CSCI 1301 Book

<https://csci-1301.github.io/about#authors>

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# Introduction to Computers and Programming

## Principles of Computer Programming

* Computer hardware changes frequently - from room-filling machines with punch cards and tapes to modern laptops and tablets
* With these changes - the capabilities of computers increase rapidly (storage, speed, graphics, etc.)
* Computer programming languages also change
  + Better programming language theory leads to new programming techniques
  + Improved programming language implementations
  + New languages are created, old ones updated
* There are hundreds of programming languages, why?
  + Different tools for different jobs
    - Some languages are better suited for certain jobs
    - Python for scripting, Javascript for web pages
  + Personal preference and popularity
* This class is about “principles” of computer programming
  + Common principles behind all languages won’t change, even though hardware and languages do
  + How to organize and structure data
  + How to express logical conditions and relations
  + How to solve problems with programs

## Programming Language Concepts

We begin by discussing three categories of languages manipulated by computers. We will be studying and writing programs in *high-level languages*, but understanding their differences and relationships to other languages[[1]](#footnote-22) is of importance to become familiar with them.

* Machine language
  + Computers are made of electronic circuits
    - Circuits are components connected by wires
    - Some wires carry data - e.g. numbers
    - Some carry control signals - e.g. do an add or a subtract operation
  + Instructions are settings on these control signals
    - A setting is represented as a 0 or 1
    - A machine language instruction is a group of settings - For example: 1000100111011000
  + Most CPUs use one of two languages: x86 or ARM
* Assembly language
  + Easier way for humans to write machine-language instructions
  + Instead of 1s and 0s, it uses letters and “words” to represent an instruction.
    - Example x86 instruction: MOV BX, AX which makes a copy of data stored in a component called AX and places it in one called BX
  + **Assembler**: Translates assembly language instructions to machine language instructions
    - For example: MOV BX, AX translates into 1000100111011000
    - One assembly instruction = one machine-language instruction
    - x86 assembly produces x86 machine code
  + Computers can only execute the machine code
* High-level language
  + Hundreds including C#, C++, Java, Python, etc.
  + Most programs are written in a high-level language since:
    - More human-readable than assembly language
    - High-level concepts such as processing a collection of items are easier to write and understand
    - Takes less code since each statement might be translated into several assembly instructions
  + **Compiler**: Translates high-level language to machine code
    - Finds “spelling” errors but not problem-solving errors
    - Incorporates code libraries – commonly used pieces of code previously written such as Math.Sqrt(9)
    - Optimizes high-level instructions – your code may look very different after it has been optimized
    - Compiler is specific to both the source language and the target computer
  + Compile high-level instructions into machine code then run since computers can only execute machine code

“A Visual Representation of the Relationships Between Languages”

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A more subtle difference exists between high-level languages. Some (like C) are *compiled* (as we discussed above), some (like Python) are *interpreted*, and some (like C#) are in an in-between called *managed*.

* Compiled vs. Interpreted languages
  + Not all high-level languages use a compiler - some use an interpreter
  + **Interpreter**: Lets a computer “execute” high-level code by translating one statement at a time to machine code
  + Advantage: Less waiting time before you can run the program (no separate “compile” step)
  + Disadvantage: Program runs slower since you wait for the high-level statements to be translated then the program is run
* Managed high-level languages (like C#)
  + Combine features of compiled and interpreted languages
  + Compiler translates high-level statements to **intermediate language** instructions, not machine code
    - Intermediate language: Looks like assembly language, but not specific to any CPU
  + **Runtime** executes by *interpreting* the intermediate language instructions - translates one at a time to machine code
    - Faster since translation is partially done already (by compiler), only a simple “last step” is done when running the program
  + Advantages of managed languages:
    - In a “non-managed” language, a compiled program only works on one OS + CPU combination (**platform**) because it is machine code
    - Managed-language programs can be reused on a different platform without recompiling - intermediate language is not machine code and not CPU-specific
    - Still need to write an intermediate language interpreter for each platform (so it produces the right machine code), but, for a non-managed language, you must write a compiler for each platform
    - Writing a compiler is more complicated and more work than writing an interpreter thus an interpreter is a quicker (and cheaper) way to put your language on different platforms
    - Intermediate-language interpreter is much faster than a high-level language interpreter, so programs run faster than an “interpreted language” like Python
  + This still runs slower than a non-managed language (due to the interpreter), so performance-minded programmers use non-managed compiled languages (e.g. for video games)

“A Visual Representation of the Differences Between High-Level Languages”

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## Software Concepts

* Flow of execution in a program
  + Program receives input from some source, e.g. keyboard, mouse, data in files
  + Program uses input to make decisions
  + Program produces output for the outside world to see, e.g. by displaying images on screen, writing text to console, or saving data in files
* Program interfaces
  + **GUI** or Graphical User Interface: Input is from clicking mouse in visual elements on screen (buttons, menus, etc.), output is by drawing onto the screen
  + **CLI** or Command Line Interface: Input is from text typed into “command prompt” or “terminal window,” output is text printed at same terminal window
  + This class will use CLI because it’s simple, portable, easy to work with – no need to learn how to draw images, just read and write text

## Programming Concepts

* Programming workflow (see flowchart)
  + Writing down specifications
  + Creating the source code
  + Running the compiler
  + Reading the compiler’s output, warning and error messages
  + Fixing compile errors, if necessary
  + Running and testing the program
  + Debugging the program, if necessary
* Interpreted language workflow (see flowchart)
  + Writing down specifications
  + Creating the source code
  + Running the program in the interpreter
  + Reading the interpreter’s output, determining if there is a syntax (language) error or the program finished executing
  + Editing the program to fix syntax errors
  + Testing the program (once it can run with no errors)
  + Debugging the program, if necessary
  + **Advantages**: Fewer steps between writing and executing, can be a faster cycle
  + **Disadvantages**: All errors happen when you run the program, no distinction between syntax errors (compile errors) and logic errors (bugs in running program)

#### Programming workflow

“Flowchart demonstrating roles and tasks of a programmer, beta tester and user in the creation of programs.”

“Flowchart demonstrating roles and tasks of a programmer, beta tester and user in the creation of programs.”

* Integrated Development Environment (IDE)
  + Combines a text editor, compiler, file browser, debugger, and other tools
  + Helps you organize a programming project
  + Helps you write, compile, and test code in one place
  + Visual Studio terms:
    - Solution: An entire software project, including source code, metadata, input data files, etc.
    - “Build solution”: Compile all of your code
    - “Start without debugging”: Run the compiled code
    - Solution location: The folder (on your computer’s file system) that contains the solution, meaning all your code and the information needed to compile and run it

# C# Fundamentals

## Introduction to the C# Language

* C# is a managed language (as introduced in previous lecture)
  + Write in a high-level language, compile to intermediate language, run intermediate language in interpreter
  + Intermediate language is called CIL (Common Intermediate Language)
  + Interpreter is called .NET Runtime
  + Standard library is called .NET Framework, comes with the compiler and runtime
* It is widespread and popular
  + It was the first in the list of [“3 Future Programming Languages You Should Learn Between 2022 and 2030”](https://betterprogramming.pub/3-future-programming-languages-you-should-learn-between-2022-and-2030-8a618a15eca6), because of the growing popularity of [Unity](https://unity.com/).
  + [8th most “loved” language on StackOverflow](https://insights.stackoverflow.com/survey/2020#technology-most-loved-dreaded-and-wanted-languages-loved)
  + .NET is the [2nd most used “other” library/framework](https://insights.stackoverflow.com/survey/2020#technology-other-frameworks-libraries-and-tools)
  + More insights on its evolution can be found [in this blog post](https://dottutorials.net/stats-surveys-about-net-core-future-2020/#stackoverflow-surveys).

## The Object-Oriented Paradigm

* C# is called an “object-oriented” language
  + Programming languages have different *paradigms*: philosophies for organizing code, expressing ideas
  + Object-oriented is one such paradigm, C# uses it
  + Meaning of object-oriented: Program mostly consists of *objects*, which are reusable modules of code
  + Each object contains some data (*attributes*) and some functions related to that data (*methods*)
* Object-oriented terms
  + **Class**: A blueprint or template for an object. Code that defines what kind of data the object will contain and what operations (functions) you will be able to do with that data
  + **Object**: A single instance of a class, containing running code with specific values for the data. Each object is a separate “copy” based on the template given by the class.  
    Analogy: A *class* is like a floorplan while an *object* is the house build from the floorplan. Plus, you can make as many houses as you would like from a single floorplan.
  + **Attribute**: A piece of data stored in an object.  
    Example: A *House* class has a spot for a color property while an house object has a color (e.g. “Green”).
  + **Method**: A function that modifies an object. This code is part of the class, but when it runs, it modifies only a specific object and not the class.  
    Example: A *House* class with a method to change the house color. Using this method changes the color a single house object but doesn’t change the *House* class or the color on any other house objects.
* Examples:
  + A Car *Class*
    - Attributes: Color, engine status (on/off), gear position
    - Methods: Press gas or brake pedal, turn key on/off, shift transmission
  + A Car *Object*  
    Example: A *Porsche911* object that is Red, Engine On, and in 1st gear
  + An “Audio File” *Class* represents a song being played in a music player
    - Attributes: Sound wave data, current playback position, target speaker device
    - Methods: Play, pause, stop, fast-forward, rewind
  + An Audio File *Object*  
    Example: A *NeverGonnaGiveYouUp* object that is “rolled wave data”, 0:00, speaker01

## First Program

Here’s a simple “hello world” program in the C# language:

#### Hello World

/\* I'm a multi-line comment,  
 \* I can span over multiple lines!  
 \*/  
using System;  
  
class Program   
{  
 static void Main()   
 {  
 Console.WriteLine("Hello, world!"); // I'm an in-line comment.  
 }  
}

Features of this program:

* A multi-line comment: everything between the /\* and \*/ is considered a *comment*, i.e. text for humans to read. It will be ignored by the C# compiler and has no effect on the program.
* A using statement: This imports code definitions from the System *namespace*, which is part of the .NET Framework (the standard library).
  + In C#, code is organized into **namespaces**, which group related classes together
  + If you want to use code from a different namespace, you need a using statement to “import” that namespace
  + All the standard library code is in different namespaces from the code you will be writing, so you’ll need using statements to access it
* A class declaration
  + Syntax:
  + All code between opening { and closing } is part of the class named by the class [name] statement
* A method declaration
  + A collection of instructions with a name
  + Can be used by typing its name
  + A method is similar to a paragraph, in that it can contain multiple statements, and a class is similar to a chapter, in that it can have multiple methods within its body.
  + A C# program requires a method called Main, and, in our example, is followed by empty parentheses (we’ll get to those later, but they’re required)
  + Just like the class declaration, the body of the method beings with { and ends with }
* A statement inside the body of the method: Console.WriteLine("Hello, world!"); // I'm an in-line comment.
  + This is the part of the program that actually “does something”: It prints a line of text to the console
  + This statement contains a class name (Console), followed by a method name (WriteLine). It calls the WriteLine method in the Console class.
  + The **argument** to the WriteLine method is the text “Hello, world!”, which is in parentheses after the name of the method. This is the text that gets printed in the console: The WriteLine method (which is in the standard library) takes an argument and prints it to the console.
  + Note that the argument to WriteLine is inside double-quotes. This means it is a **string**, i.e. textual data, not a piece of C# code. The quotes are required in order to distinguish between text and code.
  + A statement *must* end in a semicolon (the class header and method header aren’t statements)
* An in-line comment: All the text from the // to the end of the line is considered a comment, and is ignored by the C# compiler.

## Rules of C# Syntax

* Each statement must end in a semicolon (;),
  + Exceptions:
    - opening { and closing } don’t end in a ;
    - Class and method declarations don’t end in a ; since they end in a } (Example: class Program { .... })
  + A method *contains* some statements, but it is not a statement
* All words are case-sensitive
  + A class named Program is not the same as one named program
  + A method named writeline is not the same as one named WriteLine
* Braces and parentheses must always be matched
  + Once you start a class or method definition with {, you must end it with }
* Whitespace – spaces, tabs, and newlines – has almost no meaning
  + There must be at least 1 space between words
  + Spaces are counted exactly if they are inside string data, e.g. "Hello world!"
  + Otherwise, entire program could be written on one line; it would have the same meaning
  + Spaces and new lines are just to help humans read the code
* All C# applications must have a Main method
  + Name must match exactly, otherwise .NET runtime will get confused
  + This is the first code to run when the application starts – any other code (in methods) will only run when its method is called

## Conventions of C# Programs

* Conventions: Not enforced by the compiler/language, but expected by humans
  + Program will still work if you break them, but other programmers will be confused
* Indentation
  + After a class or method declaration (header), put the opening { on a new line underneath it
  + Then indent the next line by 4 spaces, and all other lines “inside” the class or method body
  + De-indent by 4 spaces at end of method body, so ending } aligns vertically with opening {
  + Method definition inside class definition: Indent body of method by another 4 spaces
  + In general, any code between { and } should be indented by 4 spaces relative to the { and }
* Code files
  + C# code is stored in files that end with the extension “.cs”
  + Each “.cs” file contains exactly one class
  + The name of the file is the same as the name of the class (Program.cs contains class Program)

## Reserved Words and Identifiers

* Reserved words: Keywords in the C# language
  + Note they have a distinct color in the code sample and in Visual Studio
  + Built-in commands/features of the language
  + Can only be used for one specific purpose; meaning cannot be changed
  + Examples:
    - using
    - class
    - public
    - private
    - namespace
    - this
    - if
    - else
    - for
    - while
    - do
    - return
* Identifiers: Human-chosen names
  + Names for classes (Rectangle, ClassRoom, etc.), variables (age, name, etc.), methods (ComputeArea, GetLength, etc), namespaces, etc.
  + Some have already been chosen for the standard library (e.g. Console, WriteLine), but they are still identifiers, not keywords
  + Rules for identifiers:
    - Must not be a reserved word
    - Must contain only letters (a → Z), numbers (0 → 9), and underscore (\_)– no spaces
    - Must not begin with a number
    - Are case sensitive
    - Must be unique (you cannot re-use the same identifier twice in the same scope – a concept we will discuss later)
  + Conventions for identifiers
    - Should be descriptive, e.g. “AudioFile” or “userInput” not “a” or “x”
    - Should be easy for humans to read and type
    - If name is multiple words, use [CamelCase](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Camel_case) (or its variation [Pascal case](https://www.c-sharpcorner.com/UploadFile/8a67c0/C-Sharp-coding-standards-and-naming-conventions/)) to distinguish words
    - Class and method names should start with capitals, e.g. “class AudioFile”
    - Variable names should start with lowercase letters, then capitalize subsequent words, e.g. “myFavoriteNumber”

## Write and WriteLine

* The WriteLine method
  + We saw this in the “Hello World” program: Console.WriteLine("Hello World!"); results in “Hello World!” being displayed in the terminal
  + In general, Console.WriteLine("text"); will display the text but not the “’s in the terminal, then *start a new line*
  + This means a second Console.WriteLine will display its text on the next line of the terminal. For example, this program:
  + using System;  
      
    class Welcome  
    {  
     static void Main()  
     {  
     Console.WriteLine("Hello");  
     Console.WriteLine("World!");  
     }  
    }
  + will display the following output in the terminal:
  + Hello  
    World!
* Methods with multiple statements
  + Note that our two-line example has a Main method with multiple statements
  + In C#, each statement must end in a semicolon
  + Class and method declarations are not statements
  + Each line of code in your .cs file is not necessarily a statement
  + A single invocation/call of the WriteLine method is a statement
* The Write method
  + Console.WriteLine("text") prints the text, then starts a new line in the terminal – it effectively “hits enter” after printing the text
  + Console.Write("text") just prints the text, without starting a new line. It’s like typing the text without hitting “enter” afterwards.
  + Even though two Console.Write calls are two statements, and appear on two lines, they will result in the text being printed on just one line. For example, this program:
  + using System;  
      
    class Welcome  
    {  
     static void Main()  
     {  
     Console.Write("Hello");  
     Console.Write("World!");  
     }  
    }
  + will display the following output in the terminal:
  + HelloWorld!
  + Note that there is no space between “Hello” and “World!” because we didn’t type one in the argument to Console.Write
* Combining Write and WriteLine
  + We can use both WriteLine and Write in the same program
  + After a call to Write, the “cursor” is on the same line after the printed text; after a call to WriteLine the “cursor” is at the beginning of the next line
  + This program:
  + using System;  
      
    class Welcome  
    {  
     static void Main()  
     {  
     Console.Write("Hello ");  
     Console.WriteLine("World!");  
     Console.Write("Welcome to ");  
     Console.WriteLine("CSCI 1301!");  
     }  
    }
  + will display the following output in the terminal:
  + Hello world!  
    Welcome to CSCI 1301!

## Escape Sequences

* Explicitly writing a new line
  + So far we’ve used WriteLine when we want to create a new line in the output
  + The **escape sequence** \n can also be used to create a new line – it represents the “newline character,” which is what gets printed when you type “enter”
  + This program will produce the same output as our two-line “Hello World” example, with each word on its own line:
  + using System;  
      
    class Welcome  
    {  
     static void Main()  
     {  
     Console.Write("Hello\nWorld!\n");  
     }  
    }
* Escape sequences in detail
  + An **escape sequence** uses “normal” letters to represent “special”, hard-to-type characters
  + \n represents the newline character, i.e. the result of pressing “enter”
  + \t represents the tab character, which is a single extra-wide space (you usually get it by pressing the “tab” key)
  + \" represents a double-quote character that will get printed on the screen, rather than ending the text string in the C# code.
    - Without this, you couldn’t write a sentence with quotation marks in a Console.WriteLine, because the C# compiler would assume the quotation marks meant the string was ending
    - This program won’t compile because in quotes is not valid C# code, and the compiler thinks it is not part of the string:
    - class Welcome  
      {  
       static void Main()  
       {  
       Console.WriteLine("This is "in quotes"");  
       }  
      }
    - This program will display the sentence including the quotation marks:
    - using System;  
        
      class Welcome  
      {  
       static void Main()  
       {  
       Console.WriteLine("This is \"in quotes\"");  
       }  
      }
  + Note that all escape sequences begin with a backslash character (\)
  + General format is \[key letter] – the letter after the backslash is like a “keyword” indicating which special character to display
  + If you want to put an actual backslash in your string, you need the escape sequence \\, which prints a single backslash
    - This will result in a compile error because \U is not a valid escape sequence:
    - Console.WriteLine("Go to C:\Users\Edward");
    - This will display the path correctly:
    - Console.WriteLine("Go to C:\\Users\\Edward");

# Datatypes and Variables

## Datatype Basics

* Recall the basic structure of a program
  + Program receives input from some source, uses input to make decisions, produces output for the outside world to see
  + In other words, the program reads some data, manipulates data, and writes out new data
  + In C#, data is stored in objects during the program’s execution, and manipulated using the methods of those objects
* This data has **types**
  + Numbers (the number 2) are different from text (the word “two”)
  + Text data is called “strings” because each letter is a **character** and a word is a *string of characters*
  + Within “numeric data,” there are different types of numbers
    - Natural numbers (ℕ): 0, 1, 2, …
    - Integers (ℤ): … -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, …
    - Real numbers (ℝ): 0.5, 1.333333…, -1.4, etc.
* Basic Datatypes in C#
  + C# uses keywords to name the types of data
  + Text data:
    - string: a string of characters, like "Hello world!"
    - char: a single character, like 'e' or 't'
  + Numeric data:
    - int: An integer, as defined previously
    - uint: An *unsigned* integer, in other words, a natural number (positive integers only)
    - float: A “floating-point” number, which is a real number with a fractional part, such as 3.85
    - double: A floating-point number with “double precision” – also a real number, but capable of storing more significant figures
    - decimal: An “exact decimal” number – also a real number, but has fewer rounding errors than float and double (we’ll explore the difference later)

## Literals and Variables

* Literals and their types
  + A **literal** is a data value written in the code
  + A form of “input” provided by the programmer rather than the user; its value is fixed throughout the program’s execution
  + Literal data must have a type, indicated by syntax:
    - string literal: text in double quotes, like "hello"
    - char literal: a character in single quotes, like 'a'
    - int literal: a number without a decimal point, with or without a minus sign (e.g. 52)
    - long literal: just like an int literal but with the suffix l or L, e.g. 4L
    - double literal: a number with a decimal point, with or without a minus sign (e.g. -4.5)
    - float literal: just like a double literal but with the suffix f or F (for “float”), e.g. 4.5f
    - decimal literal: just like a double literal but with the suffix m or M(for “deciMal”), e.g. 6.01m
* Variables overview
  + Variables store data that can *vary* (change) during the program’s execution
  + They have a type, just like literals, and also a name
  + You can use literals to write data that gets stored in variables
  + Sample program with variables:
  + using System;  
      
    class MyFirstVariables  
    {  
     static void Main()  
     {  
     // Declaration  
     int myAge;  
     string myName;  
     // Assignment  
     myAge = 29;  
     myName = "Edward";  
     // Displaying  
     Console.WriteLine($"My name is {myName} and I am {myAge} years old.");  
     }  
    }
  + This program shows three major operations you can do with variables.
    - First it **declares** two variables, an int-type variable named “myAge” and a string-type variable named “myName”
    - Then, it **assigns** values to each of those variables, using literals of the same type. myAge is assigned the value 29, using the int literal 29, and myName is assigned the value “Edward”, using the string literal "Edward"
    - Finally, it **displays** the current value of each variable by using the Console.WriteLine method and **string interpolation**, in which the values of variables are inserted into a string by writing their names with some special syntax (a $ character at the beginning of the string, and braces around the variable names)

## Variable Operations

* Declaration
  + This is when you specify the *name* of a variable and its *type*
  + Syntax: type\_keyword variable\_name;
  + Examples: int myAge;, string myName;, double winChance;
  + A variable name is an identifier, so it should follow the rules and conventions
    - Can only contain letters and numbers
    - Must be unique among all variable, method, and class names
    - Should use CamelCase if it contains multiple words
  + Note that the variable’s type is not part of its name: two variables cannot have the same name *even if* they are different types
  + Multiple variables can be declared in the same statement: string myFirstName, myLastName; would declare *two* strings called respectively myFirstName and myLastName.
* Assignment
  + The act of changing the value of a variable
  + Uses the symbol =, which is the *assignment operator*, not a statement of equality – it does not mean “equals”
  + Direction of assignment is **right to left**: the variable goes on the left side of the = symbol, and its new value goes on the right
  + Syntax: variable\_name = value;
  + Example: myAge = 29;
  + Value *must* match the type of the variable. If myAge was declared as an int-type variable, you cannot write myAge = "29"; because "29" is a string
* Initialization (Declaration + Assignment)
  + Initialization statement combines declaration and assignment in one line (it’s just a shortcut, not a new operation)
  + Creates a new variable and also gives it an initial value
  + Syntax: type variable\_name = value;
  + Example: string myName = "Edward";
  + Can only be used once per variable, since you can only declare a variable once
* Assignment Details
  + Assignment replaces the “old” value of the variable with a “new” one; it’s how variables *vary*
    - If you initialize a variable with int myAge = 29; and then write myAge = 30;, the variable myAge now store the value 30
  + You can assign a variable to another variable: just write a variable name on both sides of the = operator
    - This will take a “snapshot” of the current value of the variable on the right side, and store it into the variable on the left side
    - For example, in this code:
    - int a = 12;  
      int b = a;  
      a = -5;
    - the variable b gets the value 12, because that’s the value that a had when the statement int b = a was executed. Even though a was then changed to -5 afterward, b is still 12.
* Displaying
  + Only text (strings) can be displayed in the console
  + When we want to print a mixture of text and variables with Console.WriteLine, we need to convert all of them to a string
  + **String interpolation**: a mechanism for converting a variable’s value to a string and inserting it into the main string
    - Syntax: $"text {variable} text" – begin with a $ symbol, then put variable’s name inside brackets within the string
    - Example: $"I am {myAge} years old"
    - When this line of code is executed, it reads the variable’s current value, converts it to a string (29 becomes "29"), and inserts it into the surrounding string
    - Displayed: I am 29 years old
  + If the argument to Console.WriteLine is the name of a variable, it will automatically convert that variable to a string before displaying it
  + For example, Console.WriteLine(myAge); will display “29” in the console, as if we had written Console.WriteLine($"{myAge}");
  + When string interpolation converts a variable to a string, it must call a “string conversion” method supplied with the data type (int, double, etc.). All built-in C# datatypes come with string conversion methods, but when you write your own data types (classes), you’ll need to write your own string conversions – string interpolation won’t magically “know” how to convert MyClass variables to strings

On a final note, observe that you can write statements mixing multiple declarations and assignments, as in int myAge = 10, yourAge, ageDifference; that declares three variables of type int and set the value of the first one. It is generally recommended to separate those instructions in different statements as you begin, to ease debugging and have a better understanding of the “atomic steps” your program should perform.

