boolean	enum	long	synchronized
break	extends	native	this
byte	final	new	throw
case	finally	package	throws
catch	float	private	transient
char	for	protected	try
class	goto	public	void
const	if	return	volatile
continue	implements	short	while
default	import	static	
do	instanceof	strictfp*	

⁵See Appendix A in YDL, p. 1253.

Variable as Alias of Memory Address



- The number 0x000abc26 stands for one memory address in hexadecimal (0-9, and a-f).⁶
- The variable `x` itself refers to 0x000abc26 in the program after compilation.

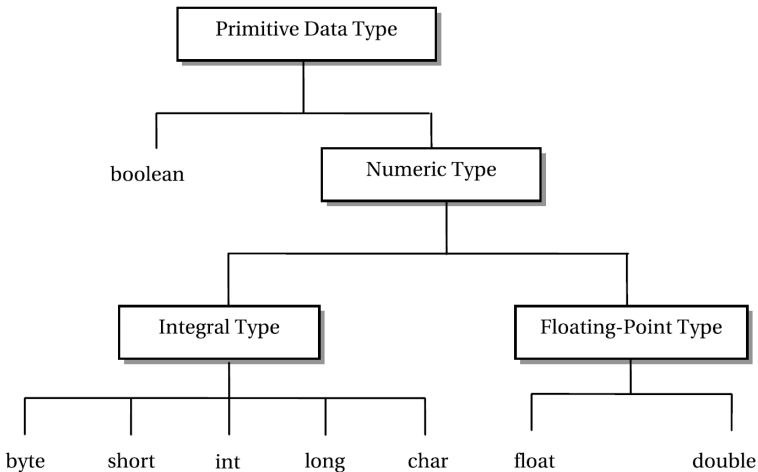
⁶See <https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Hexadecimal>. 

Data Types

- Java is a **strongly typed**⁷ programming language.
- Every variable has a type.
- Also, every (mathematical) expression has a type.
- There are two categories of data types: **primitive** data types, and **reference** data types.

⁷You cannot change the type of the variable after declaration.

Primitive Data Types⁸



⁸See Figure 3-4 in Sharan, p. 67.

Integers

Name	Width	Range
long	64	-9,223,372,036,854,775,808 to 9,223,372,036,854,775,807
int	32	-2,147,483,648 to 2,147,483,647
short	16	-32,768 to 32,767
byte	8	-128 to 127

- The most commonly used integer type is **int**.
- If the integer values are larger than its feasible range, then an **overflow** occurs.

Floats

Name	Width in Bits	Approximate Range
double	64	4.9e-324 to 1.8e+308
float	32	1.4e-045 to 3.4e+038

- Floats are used when evaluating expressions that require fractional precision.
 - For example, `sin()`, `cos()`, and `sqrt()`.
- The performance for the **double** values is actually faster than that for **float** values on modern processors that have been optimized for high-speed mathematical calculations.
- Be aware that floating-point arithmetic can only **approximate** real arithmetic.⁹ (Why?)

⁹See https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Numerical_error.

Example: $0.5 - 0.1 - 0.1 - 0.1 - 0.1 - 0.1 = 0?$

```
1 public class FloatsDemo {  
2     public static void main(String[] args) {  
3         System.out.println(0.5 - 0.1 - 0.1 - 0.1 - 0.1 - 0.1);  
4     }  
5 }
```

- The result is surprising. (Why?)
- You may try this [decimal-binary converter](#).
- This issue occurs not only in decimal numbers, but also big integers represented in floats.¹⁰
- So the floats are not reliable unless the algorithm is designed elaborately for numerical errors.¹¹

¹⁰Thanks to a lively discussion on June 26, 2016.

¹¹See

Example: Loss of Significance

- For example,

```
1 ...  
2     System.out.println(3.14 + 1e20 - 1e20); // output ?  
3     System.out.println(3.14 + (1e20 - 1e20)); // output ?  
4 ...
```

- Can you explain why?

IEEE Floating-Point Representation¹²

$$x = (-1)^s \times M \times 2^E$$

- The sign s determines whether the number is negative ($s = 1$) or positive ($s = 0$).
- The significand M is a fractional binary number that ranges either between 1 and $2 - \epsilon$, or between 0 and $1 - \epsilon$.
- The exponent E weights the value by a (possibly negative) power of 2.

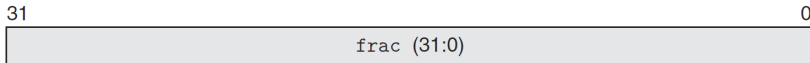
¹²William Kahan (1985); Aka IEEE754.

Illustration¹³

Single precision



Double precision



- That is why we call a **double** value.

¹³See Figure 2-31 in Byrant, p. 104.

Assignments

- An assignment statement designates a value to the variable.

```
1      int x; // make a variable declaration
2      ...
3      x = 1; // assign 1 to x
```

- The equal sign (=) is used as the **assignment operator**.
 - For example, is the expression $x = x + 1$ correct?
 - Direction: **from the right-hand side to the left-hand side**
- To assign a value to a variable, you must place the variable name to the left of the assignment operator.¹⁴
 - For example, $1 = x$ is wrong.
 - **1 cannot be resolved to a memory space.**

¹⁴ x can be a l-value and r-value, but 1 and other numbers can be only r-value but not l-value. See [Value](#).

Two “Before” Rules

- Every variable has a **scope**.
 - The scope of a variable is the range of the program where the variable can be referenced.¹⁵
- **A variable must be declared before it can be assigned a value.**
 - In practice, do not declare the variable until you need it.
- **A declared variable must be assigned a value before it can be used.**¹⁶

¹⁵The detail of variable scope is introduced later.

¹⁶In symbolic programming, such as Mathematica and Maple, a variable can be manipulated without assigning a value. For example, $x + x$ returns $2x$.

Arithmetic Operators¹⁷

<i>Name</i>	<i>Meaning</i>	<i>Example</i>	<i>Result</i>
+	Addition	34 + 1	35
-	Subtraction	34.0 - 0.1	33.9
*	Multiplication	300 * 30	9000
/	Division	1.0 / 2.0	0.5
%	Remainder	20 % 3	2

- Note that the operator depends on the operands involved.

¹⁷See Table 2-3 in YDL, p. 46.

Tricky Pitfalls

- Can you explain this result?

```
1 ...  
2     double x = 1 / 2;  
3     System.out.println(x); // output?  
4 ...
```

- Revisit $0.5 - 0.1 - 0.1 - 0.1 - 0.1 - 0.1 - 0.1 = 0$.¹⁸

```
1 ...  
2     System.out.println(1 / 2 - 1 / 10 - 1 / 10 - 1 / 10 - 1 / 10 - 1  
3         / 10 - 1 / 10); // output 0; however, this is not  
         the real solution to the original problem.  
3 ...
```

¹⁸Thanks to a lively discussion on on June 7, 2016.

Type Conversion and Compatibility

- If a type is **compatible** to another, then the compiler will perform the conversion **implicitly**.
 - For example, the integer 1 is compatible to a **double** value 1.0.
- However, there is no automatic conversion from **double** to **int**. (Why?)
- To do so, you must use a **cast**, which performs an **explicit** conversion for compilation.
- Similarly, a **long** value is not compatible to **int**.

Casting

```
1 ...  
2     int x = 1;  
3     double y = x; // compatible; implicit conversion  
4     x = y; // incompatible; need an explicit conversion by  
5           casting  
6     x = (int) y; // succeed!!  
7 ...
```

- Note that the Java compiler does only **type-checking** but no real execution before compilation.
- In other words, the values of *x* and *y* are unknown until they are really executed.

Type Conversion and Compatibility (concluded)

- small-size types \rightarrow large-size types
- small-size types \nleftrightarrow large-size types (need a cast)
- simple types \rightarrow complicated types
- simple types \nleftrightarrow complicated types (need a cast)

Characters

- A character stored by the machine is represented by a sequence of 0's and 1's.
 - For example, ASCII code. (See the next page.)
- The `char` type is a 16-bit unsigned primitive data type.¹⁹

¹⁹Java uses **Unicode** to represent characters. Unicode defines a fully international character set that can represent all of the characters found in all human languages.

ASCII (7-bit version)