## Format Specifiers

* Formats for displaying numbers
  + There are lots of possible ways to display a number, especially a fraction (how many decimal places to use?)
  + String interpolation has a default way to format numbers, but it might not always be the best
  + For example, consider this program:
  + decimal price = 19.99m;  
    decimal discount = 0.25m;  
    decimal salePrice = price – discount \* price;  
    Console.WriteLine($"{price} with a discount of " +  
     $"{discount} is {salePrice}");
  + It will display this output:
  + 19.99 with a discount of 0.25 is 14.9925
  + But this isn’t the best way to display prices and discounts. Obviously, the prices should have dollar signs, but also, it doesn’t make sense to show a price with fractional cents (14.9925) – it should be rounded to two decimal places. You might also prefer to display the discount as 25% instead of 0.25, since people usually think of discounts as percentages.
* Improving interpolation with format specifiers
  + You can change how numbers are displayed by adding a format specifier to a variable’s name in string interpolation
  + **Format specifier**: A special letter indicating how a numeric value should be converted to a string
  + General format is {[variable]:[format specifier]}, e.g. {numVar:N}
  + Common format specifiers:

| * + Format specifier | * + Description |
| --- | --- |
| * + N or n | * + Adds a thousands separator, displays 2 decimal places (by default) |
| * + E or e | * + Uses scientific notation, displays 6 decimal places (by default) |
| * + C or c | * + Formats as currency: Adds a currency symbol, adds thousands separator, displays 2 decimal places (by default) |
| * + P or p | * + Formats as percentage with 2 decimal places (by default) |

* + Example usage with our “discount” program:
  + decimal price = 19.99m;  
    decimal discount = 0.25m;  
    decimal salePrice = price – discount \* price;  
    Console.WriteLine($"{price:C} with a discount of " +  
     $"{discount:P} is {salePrice:C}");
  + will display
  + $19.99 with a discount of 25.00% is $14.99
* Format specifiers with custom rounding
  + Each format specifier uses a default number of decimal places, but you can change this with a precision specifier
  + **Precision specifier**: A number added after a format specifier indicating how many digits past the decimal point to display
  + Format is {[variable]:[format specifier][precision specifier]}, e.g. {numVar:N3}. Note there is no space or other symbol between the format specifier and the precision specifier, and the number can be more than one digit ({numVar:N12} is valid)
  + Examples:
    - Given the declarations
    - double bigNumber = 1537963.666;  
      decimal discount = 0.1337m;
    - Console.WriteLine($"{bigNumber:N}"); will display 1,537,963.67
    - Console.WriteLine($"{bigNumber:N3}"); will display 1,537,963.666
    - Console.WriteLine($"{bigNumber:N1}"); will display 1,537,963.7
    - Console.WriteLine($"{discount:P1}"); will display 13.4%
    - Console.WriteLine($"{discount:P4}"); will display 13.3700%

## Variables in Memory

* A variable names a memory location
  + Data is stored in memory (RAM), so a variable “stores data” by storing it in memory
  + Declaring a variable reserves a memory location (address) and gives it a name
  + Assigning to a variable stores data to the memory location (address) named by that variable
* Numeric datatypes have different sizes
  + Amount of memory used/reserved by each variable depends on the variable’s type
  + Amount of memory needed for an integer data type depends on the size of the number
    - int uses 4 bytes of memory, can store numbers in the range
    - long uses 8 bytes of memory can store numbers in the range
    - short uses 2 bytes of memory, can store numbers in the range
    - sbyte uses only 1 bytes of memory, can store numbers in the range
  + Unsigned versions of the integer types use the same amount of memory, but can store larger positive numbers
    - byte uses 1 byte of memory, can store numbers in the range
    - ushort uses 2 bytes of memory, can store numbers in the range
    - uint uses 4 bytes of memory, can store numbers in the range
    - ulong uses 8 bytes of memory, can store numbers in the range
    - This is because in a signed integer, one bit (digit) of the binary number is needed to represent the sign (+ or -). This means the actual number stored must be 1 bit smaller than the size of the memory (e.g. 31 bits out of the 32 bits in 4 bytes). In an unsigned integer, there is no “sign bit”, so all the bits can be used for the number.
  + Amount of memory needed for a floating-point data type depends on the precision (significant figures) of the number
    - float uses 4 bytes of memory, can store positive or negative numbers in a range of approximately , with 7 significant figures of precision
    - double uses 8 bytes of memory, and has both a wider range ( to ) and more significant figures (15 or 16)
    - decimal uses 16 bytes of memory, and has 28 or 29 significant figures of precision, but it actually has the smallest range ( to ) because it stores decimal fractions exactly
  + Difference between binary fractions and decimal fractions
    - float and double store their data as binary (base 2) fractions, where each digit represents a power of 2
      * The binary number 101.01 represents , or 5.25 in base 10
    - More specifically, they use binary scientific notation: A mantissa (a binary integer), followed by an exponent assumed to be a power of 2, which is applied to the mantissa
      * 10101e-10 means a mantissa of 10101 (i.e. 21 in base 10) with an exponent of -10 (i.e.  in base 10), which also produces the value 101.01 or 5.25 in base 10
    - Binary fractions can’t represent all base-10 fractions, because they can only represent fractions that are negative powers of 2. is not a negative power of 2 and can’t be represented as a sum of , , , etc.
    - This means some base-10 fractions will get “rounded” to the nearest finite binary fraction, and this will cause errors when they are used in arithmetic
    - On the other hand, decimal stores data as a base-10 fraction, using base-10 scientific notation
    - This is slower for the computer to calculate with (since computers work only in binary) but has no “rounding errors” with fractions that include 0.1
    - Use decimal when working with money (since money uses a lot of 0.1 and 0.01 fractions), double when working with non-money fractions

**Summary of numeric data types and sizes:**

| Type | Size | Range of Values | Precision |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| sbyte | 1 bytes |  | N/A |
| byte | 1 bytes |  | N/A |
| short | 2 bytes |  | N/A |
| ushort | 2 bytes |  | N/A |
| int | 4 bytes |  | N/A |
| uint | 4 bytes |  | N/A |
| long | 8 bytes |  | N/A |
| ulong | 8 bytes |  | N/A |
| float | 4 bytes |  | 7 digits |
| double | 8 bytes |  | 15-16 digits |
| decimal | 16 bytes |  | 28-29 digits |

* Value and reference types: different ways of storing data in memory
  + Variables name memory locations, but the data that gets stored at the named location is different for each type
  + For a **value type** variable, the named memory location stores the exact data value held by the variable (just what you’d expect)
  + Value types: all the numeric types (int, float, double, decimal, etc.), char, and bool
  + For a **reference type** variable, the named memory location stores a *reference* to the data, not the data itself
    - The contents of the memory location named by the variable are the address of another memory location
    - The *other* memory location is where the variable’s data is stored
    - To get to the data, the computer first reads the location named by the variable, then uses that information (the memory address) to find and read the other memory location where the data is stored
  + Reference types: string, object, and all objects you create from your own classes
  + Assignment works differently for reference types
    - Assignment always copies the value in the variable’s named memory location - but in the case of a reference type that’s just a memory address, not the data
    - Assigning one reference-type variable to another copies the memory address, so now both variables “refer to” the same data
    - Example:
    - string word = "Hello";  
      string word2 = word;
    - Both word and word2 contain the same memory address, pointing to the same memory location, which contains the string “Hello”. There is only one copy of the string “Hello”; word2 doesn’t get its own copy.

## Overflow 🛡

* Assume a car has a 4-digit odometer, and currently, it shows 9999. What does the odometer show if you drive the car another mile? As you might guess, it shows 0000 while it should show 10000. The reason is the odometer does not have a counter for the fifth digit. Similarly, in C#, when you do arithmetic operations on integral data, the result may not fit in the corresponding data type. This situation is called an **overflow** error.
* In an unsigned data type variable with bits, we can store the numbers from 0 to . In signed data type variables, the high order bit represents the sign of the number as follows:
  + 0 means zero or a positive value
  + 1 means a negative value
* With the remaining bits, we can represent values. Hence, considering the sign bit, we can store a number from to in the variable.
* In some programming languages like C and C++, overflow errors cause undefined behavior, and can crash your program. In C#, however, the extra bits are just ignored, and the program will continue executing even though the value in the variable may not make sense. If the programmer is not careful to check for the possibility of overflow errors, they can lead to unwanted program behavior and even severe security problems.
* For example, assume a company gives loans to its employee. Couples working for the company can get loans separately, but the total amount cannot exceed $10,000. The following program looks like it checks loan requests to ensure they are below the limit, but it can be attacked using an overflow error. (This program uses notions you have not studied yet, but that should not prevent you from reading the source code and executing it.)
* using System;  
    
  class Program  
  {  
   static void Main()  
   {  
   uint n1, n2;  
    
   Console.WriteLine("Enter the requested loan amount for the first person:");  
   n1 = uint.Parse(Console.ReadLine());  
    
   Console.WriteLine("Enter the requested loan amount for the second person:");  
   n2 = uint.Parse(Console.ReadLine());  
    
   if(n1 + n2 < 10000)  
   {  
   Console.WriteLine($"Pay ${n1} to the first person");  
   Console.WriteLine($"Pay ${n2} to the second person");  
   }  
   else  
   {  
   Console.WriteLine("Error: the sum of the loans exceeds the maximum allowance.");  
   }  
   }  
  }
* If the user enters 2 and 4,294,967,295, we expect to see the error message (“Error: the sum of loans exceeds the maximum allowance.”). However, this is not what will happen, and the request will be accepted even though it should not have. The reason can be explained as follows:
  + uint is a 32-bit data type.
  + The binary representation of 2 and 4,294,967,295 are 00000000000000000000000000000010 and 11111111111111111111111111111111.
  + Therefore, the sum of these numbers should be 100000000000000000000000000000001, which needs 33 bits.
  + Nevertheless, there are only 32 bits available for the result, and the extra bits will be dropped, so the result will be 00000000000000000000000000000001. This is less than 10,000, so the program will conclude that the sum of the loan values is less than 10,000.

## Underflow 🛡

* Sometimes, the result of arithmetic operations over floating-point numbers is smaller than the minimum value that can be stored in the corresponding data type. This problem is known as the **underflow** problem.
* In C#, in case of an underflow, the result will be zero.
* For example, the smallest value that can be stored in a float variable is . If we attempt to divide this value by 10, the variable will get the value 0, not :
* using System;  
    
  class Program  
  {  
   static void Main()  
   {  
   float myNumber;  
   myNumber = 1E-45f;  
   Console.WriteLine(myNumber); //outputs 1.401298E-45  
   myNumber = myNumber / 10;  
   Console.WriteLine(myNumber); //outputs 0  
   myNumber = myNumber \* 10;  
   Console.WriteLine(myNumber); //outputs 0  
   myNumber = (1E-45f / 10) \* 10;  
   Console.WriteLine(myNumber); //outputs 0  
   }  
  }
* An underflow error can result in “losing” data in the middle of a series of operations: even if you immediately multiply by 10 again, the intermediate result was less than , so the final result is still 0.

# Operators

## Arithmetic Operators

Variables can be used to do math. All the usual arithmetic operations are available in C#:

| Operation | C# Operator | C# Expression |
| --- | --- | --- |
| Addition | + | myVar + 7 |
| Subtraction | - | myVar - 7 |
| Multiplication | \* | myVar \* 7 |
| Division | / | myVar / 7 |
| Remainder (a.k.a. modulo) | % | myVar % 7 |

Note: the “remainder” or “modulo” operator represents the remainder after doing integer division between its two operands.  
For example, 44 % 7 = 2 because 44/7 = 6 when rounded down, then do 7\*6 to get 42 and 44 - 42 = 2.

* Arithmetic and variables
  + The result of an arithmetic expression (like those shown in the table) is a numeric value
    - For example, the C# expression 3 \* 4 has the value 12, which is int data
  + A numeric value can be assigned to a variable of the same type, just like a literal: int myVar = 3 \* 4; initializes the variable myVar to contain the value 12
  + A numeric-type variable can be used in an arithmetic expression
  + When a variable is used in an arithmetic expression, its current value is read, and the math is done on that value
  + Example:
  + int a = 4;  
    int b = a + 5;  
    a = b \* 2;
    - To execute the second line of the code, the computer will first evaluate the expression on the right side of the = sign. It reads the value of the variable a, which is 4, and then computes the result of 4 + 5, which is 9. Then, it assigns this value to the variable b (remember assignment goes right to left).
    - To execute the third line of code, the computer first evaluates the expression on the right side of the = sign, which means reading the value of b to use in the arithmetic operation. b contains 9, so the expression is 9 \* 2, which evaluates to 18. Then it assigns the value 18 to the variable a, which now contains 18 instead of 4.
  + A variable can appear on both sides of the = sign, like this:
  + int myVar = 4;  
    myVar = myVar \* 2;
  + This looks like a paradox because myVar is assigned to itself, but it has a clear meaning because assignment is evaluated right to left. When executing the second line of code, the computer evaluates the right side of the = before doing the assignment. So it first reads the current (“old”) value of myVar, which is 4, and computes 4 \* 2 to get the value 8. Then, it assigns the new value to myVar, overwriting its old value.
* Compound assignment operators
  + The pattern of “compute an expression with a variable, then assign the result to that variable” is common, so there are shortcuts for doing it
  + The **compound assignment operators** change the value of a variable by adding, subtracting, etc. from its current value, equivalent to an assignment statement that has the value on both sides:

| * Statement | * Equivalent |
| --- | --- |
| * x += 2; | * x = x + 2; |
| * x -= 2; | * x = x - 2; |
| * x \*= 2; | * x = x \* 2; |
| * x /= 2; | * x = x / 2; |
| * x %= 2; | * x = x % 2; |

## Implicit and Explicit Conversions Between Datatypes

* Assignments from different types
  + The “proper” way to initialize a variable is to assign it a literal of the same type:
  + int myAge = 29;  
    double myHeight = 1.77;  
    float radius = 2.3f;
  + Note that 1.77 is a double literal, while 2.3f is a float literal
  + If the literal is not the same type as the variable, you will sometimes get an error – for example, float radius = 2.3 will result in a compile error – but sometimes, it appears to work fine: for example float radius = 2; compiles and runs without error even though 2 is an int value.
  + In fact, the value being assigned to the variable **must** be the same type as the variable, but some types can be **implicitly converted** to others
* Implicit conversions
  + Implicit conversion allows variables to be assigned from literals of the “wrong” type: the literal value is first implicitly converted to the right type
    - In the statement float radius = 2;, the int value 2 is implicitly converted to an equivalent float value, 2.0f. Then the computer assigns 2.0f to the radius variable.
  + Implicit conversion also allows variables to be assigned from other variables that have a different type:
  + int length = 2;  
    float radius = length;
* When the computer executes the second line of this code, it reads the variable length to get an int value 2. It then implicitly converts that value to 2.0f, and then assigns 2.0f to the float-type variable radius.
  + Implicit conversion only works between *some* data types: a value will only be implicitly converted if it is “safe” to do so without losing data
  + Summary of possible implicit conversions:

| * + Type | * + Possible Implicit Conversions |
| --- | --- |
| * + short | * + int, long, float, double, decimal |
| * + int | * + long, float, double, decimal |
| * + long | * + float, double, decimal |
| * + ushort | * + uint, int, ulong, long, decimal, float, double |
| * + uint | * + ulong, long, decimal, float, double |
| * + ulong | * + decimal, float, double |
| * + float | * + double |

* + In general, a data type can only be implicitly converted to one with a *larger range* of possible values
  + Since an int can store any integer between and , but a float can store any integer between and (as well as fractional values), it’s always safe to store an int value in a float
  + You *cannot* implicitly convert a float to an int because an int stores fewer values than a float – it can’t store fractions – so converting a float to an int will **lose data**
  + Note that all integer data types can be implicitly converted to float or double
  + Each integer data type can be implicitly converted to a larger integer type: short int long
  + Unsigned integer data types can be implicitly converted to a *larger* signed integer type, but not the *same* signed integer type: uint long, but **not** uint int
    - This is because of the “sign bit”: a uint can store larger values than an int because it doesn’t use a sign bit, so converting a large uint to an int might lose data
* Explicit conversions
  + Any conversion that is “unsafe” because it might lose data will not happen automatically: you get a compile error if you assign a double variable to a float variable
  + If you want to do an unsafe conversion anyway, you must perform an **explicit conversion** with the **cast operator**
  + Cast operator syntax: ([type name]) [variable or value] – the cast is “right-associative”, so it applies to the variable to the right of the type name
  + Example: (float) 2.8 or (int) radius
  + Explicit conversions are often used when you (the programmer) know the conversion is actually “safe” – data won’t actually be lost
    - For example, in this code, we know that 2.886 is within the range of a float, so it’s safe to convert it to a float:
    - float radius = (float) 2.886;
    - The variable radius will be assigned the value 2.886f.
    - For example, in this code, we know that 2.0 is safe to convert to an int because it has no fractional part:
    - double length = 2.0;  
      int height = (int) length;
    - The variable height will be assigned the value 2.
  + Explicit conversions only work if there exists code to perform the conversion, usually in the standard library. The cast operator isn’t “magic” – it just calls a method that is defined to convert one type of data (e.g. double) to another (e.g. int).
    - All the C# numeric types have explicit conversions to each other defined
    - string does not have explicit conversions defined, so you cannot write int myAge = (int) "29";
  + If the explicit conversion is truly unsafe (will lose data), data is lost in a specific way
    - Casting from floating-point (e.g. double) types to integer types: fractional part of number is *truncated* (ignored/dropped)
    - In int length = (int) 2.886;, the value 2.886 is truncated to 2 by the cast to int, so the variable length gets the value 2.
    - Casting from more-precise to less-precise floating point type: number is *rounded* to nearest value that fits in less-precise type:
    - decimal myDecimal = 123456789.999999918m;  
      double myDouble = (double) myDecimal;  
      float myFloat = (float) myDouble;
    - In this code, myDouble gets the value 123456789.99999993, while myFloat gets the value 123456790.0f, as the original decimal value is rounded to fit types with fewer significant figures of precision.
    - Casting from a larger integer to a smaller integer: the most significant *bits* are truncated – remember that numbers are stored in binary format
    - This can cause weird results, since the least-significant *bits* of a number in binary don’t correspond to the least significant *digits* of the equivalent base-10 number
    - Casting from another floating point type to decimal: Either value is stored precisely (no rounding), or *program crashes* with System.OverflowException if value is larger than decimal’s maximum value:
    - decimal fromSmall = (decimal) 42.76875;  
      double bigDouble = 2.65e35;  
      decimal fromBig = (decimal) bigDouble;
    - In this code, fromSmall will get the value 42.76875m, but the program will crash when attempting to cast bigDouble to a decimal because is larger than decimal’s maximum value of
    - decimal is more precise than the other two floating-point types (thus doesn’t need to round), but has a smaller range (only , vs. )

Summary of implicit and explicit conversions for the numeric datatypes:

“Implicit and Explicit Conversion Between Datatypes”

“Implicit and Explicit Conversion Between Datatypes”

Refer to [the “Result Type of Operations” chart from the cheatsheet](../datatypes_in_csharp.html#result-type-of-operations) for more detail.

## Arithmetic on Mixed Data Types

* Math operators for each data type
  + The math operators (+, -, \*, /) are defined separately for each data type: There is an int version of + that adds ints, a float version of + that adds floats, etc.
  + Each operator expects to get two values of the same type on each side, and produces a result of that same type. For example, 2.25 + 3.25 uses the double version of +, which adds the two double values to produce a double-type result, 5.5.
  + Most operators have the same effect regardless of their type, except for /
  + The int/short/long version of / does **integer division**, which returns only the quotient and drops the remainder: In the statement int result = 21 / 5;, the variable result gets the value 4, because is 4 with a remainder of 1. If you want the fractional part, you need to use the floating-point version (for float, double, and decimal): double fracDiv = 21.0 / 5.0; will initialize fracDiv to 4.2.
* Implicit conversions in math
  + If the two operands/arguments to a math operator are not the same type, they must become the same type – one must be converted
  + C# will first try implicit conversion to “promote” a less-precise or smaller value to a more precise, larger type
  + Example: with the expression double fracDiv = 21 / 2.4;
    - Operand types are int and double
    - int is smaller/less-precise than double
    - 21 gets implicitly converted to 21.0, a double value
    - Now the operands are both double type, so the double version of the / operator gets executed
    - The result is 8.75, a double value, which gets assigned to the variable fracDiv
  + Implicit conversion also happens in assignment statements, which happen *after* the math expression is computed
  + Example: with the expression double fraction = 21 / 5;
    - Operand types are int and int
    - Since they match, the int version of / gets executed
    - The result is 4, an int value
    - Now this value is assigned to the variable fraction, which is double type
    - The int value is implicitly converted to the double value 4.0, and fraction is assigned the value 4.0
* Explicit conversions in math
  + If the operands are int type, the int version of / will get called, even if you assign the result to a double
  + You can “force” floating-point division by explicitly converting one operand to double or float
  + Example:
  + int numCookies = 21;  
    int numPeople = 6;  
    double share = (double) numCookies / numPeople;
  + Without the cast, share would get the value 3.0 because numCookies and numPeople are both int type (just like the fraction example above). With the cast, numCookies is converted to the value 21.0 (a double), which means the operands are no longer the same type. This will cause numPeople to be implicitly converted to double in order to make them match, and the double version of / will get called to evaluate 21.0 / 6.0. The result is 3.5, so share gets assigned 3.5.
  + You might also *need* a cast to ensure the operands are the same type, if implicit conversion doesn’t work
  + Example:
  + decimal price = 3.89;  
    double shares = 47.75;  
    decimal total = price \* (decimal) shares;
  + In this code, double can’t be implicitly converted to decimal, and decimal can’t be explicitly converted to double, so the multiplication price \* shares would produce a compile error. We need an explicit cast to decimal to make both operands the same type (decimal).

## Order of Operations

* Math operations in C# follow PEMDAS from math class: Parentheses, Exponents, Multiplication, Division, Addition, Subtraction
  + Multiplication/division are evaluated together, as are addition/subtraction
  + Expressions are evaluated left-to-right
  + Example: int x = 4 = 10 \* 3 - 21 / 2 - (3 + 3);
    - Parentheses: (3 + 3) is evaluated, returns 6
    - Multiplication/Division: 10 \* 3 is evaluated to produce 30, then 21 / 2 is evaluated to produce 10 (left-to-right)
    - Addition/Subtraction: 4 + 30 - 10 - 6 is evaluated, result is 18
* Cast operator is higher priority than all binary operators
  + Example: double share = (double) numCookies / numPeople;
    - Cast operator is evaluated first, converts numCookies to a double
    - Division is evaluated next, but operand types don’t match
    - numPeople is implicitly converted to double to make operand types match
    - Then division is evaluated, result is 21.0 / 6.0 = 3.5
* Parentheses always increase priority, even with casts
  + An expression in parentheses gets evaluated before the cast “next to” it
  + Example:
  + int a = 5, b = 4;  
    double result = (double) (a / b);
  + The expression in parentheses gets evaluated first, then the result has the (double) cast applied to it. That means a / b is evaluated to produce 1, since a and b are both int type, and then that result is cast to a double, producing 1.0.