Hex	Dec	Char	Hex	Dec	Char	Hex	Dec	Char	Hex	Dec	Char
0x00	0	NULL null	0x20	32	Space	0x40	64	@	0x60	96	`
0x01	1	SOH Start of heading	0x21	33	!	0x41	65	A	0x61	97	a
0x02	2	STX Start of text	0x22	34	"	0x42	66	B	0x62	98	b
0x03	3	ETX End of text	0x23	35	#	0x43	67	C	0x63	99	c
0x04	4	EOT End of transmission	0x24	36	\$	0x44	68	D	0x64	100	d
0x05	5	ENQ Enquiry	0x25	37	%	0x45	69	E	0x65	101	e
0x06	6	ACK Acknowledge	0x26	38	&	0x46	70	F	0x66	102	f
0x07	7	BELL Bell	0x27	39	'	0x47	71	G	0x67	103	g
0x08	8	BS Backspace	0x28	40	(0x48	72	H	0x68	104	h
0x09	9	TAB Horizontal tab	0x29	41)	0x49	73	I	0x69	105	i
0x0A	10	LF New line	0x2A	42	*	0x4A	74	J	0x6A	106	j
0x0B	11	VT Vertical tab	0x2B	43	+	0x4B	75	K	0x6B	107	k
0x0C	12	FF Form Feed	0x2C	44	,	0x4C	76	L	0x6C	108	l
0x0D	13	CR Carriage return	0x2D	45	-	0x4D	77	M	0x6D	109	m
0x0E	14	SO Shift out	0x2E	46	.	0x4E	78	N	0x6E	110	n
0x0F	15	SI Shift in	0x2F	47	/	0x4F	79	O	0x6F	111	o
0x10	16	DLE Data link escape	0x30	48	0	0x50	80	P	0x70	112	p
0x11	17	DC1 Device control 1	0x31	49	1	0x51	81	Q	0x71	113	q
0x12	18	DC2 Device control 2	0x32	50	2	0x52	82	R	0x72	114	r
0x13	19	DC3 Device control 3	0x33	51	3	0x53	83	S	0x73	115	s
0x14	20	DC4 Device control 4	0x34	52	4	0x54	84	T	0x74	116	t
0x15	21	NAK Negative ack	0x35	53	5	0x55	85	U	0x75	117	u
0x16	22	SYN Synchronous idle	0x36	54	6	0x56	86	V	0x76	118	v
0x17	23	ETB End transmission block	0x37	55	7	0x57	87	W	0x77	119	w
0x18	24	CAN Cancel	0x38	56	8	0x58	88	X	0x78	120	x
0x19	25	EM End of medium	0x39	57	9	0x59	89	Y	0x79	121	y
0x1A	26	SUB Substitute	0x3A	58	:	0x5A	90	Z	0x7A	122	z
0x1B	27	FSC Escape	0x3B	59	;	0x5B	91	[0x7B	123	{
0x1C	28	FS File separator	0x3C	60	<	0x5C	92	\	0x7C	124	
0x1D	29	GS Group separator	0x3D	61	=	0x5D	93]	0x7D	125	}
0x1E	30	RS Record separator	0x3E	62	>	0x5E	94	^	0x7E	126	~
0x1F	31	US Unit separator	0x3F	63	?	0x5F	95	_	0x7F	127	DEL

Example

- Characters can also be used as (positive) integers on which you can perform arithmetic operations.²⁰
- For example,

```
1 ...  
2     char x = 'a'; // single-quoted: a char value  
3     System.out.println(x + 1); // output 98!!  
4     System.out.println((char)(x + 1)); // output b  
5  
6     String s = "Java"; // double-quoted: a String object  
7 ...
```

- You can imagine that a String object comprises characters equipped with plentiful tools.²¹

²⁰See <https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Cryptography>.

²¹As an analogy, a molecule (string) consists of atoms (characters).

Boolean Values

- The program is supposed to do **decision making** by itself, for example, Google Driverless Car.²²
- To do this, Java has the **boolean**-type flow controls (selections and iterations).
- This type has only two possible values, **true** and **false**.
- Note that a **boolean** value **cannot** be cast into a value of another type, nor can a value of another type be cast into a **boolean** value. (Why?)

²²See <https://www.google.com/selfdrivingcar/>

Rational Operators²³

<i>Java Operator</i>	<i>Mathematics Symbol</i>	<i>Name</i>
<	<	less than
<=	≤	less than or equal to
>	>	greater than
>=	≥	greater than or equal to
==	=	equal to
!=	≠	not equal to

- These operators take two operands.
- Rational expressions return a **boolean** value.
- Note that the equality operator is double equality sign (==), not single equality sign (=).

²³See Table 3-1 in YDL, p. 82.

Example

```
1 ...  
2     int x = 2;  
3     boolean a = x > 1;  
4     boolean b = x < 1;  
5     boolean c = x == 1;  
6     boolean d = x != 1;  
7     boolean e = 1 < x < 3; // sorry?  
8 ...
```

- Be aware that e is logically correct but **syntactically wrong**.
- Usually, the boolean expression consists of a **combination** of rational expressions.
 - For example, $1 < x < 3$ should be $(1 < x) \&\&(x < 3)$, where $\&\&$ refers to the AND operator.

Logical Operators²⁴

<i>Operator</i>	<i>Name</i>	<i>Description</i>
!	not	logical negation
&&	and	logical conjunction
	or	logical disjunction
^	exclusive or	logical exclusion

²⁴See Table 3-2 in YDL, p. 102.

Truth Table

- Let X and Y be two Boolean variables.
- Then the **truth table** for logical operators is as follows:

X	Y	$\neg X$	$X \& Y$	$X \parallel Y$	$X \wedge Y$
T	T	F	T	T	F
T	F	F	F	T	T
F	T	T	F	T	T
F	F	T	F	F	F

- Note that the instructions of computers, such as arithmetic operations, are implemented by **logic gates**.²⁵

²⁵See any textbook for digital circuit design.