# Reading Input, Displaying Output, and Concatenation

## Reading Input from the User

* Input and output in CLI
  + Our programs use a command-line interface, where input and output come from text printed in a “terminal” or “console”
  + We’ve already seen that Console.WriteLine prints text from your program on the screen to provide output to the user
  + The equivalent method for reading input is Console.ReadLine(), which waits for the user to type some text in the console and then returns it to your program
  + In general, the Console class represents the command-line interface
* Using Console.ReadLine()
  + Example usage:
  + using System;  
      
    class PersonalizedWelcomeMessage  
    {  
     static void Main()  
     {  
     string firstName;  
     Console.WriteLine("Enter your first name:");  
     firstName = Console.ReadLine();  
     Console.WriteLine($"Welcome, {firstName}!");  
     }  
    }
  + This program first declares a string variable named firstName. On the second line, it uses Console.WriteLine to display a message (instructions for the user). On the third line, it calls the Console.ReadLine() method, and assigns its return value (result) to the firstName variable. This means the program waits for the user to type some text and press “Enter”, and then stores that text in firstName. Finally, the program uses string interpolation in Console.WriteLine to display a message including the contents of the firstName variable.
  + Console.ReadLine is the “inverse” of Console.WriteLine, and the way you use it is also the “inverse”
  + While Console.WriteLine takes an argument, which is the text you want to display on the screen, Console.ReadLine() takes no arguments because it doesn’t need any input from your program – it will always do the same thing
  + Console.WriteLine has no “return value” - it doesn’t give any output back to your program, and the only effect of calling it is that text is displayed on the screen
  + Console.ReadLine() does have a return value, specifically a string. This means you can use the result of this method to assign a string variable, just like you can use the result of an arithmetic expression to assign a numeric variable.
  + The string that Console.ReadLine() returns is **one line of text** typed in the console. When you call it, the computer will wait for the user to type some text and then press “Enter”, and everything the user typed before pressing “Enter” gets returned from Console.ReadLine()
* Parsing user input
  + Console.ReadLine() always returns the same type of data, a string, regardless of what the user enters
    - If you ask the user to enter a number, ReadLine will output that number as a string
    - For example, if you ask the user to enter his/her age, and the user enters 21, Console.ReadLine() will return the string "21"
  + If we want to do any kind of arithmetic with a number provided by the user, we will need to convert that string to a numeric type like int or double. Remember that casting cannot be used to convert numeric data *to or from* string data.
  + When converting numeric data to string data, we use string interpolation:
  + int myAge = 29;  
    //This does not work:  
    //string strAge = (string) myAge;  
    string strAge = $"{myAge}";
  + In the other direction, we use a method called Parse to convert strings to numbers:
  + string strAge = "29";  
    //This does not work:  
    //int myAge = (int) strAge;  
    int myAge = int.Parse(strAge);
  + The int.Parse method takes a string as an argument, and returns an int containing the numeric value written in that string
  + Each built-in numeric type has its own Parse method
    - int.Parse("42") returns the value 42
    - long.Parse("42") returns the value 42L
    - double.Parse("3.65") returns the value 3.65
    - float.Parse("3.65") returns the value 3.65f
    - decimal.Parse("3.65") returns the value 3.65m
  + The Parse methods are useful for converting user input to useable data. For example, this is how to get the user’s age as an int:
  + Console.WriteLine("Enter your age:");  
    string ageString = Console.ReadLine();  
    int age = int.Parse(ageString);
* More detail on the Parse methods
  + Console.WriteLine is a method that takes input from your program, in the form of an argument, but does not return any output. Meanwhile, Console.ReadLine is a method that does not have any arguments, but it returns output to your program (the user’s string).
  + int.Parse is a method that both takes input (the string argument) and returns output (the converted int value)
  + When executing a statement such as
  + int answer = int.Parse("42");
  + the computer must evaluate the expression on the right side of the = operator before it can do the assignment. This means it calls the int.Parse method with the string "42" as input. The method’s code then runs, converting "42" to an integer, and it returns a result, the int value 42. This value can now be assigned to the variable answer.
  + Since the return value of a Parse method is a numeric type, it can be used in arithmetic expressions just like a numeric-type variable or literal. For example, in this statement:
  + double result = double.Parse("3.65") \* 4;
  + To evaluate the expression on the right side of the = operator, the computer must first call the method double.Parse with the input "3.65". Then the method’s return value, 3.65, is used the math operation as if it was written 3.65 \* 4. So the computer implicitly converts 4 to a double value, performs the multiplication on doubles, and gets the resulting value 14.6, which it assigns to the variable result.
  + Another example of using the result of Parse to do math:
  + Console.WriteLine("Please enter the year.");  
    string userInput = Console.ReadLine();  
    int curYear = int.Parse(userInput);  
    Console.WriteLine($"Next year it will be {curYear + 1}");
  + Note that in order to do arithmetic with the user’s input (i.e. add 1), it must be a numeric type (i.e. int), not a string. This is why we often call a Parse method on the data returned by Console.ReadLine().
  + The previous example can be made shorter and simpler by combining the Parse and ReadLine methods in one statement. Specifically, you can write:
  + int curYear = int.Parse(Console.ReadLine());
  + In this statement, the return value (output) of one method is used as the argument (input) to another method. When the computer executes the statement, it starts by evaluating the int.Parse(...) method call, but it cannot actually run the Parse method yet because its argument is an expression, not a variable or value. In order to determine what value to send to the Parse method as input, it must first evaluate the Console.ReadLine() method call. Since this method has no arguments, the computer can immediately start executing it; the ReadLine method waits for the user to type a line of text, then returns that text as a string value. This return value can now be used as the argument to int.Parse, and the computer starts executing int.Parse with the user-provided string as input. When the Parse method returns an int value, this value becomes the value of the entire expression int.Parse(Console.ReadLine()), and the computer assigns it to the variable curYear.
  + Notice that by placing the call to ReadLine inside the argument to Parse, we have eliminated the variable userInput entirely. The string returned by ReadLine doesn’t need to be stored anywhere (i.e. in a variable); it only needs to exist long enough to be sent to the Parse method as input.
* Correct input formatting
  + The Parse methods *assume* that the string they are given as an argument (i.e. the user input) actually contains a valid number. But the user may not follow directions, and invalid input can cause a variety of errors.
  + If the string does not contain a number at all – e.g. int badIdea = int.Parse("Hello"); – the program will fail with the error System.FormatException
  + If the string contains a number with a decimal point, but the Parse method is for an integer datatype, the program will also fail with System.FormatException. For example, int fromFraction = int.Parse("52.5"); will cause this error. This will happen even if the number in the string ends in “.0” (meaning it has no fractional part), such as int wholeNumber = int.Parse("45.0");.
  + If the string has extraneous text before or after the number, such as "$18.95" or 1999!, the program will fail with the error System.FormatException
  + If the string contains a number that cannot fit in the desired datatype (due to overflow or underflow), the behavior depends on the datatype:
    - For the integer types (int and long), the program will fail with the error System.OverflowException. For example, int.Parse("3000000000") will cause this error because 3000000000 is larger than (the maximum value an int can store).
    - For the floating-point types (float and double), no error will be produced. Instead, the result will be the same as if an overflow or underflow had occurred during normal program execution: an overflow will produce the value Infinity, and an underflow will produce the value 0. For example, float tooSmall = float.Parse("1.5e-55"); will assign tooSmall the value 0, while double tooBig = double.Parse("1.8e310"); will assign tooBig the value double.Infinity.
  + Acceptable string formats vary slightly between the numeric types, due to the different ranges of values they can contain
    - int.Parse and long.Parse will accept strings in the format ([ws])([sign])[digits]([ws]), where [ws] represents whitespace and groups in parentheses are **optional**. This means that a string with leading or trailing spaces will not cause an error, unlike a string with other extraneous text around the number.
    - decimal.Parse will accept strings in the format ([ws])([sign])([digits],)[digits](.[digits])([ws]). Note that you can optionally include commas between groups of digits, and the decimal point is also optional. This means a string like "18,999" is valid for decimal.Parse but not for int.Parse.
    - float.Parse and double.Parse will accept strings in the format ([ws])([sign])([digits],)[digits](.[digits])(e[sign][digits])([ws]). As with decimal, you can include commas between groups of digits. In addition, you can write the string in scientific notation with the letter “e” or “E” followed by an exponent, such as "-9.44e15".

## Output with Variables

* Converting from numbers to strings
  + As we saw in a previous lecture (Datatypes and Variables), the Console.WriteLine method needs a string as its argument
  + If the variable you want to display is not a string, you might think you could cast it to a string, but that won’t work – there is no explicit conversion from string to numeric types
    - This code:
    - double fraction = (double) 47 / 6;  
      string text = (string) fraction;
    - will produce a compile error
  + You *can* convert numeric data to a string using string interpolation, which we’ve used before in Console.WriteLine statements:
  + int x = 47, y = 6;  
    double fraction = (double) x / y;  
    string text = $"{x} divided by {y} is {fraction}";
  + After executing this code, text will contain “47 divided by 6 is 7.8333333”
  + String interpolation can convert any expression to a string, not just a single variable. For example, you can write:
  + Console.WriteLine($"{x} divided by {y} is {(double) x / y}");  
    Console.WriteLine($"{x} plus 7 is {x + 7}");
  + This will display the following output:
  + 47 divided by 6 is 7.8333333  
    47 plus 7 is 54
  + Note that writing a math expression inside a string interpolation statement does not change the values of any variables. After executing this code, x is still 47, and y is still 6.
* The ToString() method
  + String interpolation doesn’t “magically know” how to convert numbers to strings – it delegates the task to the numbers themselves
  + This works because all data types in C# are objects, even the built-in ones like int and double
    - Since they are objects, they can have methods
  + **All** objects in C# are guaranteed to have a method named ToString(), whose return value (result) is a string
  + Meaning of ToString() method: “Convert this object to a string, and return that string”
  + This means you can call the ToString() method on any variable to convert it to a string, like this:
  + int num = 42;  
    double fraction = 33.5;  
    string intText = num.ToString();  
    string fracText = fraction.ToString();
  + After executing this code, intText will contain the string “42”, and fracText will contain the string “33.5”
  + String interpolation calls ToString() on each variable or expression within braces, asking it to convert itself to a string
    - In other words, these three statements are all the same:
    - Console.WriteLine($"num is {num}");  
      Console.WriteLine($"num is {intText}");  
      Console.WriteLine($"num is {num.ToString()}");
    - Putting num within the braces is the same as calling ToString() on it.

## String Concatenation

* Now that we’ve seen ToString(), we can introduce another operator: the concatenation operator
* Concatenation basics
  + Remember, the + operator is defined separately for each data type. The “double + double” operator is different from the “int + int” operator.
  + If the operand types are string (i.e. string + string), the + operator performs concatenation, not addition
  + You can concatenate string literals or string variables:
  + string greeting = "Hi there, " + "John";  
    string name = "Paul";  
    string greeting2 = "Hi there, " + name;
  + After executing this code, greeting will contain “Hi there, John” and greeting2 will contain “Hi there, Paul”
* Concatenation with mixed types
  + Just like with the other operators, both operands (both sides of the +) must be the same type
  + If one operand is a string and the other is not a string, the ToString() method will automatically be called to convert it to a string
  + Example: In this code:
  + int bananas = 42;  
    string text = "Bananas: " + bananas;
  + The + operator has a string operand and an int operand, so the int will be converted to a string. This means the computer will call bananas.ToString(), which returns the string “42”. Then the string + string operator is called with the operands “Bananas:” and “42”, which concatenates them into “Bananas: 42”.
* Output with concatenation
  + We now have two different ways to construct a string for Console.WriteLine: Interpolation and concatenation
  + Concatenating a string with a variable will automatically call its ToString() method, just like interpolation will. These two WriteLine calls are equivalent:
  + int num = 42;  
    Console.WriteLine($"num is {num}");  
    Console.WriteLine("num is " + num);
  + It’s usually easier to use interpolation, since when you have many variables the + signs start to add up. Compare the length of these two equivalent lines of code:
  + Console.WriteLine($"The variables are {a}, {b}, {c}, {d}, and {e}");  
    Console.WriteLine("The variables are " + a + ", " + b + ", " + c + ", " + d + ", and " + e);
  + Be careful when using concatenation with numeric variables: the meaning of + depends on the types of its two operands
    - If both operands are numbers, the + operator does addition
    - If both operands are strings, the + operator does concatenation
    - If *one* argument is a string, the other argument will be converted to a string using ToString()
    - Expressions in C# are always evaluated **left-to-right**, just like arithmetic
    - Therefore, in this code:
    - int var1 = 6, var2 = 7;  
      Console.WriteLine(var1 + var2 + " is the result");  
      Console.WriteLine("The result is " + var1 + var2);
    - The first WriteLine will display “13 is the result”, because var1 and var2 are both ints, so the first + operator performs addition on two ints (the resulting number,13, is then converted to a string for the second + operator). However, the second WriteLine will display “The result is 67”, because both + operators perform concatenation: The first one concatenates a string with var1 to produce a string, and then the second one concatenates this string with var2
    - If you want to combine addition and concatenation in the same line of code, use parentheses to make the order and grouping of operations explicit. For example:
    - int var1 = 6, var2 = 7;  
      Console.WriteLine((var1 + var2) + " is the result");  
      Console.WriteLine("The result is " + (var1 + var2));
    - In this code, the parentheses ensure that var1 + var2 is always interpreted as addition.

# Classes, Objects, and UML

## Class and Object Basics

* Classes vs. Objects
  + A **class** is a specification, blueprint, or template for an object; it is the code that describes what data the object stores and what it can do
  + An **object** is a single instance of a class, created using its “template.” It is running code, with specific values stored in each variable
  + To **instantiate** an object is to create a new object from a class
* Object design basics
  + Objects have **attributes**: data stored in the object. This data is different in each instance, although the type of data is defined in the class.
  + Objects have **methods**: functions that use or modify the object’s data. The code for these functions is defined in the class, but it is executed on (and modifies) a specific object
* Encapsulation: An important principle in class/object design
  + Attribute data is stored in **instance variables**, a special kind of variable
  + Called “instance” because each instance, i.e. object, has its own copy of them
  + **Encapsulation** means instance variables (attributes) are “hidden” inside an object: other code cannot access them directly
    - Only the object’s own methods can access the instance variables
    - Other code must “ask permission” from the object in order to read or write the variables
  + **Accessor** method: a method written specifically to allow other code to access instance variables (i.e. attributes)

## Writing Our First Class

* Designing the class
  + Our first class will be used to represent rectangles; each instance (object) will represent one rectangle
  + Attributes of a rectangle:
    - Length
    - Width
  + Methods that will use the rectangle’s attributes
    - Get length
    - Get width
    - Set length
    - Set width
    - Compute the rectangle’s area
  + Note that the first four are **accessor** methods because they allow other code to read (get) or write (set) the rectangle’s instance variables

The Rectangle class:

class Rectangle  
{  
 private int length;  
 private int width;  
  
 public void SetLength(int lengthParameter)  
 {  
 length = lengthParameter;  
 }  
 public int GetLength()  
 {  
 return length;  
 }  
 public void SetWidth(int widthParameter)  
 {  
 width = widthParameter;  
 }  
 public int GetWidth()  
 {  
 return width;  
 }  
 public int ComputeArea()  
 {  
 return length \* width;  
 }  
}

Let’s look at each part of this code in order.

* Attributes
  + Each attribute (length and width) is stored in an instance variable
  + Instance variables are declared similarly to “regular” variables, but with one additional feature: the **access modifier**
  + Syntax: [access modifier] [type] [variable name]
  + The access modifier can be either public or private
  + An access modifier of private is what enforces encapsulation: when you use this access modifier, it means the instance variable cannot be accessed by any code outside the Rectangle class
  + The C# compiler will give you an error if you write code that attempts to use a private instance variable anywhere other than a method of that variable’s class
* SetLength method - our first accessor method
  + This method will allow code outside the Rectangle class to modify a Rectangle object’s “length” attribute
  + Note that the header of this method has an access modifier, just like the instance variable
  + In this case the access modifier is public because we *want* to allow other code to call the SetLength method
  + Syntax of a method declaration: [access modifier] [return type] [method name]([parameters])
  + This method has one **parameter**, named lengthParameter, whose type is int. This means the method must be called with one **argument** that is int type.
    - Similar to how Console.WriteLine must be called with one argument that is string type – the Console.WriteLine declaration has one parameter that is string type.
    - Note that it’s declared just like a variable, with a type and a name
  + A parameter works like a variable: it has a type and a value, and you can use it in expressions and assignment
  + When you call a method with a particular argument, like 15, the parameter is assigned this value, so within the method’s code you can assume the parameter value is “the argument to this method”
  + The body of the SetLength method has one statement, which assigns the instance variable length to the value contained in the parameter lengthParameter. In other words, whatever argument SetLength is called with will get assigned to length
  + This is why it’s called a “setter”: SetLength(15) will set length to 15.
* GetLength method
  + This method will allow code outside the Rectangle class to read the current value of a Rectangle object’s “length” attribute
  + The **return type** of this method is int, which means that the value it returns to the calling code is an int value
  + Recall that Console.ReadLine() returns a string value to the caller, which is why you can write string userInput = Console.ReadLine(). The GetLength method will do the same thing, only with an int instead of a string
  + This method has no parameters, so you don’t provide any arguments when calling it. “Getter” methods never have parameters, since their purpose is to “get” (read) a value, not change anything
  + The body of GetLength has one statement, which uses a new keyword: return. This keyword declares what will be returned by the method, i.e. what particular value will be given to the caller to use in an expression.
  + In a “getter” method, the value we return is the instance variable that corresponds to the attribute named in the method. GetLength returns the length instance variable.
* SetWidth method
  + This is another “setter” method, so it looks very similar to SetLength
  + It takes one parameter (widthParameter) and assigns it to the width instance variable
  + Note that the return type of both setters is void. The return type void means “this method does not return a value.” Console.WriteLine is an example of a void method we’ve used already.
  + Since the return type is void, there is no return statement in this method
* GetWidth method
  + This is the “getter” method for the width attribute
  + It looks very similar to GetLength, except the instance variable in the return statement is width rather than length
* The ComputeArea method
  + This is *not* an accessor method: its goal is not to read or write a single instance variable
  + The goal of this method is to compute and return the rectangle’s area
  + Since the area of the rectangle will be an int (it’s the product of two ints), we declare the return type of the method to be int
  + This method has no parameters, because it doesn’t need any arguments. Its only “input” is the instance variables, and it will always do the same thing every time you call it.
  + The body of the method has a return statement with an expression, rather than a single variable
  + When you write return [expression], the expression will be evaluated first, then the resulting value will be used by the return command
  + In this case, the expression length \* width will be evaluated, which computes the area of the rectangle. Since both length and width are ints, the int version of the \* operator runs, and it produces an int result. This resulting int is what the method returns.

## Using Our Class

* We’ve written a class, but it doesn’t do anything yet
  + The class is a blueprint for an object, not an object
  + To make it “do something” (i.e. execute some methods), we need to instantiate an object using this class
  + The code that does this should be in a separate file (e.g. Program.cs), not in Rectangle.cs
* Here is a program that uses our Rectangle class:

using System;  
  
class Program  
{  
 static void Main(string[] args)  
 {  
 Rectangle myRectangle = new Rectangle();  
 myRectangle.SetLength(12);  
 myRectangle.SetWidth(3);  
 int area = myRectangle.ComputeArea();  
 Console.WriteLine("Your rectangle's length is " +  
 $"{myRectangle.GetLength()}, and its width is " +  
 $"{myRectangle.GetWidth()}, so its area is {area}.");  
 }  
}

* Instantiating an object
  + The first line of code creates a Rectangle object
  + The left side of the = sign is a variable declaration – it declares a variable of type Rectangle
    - Classes we write become new data types in C#
  + The right side of the = sign assigns this variable a value: a Rectangle object
  + We **instantiate** an object by writing the keyword new followed by the name of the class (syntax: new [class name]()). The empty parentheses are required, but we’ll explain why later.
  + This statement is really an initialization statement: It declares and assigns a variable in one line
  + The value of the myRectangle variable is the Rectangle object that was created by new Rectangle()
* Calling setters on the object
  + The next two lines of code call the SetLength and SetWidth methods on the object
  + Syntax: [object name].[method name]([argument]). Note the “dot operator” between the variable name and the method name.
  + SetLength is called with an argument of 12, so lengthParameter gets the value 12, and the rectangle’s length instance variable is then assigned this value
  + Similarly, SetWidth is called with an argument of 3, so the rectangle’s width instance variable is assigned the value 3
* Calling ComputeArea
  + The next line calls the ComputeArea method and assigns its result to a new variable named area
  + The syntax is the same as the other method calls
  + Since this method has a return value, we need to do something with the return value – we assign it to a variable
  + Similar to how you must do something with the result (return value) of Console.ReadLine(), i.e. string userInput = Console.ReadLine()
* Calling getters on the object
  + The last line of code displays some information about the rectangle object using string interpolation
  + One part of the string interpolation is the area variable, which we’ve seen before
  + The other interpolated values are myRectangle.GetLength() and myRectangle.GetWidth()
  + Looking at the first one: this will call the GetLength method, which has a return value that is an int. Instead of storing the return value in an int variable, we put it in the string interpolation brackets, which means it will be converted to a string using ToString. This means the rectangle’s length will be inserted into the string and displayed on the screen

## Flow of Control with Objects

* Consider what happens when you have multiple objects in the same program, like this:
* class Program  
  {  
   static void Main(string[] args)  
   {  
   Rectangle rect1;  
   rect1 = new Rectangle();  
   rect1.SetLength(12);  
   rect1.SetWidth(3);  
   Rectangle rect2 = new Rectangle();  
   rect2.SetLength(7);  
   rect2.SetWidth(15);  
   }  
  }
  + First, we declare a variable of type Rectangle
  + Then we assign rect1 a value, a new Rectangle object that we instantiate
  + We call the SetLength and SetWidth methods using rect1, and the Rectangle object that rect1 refers to gets its length and width instance variables set to 12 and 3
  + Then we create another Rectangle object and assign it to the variable rect2 . This object has its own copy of the length and width instance variables, not 12 and 3
  + We call the SetLength and SetWidth methods again, using rect2 on the left side of the dot instead of rect1. This means the Rectangle object that rect2 refers to gets its instance variables set to 7 and 15, while the other Rectangle remains unmodified
* The same method code can modify different objects at different times
  + Calling a method transfers control from the current line of code (i.e. in Program.cs) to the method code within the class (Rectangle.cs)
  + The method code is always the same, but the specific object that gets modified can be different each time
  + The variable on the left side of the dot operator determines which object gets modified
  + In rect1.SetLength(12), rect1 is the **calling object**, so SetLength will modify rect1
    - SetLength begins executing with lengthParameter equal to 12
    - The instance variable length in length = lengthParameter refers to rect1’s length
  + In rect2.SetLength(7), rect2 is the calling object, so SetLength will modify rect2
    - SetLength begins executing with lengthParameter equal to 7
    - The instance variable length in length = lengthParameter refers to rect2’s length
* Accessing object members
  + The “dot operator” that we use to call methods is technically the **member access operator**
  + A **member** of an object is either a method or an instance variable
  + When we write objectName.methodName(), e.g. rect1.SetLength(12), we are using the dot operator to access the “SetLength” member of rect1, which is a method; this means we want to call (execute) the SetLength method of rect1
  + We can also use the dot operator to access instance variables, although we usually don’t do that because of encapsulation
  + If we wrote the Rectangle class like this:
  + class Rectangle  
    {  
     public int length;  
     public int width;  
    }
  + Then we could write a Main method that uses the dot operator to access the length and width instance variables, like this:
  + static void Main(string[] args)  
    {  
     Rectangle rect1 = new Rectangle();  
     rect1.length = 12;  
     rect1.width = 3;  
    }
* But this code violates encapsulation, so we won’t do this.
* Method calls in more detail
  + Now that we know about the member access operator, we can explain how method calls work a little better
  + When we write rect1.SetLength(12), the SetLength method is executed with rect1 as the calling object – we’re accessing the SetLength member of rect1 in particular (even though every Rectangle has the same SetLength method)
  + This means that when the code in SetLength uses an instance variable, i.e. length, it will automatically access rect1’s copy of the instance variable
  + You can imagine that the SetLength method “changes” to this when you call rect1.SetLength():
  + public void SetLength(int lengthParameter)  
    {  
     rect1.length = lengthParameter;  
    }
  + Note that we use the “dot” (member access) operator on rect1 to access its length instance variable.
  + Similarly, you can imagine that the SetLength method “changes” to this when you call rect2.SetLength():
  + public void SetLength(int lengthParameter)  
    {  
     rect2.length = lengthParameter;  
    }
  + The calling object is automatically “inserted” before any instance variables in a method
  + The keyword this is an explicit reference to “the calling object”
    - Instead of imagining that the calling object’s name is inserted before each instance variable, you could write the SetLength method like this:
    - public void SetLength(int lengthParameter)  
      {  
       this.length = lengthParameter;  
      }
    - This is valid code (unlike our imaginary examples) and will work exactly the same as our previous way of writing SetLength
    - When SetLength is called with rect1.SetLength(12), this becomes equal to rect1, just like lengthParameter becomes equal to 12
    - When SetLength is called with rect2.SetLength(7), this becomes equal to rect2 and lengthParameter becomes equal to 7
* Methods don’t always change instance variables
  + Using a variable in an expression means *reading* its value
  + A variable only changes when it’s on the left side of an assignment statement; this is *writing* to the variable
  + A method that uses instance variables in an expression, but doesn’t assign to them, will not modify the object
  + For example, consider the ComputeArea method:
  + public int ComputeArea()  
    {  
     return length \* width;  
    }
  + It reads the current values of length and width to compute their product, but the product is returned to the method’s caller. The instance variables are not changed.
  + After executing the following code:
  + Rectangle rect1 = new Rectangle();  
    rect1.SetLength(12);  
    rect1.SetWidth(3);  
    int area = rect1.ComputeArea();
  + rect1 has a length of 12 and a width of 3. The call to rect1.ComputeArea() computes , and the area variable is assigned this return value, but it does not change rect1.
* Methods and return values
  + Recall the basic structure of a program: receive input, compute something, produce output
  + A method has the same structure: it *receives input* from its parameters, *computes* by executing the statements in its body, then *produces output* by returning a value
    - For example, consider this method defined in the Rectangle class:
    - public int LengthProduct(int factor)  
      {  
       return length \* factor;  
      }
    - Its input is the parameter factor, which is an int. In the method body, it computes the product of the rectangle’s length and factor. The method’s output is the resulting product.
  + The return statement specifies the output of the method: a variable, expression, etc. that produces some value
  + A method call can be used in other code as if it were a value. The “value” of a method call is the method’s return value.
    - In previous examples, we wrote int area = rect1.ComputeArea();, which assigns a variable (area) a value (the return value of ComputeArea())
    - The LengthProduct method can be used like this:
    - Rectangle rect1 = new Rectangle();  
      rect1.SetLength(12);  
      int result = rect1.LengthProduct(2) + 1;
    - When executing the third line of code, the computer first runs the LengthProduct method with argument (input) 2, which computes the product . Then it uses the return value of LengthProduct, which is 24, to evaluate the expression rect1.LengthProduct(2) + 1, producing a result of 25. Finally, it assigns the value 25 to the variable result.
  + When writing a method that returns a value, the value in the return statement **must** be the same type as the method’s return type
    - If the value returned by LengthProduct is not an int, we’ll get a compile error
    - This won’t work:
    - public int LengthProduct(double factor)  
      {  
       return length \* factor;  
      }
    - Now that factor has type double, the expression length \* factor will need to implicitly convert length from int to double in order to make the types match. Then the product will also be a double, so the return value does not match the return type (int).
    - We could fix it by either changing the return type of the method to double, or adding a cast to int to the product so that the return value is still an int
  + Not all methods return a value, but all methods must have a return type
    - The return type void means “nothing is returned”
    - If your method does not return a value, its return type *must* be void. If the return type is not void, the method *must* return a value.
    - This will cause a compile error because the method has a return type of int but no return statement:
    - public int SetLength(int lengthP)  
      {  
       length = lengthP;  
      }
    - This will cause a compile error because the method has a return type of void, but it attempts to return something anyway:
    - public void GetLength()  
      {  
       return length;  
      }

## Introduction to UML

* UML is a specification language for software
  + UML: Unified Modeling Language
  + Describes design and structure of a program with graphics
  + Does not include “implementation details,” such as code statements
  + Can be used for any programming language, not just C#
  + Used in planning/design phase of software creation, before you start writing code
  + Process: Determine program requirements Make UML diagrams Write code based on UML Test and debug program
* UML Class Diagram elements

| * **ClassName** |
| --- |
| * - attribute: type |
| * ————————————————– |
| * + SetAttribute(attributeParameter: type): void |
| * + GetAttribute(): type |
| * + Method(paramName: type): type |

* + Top box: Class name, centered
  + Middle box: Attributes (i.e. instance variables)
    - On each line, one attribute, with its name and type
    - Syntax: [+/-] [name]: [type]
    - Note this is the opposite order from C# variable declaration: type comes after name
    - Minus sign at beginning of line indicates “private member”
  + Bottom box: Operations (i.e. methods)
    - On each line, one method header, including name, parameters, and return type
    - Syntax: [+/-] [name]([parameter name]: [parameter type]): [return type]
    - Also backwards compared to C# order: parameter types come after parameter names, and return type comes after method name instead of before it
    - Plus sign at beginning of line indicates “public”, which is what we want for methods
* UML Diagram for the Rectangle class

| * **Rectangle** |
| --- |
| * - width: int |
| * - length: int |
| * ———————————— |
| * + SetLength(lengthParameter: int) |
| * + GetLength(): int |
| * + SetWidth(widthParameter: int) |
| * + GetWidth(): int |
| * + ComputeArea(): int |

* + Note that when the return type of a method is void, we can omit it in UML
  + In general, attributes will be private (- sign) and methods will be public (+ sign), so you can expect most of your classes to follow this pattern (-s in the upper box, +s in the lower box)
  + Note that there is no code or “implementation” described here: it doesn’t say that ComputeArea will multiply length by width
* Writing code based on a UML diagram
  + Each diagram is one class, everything within the box is between the class’s header and its closing brace
  + For each attribute in the attributes section, write an instance variable of the right name and type
    - See “- width: int”, write private int width;
    - Remember to reverse the order of name and type
  + For each method in the methods section, write a method header with the matching return type, name, and parameters
    - Parameter declarations are like the instance variables: in UML they have a name followed by a type, in C# you write the type name first
  + Now the method bodies need to be filled in - UML just defined the interface, now you need to write the implementation

## Variable Scope

* Instance variables are different from local variables
  + Instance variables: Stored (in memory) with the object, shared by all methods of the object. Changes made within a method persist after method finishes executing.
  + Local variables: Visible to only one method, not shared. Disappear after method finishes executing. Variables we’ve created before in the Main method (they’re local to the Main method!).
  + Example: In class Rectangle, we have these two methods:
  + public void SwapDimensions()  
    {  
     int temp = length;  
     length = width;  
     width = temp;  
    }  
    public int GetLength()  
    {  
     return length;  
    }
    - temp is a local variable within SwapDimensions, while length and width are instance variables
    - The GetLength method can’t use temp; it is visible only to SwapDimensions
    - When SwapDimensions changes length, that change is persistent – it will still be different when GetLength executes, and the next call to GetLength after SwapDimensions will return the new length
    - When SwapDimensions assigns a value to temp, it only has that value within the current call to SwapDimensions – after SwapDimensions finishes, temp disappears, and the next call to SwapDimensions creates a new temp
* Each variable has a **scope**
  + Variables exist only in limited **time** and **space** within the program
  + Outside those limits, the variable cannot be accessed – e.g. local variables cannot be accessed outside their method
  + Scope of a variable: The region of the program where it is accessible/visible
    - A variable is “in scope” when it is accessible
    - A variable is “out of scope” when it doesn’t exist or can’t be accessed
  + Time limits to scope: Scope begins *after* the variable has been declared
    - This is why you can’t use a variable before declaring it
  + Space limits to scope: Scope is within the same *code block* where the variable is declared
    - Code blocks are defined by curly braces: everything between matching { and } is in the same code block
    - Instance variables are declared in the class’s code block (they are inside class Rectangle’s body, but not inside anything else), so their scope extends to the entire class
    - Code blocks nest: A method’s code block is inside the class’s code block, so instance variables are also in scope within each method’s code block
    - Local variables are declared inside a method’s code block, so their scope is limited to that single method
  + The scope of a parameter (which is a variable) is the method’s code block - it’s the same as a local variable for that method
  + Scope example:
  + public void SwapDimensions()  
    {  
     int temp = length;  
     length = width;  
     width = temp;  
    }  
    public void SetWidth(int widthParam)  
    {  
     int temp = width;  
     width = widthParam;  
    }
    - The two variables named temp have different scopes: One has a scope limited to the SwapDimensions method’s body, while the other has a scope limited to the SetWidth method’s body
    - This is why they can have the same name: variable names must be unique *within the variable’s scope*. You can have two variables with the same name if they are in different scopes.
    - The scope of instance variables length and width is the body of class Rectangle, so they are in scope for both of these methods
* Be careful when mixing instance and local variables
  + This code is legal (compiles) but doesn’t do what you want:
  + class Rectangle  
    {  
     private int length;  
     private int width;  
     public void UpdateWidth(int newWidth)  
     {  
     int width = 5;  
     width = newWidth;  
     }  
    }
  + The instance variable width and the local variable width have different scopes, so they can have the same name
  + But the instance variable’s scope (the class Rectangle) *overlaps* with the local variable’s scope (the method UpdateWidth)
  + If two variables have the same name and overlapping scopes, the variable with the *closer* or *smaller* scope **shadows** the variable with the *farther* or *wider* scope: the name will refer *only* to the variable with the smaller scope
  + In this case, that means width inside UpdateWidth refers only to the local variable named width, whose scope is smaller because it is limited to the UpdateWidth method. The line width = newWidth actually changes the local variable, not the instance variable named width.
  + Since instance variables have a large scope (the whole class), they will always get shadowed by variables declared within methods
  + You can prevent shadowing by using the keyword this, like this:
  + class Rectangle  
    {  
     private int length;  
     private int width;  
     public void UpdateWidth(int newWidth)  
     {  
     int width = 5;  
     this.width = newWidth;  
     }  
    }
  + Since this means “the calling object”, this.width means “access the width member of the calling object.” This can only mean the instance variable width, not the local variable with the same name
  + Incidentally, you can also use this to give your parameters the same name as the instance variables they’re modifying:
  + class Rectangle  
    {  
     private int length;  
     private int width;  
     public void SetWidth(int width)  
     {  
     this.width = width;  
     }  
    }
  + Without this, the body of the SetWidth method would be width = width;, which doesn’t do anything (it would assign the parameter width to itself).

## Constants

* Classes can also contain constants
* Syntax: [public/private] const [type] [name] = [value];
* This is a named value that never changes during program execution
* Safe to make it public because it can’t change – no risk of violating encapsulation
* Can only be built-in types (int, double, etc.), not objects
* Can make your program more readable by giving names to “magic numbers” that have some significance
* Convention: constants have names in ALL CAPS
* Example:
* class Calendar  
  {  
   public const int MONTHS = 12;  
   private int currentMonth;  
   //...  
  }
* The value “12” has a special meaning here, i.e. the number of months in a year, so we use a constant to name it.
* Constants are accessed using the name of the class, not the name of an object – they are the same for every object of that class. For example:
* Calendar myCal = new Calendar();  
  decimal yearlyPrice = 2000.0m;  
  decimal monthlyPrice = yearlyPrice / Calendar.MONTHS;

## Reference Types: More Details

* Data types in C# are either value types or reference types
  + This difference was introduced in an earlier lecture (Datatypes and Variables)
  + For a **value type** variable (int, long, float, double, decimal, char, bool) the named memory location stores the exact data value held by the variable
  + For a **reference type** variable, such as string, the named memory location stores a *reference to the value*, not the value itself
  + All objects you create from your own classes, like Rectangle, are reference types
* Object variables are references
  + When you have a variable for a reference type, or “reference variable,” you need to be careful with the assignment operation
  + Consider this code:
  + using System;  
    class Program  
    {  
     static void Main(string[] args)  
     {  
     Rectangle rect1 = new Rectangle();  
     rect1.SetLength(8);  
     rect1.SetWidth(10);  
     Rectangle rect2 = rect1;  
     rect2.SetLength(4);  
     Console.WriteLine($"Rectangle 1: {rect1.GetLength()} "  
     + $"by {rect1.GetWidth()}");  
     Console.WriteLine($"Rectangle 2: {rect2.GetLength()} "  
     + $"by {rect2.GetWidth()}");  
     }  
    }
  + The output is:
  + Rectangle 1: 4 by 10  
    Rectangle 2: 4 by 10
  + The variables rect1 and rect2 actually refer to the same Rectangle object, so rect2.SetLength(4) seems to change the length of “both” rectangles
  + The assignment operator copies the contents of the variable, but a reference variable contains a *reference* to an object – so that’s what gets copied (in Rectangle rect2 = rect1), not the object itself
  + In more detail:
    - Rectangle rect1 = new Rectangle() creates a new Rectangle object somewhere in memory, then creates a reference variable named rect1 somewhere else in memory. The variable named rect1 is initialized with the memory address of the Rectangle object, i.e. a reference to the object
    - rect1.SetLength(8) reads the address of the Rectangle object from the rect1 variable, finds the object in memory, and runs the SetLength method on that object (changing its length to 8)
    - rect1.SetWidth(10) does the same thing, finds the same object, and sets its width to 10
    - Rectangle rect2 = rect1 creates a reference variable named rect2 in memory, but does not create a new Rectangle object. Instead, it initializes rect2 with the same memory address that is stored in rect1, referring to the same Rectangle object
    - rect2.SetLength(4) reads the address of a Rectangle object from the rect2 variable, finds that object in memory, and sets its length to 4 – but this is the exact same Rectangle object that rect1 refers to
* Reference types can also appear in method parameters
  + When you call a method, you provide an argument (a value) for each parameter in the method’s declaration
  + Since the parameter is really a variable, the computer will then assign the argument to the parameter, just like variable assignment
    - For example, when you write rect1.SetLength(8), there’s an implicit assignment lengthParameter = 8 that gets executed before executing the body of the SetLength method
  + This means if the parameter is a reference type (like an object), the parameter will get a copy of the reference, not a copy of the object
  + When you use the parameter to modify the object, you will modify the same object that the caller provided as an argument
  + This means objects can change other objects!
  + For example, imagine we added this method to the Rectangle class:
  + public void CopyToOther(Rectangle otherRect)  
    {  
     otherRect.SetLength(length);  
     otherRect.SetWidth(width);  
    }
  + It uses the SetLength and SetWidth methods to modify its parameter, otherRect. Specifically, it sets the parameter’s length and width to its own length and width.
  + The Main method of a program could do something like this:
  + Rectangle rect1 = new Rectangle();  
    Rectangle rect2 = new Rectangle();  
    rect1.SetLength(8);  
    rect1.SetWidth(10);  
    rect1.CopyToOther(rect2);  
    Console.WriteLine($"Rectangle 2: {rect2.GetLength()} "  
     + $"by {rect2.GetWidth()}");
    - First it creates two different Rectangle objects (note the two calls to new), then it sets the length and width of one object, using rect1.SetLength and rect1.SetWidth
    - Then it calls the CopyToOther method with an argument of rect2. This transfers control to the method and (implicitly) makes the assignment otherRect = rect2
    - Since otherRect and rect2 are now reference variables referring to the same object, the calls to otherRect.SetLength and otherRect.SetWidth within the method will modify that object
    - After the call to CopyToOther, the object referred to by rect2 has a length of 8 and a width of 10, even though we never called rect2.SetLength or rect2.SetWidth

# More Advanced Object Concepts

## Default Values and the ClassRoom Class

* Instance variables get default values
  + In lab, you were asked to run a program like this:
  + using System;  
      
    class Program  
    {  
     static void Main(string[] args)  
     {  
     Rectangle myRect = new Rectangle();  
     Console.WriteLine($"Length is {myRect.GetLength()}");  
     Console.WriteLine($"Width is {myRect.GetWidth()}");  
     }  
    }
  + Note that we create a Rectangle object, but do not use the SetLength or SetWidth methods to assign values to its instance variables. It displays the following output:
  + Length is 0  
    Width is 0
  + This works because the instance variables length and width have a default value of 0, even if you never assign them a value
  + Local variables, like the ones we write in the Main method, do *not* have default values. You must assign them a value before using them in an expression.
    - For example, this code will produce a compile error:
    - int myVar1;  
      int myVar2 = myVar1 + 5;
    - You can’t assume myVar1 will be 0; it has no value at all until you use an assignment statement.
  + When you create (instantiate) a new object, its instance variables will be assigned specific default values based on their type:

| * + **Type** | * + **Default Value** |
| --- | --- |
| * + Numeric types | * + 0 |
| * + string | * + null |
| * + objects | * + null |
| * + bool | * + false |
| * + char | * + '\0' |

* + Remember, null is the value of a reference-type variable that refers to “nothing” - it does not contain the location of any object at all. You can’t do anything with a reference variable containing null.
* A class we’ll use for subsequent examples
  + ClassRoom: Represents a room in a building on campus
  + UML Diagram:

| * + **ClassRoom** |
| --- |
| * + - building: string |
| * + - number: int |
| * + ————————————— |
| * + + SetBuilding(buildingParam : string) |
| * + + GetBuilding(): string |
| * + + SetNumber(numberParameter: int) |
| * + + GetNumber(): int |

* + - There are two attributes: the name of the building (a string) and the room number (an int)
    - Each attribute will have a “getter” and “setter” method
  + Implementation:
  + class ClassRoom  
    {  
     private string building;  
     private int number;  
      
     public void SetBuilding(string buildingParam)  
     {  
     building = buildingParam;  
     }  
     public string GetBuilding()  
     {  
     return building;  
     }  
     public void SetNumber(int numberParam)  
     {  
     number = numberParam;  
     }  
     public int GetNumber()  
     {  
     return number;  
     }  
    }
    - Each attribute is implemented by an instance variable with the same name
    - To write the “setter” for the building attribute, we write a method whose return type is void, with a single string-type parameter. Its body assigns the building instance variable to the value in the parameter buildingParam
    - To write the “getter” for the building attribute, we write a method whose return type is string, and whose body returns the instance variable building
  + Creating an object and using its default values:
  + using System;  
      
    class Program  
    {  
     static void Main(string[] args)  
     {  
     ClassRoom english = new ClassRoom();  
     Console.WriteLine($"Building is {english.GetBuilding()}");  
     Console.WriteLine($"Room number is {english.GetNumber()}");  
     }  
    }
  + This will print the following output:
  + Building is  
    Room number is 0
  + Remember that the default value of a string variable is null. When you use string interpolation on null, you get an empty string.

## Constructors

* Instantiation and constructors
  + Instantiation syntax requires you to write parentheses after the name of the class, like this:
  + ClassRoom english = new ClassRoom();
  + Parentheses indicate a method call, like in Console.ReadLine() or english.GetBuilding()
  + In fact, the instantiation statement new ClassRoom() does call a method: the **constructor**
  + Constructor: A special method used to create an object. It “sets up” a new instance by **initializing its instance variables**.
  + If you don’t write a constructor in your class, C# will generate a “default” constructor for you – this is what’s getting called when we write new ClassRoom() here
  + The default constructor initializes each instance variable to its default value – that’s where default values come from
* Writing a constructor
  + Example for ClassRoom:
  + public ClassRoom(string buildingParam, int numberParam)  
    {  
     building = buildingParam;  
     number = numberParam;  
    }
  + To write a constructor, write a method whose name is *exactly the same* as the class name
  + This method has *no return type*, not even void. It does not have a return statement either
  + For ClassRoom, this means the constructor’s header starts with public ClassRoom
    - You can think of this method as “combining” the return type and name. The name of the method is ClassRoom, and its output is of type ClassRoom, since the return value of new ClassRoom() is always a ClassRoom object
    - You don’t actually write a return statement, though, because new will always return the new object after calling the constructor
  + A custom constructor usually has parameters that correspond to the instance variables: for ClassRoom, it has a string parameter named buildingParam, and an int parameter named numberParam
    - Note that when we write a method with two parameters, we separate the parameters with a comma
  + The body of a constructor must assign values to **all** instance variables in the object
  + Usually this means assigning each parameter to its corresponding instance variable: initialize the instance variable to equal the parameter
    - Very similar to calling both “setters” at once
* Using a constructor
  + An instantiation statement will call a constructor for the class being instantiated
  + Arguments in parentheses must match the parameters of the constructor
  + Example with the ClassRoom constructor:
  + using System;  
      
    class Program  
    {  
     static void Main(string[] args)  
     {  
     ClassRoom csci = new ClassRoom("Allgood East", 356);  
     Console.WriteLine($"Building is {csci.GetBuilding()}");  
     Console.WriteLine($"Room number is {csci.GetNumber()}");  
     }  
    }
  + This program will produce this output:
  + Building is Allgood East  
    Room number is 356
  + The instantiation statement new ClassRoom("Allgood East", 356) first creates a new “empty” object of type ClassRoom, then calls the constructor to initialize it. The first argument, “Allgood East”, becomes the constructor’s first parameter (buildingParam), and the second argument, 356, becomes the constructor’s second parameter (numberParam).
  + After executing the instantiation statement, the object referred to by csci has its instance variables set to these values, even though we never called SetBuilding or SetNumber
* Methods with multiple parameters
  + The constructor we wrote is an example of a method with two parameters
  + The same syntax can be used for ordinary, non-constructor methods, if we need more than one input value
  + For example, we could write this method in the Rectangle class:
  + public void MultiplyBoth(int lengthFactor, int widthFactor)  
    {  
     length \*= lengthFactor;  
     width \*= widthFactor;  
    }
  + The first parameter has type int and is named lengthFactor. The second parameter has type int and is named widthFactor
  + You can call this method by providing two arguments, separated by a comma:
  + Rectangle myRect = new Rectangle();  
    myRect.SetLength(5);  
    myRect.SetWidth(10);  
    myRect.MultiplyBoth(3, 5);
  + The first argument, 3, will be assigned to the first parameter, lengthFactor. The second argument, 5, will be assigned to the second parameter, widthFactor
  + The order of the arguments matters when calling a multi-parameter method. If you write myRect.MultiplyBoth(5, 3), then lengthFactor will be 5 and widthFactor will be 3.
  + The type of each argument must match the type of the corresponding parameter. For example, when you call the ClassRoom constructor we just wrote, the first argument must be a string and the second argument must be an int
* Writing multiple constructors
  + Remember that if you don’t write a constructor, C# generates a “default” one with no parameters, so you can write new ClassRoom()
  + Once you add a constructor to your class, C# will **not** generate a default constructor
    - This means once we write the ClassRoom constructor (as shown earlier), this statement will produce a compile error: ClassRoom english = new ClassRoom();
    - The constructor we wrote has 2 parameters, so now you always need 2 arguments to instantiate a ClassRoom
  + If you still want the option to create an object with no arguments (i.e. new ClassRoom()), you must write a constructor with no parameters
  + A class can have more than one constructor, so it would look like this:
  + class ClassRoom  
    {  
     //...  
     public ClassRoom(string buildingParam, int numberParam)  
     {  
     building = buildingParam;  
     number = numberParam;  
     }  
     public ClassRoom()  
     {  
     building = null;  
     number = 0;  
     }  
     //...  
    }
  + The “no-argument” constructor must still initialize all the instance variables, even though it has no parameters
    - You can pick any “default value” you want, or use the same ones that C# would use (0 for numeric variables, null for object variables, etc.)
  + When a class has multiple constructors, the instantiation statement must decide which constructor to call
  + The instantiation statement will call the constructor whose parameters match the arguments you provide
    - For example, each of these statements will call a different constructor:
    - ClassRoom csci = new ClassRoom("Allgood East", 356);  
      ClassRoom english = new ClassRoom();
    - The first statement calls the two-parameter constructor we wrote, since it has a string argument and an int argument (in that order), and those match the parameters (string buildingParam, int numberParam). The second statement calls the zero-parameter constructor since it has no arguments.
    - If the arguments don’t match any constructor, it’s still an error:
    - ClassRoom csci = new ClassRoom(356, "Allgood East");
    - This will produce a compile error, because the instantiation statement has two arguments in the order int, string, but the only constructor with two parameters needs the first parameter to be a string.

## Writing ToString Methods

* ToString recap
  + String interpolation automatically calls the ToString method on each variable or value
  + ToString returns a string “equivalent” to the object; for example, if num is an int variable containing 42, num.ToString() returns “42”.
  + C# datatypes already have a ToString method, but you need to write a ToString method for your own classes to use them in string interpolation
* Writing a ToString method
  + To add a ToString method to your class, you must write this header: public override string ToString()
  + The access modifier must be public (so other code, like string interpolation, can call it)
  + The return type must be string (ToString must output a string)
  + It must have no parameters (the string interpolation code won’t know what arguments to supply)
  + The keyword override means your class is “overriding,” or providing its own version of, a method that is already defined elsewhere – ToString is defined by the base object type, which is why string interpolation “knows” it can call ToString on any object
    - If you do not use the keyword override, then the pre-existing ToString method (defined by the base object type) will be used instead, which only returns the name of the class
  + The goal of ToString is to return a “string representation” of the object, so the body of the method should use all of the object’s attributes and combine them into a string somehow
  + Example ToString method for ClassRoom:
  + public override string ToString()  
    {  
     return building + " " + number;  
    }
    - There are two instance variables, building and number, and we use both of them
    - A natural way to write the name of a classroom is the building name followed by the room number, like “University Hall 124”, so we concatenate the variables in that order
    - Note that we add a space between the variables
    - Note that building is already a string, but number is an int, so string concatenation will implicitly call number.ToString() – ToString methods can call other ToString methods
    - Another way to write the body would be return $"{building} {number}";
* Using a ToString method
  + Any time an object is used in string interpolation or concatenation, its ToString method will be called
  + You can also call ToString by name using the “dot operator,” like any other method
  + This code will call the ToString method we just wrote for ClassRoom:
  + ClassRoom csci = new ClassRoom("Allgood East", 356);  
    Console.WriteLine(csci);  
    Console.WriteLine($"The classroom is {csci}");  
    Console.WriteLine("The classroom is " + csci.ToString());

## Method Signatures and Overloading

* Name uniqueness in C#
  + In general, variables, methods, and classes must have unique names, but there are several exceptions
  + **Variables** can have the same name if they are in *different scopes*
    - Two methods can each have a local variable with the same name
    - A local variable (scope limited to the method) can have the same name as an instance variable (scope includes the whole class), but this will result in **shadowing**
  + **Classes** can have the same name if they are in *different namespaces*
    - This is one reason C# has namespaces: you can name your classes anything you want. Otherwise, if a library (someone else’s code) used a class name, you would be prevented from using that name
    - For example, imagine you were using a “shapes library” that provided a class named Rectangle, but you also wanted to write your own class named Rectangle
    - The library’s code would use its own namespace, like this:
    - namespace ShapesLibrary  
      {  
       class Rectangle  
       {  
       //instance variables, methods, etc.  
       }  
      }
    - Then your own code could have a Rectangle class in your own namespace:
    - namespace MyProject  
      {  
       class Rectangle  
       {  
       //instance variables, methods, etc.  
       }  
      }
    - You can use both Rectangle classes in the same code, as long as you specify the namespace, like this:
    - MyProject.Rectangle rect1 = new MyProject.Rectangle();  
      ShapesLibrary.Rectangle rect2 = new ShapesLibrary.Rectangle();
  + **Methods** can have the same name if they have *different signatures*; this is called **overloading**
    - We’ll explain signatures in more detail in a minute
    - Briefly, methods can have the same name if they have different parameters
    - For example, you can have two methods named Multiply in the Rectangle class, as long as one has one parameter and the other has two parameters:
    - public void Multiply(int factor)  
      {  
       length \*= factor;  
       width \*= factor;  
      }  
      public void Multiply(int lengthFactor, int widthFactor)  
      {  
       length \*= lengthFactor;  
       width \*= widthFactor;  
      }
    - C# understands that these are different methods, even though they have the same name, because their parameters are different. If you write myRect.Multiply(2) it can only mean the first “Multiply” method, not the second one, because there is only one argument.
    - We have used overloading already when we wrote multiple constructors – constructors are methods too. For example, these two constructors have the same name, but different parameters:
    - public ClassRoom(string buildingParam, int numberParam)  
      {  
       building = buildingParam;  
       number = numberParam;  
      }  
      public ClassRoom()  
      {  
       building = null;  
       number = 0;  
      }
* Method signatures
  + A method’s **signature** has 3 components: its **name**, the **type** of each parameter, and the **order** the parameters appear in
  + Methods are unique if their *signatures* are unique, which is why they can have the same name
  + Signature examples:
    - public void Multiply(int lengthFactor, int widthFactor) – the signature is Multiply(int, int) (name is Multiply, parameters are int and int type)
    - public void Multiply(int factor) – signature is Multiply(int)
    - public void Multiply(double factor) – signature is Multiply(double)
    - These could all be in the same class since they all have different signatures
  + Parameter *names* are not part of the signature, just their types
    - Note that the parameter names are omitted when I write down the signature
    - That means these two methods are not unique and could not be in the same class:
    - public void SetWidth(int widthInMeters)  
      {  
       //...  
      }  
      public void SetWidth(int widthInFeet)  
      {  
       //...  
      }
    - Both have the same signature, SetWidth(int), even though the parameters have different names. You might intend the parameters to be different (i.e. represent feet vs. meters), but any int-type parameter is the same to C#
  + The method’s return type is not part of the signature
    - So far all the examples have the same return type (void), but changing it would not change the signature
    - The signature of public int Multiply(int factor) is Multiply(int), which is the same as public void Multiply(int factor)
    - The signature “begins” with the name of the method; everything “before” that doesn’t count (i.e. public, int)
  + The order of parameters is part of the signature, as long as the types are different
    - Since parameter name is not part of the signature, only the type can determine the order
    - These two methods have different signatures:
    - public int Update(int number, string name)  
      {  
       //...  
      }  
      public int Update(string name, int number)  
      {  
       //..  
      }
    - The signature of the first method is Update(int, string). The signature of the second method is Update(string, int).
    - These two methods have the same signature, and could not be in the same class:
    - public void Multiply(int lengthFactor, int widthFactor)  
      {  
       //...  
      }  
      public void Multiply(int widthFactor, int lengthFactor)  
      {  
       //...  
      }
    - The signature for both methods is Multiply(int, int), even though we switched the order of the parameters – the name doesn’t count, and they are both int type
  + Constructors have signatures too
    - The constructor ClassRoom(string buildingParam, int numberParam) has the signature ClassRoom(string, int)
    - The constructor ClassRoom() has the signature ClassRoom()
    - Constructors all have the same name, but they are unique if their signatures (parameters) are different
* Calling overloaded methods
  + Previously, when you used the dot operator and wrote the name of a method, the name was enough to determine which method to run – myRect.GetLength() would call the GetLength method
  + When a method is overloaded, you must use the entire signature to determine which method gets executed
  + A method call has a “signature” too: the name of the method, and the type and order of the arguments
  + C# will execute the method whose signature matches the signature of the method call
  + Example: myRect.Multiply(4); has the signature Multiply(int), so C# will look for a method in the Rectangle class that has the signature Multiply(int). This matches the method public void Multiply(int factor)
  + Example: myRect.Multiply(3, 5); has the signature Multiply(int, int), so C# will look for a method with that signature in the Rectangle class. This matches the method public void Multiply(int lengthFactor, int widthFactor)
  + The same process happens when you instantiate a class with multiple constructors: C# calls the constructor whose signature matches the signature of the instantiation
  + If no method or constructor matches the signature of the method call, you get a compile error. You still can’t write myRect.Multiply(1.5) if there is no method whose signature is Multiply(double).