"Logic is the anatomy of thought."

– John Locke (1632–1704)

"This sentence is false."

– anonymous

"I know that I know nothing."

– Plato

(In Apology, Plato relates that Socrates accounts for his seeming wiser than any other person because he does not imagine that he knows what he does not know.)

Arithmetic Compound Assignment Operators

++	Increment
+=	Addition assignment
-=	Subtraction assignment
*=	Multiplication assignment
/=	Division assignment
%=	Modulus assignment
--	Decrement

- Note that these shorthand operators are not available in languages such as Matlab, R, and Python.

Example

```
1 ...  
2     int x = 1;  
3     System.out.println(x); // output 1  
4     x = x + 1;  
5     System.out.println(x); // output 2  
6     x += 2;  
7     System.out.println(x); // output 4  
8     x++; // equivalent to x += 1 and x = x + 1  
9     System.out.println(x); // output 5  
10 ...
```

- The compound assignment operators are also useful for **char** values.²⁶
- For example,

```
1 ...  
2     char s = 'a';  
3     System.out.println(s); // output a  
4     s += 1;  
5     System.out.println(s); // output b  
6     s++;  
7     System.out.println(s); // output c  
8 ...
```

²⁶Contribution by Mr. Edward Wang (Java265) on May 1, 2016.

++x vs. x++

- The expression ++x first increments the value of x and then returns x.
- Instead, the expression x++ first returns the value of x and then increments itself.
- For example,

```
1 ...  
2     int x = 1;  
3     int y = ++x;  
4     System.out.println(y); // output 2; aka preincrement  
5     System.out.println(x); // output 2  
6  
7     int w = 1;  
8     int z = w++;  
9     System.out.println(z); // output 1; aka postincrement  
10    System.out.println(w); // output 2  
11 ...
```

- We will use these notations very often.

Operator Precedence²⁷

<i>Precedence</i>	<i>Operator</i>
	<code>var++</code> and <code>var--</code> (Postfix)
	<code>+</code> , <code>-</code> (Unary plus and minus), <code>++var</code> and <code>--var</code> (Prefix)
	(type) (Casting)
	<code>!</code> (Not)
	<code>*</code> , <code>/</code> , <code>%</code> (Multiplication, division, and remainder)
	<code>+</code> , <code>-</code> (Binary addition and subtraction)
	<code><</code> , <code><=</code> , <code>></code> , <code>>=</code> (Comparison)
	<code>==</code> , <code>!=</code> (Equality)
	<code>^</code> (Exclusive OR)
	<code>&&</code> (AND)
	<code> </code> (OR)
	<code>=</code> , <code>+=</code> , <code>-=</code> , <code>*=</code> , <code>/=</code> , <code>%=</code> (Assignment operator)

²⁷See Table3-10 in YDL, p. 116.

Using Parentheses

- Parentheses are used in expressions to change the natural order of precedence among the operators.
- One always evaluates the expression inside of parentheses first.

Scanner Objects

- It is not convenient to modify the source code and recompile it for a different radius.
- Reading from the console enables the program to **receive** an input from the user.
- A **Scanner** object provides some input methods, say the input received from the keyboard or the files.
- Java uses **System.in** to refer to the standard input device, by default, the keyboard.

Example: Reading Input From The Console

Write a program which receives a number as input, and outputs the area of the circle.

```
1 import java.util.Scanner;
2 ...
3     Scanner input = new Scanner(System.in);
4     System.out.println("Enter r?");
5     // input
6     int r = input.nextInt();
7     // algorithm
8     double area = r * r * 3.14;
9     // output
10    System.out.println(area);
11    input.close();
12 ...
```

- In the listing, Line 3 is to create a **Scanner** object by the **new** operator, as an agent between the keyboard and your program.
- Note that all objects are resided in the **heap** of the memory.
- To control this object, its **memory address** is then assigned to the variable *input* which is a variable in the **stack** of memory.
- So the variable *input* is a **reference**.
- We will discuss the objects and reference variables later.

Methods Provided by Scanner Objects²⁸

<i>Method</i>	<i>Description</i>
nextByte()	reads an integer of the byte type.
nextShort()	reads an integer of the short type.
nextInt()	reads an integer of the int type.
nextLong()	reads an integer of the long type.
nextFloat()	reads a number of the float type.
nextDouble()	reads a number of the double type.
next()	reads a string that ends before a whitespace character.
nextLine()	reads a line of text (i.e., a string ending with the <i>Enter</i> key pressed).

²⁸See Table 2-1 in YDL, p. 38.

Example: Mean and Standard Deviation

Write a program which calculates the mean and the standard deviation of 3 numbers.