## Constructors in UML

* Now that we can write constructors, they should be part of the UML diagram of a class
  + No need to include the default constructor, or one you write yourself that takes no arguments
  + Non-default constructors go in the operations section (box 3) of the UML diagram
  + Similar syntax to a method: [+/-] <<constructor>> [name]([parameter name]: [parameter type])
  + Note that the name will always match the class name
  + No return type, ever
  + Annotation “<<constructor>>” is nice, but not necessary: if the method name matches the class name, it’s a constructor
* Example for ClassRoom:

| * **ClassRoom** |
| --- |
| * - building: string |
| * - number: int |
| * —————————————————————————- |
| * + <<constructor>> ClassRoom(buildingParam: string, numberParam: int) |
| * + SetBuilding(buildingParam : string) |
| * + GetBuilding(): string |
| * + SetNumber(numberParameter: int) |
| * + GetNumber(): int |

## Properties

* Attributes are implemented with a standard “template” of code
  + Remember, “attribute” is the abstract concept of some data stored in an object; “instance variable” is the way that data is actually stored
  + First, declare an instance variable for the attribute
  + Then write a “getter” method for the instance variable
  + Then write a “setter” method for the instance variable
  + With this combination of instance variable and methods, the object has an attribute that can be read (with the getter) and written (with the setter)
  + For example, this code implements a “width” attribute for the class Rectangle:
  + class Rectangle  
    {  
     private int width;  
     public void SetWidth(int value)  
     {  
     width = value;  
     }  
     public int GetWidth()  
     {  
     return width;  
     }  
    }
  + Note that there’s a lot of repetitive or “obvious” code here:
    - The name of the attribute is intended to be “width,” so you must name the instance variable width, and the methods GetWidth and SetWidth, repeating the name three times.
    - The attribute is intended to be type int, so you must ensure that the instance variable is type int, the getter has a return type of int, and the setter has a parameter type of int. Similarly, this repeats the data type three times.
    - You need to come up with a name for the setter’s parameter, even though it also represents the width (i.e. the new value you want to assign to the width attribute). We usually end up naming it “widthParameter” or “widthParam” or “newWidth” or “newValue.”
  + Properties are a “shorthand” way of writing this code: They implement an attribute with less repetition
* Writing properties
  + Declare an instance variable for the attribute, like before
  + A **property declaration** has 3 parts:
    - Header, which gives the property a name and type (very similar to variable declaration)
    - get section, which declares the “getter” method for the property
    - set section, which declares the “setter” method for the property
  + Example code, implementing the “width” attribute for Rectangle (this replaces the code in the previous example):
  + class Rectangle  
    {  
     private int width;  
     public int Width  
     {  
     get  
     {  
     return width;  
     }  
     set  
     {  
     width = value;  
     }  
     }  
    }
  + Header syntax: [public/private] [type] [name]
  + *Convention* (not rule) is to give the property the same name as the instance variable, but capitalized – C# is case sensitive
  + get section: Starts with the keyword get, then a method body inside a code block (between braces)
    - get is like a method header that always has the same name, and its other features are implied by the property’s header
    - Access modifier: Same as the property header’s, i.e. public in this example
    - Return type: Same as the property header’s type, i.e. int in this example (so imagine it says public int get())
    - Body of get section is exactly the same as body of a “getter”: return the instance variable
  + set section: Starts with the keyword set, then a method body inside a code block
    - Also a method header with a fixed name, access modifier, return type, and parameter
    - Access modifier: Same as the property header’s, i.e. public in this example
    - Return type: Always void (like a setter)
    - Parameter: Same type as the property header’s type, name is always “value”. In this case that means the parameter is int value; imagine the method header says public void set(int value)
    - Body of set section looks just like the body of a setter: Assign the parameter to the instance variable (and the parameter is always named “value”). In this case, that means width = value
* Using properties
  + Properties are members of an object, just like instance variables and methods
  + Access them with the “member access” operator, aka the dot operator
    - For example, myRect.Width will access the property we wrote, assuming myRect is a Rectangle
  + A complete example, where the “length” attribute is implemented the “old” way with a getter and setter, and the “width” attribute is implemented with a property:
  + using System;  
      
    class Program  
    {  
     static void Main(string[] args)  
     {  
     Rectangle myRectangle = new Rectangle();  
     myRectangle.SetLength(6);  
     myRectangle.Width = 15;  
     Console.WriteLine("Your rectangle's length is " +  
     $"{myRectangle.GetLength()}, and " +  
     $"its width is {myRectangle.Width}");  
     }  
    }
  + Properties “act like” variables: you can assign to them and read from them
  + Reading from a property will *automatically* call the get method for that property
    - For example, Console.WriteLine($"The width is {myRectangle.Width}"); will call the get section inside the Width property, which in turn executes return width and returns the current value of the instance variable
    - This is equivalent to Console.WriteLine($"The width is {myRectangle.GetWidth()}"); using the “old” Rectangle code
  + Assigning to (writing) a property will *automatically* call the set method for that property, with an argument equal to the right side of the = operator
    - For example, myRectangle.Width = 15; will call the set section inside the Width property, with value equal to 15
    - This is equivalent to myRectangle.SetWidth(15); using the “old” Rectangle code
* Properties in UML
  + Since properties represent attributes, they go in the “attributes” box (the second box)
  + If a property will simply “get” and “set” an instance variable of the same name, you do *not* need to write the instance variable in the box
    - No need to write both the property Width and the instance variable width
  + Syntax: [+/-] <<property>> [name]: [type]
  + Note that the access modifier (+ or -) is for the property, not the instance variable, so it’s + if the property is public (which it usually is)
  + Example for Rectangle, assuming we converted both attributes to use properties instead of getters and setters:

| * + **Rectangle** |
| --- |
| * + + <<property>> Width: int |
| * + + <<property>> Length: int |
| * + ———————————— |
| * + + ComputeArea(): int |

* + We no longer need to write all those setter and getter methods, since they are “built in” to the properties

# Decisions and Decision Structures

Decisions are a constant occurence in daily life. For instance consider an instructor teaching CSCI 1301. At the beginning of class the instructor may

* Ask if there are questions. If a student has a question, then the instructor will answer it, and ask again (“Anything else?”).
* When there are no more questions, the instructor will move on to the next step.
* If there is a quiz scheduled, the next step will be distributing the quiz.
* If there is no quiz scheduled or the quiz is complete (and collected), the instructor may introduce the lecture topic (“Today, we will be discussing Decisions and Decision Structures”) and start the class.
* etc.

This type of “branching” between multiple choices can be represented with an [activity diagram](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Activity_diagram):

“An Activity Diagram on Teaching a Class”

“An Activity Diagram on Teaching a Class”

In C#, we will express

* repetitions (or “loops”) (“As long as there are questions…”) with the while, do…while and for keywords,
* branchings (“If there is a quiz…”) with the if, if…else and switch keywords.

Both structures need a datatype to express the result of a decision (“Is it *true* that there are questions.”, or “Is it *false* that there is a quiz.”) called booleans. Boolean values can be set with conditions, that can be composed in different ways using three operators (“and”, “or” and “not”). For example, “If today is a Monday or Wednesday, and it is not past 10:10 am, the class will also include a brief reminder about the upcoming exam.”

# Boolean Variables and Values

## Variables

We can store if something is true or false (“The user has reached the age of majority”, “The switch is on”, “The user is using Windows”, “This computer’s clock indicates that we are in the afternoon”, …) in a variable of type boolean, which is also known as a boolean *flag*. Note that true and false are the only possible two values for boolean variables: there is no third option!

We can declare, assign, initialize and display a boolean variable (flag) as with any other variable:

bool learning\_how\_to\_program = true;  
Console.WriteLine(learning\_how\_to\_program);

## Operations on Boolean Values

Boolean variables have only two possible values (true and false), but we can use three operations to construct more complex booleans:

1. “and” (&&, conjunction),
2. “or” (||, disjunction),
3. and “not” (!, negation).

Each has the precise meaning described here:

1. the condition “A and B” is true if and only if A is true, and B is true,
2. “A or B” is false if and only if A is false, and B is false (that is, it takes only one to make their disjunction true),
3. “not A” is true if and only if A is false (that is, “not” “flips” the value it is applied to).

The expected results of these operations can be displayed in *truth tables*, as follows:

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| true && true | true |
| true && false | false |
| false && true | false |
| false && false | false |

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| true || true | true |
| true || false | true |
| false || true | true |
| false || false | false |

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| !true | false |
| !false | true |

These tables can also be written in 2-dimensions, as can be seen for [conjunction on wikipedia](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Truth_table#Logical_conjunction_(AND)).

# Equality and Relational Operators

Boolean values can also be set through expressions, or tests, that “evaluate” a condition or series of conditions as true or false. For instance, you can write an expression meaning “variable myAge has the value 12” which will evaluate to true if the value of myAge is indeed 12, and to false otherwise. *To ease your understanding*, we will write “expression true” to indicate that “expression” evaluates to true below, but this is *not* part of C#’s syntax.

Here we use two kinds of operators:

* Equality operators test if two values (literal or variable) are the same. This works on all datatypes.
* Relational operators test if a value (literal or variable) is greater or smaller (strictly or largely) than an other value or variable.

Relational operators will be primarily used for numerical values.

## Equality Operators

In C#, we can test for equality and inequality using two operators, == and !=.

| Mathematical Notation | C# Notation | Example |
| --- | --- | --- |
|  | == | 3 == 4 false |
|  | != | 3!=4 true |

Note that testing for equality uses *two equal signs*: C# already uses a single equal sign for assignments (e.g. myAge = 12;), so it had to pick another notation! It is fairly common across programing languages to use a single equal sign for assignments and double equal for comparisons.

Writing a != b (“a is not the same as b”) is actually logically equivalent to writing !(a == b) (“it is not true that a is the same as b”), and both expressions are acceptable in C#.

We can test numerical values for equality, but actually any datatype can use those operators. Here are some examples for int, string, char and bool:

int myAge = 12;  
string myName = "Thomas";  
char myInitial = 'T';  
bool cs\_major = true;  
Console.WriteLine("My age is 12: " + (myAge == 12));  
Console.WriteLine("My name is Bob: " + (myName == "Bob"));  
Console.WriteLine("My initial is Q: " + (myInitial == 'Q'));  
Console.WriteLine("My major is Computer Science: " + cs\_major);

This program will display

My age is 12: True  
My name is Bob: False  
My initial is Q: False  
My major is Computer Science: True

Remember that C# is case-sensitive, and that applies to the equality operators as well: for C#, the string Thomas is not the same as the string thomas. This also holds for characters like a versus A.

Console.WriteLine("C# is case-sensitive for string comparison: " + ("thomas" != "Thomas"));  
Console.WriteLine("C# is case-sensitive for character comparison: " + ('C' != 'c'));  
Console.WriteLine("But C# does not care about 0 decimal values: " + (12.00 == 12));

This program will display:

C# is case-sensitive for string comparison: True  
C# is case-sensitive for character comparison: True  
But C# does not care about 0 decimal values: True

## Relational Operators

We can test if a value or a variable is greater than another, using the following *relational* operators.

| Mathematical Notation | C# Notation | Example |
| --- | --- | --- |
|  | > | 3 > 4 false |
|  | < | 3 < 4 true |
| or | >= | 3 >= 4 false |
| or | <= | 3 <= 4 true |

Relational operators can also compare char, but the order is a bit complex (you can find it explained, for instance, [in this stack overflow answer](https://stackoverflow.com/a/14967721/)).

## Precedence of Operators

All of the operators have a “precedence”, which is the order in which they are evaluated. The precedence is as follows:

| Operator |  |
| --- | --- |
| ! | is evaluated before |
| \*, /, and % | which are evaluated before |
| + and - | which are evaluated before |
| <, >, <=, and >= | which are evaluated before |
| == and != | which are evaluated before |
| && | which is evaluated before |
| || | which comes last. |

* Operators with higher precedence (higher in the table) are evaluated before operators with lower precedence (lower in the table). For instance, in an expression like 2\*3+4, 2\*3 will have higher precedence than 3+4, and thus be evaluated first: 2\*3+4 is to be read as (2\*3)+4 = 6 + 4 = 10 and *not* as 2\*(3+4) = 2\*7 = 14.
* Operators on the same row have equal precedence and are evaluated in the order they appear, from left to right: in 1-2+3, 1-2 will be evaluated before 2+3: 1-2+3 is to be read as (1-2)+3 = -1 + 3 = 2 and *not* as 1-(2+3) = 1-5 = 4.
* Forgetting about precedence can lead to errors that can be hard to debug: for instance, an expression such as ! 4 == 2 will give the error
* The `!' operator cannot be applied to operand of type `int'
* Since ! has a higher precedence than ==, C# first attempts to compute the result of !4, which corresponds to “not 4”. As negation (!) is an operation that can be applied only to booleans, this expression does not make sense and C# reports an error. The expression can be rewritten to change the order of evaluation by using parentheses, e.g. you can write !(4 == 2), which will correctly be evaluated to true.

# if, if-else and if-else-if Statements

## if Statements

* Introduction
  + Recall from a previous lecture (Booleans and Comparisons) that decision structures change the flow of code execution based on conditions
  + Now that we know how to write conditions in C#, we can write decision structures
  + Our first decision structure is the **if statement**, which executes a block of code *only if a condition is true*
* Example code with an if statement:
* Console.WriteLine("Enter your age");  
  int age = int.Parse(Console.ReadLine());  
  if (age >= 18)  
  {  
   Console.WriteLine("You can vote!");  
  }  
  Console.WriteLine("Goodbye");
  + After the keyword if is a condition, in parentheses: age >= 18
  + On the next line after the if statement, the curly brace begins a code block. The code in this block is “controlled” by the if statement.
  + If the condition age >= 18 is true, the code in the block (the WriteLine statement with the text “You can vote!”) gets executed, then execution proceeds to the next line (the WriteLine statement that prints “Goodbye”)
  + If the condition age >= 18 is false, the code in the block gets *skipped*, and execution proceeds directly to the line that prints “Goodbye”
  + The behavior of this program can be represented by this flowchart:
  + “A flowchart representation of an if statement”
  + “A flowchart representation of an if statement”
  + Example interaction 1:
  + Enter your age  
    20  
    You can vote!  
    Goodbye
  + When the user enters “20”, the value 20 is assigned to the age variable, so the condition age >= 18 is true. This means the code inside the if statement’s block gets executed.
  + Example interaction 2:
  + Enter your age  
    17  
    Goodbye
  + When the user enters “17”, the value 17 is assigned to the age variable, so the condition age >= 18 is false, and the if statement’s code block gets skipped.
* Syntax and rules for if statements
  + Formally, the syntax for an if statement is this:
  + if (<condition>)  
    {  
     <statements>  
    }
  + The “condition” in parentheses can be any expression that produces a bool value, including all of the combinations of conditions we saw in the previous lecture (Booleans and Comparisons). It can even be a bool variable, since a bool variable “contains” a bool value.
  + Note that there is no semicolon after the if (<condition>). It’s a kind of “header” for the following block of code, like a method header.
  + The statements in the code block will be executed if the condition evaluates to true, or skipped if it evaluates to false
  + If the code block contains only *one* statement, the curly braces can be omitted, producing the following syntax:
  + if(<condition>)  
     <statement>
  + For example, the if statement in our previous example could be written like this, since there was only one statement in the code block:
  + if(age >= 18)  
     Console.WriteLine("You can vote!");  
    Console.WriteLine("Goodbye");
  + Omitting the curly braces is slightly dangerous, though, because it makes it less obvious which line of code is controlled by the if statement. It is up to you, the programmer, to remember to indent the line after the if statement, and then de-indent the line after that; indentation is just a convention. Curly braces make it easier to see where the if statement starts and ends.

## if-else Statements

* Introductory example:
* if(age >= 18)  
  {  
   Console.WriteLine("You can vote!");  
  }  
  else  
  {  
   Console.WriteLine("You are too young to vote");  
  }  
  Console.WriteLine("Goodbye");
  + The **if-else statement** is a decision structure that chooses *which* block of code to execute, based on whether a condition is true or false
  + In this example, the condition is age >= 18 again
  + The first block of code (underneath the if) will be executed if the statement is true – the console will display “You can vote!”
  + The *second* block of code, which comes after the keyword else, will be executed if the statement is *false* – so if the user’s age is less than 18, the console will display “You are too young to vote”
  + Only one of these blocks of code will be executed; the other will be skipped
  + After executing one of the two code blocks, execution continues at the next line after the else block, so in either case the console will next display “Goodbye”
  + The behavior of this program can be represented by this flowchart:
  + “A flowchart representation of an if-else statement”
  + “A flowchart representation of an if-else statement”
* Syntax and comparison
  + Formally, the syntax for an if-else statement is this:
  + if (<condition>)  
    {  
     <statement block 1>  
    }  
    else  
    {  
     <statement block 2>  
    }
  + As with the if statement, the condition can be anything that produces a bool value
  + Note that there is no semicolon after the else keyword
  + If the condition is true, the code in statement block 1 is executed (this is sometimes called the “if block”), and statement block 2 is skipped
  + If the condition is false, the code in statement block 2 is executed (this is sometimes called the “else block”), and statement block 1 is skipped
  + This is very similar to an if statement; the difference is what happens if the condition is false
    - With an if statement, the “if block” is executed if the condition is true, but *nothing happens* if the condition is false.
    - With an if-else statement, the code in the “else block” is executed if the condition is false, so something always happens - one of the two code blocks will get executed

## Nested if-else Statements

* Decisions with more complex conditions
  + If-else statements are used to change program flow based on a condition; they represent making a decision
  + Sometimes decisions are more complex than a single yes/no question: once you know whether a certain condition is true or false, you then need to ask another question (check another condition) based on the outcome
  + For example, we could improve our voting program to ask the user whether he/she is a US citizen, as well as his/her age. This means there are two conditions to evaluate, as shown in this flowchart:
  + “A flowchart representation of the nested if-else statement”
  + “A flowchart representation of the nested if-else statement”
    - First, the program should test whether the user is a citizen. If not, there is no need to check the user’s age, since he/she can’t vote anyway
    - If the user is a citizen, the program should then test whether the user is over 18 to determine if he/she is old enough to vote.
* Using nested if statements
  + An if statement’s code block can contain any kind of statements, including another if statement
  + Putting an if statement inside an if block represents making a sequence of decisions - once execution has reached the inside of an if block, your program “knows” that the if condition is true, so it can proceed to make the next decision
  + For the voting example, we can implement the decision structure from the flowchart above with this code, assuming age is an int and usCitizen is a bool:
  + if(usCitizen == true)  
    {  
     if(age >= 18)  
     {  
     Console.WriteLine("You can vote!");  
     }  
     else  
     {  
     Console.WriteLine("You are too young to vote");  
     }  
    }  
    else  
    {  
     Console.WriteLine("Sorry, only citizens can vote");  
    }  
    Console.WriteLine("Goodbye");
    - First, the program tests the condition usCitizen == true, and if it is true, the code in the first “if block” is executed
    - Within this if block is another if statement that tests the condition age >= 18. This represents checking the user’s age after determining that he/she is a US citizen - execution only reaches this second if statement if the first one evaluated to true. So “You can vote” is printed if both usCitizen == true and age >= 18
    - If the condition usCitizen == true is false, the if block is skipped and the else block is executed instead, so the entire inner if statement is never executed – the user’s age doesn’t matter if he/she isn’t a citizen
    - Note that the condition usCitizen == true could also be expressed by just writing the name of the variable usCitizen (i.e. the if statement would be if(usCitizen)), because usCitizen is a bool variable. We don’t need the equality comparison operator to test if it is true, because an if statement already tests whether its condition is true (and a bool variable by itself is a valid condition)
    - Note that indentation helps you match up an else block to its corresponding if block. The meaning of else depends on which if statement it goes with: the “outer” else will be executed if the condition usCitizen == true is false, while the “inner” else will be executed if the condition age >= 18 is false.
  + Nested if statements don’t need to be the *only* code in the if block; you can still write other statements before or after the nested if
  + For example, we could change our voting program so that it only asks for the user’s age if he/she is a citizen:
  + if(usCitizen == true)  
    {  
     Console.WriteLine("Enter your age");  
     int age = int.Parse(Console.ReadLine());  
     if(age >= 18)  
     {  
     Console.WriteLine("You can vote!");  
     }  
     else  
     {  
     Console.WriteLine("You are too young to vote");  
     }  
    }  
    else  
    {  
     Console.WriteLine("Sorry, only citizens can vote");  
    }  
    Console.WriteLine("Goodbye");

## if-else-if Statements

* Mutually exclusive conditions
  + Sometimes your program needs to test multiple conditions at once, and take different actions depending on which one is true
  + Example: We want to write a program that tells the user which floor a ClassRoom object is on, based on its room number
    - If the room number is between 100 and 200 it’s on the first floor; if it’s between 200 and 300 it’s on the second floor; if it’s greater than 300 it’s on the third floor
  + There are 3 ranges of numbers to test, and 3 possible results, so we can’t do it with a single if-else statement
* If-else-if syntax
  + An if-else-if statement looks like this:
  + if(<condition 1>)  
    {  
     <statement block 1>  
    }  
    else if(<condition 2>)  
    {  
     <statement block 2>  
    }  
    else if(<condition 3>)  
    {  
     <statement block 3>  
    }  
    else  
    {  
     <statement block 4>  
    }
  + Unlike an if statement, there are multiple conditions
  + They are evaluated *in order*, top to bottom
  + Just like with if-else, exactly one block of code will get executed
  + If condition 1 is true, statement block 1 is executed, and everything else is skipped
  + If condition 1 is false, statement block 1 is skipped, and execution proceeds to the first else if line; condition 2 is then evaluated
  + If condition 2 is true, statement block 2 is executed, and everything else is skipped
    - Thus, statement block 2 is only executed if condition 1 is false *and* condition 2 is true
  + Same process repeats for condition 3: If condition 2 is false, condition 3 is evaluated, and statement block 3 is either executed or skipped
  + If *all* the conditions are false, the final else block (statement block 4) is executed
* Using if-else-if to solve the “floors problem”
  + Assuming myRoom is a ClassRoom object, this code will display which floor it is on:
  + if(myRoom.GetNumber() >= 300)  
    {  
     Console.WriteLine("Third floor");  
    }  
    else if(myRoom.GetNumber() >= 200)  
    {  
     Console.WriteLine("Second floor");  
    }  
    else if(myRoom.GetNumber() >= 100)  
    {  
     Console.WriteLine("First floor");  
    }  
    else  
    {  
     Console.WriteLine("Invalid room number");  
    }
  + If the room number 300 or greater (e.g. 365), the first “if” block is executed, and the rest are skipped. The program prints “Third floor”
  + If the room number is less than 300, the program continues to the line else if(myRoom.GetNumber() >= 200) and evaluates the condition
  + If myRoom.GetNumber() >= 200 is true, it means the room number is between 200 and 299, and the program will print “Second floor.” Even though the condition only tests whether the room number is >= 200, this condition is only evaluated if the first one was false, so we know the room number must be < 300.
  + If the second condition is false, the program continues to the line else if(myRoom.GetNumber() >= 100), evaluates the condition, and prints “First floor” if it is true.
  + Again, the condition myRoom.GetNumber() >= 100 is only evaluated if the first two conditions have already been tested and turned out false, so we know the room number is less than 300 and less than 200.
  + In the final else block, the program prints “Invalid room number” because this block is only executed if the room number is less than 100 (all three conditions were false).
* if-else-if with different conditions
  + We often use if-else-if statements to test the same variable multiple times, but there is no requirement for the conditions to use the same variable
  + An if-else-if statement can use several different variables, and its conditions can be completely unrelated, like this:
  + int x;  
    if(myIntVar > 12)  
    {  
     x = 10;  
    }  
    else if(myStringVar == "Yes")  
    {  
     x = 20;  
    }  
    else if(myBoolVar)  
    {  
     x = 30;  
    }  
    else  
    {  
     x = 40;  
    }
  + Note that the order of the else-if statements still matters, because they are evaluated top-to-bottom. If myIntVar is 15, it doesn’t matter what values myStringVar or myBoolVar have, because the first if block (setting x to 10) will get executed.
  + Example outcomes of running this code (which value x is assigned) based on the values of myIntVar, myStringVar, and myBoolVar:

| * + myIntVar | * + myStringVar | * + myBoolVar | * + x |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| * + 12 | * + “Yes” | * + true | * + 20 |
| * + 15 | * + “Yes” | * + false | * + 10 |
| * + -15 | * + “yes” | * + true | * + 30 |
| * + 10 | * + “yes” | * + false | * + 40 |