- The mean of 3 numbers is given by $\bar{x} = \left(\sum_{i=1}^3 x_i \right) / 3$.
- Also, the resulting standard deviation is given by

$$S = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^3 (x_i - \bar{x})^2}{3}}.$$

- You may use these two methods:
 - `Math.pow(double x, double y)` for x^y
 - `Math.sqrt(double x)` for \sqrt{x}
- See more methods within [Math class](#).


```
1 ...
2     Scanner input = new Scanner(System.in);
3     System.out.println("a = ?");
4     double a = input.nextDouble();
5     System.out.println("b = ?");
6     double b = input.nextDouble();
7     System.out.println("c = ?");
8     double c = input.nextDouble();
9
10    double mean = (a + b + c) / 3;
11    double std = Math.sqrt((Math.pow(a - mean, 2) +
12                           Math.pow(b - mean, 2) +
13                           Math.pow(c - mean, 2)) / 3);
14
15    System.out.println("mean = " + mean);
16    System.out.println("std = " + std);
17 ...
```

```
1 class Lecture3 {  
2  
3     "Selections"  
4  
5 }  
6  
7 // Keywords  
8 if, else, else if, switch, case, default
```

Flow Controls

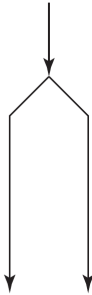
The basic algorithm (and program) is constituted by the following operations:

- **Sequential statements**: execute instructions **in order**.
- **Selection**: first check if the predetermined condition is satisfied, then execute the corresponding instruction.
- **Repetition**: repeat the execution of some instructions until the criterion fails.

Sequence



Selection



Repetition
(loop)



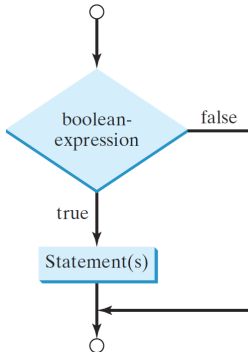
- Note that they are involved with each other generally.
- For example, recall how to find the maximum in the input list?

Selections

- One-way **if** statements
- Two-way **if-else** statements
- Nested **if** statements
- Multiway **if-else if-else** statements
- **switch-case** statements
- Conditional operators

One-Way if Statements

A one-way if statement executes an action if and only if the condition is true.



```
1 ...  
2     if (condition) {  
3         // selection body  
4     }  
5 ...
```

- The keyword **if** is followed by the **parenthesized** condition.
- The condition should be a **boolean** expression or a **boolean** value.
- If the condition is **true**, then the statements in the selection body will be executed **once**.
- If not, then the program won't enter the selection body and skip the whole selection body.
- Note that the braces can be omitted if the block contains only **single** statement.

Example

Write a program which receives a nonnegative number as input for the radius of a circle, and determines the area of the circle.

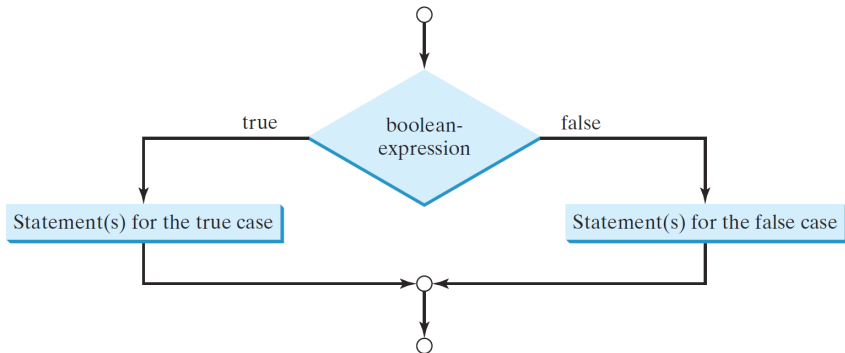
```
1 ...  
2     double area;  
3     if (r > 0) {  
4         area = r * r * 3.14;  
5         System.out.println(area);  
6     }  
7 ...
```

- However, the world is not well-defined.

Two-Way if-else Statements

A two-way **if-else** statement decides which statements to execute based on whether the condition is **true** or **false**.

```
1 ...  
2     if (condition) {  
3         // body for the true case  
4     } else {  
5         // body for the false case  
6     }  
7 ...
```



Example

Write a program which receives a number as input for the radius of a circle. If the number is nonnegative, then determine the area of the circle; otherwise, output "Not a circle."

```
1  ...
2      double area;
3      if (r > 0) {
4          area = r * r * 3.14;
5          System.out.println(area);
6      } else {
7          System.out.println("Not a circle.");
8      }
9      input.close();
10 }
11 ...
```

Nested if Statements

- For example,

```
1 ...
2     if (score >= 90)
3         System.out.println("A");
4     else {
5         if (score >= 80)
6             System.out.println("B");
7         else {
8             if (score >= 70)
9                 System.out.println("C");
10            else {
11                if (score >= 60)
12                    System.out.println("D");
13                else
14                    System.out.println("F");
15            }
16        }
17    }
18 ...
```

Multi-Way if-else

- Let's redo the previous problem.

```
1 ...  
2     if (score >= 90)  
3         System.out.println("A");  
4     else if (score >= 80)  
5         System.out.println("B");  
6     else if (score >= 70)  
7         System.out.println("C");  
8     else if (score >= 60)  
9         System.out.println("D");  
10    else  
11        System.out.println("F");  
12 ...
```

- An **if-elseif-else** statement is a preferred format for multiple alternatives, in order to **avoid deep indentation** and make the program easy to read.