* if-else-if vs. nested if
  + Sometimes a nested if statement can be rewritten as an if-else-if statement
  + This reduces the amount of indentation in your code, which makes it easier to read
  + To convert a nested if statement to if-else-if, you’ll need to combine the conditions of the “outer” and “inner” if statements, using the logical operators
  + A nested if statement inside an if block is testing whether the outer if’s condition is true *and* its own condition is true, so combine them with the && operator
  + The else block of the inner if statement can be rewritten as an else if by combining the outer if’s condition with the *opposite* of the inner if’s condition, since “else” means “the condition is false.” We need to explicitly write down the “false condition” that is normally implied by else.
  + For example, we can rewrite this nested if statement:
  + if(usCitizen == true)  
    {  
     if(age >= 18)  
     {  
     Console.WriteLine("You can vote!");  
     }  
     else  
     {  
     Console.WriteLine("You are too young to vote");  
     }  
    }  
    else  
    {  
     Console.WriteLine("Sorry, only citizens can vote");  
    }
  + as this if-else-if statement:
  + if(usCitizen == true && age >= 18)  
    {  
     Console.WriteLine("You can vote!");  
    }  
    else if(usCitizen == true && age < 18)  
    {  
     Console.WriteLine("You are too young to vote");  
    }  
    else  
    {  
     Console.WriteLine("Sorry, only citizens can vote");  
    }
  + Note that the else from the inner if statement becomes else if(usCitizen == true && age < 18) because we combined the outer if condition (usCitizen == true) with the opposite of the inner if condition (age >= 18).
  + Not all nested if statements can be rewritten this way. If there is additional code in a block, other than the nested if statement, it’s harder to convert it to an if-else-if
  + For example, in this nested if statement:
  + if(usCitizen == true)  
    {  
     Console.WriteLine("Enter your age");  
     int age = int.Parse(Console.ReadLine());  
     if(age >= 18)  
     {  
     Console.WriteLine("You can vote!");  
     }  
     else  
     {  
     Console.WriteLine("You are too young to vote");  
     }  
    }  
    else  
    {  
     Console.WriteLine("Sorry, only citizens can vote");  
    }  
    Console.WriteLine("Goodbye");
  + the code that asks for the user’s age executes after the outer if condition is determined to be true, but before the inner if condition is tested. There would be nowhere to put this code if we tried to convert it to an if-else-if statement, since both conditions must be tested at the same time (in if(usCitizen == true && age >= 18)).
  + On the other hand, any if-else-if statement can be rewritten as a nested if statement
  + To convert an if-else-if statement to a nested if statement, rewrite each else if as an else block with a nested if statement inside it – like you’re splitting the “if” from the “else”
  + This results in a lot of indenting if there are many else if lines, since each one becomes another nested if inside an else block
  + For example, the “floors problem” could be rewritten like this:
  + if(myRoom.GetNumber() >= 300)  
    {  
     Console.WriteLine("Third floor");  
    }  
    else  
    {  
     if(myRoom.GetNumber() >= 200)  
     {  
     Console.WriteLine("Second floor");  
     }  
     else  
     {  
     if(myRoom.GetNumber() >= 100)  
     {  
     Console.WriteLine("First floor");  
     }  
     else  
     {  
     Console.WriteLine("Invalid room number");  
     }  
     }  
    }

# Switch Statements and the Conditional Operator

## Switch Statements

* Introduction: Multiple equality comparisons
  + In some situations, your program will need to test if a variable is equal to one of several values, and perform a different action based on which value the variable matches
  + For example, you have an int variable named month containing a month number, and want to convert it to a string with the name of the month. This means your program needs to take a different action depending on whether month is equal to 1, 2, 3, … or 12:
  + “A flowchart representation of the mapping between month number and name”
  + “A flowchart representation of the mapping between month number and name”
  + One way to do this is with a series of if-else-if statements, one for each possible value, like this:
  + Console.WriteLine("Enter the month as a number between 1 and 12.");  
    int month = int.Parse(Console.ReadLine());  
    string monthName;  
    if(month == 1)  
    {  
     monthName = "January";  
    }  
    else if(month == 2)  
    {  
     monthName = "February";  
    }  
    else if(month == 3)  
    {  
     monthName = "March";  
    }  
    else if(month == 4)  
    {  
     monthName = "April";  
    }  
    else if(month == 5)  
    {  
     monthName = "May";  
    }  
    else if(month == 6)  
    {  
     monthName = "June";  
    }  
    else if(month == 7)  
    {  
     monthName = "July";  
    }  
    else if(month == 8)  
    {  
     monthName = "August";  
    }  
    else if(month == 9)  
    {  
     monthName = "September";  
    }  
    else if(month == 10)  
    {  
     monthName = "October";  
    }  
    else if(month == 11)  
    {  
     monthName = "November";  
    }  
    else if(month == 12)  
    {  
     monthName = "December";  
    }  
    else  
    {  
     monthName = "Error!"; // Invalid month  
    }  
    Console.WriteLine("The number " + month + " corresponds to the month " + monthName + ".")
  + This code is very repetitive, though: every else if statement is almost the same, with only the number changing. The text “if(month ==” is copied over and over again.
* Syntax for switch statements
  + A switch statement is a simpler, easier way to compare a single variable against multiple possible values
  + It is written like this:
  + switch (<variable name>)  
    {  
     case <value 1>:  
     <statement block 1>  
     break;  
     case <value 2>:  
     <statement block 2>  
     break;  
     …  
     default:  
     <statement block n>  
     break;  
    }
  + First, the “header” of the switch statement names the variable that will be compared
  + The “body” of the switch statement is enclosed in curly braces, and contains multiple case statements
  + Each case statement gives a possible value the variable could have, and a block of statements to execute if the variable equals that value. Statement block 1 is executed if the variable is equal to value 1, statement block 2 is executed if the variable is equal to value 2, etc.
  + The statement “block” within each case is **not** enclosed in curly braces, unlike if and else if blocks. Instead, it begins on the line after the case statement, and ends with the keyword break.
  + The default statement is like the else statement: It defines code that gets executed if the variable does not match any of the values in the case statements.
  + The values in each case statement must be **literals**, not variables, and they must be **unique** (you can’t write two case statements with the same value)
* Example switch statement
  + This program has the same behavior as our previous example, but uses a switch statement instaed of an if-else-if statement:
  + Console.WriteLine("Enter the month as a number between 1 and 12.");  
    int month = int.Parse(Console.ReadLine());  
    string monthName;  
    switch(month)  
    {  
     case 1:  
     monthName = "January";  
     break;  
     case 2:  
     monthName = "February";  
     break;  
     case 3:  
     monthName = "March";  
     break;  
     case 4:  
     monthName = "April";  
     break;  
     case 5:  
     monthName = "May";  
     break;  
     case 6:  
     monthName = "June";  
     break;  
     case 7:  
     monthName = "July";  
     break;  
     case 8:  
     monthName = "August";  
     break;  
     case 9:  
     monthName = "September";  
     break;  
     case 10:  
     monthName = "October";  
     break;  
     case 11:  
     monthName = "November";  
     break;  
     case 12:  
     monthName = "December";  
     break;  
     default:  
     monthName = "Error!"; // Invalid month  
     break;  
    }  
    Console.WriteLine("The number " + month + " corresponds to the month " + monthName + ".")
  + Since the variable in the switch statement is month, each case statement means, effectively, if (month == <value>). For example, case 1: has the same effect as if (month == 1)
  + The values in each case statement must be int literals, since month is an int
  + The default statement has the same effect as the final else in the if-else-if statement: it contains code that will be executed if month didn’t match any of the values
* switch with multiple statements
  + So far, our examples have used only one line of code in each case
  + Unlike if-else, you do not need curly braces to put multiple lines of code in a case
  + For example, imagine our “months” program needed to convert a month number to both a month name and a three-letter abbreviation. The switch would look like this:
  + string monthName;  
    string monthAbbrev;  
    switch(month)  
    {  
     case 1:  
     monthName = "January";  
     monthAbbrev = "Jan";  
     break;  
     case 2:  
     monthName = "February";  
     monthAbbrev = "Feb";  
     break;  
     // and so on, with all the other months...  
    }
  + The computer knows which statements are included in each case because of the break keyword. For the “1” case, the block of statements starts after case 1: and ends with the break; after monthAbbrev = "Jan";
* Intentionally omitting break
  + Each block of code that starts with a case statement must end with a break statement; it won’t automatically end at the next case statement
    - The case statement only defines where code execution *starts* when the variable matches a value (like an open {). The break statement defines where it *ends* (like a close }).
  + However, there’s one exception: A case statement with *no body* (code block) after it does not need a matching break
  + If there is more than one value that should have the same behavior, you can write case statements for both values above a single block of code, with no break between them. If *either one* matches, the computer will execute that block of code, and then stop at the break statement.
  + In a switch statement with this structure:
  + switch(<variable>)  
    {  
     case <value 1>:  
     case <value 2>:  
     <statement block 1>  
     break;  
     case <value 3>:  
     case <value 4>:  
     <statement block 2>  
     break;  
     default:  
     <statement block 3>  
     break;  
    }
  + The statements in block 1 will execute if the variable matches value 1 *or* value 2, and the statements in block 2 will execute if the variable matches value 3 *or* value 4.
  + For example, imagine our program needs to tell the user which season the month is in. If the month number is 1, 2, or 3, the season is the same (winter), so we can combine these 3 cases. This code will correctly initialize the string season:
  + switch(month)  
    {  
     case 1:  
     case 2:  
     case 3:  
     season = "Winter";  
     break;  
     case 4:  
     case 5:  
     case 6:  
     season = "Spring";  
     break;  
     case 7:  
     case 8:  
     case 9:  
     season = "Summer";  
     break;  
     case 10:  
     case 11:  
     case 12:  
     season = "Fall";  
     break;  
     default:  
     season = "Error!"  
     break;  
    }
  + If month is equal to 1, execution will start at case 1:, but the computer will continue past case 2 and case 3 and execute season = "Winter". It will then stop when it reaches the break, so season gets the value “Winter”. Similarly, if month is equal to 2, execution will start at case 2:, and continue until the break statement, so season will also get the value “Winter”.
  + This syntax allows switch statements to have conditions with a logical OR, equivalent to an if condition with an ||, like if(x == 1 || x == 2)
  + For example, the “seasons” statement could also be written as an if-else-if with || operators, like this:
  + if(month == 1 || month == 2 || month == 3)  
    {  
     season = "Winter";  
    }  
    else if(month == 4 || month == 5 || month == 6)  
    {  
     season = "Spring";  
    }  
    else if(month == 7 || month == 8 || month == 9)  
    {  
     season = "Summer";  
    }  
    else if(month == 10 || month == 11 || month == 12)  
    {  
     season = "Fall"  
    }  
    else  
    {  
     season = "Error!"  
    }
* Scope and switch
  + In C#, the scope of a variable is defined by curly braces (recall that local variables defined in a method have a scope that ends with the } at the end of the method)
  + Since the case statements in a switch do not have curly braces, they are all in the same scope: the one defined by the switch statement’s curly braces
  + This means you cannot declare a “local” variable within a case statement – it will be in scope (visible) to all the other case statements
  + For example, imagine you wanted to use a local variable named nextMonth to do some local computation within each case in the “months” program. This code will not work:
  + switch(month)  
    {  
     case 1:  
     int nextMonth = 2;  
     monthName = "January";  
     // do something with nextMonth...  
     break;  
     case 2:  
     int nextMonth = 3;  
     monthName = "February";  
     // do something with nextMonth...  
     break;  
     //...  
    }
  + The line int nextMonth = 3 would cause a compile error because a variable named nextMonth already exists – the one declared within case 1.
* Limitations of switch
  + Not all if-else-if statements can be rewritten as switch statements
  + switch can only test equality, so in general, only if statements whose condition uses == can be converted to switch
  + For example, imagine we have a program that determines how much of a fee to charge a rental car customer based on the number of miles the car was driven. A variable named mileage contains the number of miles driven, and it is used in this if-else-if statement:
  + decimal fee = 0;  
    if(mileage > 1000)  
    {  
     fee = 50.0M;  
    }  
    else if(mileage > 500)  
    {  
     fee = 25.0M;  
    }
  + This if-else-if statement could not be converted to switch(mileage) because of the condition mileage > 1000. The switch statement would need to have a case for each number greater than 1000, which is infinitely many.

## The Conditional Operator

* Assignment and if statements
  + There are many situations where we need to assign a variable to a different value depending on the result of a condition
  + For example, the if-else-if and switch statements in the previous section were used to decide which value to assign to the variable monthName
  + A simpler example: Imagine your program needs to tell the user whether a number is even or odd. You need to initialize a string variable to either “Even” or “Odd” depending on whether myInt % 2 is equal to 0. We could write an if statement to do this:
  + string output;  
    if(myInt % 2 == 0)  
    {  
     output = "Even";  
    }  
    else  
    {  
     output = "Odd";  
    }
* Assignment with the conditional operator
  + If the only thing an if statement does is assign a value to a variable, there’s a much shorter way to write it
  + The **conditional operator** ?: tests a condition, and then outputs one of two values based on the result
  + Continuing the “even or odd” example, the conditional operator is used like this:
  + string output = (myInt % 2 == 0) ? "Even" : "Odd";
  + When this line of code is executed:
    - The condition (myInt % 2 == 0) is evaluated, and the result is either true or false
    - If the condition is true, the conditional operator returns (outputs) the value "Even" (the left side of the :)
    - If the condition is false, the operator returns the value "Odd" (the right side of the :)
    - This value, either “Even” or “Odd”, is used in the initialization statement for string output
    - Thus, output gets assigned the value "Even" if (myInt % 2 == 0) is true, or "Odd" if (myInt % 2 == 0) is false
  + In general, the syntax for the conditional operator is:
  + condition ? true\_expression : false\_expression;
    - The “condition” can be any expression that produces a bool when evaluated, just like in an if statement
    - true\_expression and false\_expression can be variables, values, or more complex expressions, but they must both produce the same *type* of data when evaluated
    - For example, if true\_expression is myInt \* 1.5, then false\_expression must also produce a double
    - When the conditional operator is evaluated, it returns either the value of true\_expression or the value of false\_expression (depending on the condition) and this value can then be used in other operations such as assignment
* Conditional operator examples
  + The true\_expression and false\_expression can both be mathematical expressions, and only one of them will get computed. For example:
  + int answer = (myInt % 2 == 0) ? myInt / 2 : myInt + 1;
  + If myInt is even, the computer will evaluate myInt / 2 and assign the result to answer. If it is odd, the computer will evaluate myInt + 1 and assign the result to answer.
  + Conditional operators can be used with user input to quickly provide a “default value” if the user’s input is invalid. For example, we can write a program that asks the user their height, but uses a default value of 0 if the user enters a negative height:
  + Console.WriteLine("What is your height in meters?");  
    double userHeight = double.Parse(Console.ReadLine());  
    double height = (userHeight >= 0.0) ? userHeight : 0.0;
  + The condition can be a Boolean variable by itself, just like in an if statement. This allows you to write code that looks kind of like English, due to the question mark in the conditional operator. For example,
  + bool isAdult = age >= 18;  
    decimal price = isAdult ? 5.0m : 2.5m;  
    string closingTime = isAdult ? "10:00 pm" : "8:00 pm";

# Loops, Increment Operators, and Input Validation

## The -- and ++ Operators

* Increment and decrement basics
  + In C#, we have already seen multiple ways to add 1 to a numeric variable:
  + int myVar = 1;  
    myVar = myVar + 1;  
    myVar += 1
  + These two lines of code have the same effect; the += operator is “shorthand” for “add and assign”
  + The **increment operator**, ++, is an even shorter way to add 1 to a variable. It can be used in two ways:
  + myVar++;  
    ++myVar;
  + Writing ++ after the name of the variable is called a **postfix increment**, while writing ++ before the name of the variable is called a **prefix increment**. They both have the same effect on the variable: its value increases by 1.
  + Similarly, there are multiple ways to subtract 1 from a numeric variable:
  + int myVar = 10;  
    myVar = myVar - 1;  
    myVar -= 1;
  + The **decrement operator**, --, is a shortcut for subtracting 1 from a variable, and is used just like the increment operator:
  + myVar--;  
    --myVar;
  + To summarize, the increment and decrement operators both have a prefix and postfix version:

|  | * + Increment | * + Decrement |
| --- | --- | --- |
| * + Postfix | * + myVar++ | * + myVar-- |
| * + Prefix | * + ++myVar | * + --myVar |

* Difference between prefix and postfix
  + The prefix and postfix versions of the increment and decrement operators both have the same effect on the variable: Its value increases or decreases by 1
  + The difference between prefix and postfix is whether the “old” or “new” value of the variable is *returned* by the expression
  + With postfix increment/decrement, the operator returns the value of the variable, *then* increases/decreases it by 1
    - This means the value of the increment/decrement expression is the *old* value of the variable, before it was incremented/decremented
    - Consider this example:
    - int a = 1;  
      Console.WriteLine(a++);  
      Console.WriteLine(a--);
    - The expression a++ returns the current value of a, which is 1, to be used in Console.WriteLine. *Then* it increments a by 1, giving it a new value of 2. Thus, the first Console.WriteLine displays “1” on the screen.
    - The expression a-- returns the current value of a, which is 2, to be used in Console.WriteLine, and *then* decrements a by 1. Thus, the second Console.WriteLine displays “2” on the screen.
  + With prefix increment/decrement, the operator increases/decreases the value of the variable by 1, *then* returns its value
    - This means the value of the increment/decrement expression is the *new* value of the variable, after the increment/decrement
    - Consider the same code, but with prefix instead of postfix operators:
    - int a = 1;  
      Console.WriteLine(++a);  
      Console.WriteLine(--a);
    - The expression ++a increments a by 1, then returns the value of a for use in Console.WriteLine. Thus, the first Console.WriteLine displays “2” on the screen.
    - The expression --a decrements a by 1, then returns the value of a for use in Console.WriteLine. Thus, the second Console.WriteLine displays “1” on the screen.
* Using increment/decrement in expressions
  + The ++ and -- operators have higher precedence than the other math operators, so if you use them in an expression they will get executed first
  + The “result” of the operator, i.e. the value that will be used in the rest of the math expression, depends on whether it is the prefix or postfix increment/decrement operator: The prefix operator returns the variable’s new value, while the postfix operator returns the variable’s old value
  + Consider these examples:
  + int a = 1;  
    int b = a++;  
    int c = ++a \* 2 + 4;  
    int d = a-- + 1;
  + The variable b gets the value 1, because a++ returns the “old” value of a (1) and then increments a to 2
  + In the expression ++a \* 2 + 4, the operator ++a executes first, and it returns the new value of a, which is 3. Then the multiplication executes (3 \* 2, which is 6), then the addition (6 + 4, which is 10). Thus c gets the value 10.
  + In thee expression a-- + 1, the operator a-- executes first, and it returns the *old* value of a, which is 3 (even though a is now 2). Then the addition executes, so d gets the value 4.

## While Loops

* Introduction to while loops
  + There are two basic types of decision structures in all programming languages. We’ve just learned about the first, which is the “selection structure,” or if statement. This allows the program to choose whether or not to execute a block of code, based on a condition.
  + The second basic decision structure is the loop, which allows the program to execute the same block of code repeatedly, and choose when to stop based on a condition.
  + The **while statement** executes a block of code repeatedly, *as long as a condition is true*. You can also think of it as executing the code repeatedly *until a condition is false*
* Example code with a while loop
* int counter = 0;  
  while(counter <= 3)  
  {  
   Console.WriteLine("Hello again!");  
   Console.WriteLine(counter);  
   counter++;  
  }  
  Console.WriteLine("Done");
  + After the keyword while is a condition, in parentheses: counter <= 3
  + On the next line after the while statement, the curly brace begins a code block. The code in this block is “controlled” by the while statement.
  + The computer will repeatedly execute that block of code as long as the condition counter <= 3 is true
  + Note that inside this block of code is the statement counter++, which increments counter by 1. So eventually, counter will be greater than 3, and the loop will stop because the condition is false.
  + This program produces the following output:
  + Hello again!  
    0  
    Hello again!  
    1  
    Hello again!  
    2  
    Hello again!  
    3  
    Done
* Syntax and rules for while loops
  + Formally, the syntax for a while loop is this:
  + while(<condition>)  
    {  
     <statements>  
    }
  + Just like with an if statement, the condition is any expression that produces a bool value (including a bool variable by itself)
  + When the computer encounters a while loop, it first evaluates the condition
  + If the condition is false, the loop body (code block) is skipped, just like with an if statement
  + If the condition is true, the loop body is executed
  + After executing the loop body, the computer goes back to the while statement and evaluates the condition again to decide whether to execute the loop again
  + Just like with an if statement, the curly braces can be omitted if the loop body is just one statement:
  + while(<condition>)  
     <statement>
* Examining the example in detail
  + When our example program runs, it initializes counter to 0, then it encounters the loop
  + It evaluates the condition counter <= 0, which is true, so it executes the loop’s body. The program displays “Hello again!” and “0” on the screen.
  + At the end of the code block (after counter++) the program returns to the while statement and evaluates the condition again. 1 is less than 3, so it executes the loop’s body again.
  + This process repeats two more times, and the program displays “Hello again!” with “2” and “3”
  + After displaying “3”, counter++ increments counter to 4. Then the program returns to the while statement and evaluates the condition, but counter <= 3 is false, so it skips the loop body and executes the last line of code (displaying “Done”)
* While loops may execute zero times
  + You might think that a “loop” always repeats code, but nothing requires a while loop to execute at least once
  + If the condition is false when the computer first encounters the loop, the loop body is skipped
  + For example, if we initialize counter to 5 with our previous loop:
  + int counter = 5;  
    while(counter <= 3)  
    {  
     Console.WriteLine("Hello again!");  
     Console.WriteLine(counter);  
     counter++;  
    }  
    Console.WriteLine("Done");
  + The program will only display “Done,” because the body of the loop never executes. counter <= 3 is false the first time it is evaluated, so the program skips the code block and continues on the next line.
* Ensuring the loop ends
  + If the loop condition is always true, the loop will never end, and your program will run “forever” (until you forcibly stop it, or the computer shuts down)
  + Obviously, if you use the value true for the condition, the loop will run forever, like in this example:
  + int number = 1;  
    while (true)  
     Console.WriteLine(number++);
  + If you don’t intend your loop to run forever, you must ensure the statements in the loop’s body do something to *change a variable* in the loop condition, otherwise the condition will stay true
  + For example, this loop will run forever because the loop condition uses the variable counter, but the loop body does not change the value of counter:
  + int counter = 0;  
    while(counter <= 3)  
    {  
     Console.WriteLine("Hello again!");  
     Console.WriteLine(counter);  
    }  
    Console.WriteLine("Done");
  + This loop will also run forever because the loop condition uses the variable num1, but the loop body changes the variable num2:
  + int num1 = 0, num2 = 0;  
    while(num1 <= 5)  
    {  
     Console.WriteLine("Hello again!");  
     Console.WriteLine(num1);  
     num2++;  
    }  
    Console.WriteLine("Done");
  + It’s not enough for the loop body to simply change the variable; it must change the variable in a way that will eventually *make the condition false*
    - For example, if the loop condition is counter <= 5, then the loop body must increase the value of counter so that it is eventually greater than 5
    - This loop will run forever, even though it changes the right variable, because it changes the value in the wrong “direction”:
    - int number = 10;  
      while(number >= 0)  
      {  
       Console.WriteLine("Hello again!");  
       Console.WriteLine(number);  
       number++;  
      }
    - The loop condition checks to see whether number is 0, and number starts out at the value 10. But the loop body increments number, which only moves it further away from 0 in the positive direction. In order for this loop to work correctly, we need to *decrement* number in the loop body, so that eventually it will be less than 0.
    - This loop will run forever, even though it uses the right variable in the loop body, because it multiplies the variable by 0:
    - int number = 0;  
      while (number <= 64)  
      {  
       Console.WriteLine(number);  
       number \*= 2;  
      }
    - Since number was initialized to 0, number \*= 2 doesn’t actually change the value of number: . So the loop body will never make the condition number <= 64 false.
* Principles of writing a while loop
  + When writing a while loop, ask yourself these questions about your program:
    1. When (under what conditions) do I want the loop to continue?
    2. When (under what conditions) do I want the loop to stop?
    3. How will the body of the loop bring it closer to its ending condition?
  + This will help you think clearly about how to write your loop condition. You should write a condition (Boolean expression) that will be true in the circumstances described by (1), and false in the circumstances described by (2)
  + Keep your answer to (3) in mind as you write the body of the loop, and make sure the actions in your loop’s body match the condition you wrote.