- The order of conditions may be relevant. (Why?)

```
1 ...  
2     if ((score >= 90) && (score <= 100))  
3     else if ((score >= 80) && (score < 90))  
4         ...  
5     else  
6         ...
```

- The performance may degrade due to the order of conditions. (Why?)

Common Errors

```
1 ...  
2     double area;  
3     if (r > 0);  
4         area = r * r * 3.14;  
5         System.out.println(area);  
6 ...
```

Example

Generating random numbers

Write a program which generates 2 **random** integers and asks the user to answer the math expression.

- For example, the program shows $2 + 5 = ?$
- If the user answers 7, then the program reports “Correct.” and terminates.
- Otherwise, the program reports “Wrong answer. The correct answer is 7.” for this case.
- You may use **Math.random()** for a random value between 0.0 and 1.0, excluding themselves.


```

1  ...
2      int x = (int) (Math.random() * 10); // integers 0 ~ 9
3      int y = (int) (Math.random() * 10);
4      int answer = x + y;
5
6      System.out.println(x + " + " + y + " = ?");
7
8      Scanner input = new Scanner(System.in);
9      int z = input.nextInt();
10
11     if (z == answer)
12         System.out.println("Correct.");
13     else
14         System.out.println("Wrong. Answer: " + answer);
15     input.close();
16  ...

```

- Can you extend this program for all arithmetic expressions (i.e., $+$ $-$ \times \div)?

Exercise

Find Max

Write a program which determines the maximum value in 3 random integers whose range from 0 to 99.

- How many variables do we need?
- How to compare?
- How to keep the maximum value?

```
1  ...
2      int x = (int) (Math.random() * 100);
3      int y = (int) (Math.random() * 100);
4      int z = (int) (Math.random() * 100);
5
6      int max = x;
7      if (y > max) max = y;
8      if (z > max) max = z;
9      System.out.println("max = " + max);
10  ...
```

- In this case, a **scalar** variable is not convenient. (Why?)
- So we need **arrays** and **loops**.

switch-case Statements

A **switch-case** structure takes actions depending on the target variable.

```
1 ...  
2     switch (target) {  
3         case v1:  
4             // statements  
5             break;  
6         case v2:  
7             .  
8             .  
9         case vk:  
10            // statements  
11            break;  
12        default:  
13            // statements  
14    }  
15 ...
```

- A **switch-case** statement is more convenient than an **if** statement for multiple **discrete** conditions.
- The variable *target*, always enclosed in parentheses, must yield a value of **char**, **byte**, **short**, **int**, or **String** type.
- The value v_1, \dots , and v_k must have the same data type as the variable *target*.
- In each case, a **break** statement is a must.²⁹
 - **break** is used to break a construct!
- The **default** case, which is optional, can be used to perform actions when none of the specified cases matches *target*.
 - Counterpart to **else** statements.

²⁹If not, there will be a fall-through behavior.

Example

```
1  ...
2      // RED: 0
3      // YELLOW: 1
4      // GREEN: 2
5      int trafficLight = (int) (Math.random() * 3);
6      switch (trafficLight) {
7          case 0:
8              System.out.println("Stop!!!");
9              break;
10         case 1:
11             System.out.println("Slow down!!!");
12             break;
13         case 2:
14             System.out.println("Go!");
15     }
16  ...
```

Conditional Operators

A conditional expression evaluates an expression based on the specified condition and returns a value accordingly.

```
1 ...  
2     someVar = booleanExpr ? exprA : exprB;  
3 ...
```

- This is the only ternary operator in Java.
- If the **boolean** expression is evaluated **true**, then return expr A; otherwise, expr B.

- For example,

```
1 ...  
2     if (num1 > num2)  
3         max = num1;  
4     else  
5         max = num2;  
6 ...
```

- Alternatively, one can use a conditional expression like this:

```
1 ...  
2     max = (num1 > num2) ? num1 : num2;  
3 ...
```



```
1 class Lecture4 {  
2  
3     "Loops"  
4  
5 }  
6  
7 // keywords:  
8 while, do, for, break, continue
```

Loops

A loop can be used to make a program execute statements **repeatedly** without having to code the same statements.