## Loops and Input Validation

* Valid and invalid data
  + Depending on the purpose of your program, each variable might have a limited range of values that are “valid” or “good,” even if the data type can hold more
  + For example, a decimal variable that holds a price (in dollars) should have a positive value, even though it’s legal to store negative numbers in a decimal
  + On a recent quiz we saw the Item class, which represents an item sold in a store, and it has a price attribute that should only store positive values
  + When you write a program that constructs an Item from literal values, you (the programmer) can make sure you only use positive prices. However, if you construct an Item based on input provided by the user, you can’t be certain that the user will follow directions and enter a valid price:
  + Console.WriteLine("Enter the item's description");  
    string desc = Console.ReadLine();  
    Console.WriteLine("Enter the item's price (must be positive)");  
    decimal price = decimal.Parse(Console.ReadLine());  
    Item myItem = new Item(desc, price);
  + In this code, if the user enters a negative number, the myItem object will have a negative price, even though that doesn’t make sense.
  + One way to guard against “bad” user input values is to use an if statement or a conditional operator, as we saw in the previous lecture (Switch and Conditional), to provide a default value if the user’s input is invalid. In our example with Item, we could add a conditional operator to check whether price is negative before providing it to the Item constructor:
  + decimal price = decimal.Parse(Console.ReadLine());  
    Item myItem = new Item(desc, (price >= 0) ? price : 0);
  + In this code, the second argument to the Item constructor is the result of the conditional operator, which will be 0 if price is negative.
  + You can also put the conditional operator inside the constructor, to ensure that an Item with an invalid price can never be created. If we wrote this constructor inside the Item class:
  + public Item(string initDesc, decimal initPrice)  
    {  
     description = initDesc;  
     price = (initPrice >= 0) ? initPrice : 0;  
    }
  + then the instantiation new Item(desc, price) would never be able to create an object with a negative price. If the user provides an invalid price, the constructor will ignore their value and initialize the price instance variable to 0 instead.
* Ensuring data is valid with a loop
  + Another way to protect your program from “bad” user input is to check whether the data is valid as soon as the user enters it, and prompt him/her to re-enter the data if it is not valid
  + A while loop is the perfect fit for this approach: you can write a loop condition that is true when the user’s input is *invalid*, and ask the user for input in the body of the loop. This means your program will repeatedly ask the user for input until he/she enters valid data.
  + This code uses a while loop to ensure the user enters a non-negative price:
  + Console.WriteLine("Enter the item's price.");  
    decimal price = decimal.Parse(Console.ReadLine());  
    while(price < 0)  
    {  
     Console.WriteLine("Invalid price. Please enter a non-negative price.");  
     price = decimal.Parse(Console.ReadLine());  
    }  
    Item myItem = new Item(desc, price);
    - The condition for the while loop is price < 0, which is true when the user’s input is invalid
    - If the user enters a valid price the first time, the loop will not run at all – remember that a while loop will skip the code block if the condition is false
    - Inside the loop’s body, we ask the user for input again, and assign the result of decimal.Parse to the same price variable we use in the loop condition. This is what ensures that the loop will end: the variable in the condition gets changed in the body.
    - If the user still enters a negative price, the loop condition will be true, and the body will execute again (prompting them to try again)
    - If the user enters a valid price, the loop condition will be false, so the program will proceed to the next line and instantiate the Item
    - Note that the *only* way for the program to “escape” from the while loop is for the user to enter a valid price. This means that new Item(desc, price) is guaranteed to create an Item with a non-negative price, even if we did not write the constructor that checks whether initPrice >= 0. On the next line of code after the end of a while loop, you can be certain that the loop’s condition is false, otherwise execution would not have reached that point.
* Ensuring the user enters a number with TryParse
  + Another way that user input might be invalid: When asked for a number, the user could enter something that is not a number
  + The Parse methods we have been using assume that the string they are given (in the argument) is a valid number, and produce a run-time error if it is not
    - For example, this program that you might remember from lab will crash if the user enters “hello” instead of a number:
    - Console.WriteLine("Guess a number"):  
      int guess = int.Parse(Console.ReadLine());  
      if(guess == favoriteNumber)  
      {  
       Console.WriteLine("That's my favorite number!");  
      }
  + Each built-in data type has a **TryParse method** that will *attempt* to convert a string to a number, but will not crash (produce a run-time error) if the conversion fails. Instead, TryParse indicates failure by returning the Boolean value false
  + The TryParse method is used like this:
  + string userInput = Console.ReadLine();  
    int intVar;  
    bool success = int.TryParse(userInput, out intVar);
    - The first parameter is a string to be parsed (userInput)
    - The second parameter is an **out parameter**, and it is the name of a variable that will be assigned the result of the conversion. The keyword out indicates that a method parameter is used for *output* rather than *input*, and so the variable you use for that argument will be changed by the method.
    - The return type of TryParse is bool, not int, and the value returned indicates whether the input string was successfully parsed
    - If the string userInput contains an integer, TryParse will assign that integer value to intVar and return true (which gets assigned to success)
    - If the string userInput does not contain an integer, TryParse will assign 0 to intVar and return false (which gets assigned to success)
    - Either way, the program will not crash, and intVar will be assigned a new value
  + The other data types have TryParse methods that are used the same way. The code will follow this general format:
  + bool success = <numeric datatype>.TryParse(<string to convert>, out <numeric variable to store result>)
  + Note that the variable you use in the out parameter must be the same type as the one whose TryParse method is being called. If you write decimal.TryParse, the out parameter must be a decimal variable.
  + A more complete example of using TryParse:
  + Console.WriteLine("Please enter an integer");  
    string userInput = Console.ReadLine();  
    int intVar;  
    bool success = int.TryParse(userInput, out intVar);  
    if(success)  
    {  
     Console.WriteLine($"The value entered was an integer: {intVar}");  
    }  
    else  
    {  
     Console.WriteLine($"\"{userInput}\" was not an integer");  
    }  
    Console.WriteLine(intVar);
    - The TryParse method will attempt to convert the user’s input to an int and store the result in intVar
    - If the user entered an integer, success will be true, and the program will display “The value entered was an integer:” followed by the user’s value
    - If the user entered some other string, success will be false, and the program will display a message indicating that it was not an integer
    - Either way, intVar will be assigned a value, so it’s safe to write Console.WriteLine(intVar). This will display the user’s input if the user entered an integer, or “0” if the user did not enter an integer.
  + Just like with Parse, you can use Console.ReadLine() itself as the first argument rather than a string variable. Also, you can declare the output variable within the out parameter, instead of on a previous line. So we can read user input, declare an int variable, and attempt to parse the user’s input all on one line:
  + bool success = int.TryParse(Console.ReadLine(), out int intVar);
  + You can use the return value of TryParse in a while loop to keep prompting the user until they enter valid input:
  + Console.WriteLine("Please enter an integer");  
    bool success = int.TryParse(Console.ReadLine(), out int number);  
    while(!success)  
    {  
     Console.WriteLine("That was not an integer, please try again.");  
     success = int.TryParse(Console.ReadLine(), out number);  
    }
    - The loop condition should be true when the user’s input is *invalid*, so we use the negation operator ! to write a condition that is true when success is false
    - Each time the loop body executes, both success and number are assigned new values by TryParse

# Do-While Loops and Loop Vocabulary

## The do-while Statement

* Comparing while and if statements
  + while and if are very similar: Both test a condition, execute a block of code if the condition is true, and skip the block of code if the condition is false
  + There’s only a difference if the condition is true: if statements only execute the block of code once if the condition is true, but while statements may execute the block of code multiple times if the condition is true
  + Compare these snippets of code:
  + if(number < 3)  
    {  
     Console.WriteLine("Hello!");  
     Console.WriteLine(number);  
     number++;  
    }  
    Console.WriteLine("Done");
  + and
  + while(number < 3)  
    {  
     Console.WriteLine("Hello!");  
     Console.WriteLine(number);  
     number++;  
    }  
    Console.WriteLine("Done");
    - If number is 4, then both will do the same thing: skip the block of code and display “Done”.
    - If number is 2, both will also do the same thing: Display “Hello!” and “2”, then increment number to 3 and print “Done”.
    - If number is 1, there is a difference: The if statement will only display “Hello!” once, but the while statement will display “Hello! 2” and “Hello! 3” before displaying “Done”
* Since the while loop evaluates the condition before executing the code in the body (like an if statement), you sometimes end up duplicating code
  + For example, consider an input-validation loop like the one we wrote for Item prices:
  + Console.WriteLine("Enter the item's price.");  
    decimal price = decimal.Parse(Console.ReadLine());  
    while(price < 0)  
    {  
     Console.WriteLine("Invalid price. Please enter a non-negative price.");  
     price = decimal.Parse(Console.ReadLine());  
    }  
    Item myItem = new Item(desc, price);
  + Before the while loop, we wrote two lines of code to prompt the user for input, read the user’s input, convert it to decimal, and store it in price
  + In the body of the while loop, we also wrote two lines of code to prompt the user for input, read the user’s input, convert it to decimal, and store it in price
  + The code before the while loop is necessary to give price an initial value, so that we can check it for validity in the while statement
  + It would be nice if we could tell the while loop to execute the body first, and then check the condition
* The do-while loop executes the loop body **before** evaluating the condition
  + Otherwise works the same as a while loop: If the condition is true, execute the loop body again; if the condition is false, stop the loop
  + This can reduce repeated code, since the loop body is executed *at least once*
  + Example:
  + decimal price;  
    do  
    {  
     Console.WriteLine("Please enter a non-negative price.");  
     price = decimal.Parse(Console.ReadLine());  
    } while(price < 0);  
    Item myItem = new Item(desc, price);
    - The keyword do starts the code block for the loop body, but it doesn’t have a condition, so the computer simply starts executing the body
    - In the loop body, we prompt the user for input, read and parse the input, and store it in price
    - The condition price < 0 is evaluated at the end of the loop body, so price has its initial value by the time the condition is evaluated
    - If the user entered a valid price, and the condition is false, execution simply proceeds to the next line
    - If the user entered a negative price (the condition is true), the computer returns to the beginning of the code block and executes the loop body again
    - This has the same effect as the while loop: the user is prompted repeatedly until he/she enters a valid price, and the program can only reach the line Item myItem = new Item(desc, price) when price < 0 is false
    - Note that the variable price must be declared before the do-while loop so that it is in scope after the loop. It would not be valid to declare price inside the body of the loop (e.g. on the line with decimal.Parse) because then its scope would be limited to inside that code block.
* Formal syntax and details
  + A do-while loop is written like this:
  + do  
    {  
     <statements>  
    } while(<condition>);
  + The do keyword does nothing, but it is required to indicate the start of the loop. You can’t just write a { by itself.
  + Unlike a while loop, a semicolon is required after while(<condition>)
  + It’s a convention to write the while keyword on the same line as the closing }, rather than on its own line as in a while loop
  + When the computer encounters a do-while loop, it first executes the body (code block), then evaluates the condition
  + If the condition is true, the computer jumps back to the do keyword and executes the loop body again
  + If the condition is false, execution continues to the next line after teh while keyword
  + If the loop body is only a single statement, you can omit the curly braces, but not the semicolon:
  + do  
     <statement>  
    while(<condition>);
* A do-while loop with multiple conditions
  + We can combine both types of user-input validation in one loop: Ensuring the user entered a number (not some other string), and ensuring the number is valid. This is easier to do with a do-while loop:
  + decimal price;  
    bool parseSuccess;  
    do  
    {  
     Console.WriteLine("Please enter a price (must be non-negative).");  
     parseSuccess = decimal.TryParse(Console.ReadLine(), out price);  
    } while(!parseSuccess || price < 0);  
    Item myItem = new Item(desc, price);
  + There are two parts to the loop condition: (1) it should be true if the user did not enter a number, and (2) it should be true if the user entered a negative number.
  + We combine these two conditions with || because either one, by itself, represents invalid input. Even if the user entered a valid number (which means !parseSuccess is false), the loop should not stop unless price < 0 is also false.
  + Note that both variables must be declared before the loop begins, so that they are in scope both inside and outside the loop body

## Vocabulary

Variables and values can have multiple roles, but it is useful to mention three different roles in the context of loops:

Counter

Variable that is incremented every time a given event occurs.

int i = 0; // i is a counter  
while (i < 10){  
 Console.WriteLine($"{i}");  
 i++;  
}

Sentinel Value

A special value that signals that the loop needs to end.

Console.WriteLine("Give me a string.");  
string ans = Console.ReadLine();  
while (ans != "Quit") // The sentinel value is "Quit".  
{  
 Console.WriteLine("Hi!");  
 Console.WriteLine("Enter \"Quit\" to quit, or anything else to continue.");  
 ans = Console.ReadLine();  
}

Accumulator

Variable used to keep the total of several values.

int i = 0, total = 0;  
while (i < 10){  
 total += i; // total is the accumulator.  
 i++;  
}  
  
Console.WriteLine($"The sum from 0 to {i} is {total}.");

We can have an accumulator and a sentinel value at the same time:

Console.WriteLine("Enter a number to sum, or \"Done\" to stop and print the total.");  
string enter = Console.ReadLine();  
int sum = 0;  
while (enter != "Done")  
{  
 sum += int.Parse(enter);  
 Console.WriteLine("Enter a number to sum, or \"Done\" to stop and print the total.");  
 enter = Console.ReadLine();  
}  
Console.WriteLine($"Your total is {sum}.");

You can have counter, accumulator and sentinel values at the same time:

int a = 0;  
int sum = 0;  
int counter = 0;  
Console.WriteLine("Enter an integer, or N to quit.");  
string entered = Console.ReadLine();  
while (entered != "N") // Sentinel value  
{  
 a = int.Parse(entered);  
 sum += a; // Accumulator  
 Console.WriteLine("Enter an integer, or N to quit.");  
 entered = Console.ReadLine();  
 counter++; // counter  
}  
Console.WriteLine($"The average is {sum / (double)counter}");

We can distinguish between three “flavors” of loops (that are not mutually exclusive):

Sentinel controlled loop

The exit condition tests if a variable has (or is different from) a *specific value*.

User controlled loop

The number of iterations depends on the *user*.

Count controlled loop

The number of iterations depends on a *counter*.

Note that a user-controlled loop can be sentinel-controlled (that is the example we just saw), but also count-controlled (“Give me a value, and I will iterate a task that many times”).

## While Loop With Complex Conditions

In the following example, a complex boolean expression is used in the *while* statement. The program gets a value and tries to parse it as an integer. If the value can not be converted to an integer, the program tries again, but not more than three times.

int c;  
string message;  
int count;  
bool res;  
  
Console.WriteLine("Please enter an integer.");  
message = Console.ReadLine();  
res = int.TryParse(message, out c);  
count = 0; // The user has 3 tries: count will be 0, 1, 2, and then we default.  
while (!res && count < 3)  
{  
 count++;  
 if (count == 3)  
 {  
 c = 1;  
 Console.WriteLine("I'm using the default value 1.");  
 }  
 else  
 {  
 Console.WriteLine("The value entered was not an integer.");  
 Console.WriteLine("Please enter an integer.");  
 message = Console.ReadLine();  
 res = int.TryParse(message, out c);  
 }  
}  
Console.WriteLine("The value is: " + c);

# Combining Methods and Decision Structures

Note that we can have a decision structure inside a method! If we were to re-visit the Rectangle class, we could have a constructor of the following type:

public Rectangle(int wP, int lP)  
 {  
 if (wP <= 0 || lP <= 0)  
 {  
 Console.WriteLine("Invalid Data, setting everything to 0");  
 width = 0;  
 length = 0;  
 }  
 else  
 {  
 width = wP;  
 length = lP;  
 }  
}

# Putting it all together!

using System;  
  
class Loan  
{  
 private string account;  
 private char type;  
 private int cscore;  
 private decimal amount;  
 private decimal rate;  
  
 public Loan()  
 {  
 account = "Unknown";  
 type = 'o';  
 cscore = -1;  
 amount = -1;  
 rate = -1;  
 }  
  
 public Loan(string nameP, char typeP, int cscoreP, decimal needP, decimal downP)  
 {  
 account = nameP;  
 type = typeP;  
 cscore = cscoreP;  
 if (cscore < 300)  
 {  
 Console.WriteLine("Sorry, we can't accept your application");  
 amount = -1;  
 rate = -1;  
 }  
 else  
 {  
 amount = needP - downP;  
  
 switch (type)  
 {  
 case ('a'):  
 rate = .05M;  
 break;  
  
 case ('h'):  
 if (cscore > 600 && amount < 1000000M)  
 rate = .03M;  
 else  
 rate = .04M;  
 break;  
 case ('o'):  
 if (cscore > 650 || amount < 10000M)  
 rate = .07M;  
 else  
 rate = .09M;  
 break;  
  
 }  
  
 }  
 }  
 public override string ToString()  
 {  
 string typeName = "";  
 switch (type)  
 {  
 case ('a'):  
 typeName = "an auto";  
 break;  
  
 case ('h'):  
 typeName = "a house";  
 break;  
 case ('o'):  
 typeName = "another reason";  
 break;  
  
 }  
  
 return "Dear " + account + $", you borrowed {amount:C} at {rate:P} for "  
 + typeName + ".";  
 }  
}

using System;  
class Program  
{  
 static void Main()  
 {  
  
 Console.WriteLine("What is your name?");  
 string name = Console.ReadLine();  
  
 Console.WriteLine("Do you want a loan for an Auto (A, a), a House (H, h), or for some Other (O, o) reason?");  
 char type = Console.ReadKey().KeyChar; ;  
 Console.WriteLine();  
  
 string typeOfLoan;  
  
 if (type == 'A' || type == 'a')  
 {  
 type = 'a';  
 typeOfLoan = "an auto";  
 }  
 else if (type == 'H' || type == 'h')  
 {  
 type = 'h';  
 typeOfLoan = "a house";  
 }  
 else  
 {  
 type = 'o';  
 typeOfLoan = "some other reason";  
 }  
  
 Console.WriteLine($"You need money for {typeOfLoan}, great.\nWhat is your current credit score?");  
 int cscore = int.Parse(Console.ReadLine());  
  
 Console.WriteLine("How much do you need, total?");  
 decimal need = decimal.Parse(Console.ReadLine());  
  
 Console.WriteLine("What is your down payment?");  
 decimal down = decimal.Parse(Console.ReadLine());  
  
 Loan myLoan = new Loan(name, type, cscore, need, down);  
 Console.WriteLine(myLoan);  
 }  
  
}

# Arrays

Arrays are structures that allow you to store multiple values in memory using a single name and indexes.

* Usually all the elements of an array have the same type.
* You limit the type of array elements when you declare the array.
* If you want the array to store elements of any type, you can specify object as its type.

An array can be:

* Single-Dimensional
* Multidimensional (not covered)
* Jagged (not covered)

Arrays are useful, for instance,

* When you want to store a collection of related values,
* When you don’t know in advance how many variables we need.
* When you need too many variables of the same type.

## Single-Dimensional Arrays

You can define a single-dimensional array as follow:

<type>[] arrayName;

where

* <type> can be any data-type and specifies the data-type of the array elements.
* arrayName is an identifier that you will use to access and modify the array elements.

Before using an array, you must specify the number of elements of the array as follow:

arrayName = new <type>[<number of elements>];

where <type> is as previously, and <number of elements>, called the *size declarator*, needs to be a strictly positive integer which will correspond to the size of the array.

* An element of a single-dimensional array can be accessed and modified by using the name of the array and the index of the element as follow:
* arrayName[<index>] = <value>; // Assigns <value> to the <index> element of the array arrayName.  
    
  Console.WriteLine(arrayName[<index>]); // Display the <index> element of the array arrayName.

The index of the first element in an array is always *zero*; the index of the second element is one, and the index of the last element is the size of the array minus one. As a consequence, if you specify an index greater or equal to the number of elements, a run time error will happen.

Indexing starting from 0 may seem surprizing and counter-intuitive, but this is a largely respected convention accross programing languages and computer-scientists. Some insights on the reasons behind this (collective) choice can be found [in this answer on Computer Science Educators](https://cseducators.stackexchange.com/a/5026).

### Example

In the following example, we define an array named *myArray* with three elements of type integer, and assign 10 to the first element, 20 to the second element, and 30 to the last element.

int[] myArray;  
myArray = new int[3]; // 3 is the size declarator  
// We can now store 3 ints in this array,  
// at index 0, 1 and 2  
  
myArray[0] = 10; // 0 is the subscript, or index  
myArray[1] = 20;  
myArray[2] = 30;

If we were to try to store a fourth value in our array, at index 3, using e.g.

myArray[3] = 40;

our program would compile just fine, which may seems surprizing. However, when executing this program, the *array bound checking* would be performed and detect that there is a mismatch between the size of the array and the index we are trying to use, resulting in a quite explicit error message:

Unhandled Exception: System.IndexOutOfRangeException: Index was outside the bounds of the array at Program.Main()

### Abridged Syntaxes

If you know the number of elements when you are defining an array, you can combine declaration and assignment on one line as follow:

<type>[] arrayName = new <type>[<number of elements>];

So, we can combine the first two lines of the previous example and write:

int[] myArray = new int[3];

We can even initialize *and* give values on one line:

int[] myArray = new int[3] { 10, 20, 30 };

And that statement can be rewritten as any of the following:

int[] myArray = new int[] { 10, 20, 30 };  
int[] myArray = new[] { 10, 20, 30 };  
int[] myArray = { 10, 20, 30 };

But, we should be careful, the following would cause an error:

int[] myArray = new int[5];  
myArray = { 1, 2 ,3, 4, 5}; // ERROR

If we use the shorter notation, we *have to* give the values at initialization, we cannot re-use this notation once the array was created.

Other datatype, and even objects, can be stored in arrays in a perfectly similar way:

string[] myArray = { "Bob", "Mom", "Train", "Console" };  
Rectangle[] arrayOfRectangle = new Rectangle[5]; // Assume there is a class called Rectangle

## Custom Size and Values

One of the benefits of arrays is that they allow you to specify the number of their elements at run-time. Hence, depending on the run-time conditions, we can have enough space to store and process values.

### Example

In the following example, we get the number of elements at run-time from the user, create an array with the appropriate size, and fill the array.

Console.WriteLine("What is the size of the array that you want?");  
int size = int.Parse(Console.ReadLine());  
int[] customArray = new int[size];  
  
int counter = 0;  
while (counter < size)  
{  
 Console.WriteLine($"Enter the {counter + 1}th value");  
 customArray[counter] = int.Parse(Console.ReadLine());  
 counter++;  
}

Observe that:

* If the user enters a negative value or a string that does not correspond to an integer for the size value, our program will crash: we are not performing any user-input validation here, to keep our example compact.
* We are asking for the {counter +1}th value because we prefer not to confuse the user by asking for the “0th” value. Note that a more elaborated program would decline “th” in “st”, “nd” and “rd” for the first three values.

## Array Size

Every single-dimensional array has a property called Length that returns the number of the elements in the array (or size of the array).

To process an array that its size is not fixed, we can use this property to find out the number of elements in the array

### Example

int counter2 = 0;  
while (counter2 < customArray.Length)  
{  
 Console.WriteLine($"{counter2}: {customArray[counter2]}.");  
 counter2++;  
}

## Changing the Size

There is a class named Array that can be used to resize an array. But, note that if you resize an array, you will lose all the current values and the elements will be reset to the data-type default.

### Example

Array.Resize(ref myArray, 4);  
myArray[3] = 40;  
Array.Resize(ref myArray, 2);

Resize shrinks (and content is lost) and extends (and store the default value, i.e., for int, etc.)!