- For example, a program outputs “Hello, Java.” for 100 times.

```
1 ...  
2     System.out.println("Hello, Java.");  
3     System.out.println("Hello, Java.");  
4     .  
5     . // copy and paste for 100 times  
6     .  
7     System.out.println("Hello, Java.");  
8 ...
```

```
1 ...  
2     int cnt = 0;  
3     while (cnt < 100) {  
4         System.out.println("Hello, Java.");  
5         cnt++;  
6     }  
7 ...
```

- This is a simple example to show the power of loops.
- In practice, any routine which repeats couples of times³⁰ can be done by folding them into a loop.

³⁰I prefer to call them “patterns.”

成也迴圈，敗也迴圈。

- Loops provide substantial **computational power**.
- Loops bring an **efficient** way of programming.
- Loops could consume a lot of time.³¹

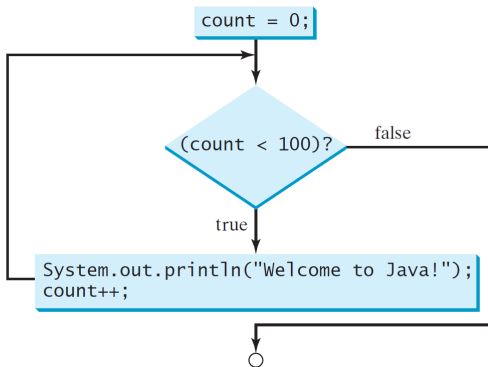
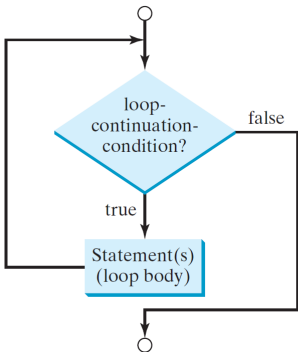
³¹We will visit the analysis of algorithms in the end of this lecture.

while Loops

A **while** loop executes statements repeatedly while the condition is **true**.

```
1 ...  
2     while (condition) {  
3         // loop body  
4     }  
5 ...
```

- The condition should be a boolean expression which determines whether or not the execution of the body occurs.
- If true, the loop body is executed and check the condition again.
- Otherwise, the entire loop terminates.



Example

Write a program which sums up all integers from 1 to 100.

- In math, the question can be written as:

$$\text{sum} = 1 + 2 + \cdots + 100.$$

- But this form is not doable in the machine.³²

³²We need to develop **computational thinking**. Read <http://rsta.royalsocietypublishing.org/content/366/1881/3717.full> or <http://blog.orangeapple.tw/posts/what-is-computational-thinking/>.

- Normally, the machine executes the instructions **sequentially**.
- So one needs to decompose the math equation into several steps, like:

```
1 ...  
2     int sum = 0;  
3     sum = sum + 1;  
4     sum = sum + 2;  
5     .  
6     .  
7     .  
8     sum = sum + 100;  
9 ...
```

- It is obvious that many similar statements can be found.

- Using a **while** loop, the program can be rearranged as follows:

```
1 ...  
2     int sum = 0;  
3     int i = 1;  
4     while (i <= 100) {  
5         sum = sum + i;  
6         ++i;  
7     }  
8 ...
```

- You should guarantee that the loop will terminate as expected.
- In practice, the number of loop steps (iterations) is **unknown** until the input data is given.

Malfunctioned Loops

- It is really easy to make an **infinite loop**.

```
1 ...  
2     while (true);  
3 ...
```

- The common errors of the loops are:
 - never start
 - never stop
 - not complete
 - exceed the expected number of iterations

Example

Write a program which asks the sum of two random integers and lets the user repeatedly enter a new answer until correct.

```
1 ...
2     Scanner input = new Scanner(System.in);
3     int x = (int) (Math.random() * 10);
4     int y = (int) (Math.random() * 10);
5     int ans = x + y;
6
7     System.out.println(x + " + " + y + " = ? ");
8     int z = input.nextInt();
9
10    while (z != ans) {
11        System.out.println("Try again? ");
12        z = input.nextInt();
13    }
14    System.out.println("Correct.");
15    input.close();
16 ...
```

Loop Design Strategy

- Writing a correct loop is not an easy task for novice programmers.
- Consider 3 steps when writing a loop:
 - **Find the pattern**: identify the statements that need to be repeated.
 - **Wrap by loops**: put these statements in the loop.
 - **Set the continuation condition**: translate the criterion from the real world problem into computational conditions.³³

³³Not unique.

Sentinel-Controlled Loops

Another common technique for controlling a loop is to designate a special value when reading and processing a set of values.

- This special input value, known as a **sentinel value**, signifies the end of the loop.
- For example, the operating systems and the GUI apps.

Example: Cashier Problem

Write a program which sums over positive integers from consecutive inputs and then outputs the sum when the input is nonpositive.

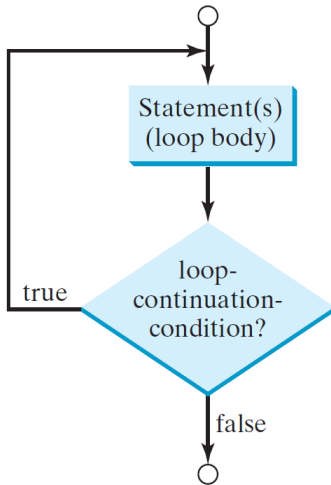
```
1 ...
2     int total = 0, price;
3     Scanner input = new Scanner(System.in);
4
5     System.out.println("Enter price?");
6     price = input.nextInt();
7
8     while (price > 0) {
9         total += price;
10        System.out.println("Enter price?");
11        price = input.nextInt(); // repeat Line 5 and 6?!
12    }
13
14    System.out.println("Total = " + total);
15    input.close();
16 ...
```

do-while Loops

A **do-while** loop is similar to a while loop except that it **does** execute the loop body first **and then** checks the loop continuation condition.

```
1 ...  
2     do {  
3         // loop body  
4     } while (condition); // Do not miss the semicolon!  
5 ...
```

- Note that there is a semicolon at the end of the **do-while** loop.
- The **do-while** loops are also called **posttest** loops, in contrast to **while** loops, which are **pretest** loops.



Example (Revisted)

Write a program which sums over positive integers from consecutive inputs and then outputs the sum when the input is nonpositive.

```
1  ...
2      int total = 0, price = 0;
3      Scanner input = new Scanner(System.in);
4
5      do {
6          total += price;
7          System.out.println("Enter price?");
8          price = input.nextInt();
9      } while (price > 0);
10
11     System.out.println("Total = " + total);
12     input.close();
13  ...
```

for Loops

A **for** loop generally uses a variable to control how many times the loop body is executed.

```
1 ...  
2     for (init_action; condition; increment) {  
3         // loop body  
4     }  
5 ...
```

- *init-action*: declare and initialize a variable
- *condition*: set a criterion for loop continuation
- *increment*: how the variable changes after each iteration
- Note that these terms are separated by semicolons.

Example

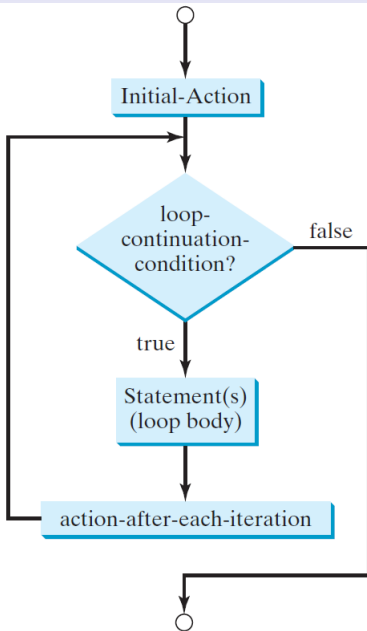
Sum from 1 to 100

Write a program which sums from 1 to 100.

```
1 ...  
2     int sum = 0;  
3     for (int i = 1; i <= 100; ++i)  
4         sum = sum + i;  
5 ...
```

- Compared to the **while** version,

```
1 ...  
2     int sum = 0;  
3     int i = 1;  
4     while (i <= 100) {  
5         sum = sum + i;  
6         ++i;  
7     }  
8 ...
```



Example: Selection Resided in Loop

Display all even numbers

Write a program which displays all even numbers smaller than 100.

- An even number is an integer of the form $x = 2k$, where k is an integer.

- You may use the modular operator (%).

```
1 ...  
2     for (int i = 1; i <= 100; i++) {  
3         if (i % 2 == 0) System.out.println(i);  
4     }  
5 ...
```

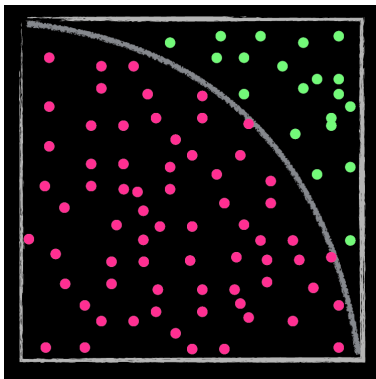
- Also consider this alternative:

```
1 ...  
2     for (int i = 2; i <= 100; i += 2) {  
3         System.out.println(i);  
4     }  
5 ...
```

- How about odd numbers?

Example: Monte Carlo Simulation³⁴

- Write a program which conducts a Monte Carlo simulation to estimate π .



³⁴See https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Monte_Carlo_method.