# For Loops

* Counter-controlled loops
  + Previously, when we learned about loop vocabulary, we looked at counter-controlled while loops
  + Although counter-controlled loops can perform many different kinds of actions in the body of the loop, they all use very similar code for managing the counter variable
  + Two examples of counter-controlled while loops:
  + int i = 0;  
    while(i < 10)  
    {  
     Console.WriteLine($"{i}");  
     i++;  
    }  
    Console.WriteLine("Done");
  + int num = 1, total = 0;  
    while(num <= 25)  
    {  
     total += num;  
     num++;  
    }  
    Console.WriteLine($"The sum is {total}");
  + Notice that in both cases, we’ve written the same three pieces of code:
    - Initialize a counter variable (i or num) before the loop starts
    - Write a loop condition that will become false when the counter reaches a certain value (i < 10 or num <= 25)
    - Increment the counter variable at the end of each loop iteration, as the last line of the body
* for loop example and syntax
  + This for loop does the same thing as the first of the two while loops above:
  + for(int i = 0; i < 10; i++)  
    {  
     Console.WriteLine($"{i}");  
    }  
    Console.WriteLine("Done");
    - The for statement actually contains 3 statements in 1 line; note that they are separated by semicolons
    - The code to initialize the counter variable has moved inside the for statement, and appears first
    - Next is the loop condition, i < 10
    - The third statement is the increment operation, i++, which no longer needs to be written at the end of the loop body
  + In general, for loops have this syntax:
  + for(<initialization>; <condition>; <update>)  
    {  
     <statements>  
    }
    - The initialization statement is executed once, when the program first reaches the loop. This is where you declare and initialize the counter variable.
    - The condition statement works exactly the same as a while loop’s condition statement: Before executing the loop’s body, the computer checks the condition, and skips the body (ending the loop) if it is false.
    - The update statement is code that will be executed each time the loop’s body *ends*, before checking the condition again. You can imagine that it gets inserted right before the closing } of the loop body. This is where you increment the counter variable.
* Examining the example in detail
  + When the computer executes our example for loop, it first creates the variable i and initializes it to 0
  + Then it evaluates the condition i < 10, which is true, so it executes the loop’s body. The computer displays “0” in the console.
  + At the end of the code block for the loop’s body, the computer executes the update code, i++, and changes the value of i to 1.
  + Then it returns to the beginning of the loop and evaluates the condition again. Since it is still true, it executes the loop body again.
  + This process repeats several more times. On the last iteration, i is equal to 9. The computer displays “9” on the screen, then increments i to 10 at the end of the loop body.
  + The computer returns to the for statement and evaluates the condition, but i < 10 is false, so it skips the loop body and proceeds to the next line of code. It displays “Done” in the console.

## Limitations and Pitfalls of Using for Loops

* Scope of the for loop’s variable
  + When you declare a counter variable in the for statement, its scope is limited to *inside* the loop
  + Just like method parameters, it’s as if the variable declaration happened just inside the opening {, so it can only be accessed inside that code block
  + This means you can’t use a counter variable after the end of the loop. This code will produce a compile error:
  + int total = 0;  
    for(int count = 0; count < 10; count++)  
    {  
     total += count;  
    }  
    Console.WriteLine($"The average is {(double) total / count}");
  + If you want to use the counter variable after the end of the loop, you must declare it *before* the loop
  + This means your loop’s initialization statement will need to assign the variable its starting value, but not declare it
  + This code works correctly, since count is still in scope after the end of the loop:
  + int total = 0;  
    int count;  
    for(count = 0; count < 10; count++)  
    {  
     total += count;  
    }  
    Console.WriteLine($"The average is {(double) total / count}");
* Be sure not to re-declare a variable
  + If your for loop declares a new variable in its initialization statement, it can’t have the same name as a variable already in scope
  + If you want your counter variable to still be in scope after the end of the loop, you can’t also declare it in the for loop. This is why we had to write for(count = 0... instead of for(int count = 0... in the previous example: the name count was already being used.
  + Since counter variables often use short, common names (like i or count), it’s more likely that you’ll accidentally re-use one that’s already in scope
  + For example, you might have a program with many for loops, and in one of them you decide to declare the counter variable outside the loop because you need to use it after the end of the loop. This can cause an error in a different for loop much later in the program:
  + int total = 0;  
    int i;  
    for(i = 0; i < 10; i++)  
    {  
     total += i;  
    }  
    Console.WriteLine($"The average is {(double) total / i}");  
    // Many more lines of code  
    // ...  
    // Some time later:  
    for(int i = 0; i < 10; i++)  
    {  
     Console.WriteLine($"{i}");  
    }
  + The compiler will produce an error on the second for loop, because the name “i” is already being used.
  + On the other hand, if all of your for loops declare their variables inside the for statement, it’s perfectly fine to reuse the same variable name. This code does not produce any errors:
  + int total = 0;  
    for(int i = 0; i < 10; i++)  
    {  
     total += i;  
    }  
    Console.WriteLine($"The total is {total}");  
    // Some time later:  
    for(int i = 0; i < 10; i++)  
    {  
     Console.WriteLine($"{i}");  
    }
* Be sure not to double-increment the counter
  + Now that you know about for loops, you may want to convert some of your counter-controlled while loops to for loops
  + Remember that in a while loop the counter must be incremented in the loop body, but in a for loop the increment is part of the loop’s header
  + If you just convert the header of the loop and leave the body the same, you will end up incrementing the counter *twice* per iteration. For example, if you convert this while loop:
  + int i = 0;  
    while(i < 10)  
    {  
     Console.WriteLine($"{i}");  
     i++;  
    }  
    Console.WriteLine("Done");
  + to this for loop:
  + for(int i = 0; i < 10; i++)  
    {  
     Console.WriteLine($"{i}");  
     i++;  
    }  
    Console.WriteLine("Done");
  + it will not work correctly, because i will be incremented by both the loop body and the loop’s update statement. The loop will seem to “skip” every other value of i.

## More Ways to use for Loops

* The condition in a for loop can be any expression that results in a bool value
  + If the condition compares the counter to a variable, the number of iterations depends on the variable. If the variable comes from user input, the loop is also user-controlled, like in this example:
  + Console.WriteLine("Enter a positive number.");  
    int numTimes = int.Parse(Console.ReadLine());  
    for(int c = 0; c < numTimes; c++)  
    {  
     Console.WriteLine("\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*");  
    }
  + The condition can compare the counter to the result of a method call. In this case, the method will get called on every iteration of the loop, since the condition is re-evaluated every time the loop returns to the beginning. For example, in this loop:
  + for(int i = 1; i <= (int) myItem.GetPrice(); i++)  
    {  
     Console.WriteLine($"${i}");  
    }
  + the GetPrice() method of myItem will be called every time the condition is evaluated.
* The update statement can be anything, not just an increment operation
  + For example, you can write a loop that only processes the even numbers like this:
  + for(int i = 0; i < 19; i += 2)  
    {  
     Console.WriteLine($"{i}");  
    }
  + You can write a loop that decreases the counter variable on every iteration, like this:
  + for(int t = 10; t > 0; t--)  
    {  
     Console.Write($"{t}...");  
    }  
    Console.WriteLine("Liftoff!");
* The loop body can contain more complex statements
  + if statements can be nested inside for loops, and they will be evaluated again on every iteration
  + For example, in this program:
  + for(int i = 0; i < 8; i++)  
    {  
     if(i % 2 == 0)  
     {  
     Console.WriteLine("It's my turn");  
     }  
     else  
     {  
     Console.WriteLine("It's your turn");  
     }  
     Console.WriteLine("Switching players...");  
    }
  + On even-numbered iterations, the computer will display “It’s my turn” followed by “Switching players…”, and on odd-numbered iterations the computer will display “It’s your turn” followed by “Switching players…”
  + for loops can contain other for loops. This means the “inner” loop will execute all of its iterations each time the “outer” loop executes one iteration.
  + For example, this program prints a multiplication table:
  + for(int r = 0; r < 11; r++)  
    {  
     for(int c = 0; c < 11; c++)  
     {  
     Console.Write($"{r} x {c} = {r \* c} \t");  
     }  
     Console.Write("\n");  
    }
  + The outer loop prints the rows of the table, while the inner loop prints the columns. On a single iteration of the outer for loop (i.e. when r = 2), the inner for loop executes its body 11 times, using values of c from 0 to 10. Then the computer executes the Console.Write("\n") to print a newline before the next “row” iteration.
* for loops can be combined with while loops
  + while loops are good for sentinel-controlled loops or user-input validation, and for loops are good for counter-controlled loops
  + This program asks the user to enter a number, then uses a for loop to print that number of lines of asterisks:
  + string userInput;  
    do  
    {  
     Console.WriteLine("Enter a positive number, or \"Q\" to stop");  
     userInput = Console.ReadLine();  
     int inputNum;  
     int.TryParse(userInput, out inputNum);  
     if(inputNum > 0)  
     {  
     for(int c = 0; c < inputNum; c++)  
     {  
     Console.WriteLine("\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*");  
     }  
     }  
    } while(userInput != "Q");
    - The sentinel value “Q” is used to end the program, so the outer while loop repeats until the user enters this value
    - Once the user enters a number, that number is used in the condition for a for loop that prints lines of asterisks
    - Since the user could enter either a letter or a number, we need to use TryParse to convert the user’s input to a number
    - If TryParse fails (because the user entered a non-number), inputNum will be assigned the value 0. This is also an invalid value for the loop counter, so we don’t need to check whether TryParse returned true or false. Instead, we simply check whether inputNum is valid (greater than 0) before executing the for loop, and skip the for loop entirely if inputNum is negative or 0.

## For Loops With Arrays

* Using for loops to access array elements
  + Previously, we learned that you can access a single array element using the <array>[<index>] syntax. However, it can be tedious to access each element of an array one at a time.
  + For example, consider this code that finds the average of all the elements in an array:
  + int[] homeworkGrades = {89, 72, 88, 80, 91};  
    double average = (homeworkGrades[0] + homeworkGrades[1] +  
     homeworkGrades[2] + homeworkGrades[3] + homeworkGrades[4]) / 5.0;
  + The sum of the array elements repeatedly accesses homeworkGrades[<index>] with index values that increment by 1 at a time. This can be written much more concisely by using a variable for the index value, and incrementing the variable in a for loop:
  + int sum = 0;  
    for(int i = 0; i < 5; i++)  
    {  
     sum += homeworkGrades[i];  
    }  
    double average = sum / 5.0;
    - In a for loop that iterates over an array, the counter variable is also used as the array index
    - The loop condition should ensure that the loop stops on the last index of the array, and doesn’t attempt to access the array with an invalid index
    - Since the last index is 1 less than the length of the array, the loop condition should be false when the counter is *greater than or equal to* the length of the array.
    - In this case, the array’s length is 5, so the loop condition i < 5 will ensure that the loop does not execute the body when i equals 5 (it will stop when i equals 4)
  + Using a for loop to access array elements makes it easy to process “the whole array” when the size of the array is user-provided:
  + Console.WriteLine("How many grades are there?");  
    int numGrades = int.Parse(Console.ReadLine());  
    int[] homeworkGrades = new int[numGrades];  
    for(int i = 0; i < numGrades; i++)  
    {  
     Console.WriteLine($"Enter grade for homework {i+1}");  
     homeworkGrades[i] = int.Parse(Console.ReadLine());  
    }
    - Since the size of the homeworkGrades array depends on user input, we don’t know when writing the program how many elements it has or which indices are valid. It wouldn’t be safe to try to access a specific element like homeworkGrades[4] because the user might enter a size smaller than 5.
    - Using a counter that starts at 0 with the loop condition i < numGrades means the loop body will run once on each element of the array, no matter what the user enters
    - Note that since array elements start at 0, but humans usually number their lists starting at 1, the user directions in the loop body display "homework {i+1}"
  + You can use the Length property of an array to write a loop condition, even if you didn’t store the size of the array in a variable. For example, this code doesn’t need the variable numGrades:
  + int sum = 0;  
    for(int i = 0; i < homeworkGrades.Length; i++)  
    {  
     sum += homeworkGrades[i];  
    }  
    double average = (double) sum / homeworkGrades.Length;
  + In general, as long as the loop condition is in the format i < <arrayName>.Length (or, equivalently, i <= <arrayName>.Length - 1), the loop will access each element of the array.

# The foreach Loop

* When writing a for loop that accesses each element of an array once, you will end up writing code like this:
* for(int i = 0; i < myArray.Length; i++)  
  {  
   <do something with myArray[i]>;  
  }
* In some cases, this code has unnecessary repetition: If you aren’t using the counter i for anything other than an array index, you still need to declare it, increment it, and write the condition with myArray.Length
* The **foreach loop** is a shortcut that allows you to get rid of the counter variable and the loop condition. It has this syntax:
* foreach(<type> <variableName> in <arrayName>)  
  {  
   <do something with variable>  
  }
  + The loop will repeat exactly as many times as there are elements in the array
  + On each iteration of the loop, the variable will be assigned the next value from the array, in order
  + The variable must be the same type as the array
* For example, this loop accesses each element of homeworkGrades and computes their sum:
* int sum = 0;  
  foreach(int grade in homeworkGrades)  
  {  
   sum += grade;  
  }
  + The variable grade is declared with type int since homeworkGrades is an array of int
  + grade has a scope limited to the body of the loop, just like the counter variable i
  + In successive iterations of the loop grade will have the value homeworkGrades[0], then homeworkGrades[1], and so on, through homeworkGrades[homeworkGrades.Length - 1]
* A foreach loop is **read-only** with respect to the array: The loop’s variable cannot be used to *change* any elements of the array. This code will result in an error:
* foreach(int grade in homeworkGrades)  
  {  
   grade = int.Parse(Console.ReadLine());  
  }

## break and continue

* Conditional loop control
  + Sometimes, you want to write a loop that will skip some iterations if a certain condition is met
  + For example, you may be writing a for loop that iterates through an array of numbers, but you only want to use *even* numbers from the array
  + One way to accomplish this is to nest an if statement inside the for loop that checks for the desired condition. For example:
  + int sum = 0;  
    for(int i = 0; i < myArray.Length; i++)  
    {  
     if(myArray[i] % 2 == 0)  
     {  
     Console.WriteLine(myArray[i]);  
     sum += myArray[i];  
     }  
    }
  + Since the entire body of the for loop is contained within an if statement, the iterations where myArray[i] is odd will skip the body and do nothing.
* Skipping iterations with continue
  + The continue keyword provides another way to conditionally skip an iteration of a loop
  + When the computer encounters a continue; statement, it immediately returns to the beginning of the current loop, skipping the rest of the loop body
    - Then it executes the update statement (if the loop is a for loop) and checks the loop condition again
  + A continue; statement inside an if statement will end the current iteration only if that condition is true
  + For example, this code will skip the odd numbers in myArray and use only the even numbers:
  + int sum = 0;  
    for(int i = 0; i < myArray.Length; i++)  
    {  
     if(myArray[i] % 2 != 0)  
     continue;  
     Console.WriteLine(myArray[i]);  
     sum += myArray[i];  
    }
  + If myArray[i] is odd, the computer will execute the continue statement and immediately start the next iteration of the loop. This means that the rest of the loop body (the other two statements) only gets executed if myArray[i] is even.
  + Using a continue statement instead of putting the entire body within an if statement can reduce the amount of indentation in your code, and it can sometimes make your code’s logic clearer.
* Loops with multiple end conditions
  + More advanced loops may have multiple conditions that affect whether the loop should continue
  + Attempting to combine all of these conditions in the loop condition (i.e. the expression after while) can make the loop more complicated
  + For example, consider a loop that processes user input, which should end either when a sentinel value is encountered or when the input is invalid. This loop ends if the user enters a negative number (the sentinel value) or a non-numeric string:
  + int sum = 0, userNum = 0;  
    bool success = true;  
    while(success && userNum >= 0)  
    {  
     sum += userNum;  
     Console.WriteLine("Enter a positive number to add it. "  
     + "Enter anything else to stop.");  
     success = int.TryParse(Console.ReadLine(), out userNum);  
    }  
    Console.WriteLine($"The sum of your numbers is {sum}");
    - The condition success && userNum >= 0 is true if the user entered a valid number that was not negative
    - In order to write this condition, we needed to declare the extra variable success to keep track of the result of int.TryParse
    - We can’t use the condition userNum > 0, hoping to take advantage of the fact that if TryParse fails it assigns its out parameter the value 0, because 0 is a valid input the user could give
* Ending the loop with break
  + The break keyword provides another way to write an additional end condition
  + When the computer encounters a break; statement, it immediately ends the loop and proceeds to the next statement after the loop body
    - This is the same break keyword we used in switch statements
    - In both cases it has the same meaning: stop execution here and skip to the end of this code block (the ending } for the switch or the loop)
  + Using a break statement inside an if-else statement, we can rewrite the previous while loop so that the variable success is not needed:
  + int sum = 0, userNum = 0;  
    while(userNum >= 0)  
    {  
     sum += userNum;  
     Console.WriteLine("Enter a positive number to add it. "  
     + "Enter anything else to stop.");  
     if(!int.TryParse(Console.ReadLine(), out userNum))  
     break;  
    }  
    Console.WriteLine($"The sum of your numbers is {sum}");
    - Inside the body of the loop, the return value of TryParse can be used directly in an if statement instead of assigning it to the success variable
    - If TryParse fails, the break statement will end the loop, so there is no need to add success to the while condition
  + We can also use the break statement with a for loop, if there are some cases where the loop should end before the counter reaches its last value
  + For example, imagine that our program is given an int array that a user *partially* filled with numbers, and we need to find their product. The “unused” entries at the end of the array are all 0 (the default value of int), so the for loop needs to stop before the end of the array if it encounters a 0. A break statement can accomplish this:
  + int product = 1;  
    for(int i = 0; i < myArray.Length; i++)  
    {  
     if(myArray[i] == 0)  
     break;  
     product \*= myArray[i];  
    }
    - If myArray[i] is 0, the loop stops before it can multiply the product by 0
    - If all of the array entries are nonzero, though, the loop continues until i is equal to myArray.Length
  + Note that in this example, we access each array element once and do not modify them, so we could also write it with a foreach loop:
  + int product = 1;  
    foreach(int number in myArray)  
    {  
     if(number == 0)  
     break;  
     product \*= number;  
    }

# The static Keyword

## Static Methods

* Different ways of calling methods
  + Usually you call a method by using the “dot operator” (member access operator) on an object, like this:
  + Rectangle rect = new Rectangle();  
    rect.SetLength(12);
  + The SetLength method is defined in the Rectangle class. In order to call it, we need an *instance* of that class, which in this case is the object rect.
  + However, sometimes we have written code where we call a method using the dot operator on the name of a class, not an object. For example, the familiar WriteLine method:
  + Console.WriteLine("Hello!");
  + Notice that we have never needed to write new Console() to instantiate a Console object before calling this method.
  + More recently, we learned about the Array.Resize method, which can be used to resize an array. Even though arrays are objects, we call the Resize method on the Array class, not the particular array object we want to resize:
  + int[] myArray = {10, 20, 30};  
    Array.Resize(ref myArray, 6);
  + Methods that are called using the name of the class rather than an instance of that class are **static methods**
* Declaring static methods
  + Static methods are declared by adding the static keyword to the header, like this:
  + class Console  
    {  
     public static void WriteLine(string value)  
     {  
     ...  
     }  
    }
  + The static keyword means that this method belongs to the class “in general,” rather than an instance of the class
  + Thus, you do not need an object (instance of the class) to call a static method; you only need the name of the class
* static methods and instances
  + Normal, non-static methods are always associated with a particular instance (object)
  + When a normal method modifies an instance variable, it always “knows” which object to modify, because you need to specify the object when calling it
    - For example, the SetLength method is defined like this:
    - class Rectangle  
      {  
       private int length;  
       private int width;  
       public void SetLength(int lengthParameter)  
       {  
       length = lengthParameter;  
       }  
      }
    - When you call the method with rect.SetLength(12), the length variable automatically refers to the length instance variable stored in rect.
  + Static methods are not associated with any instance, and thus **can’t use instance variables**
  + For example, we could attempt to declare the ComputeArea method of Rectangle as a static method, but this would not compile:
  + class Rectangle  
    {  
     private int length;  
     private int width;  
     public void SetLength(int lengthParameter)  
     {  
     length = lengthParameter;  
     }  
     public static int ComputeArea()  
     {  
     return length \* width;  
     }  
    }
    - To call this static method, you would write Rectangle.ComputeArea();
    - Since no Rectangle object is specified, which object’s length and width should be used in the computation?
* Uses for static methods
  + Since static methods can’t access instance variables, they don’t seem very useful
  + One reason to use them: when writing a function that doesn’t need to “save” any state, and just computes an output (its return value) based on some input (its parameters)
  + Math-related functions are usually written as static methods. The .NET library comes with a class named Math that defines several static methods, like these:
  + public static double Pow(double x, double y)  
    {  
     //Computes and returns x^y  
    }  
    public static double Sqrt(double x)  
    {  
     //Computes and returns the square root of x  
    }  
    public static int Max(int x, int y)  
    {  
     //Returns the larger of the two numbers x and y  
    }  
    public static int Min(int x, int y)  
    {  
     //Returns the smaller of the two numbers x and y  
    }
  + Note that none of them need to use any instance variables.
  + Defining several static methods in the same class (like in class Math) helps to group together similar or related functions, even if you never create an object of that class
  + Static methods are also useful for providing the program’s “entry point.” Remember that your program must always have a Main method declared like this:
  + class Program  
    {  
     static void Main(string[] args)  
     {  
     ...  
     }  
    }
    - When your program first starts, no objects exist yet, which means no “normal” methods can be called
    - The .NET runtime (the interpreter that runs a C# program) must decide what code to execute to make your program start running
    - It can call Program.Main() without creating an object, or knowing anything else about your program, because Main is a static method
  + Static methods can be used to “help” other methods, both static and non-static
    - It’s easy to call a static method from within the same class: You can just write the name of the method, without the class name, i.e. MethodName(args) instead of ClassName.MethodName(args)
    - For example, the Array class has a static method named Copy that copies the contents of one array into another array. This makes it very easy to write the Resize method:
    - class Array  
      {  
       public static void Copy(Array source, Array dest, int length)  
       {  
       //Copy [length] elements from source to dest, in the same order  
       }  
       public static void Resize<T>(ref T[] array, int newSize)  
       {  
       T[] newArray = new T[newSize]  
       Copy(array, newArray, Math.Min(array.Length, newSize));  
       array = newArray;  
       }  
      }
    - Since arrays are fixed-size, the only way to resize an array is to create a new array of the new size and copy the data from the old array into the new array. This Resize method is easy to read because the act of copying the data (which would involve a for loop) is written separately, in the Copy method, and Resize just needs to call Copy.
    - Similarly, you can add additional static methods to the class that contains Main, and call them from within Main. This can help you separate a long program into smaller, easier-to-read chunks. It also allows you to re-use the same code multiple times without copying and pasting it.
    - class Program  
      {  
       static void Main(string[] args)  
       {  
       int userNum1 = InputPositiveNumber();  
       int userNum2 = InputPositiveNumber();  
       int part1Result = DoPart1(userNum1, userNum2);  
       DoPart2("Bananas", part1Result);  
       }  
       static int InputPositiveNumber()  
       {  
       int number;  
       bool success;  
       do  
       {  
       Console.WriteLine("Please enter a positive number");  
       success = int.TryParse(Console.ReadLine(), out number);  
       } while(!success || number < 0);  
       return number;  
       }  
       static int DoPart1(int a, int b)  
       {  
       ...  
       }  
       static void DoPart2(string x, int y)  
       {  
       ...  
       }  
      }
    - In this example, our program needs to read two different numbers from the user, so we put the input-validation loop into the InputPositiveNumber method instead of writing it twice in the Main method. It then has two separate “parts” (computing some result with the two user-input numbers, and combining that computed number with a string to display some output), which we write in the two methods DoPart1 and DoPart2. This makes our actual Main method only 4 lines long.

## Static Variables

* Defining static variables
  + The static keyword can be used in something that looks like an instance variable declaration:
  + class Rectangle  
    {  
     private static int NumRectangles = 0;  
     ...  
    }
  + This declares a variable that is stored with the class definition, not inside an object (it is *not* an instance variable)
  + Unlike an instance variable, there is only one copy in the entire program, and any method that refers to NumRectangles will access the *same* variable, no matter which object the method is called on
  + Since it is not an instance variable, it does not get initialized in the constructor. Instead, you must initialize it with a value when you declare it, more like a local variable (in this case, NumRectangles is initialized to 0).
  + It’s OK to declare a static variable with the public access modifier, because it is not part of any object’s state. Thus, accessing the variable from outside the class will not violate encapsulation, the principle that an object’s state should only be modified by that object.
    - For example, we could use the NumRectangles variable to count the number of rectangles in a program by making it public. We could define it like this:
    - class Rectangle  
      {  
       public static int NumRectangles = 0;  
       ...  
      }
    - and use it like this, in a Main method:
    - Rectangle myRect = new Rectangle();  
      Rectangle.NumRectangles++;  
      Rectangle myOtherRect = new Rectangle();  
      Rectangle.NumRectangles++;
* Using static variables
  + Since all instances of a class share the same static variables, you can use them to keep track of information about “the class as a whole” or “all the objects of this type”
  + A common use for static variables is to count the number of instances of an object that have been created so far in the program
    - Instead of “manually” incrementing this counter, like in our previous example, we can increment it inside the constructor:
    - class Rectangle  
      {  
       public static int NumRectangles = 0;  
       private int length;  
       private int width;  
       public Rectangle(int lengthP, int widthP)  
       {  
       length = lengthP;  
       width = widthP;  
       NumRectangles++;  
       }  
      }
    - Each time this constructor is called, it initializes a new Rectangle object with its own copy of the length and width variables. It also increments the single copy of the NumRectangles variable that is shared by all Rectangle objects.
    - The variable can still be accessed from the Main method (because it is public), where it could be used like this:
    - Rectangle rect1 = new Rectangle(2, 4);  
      Rectangle rect2 = new Rectangle(7, 5);  
      Console.WriteLine(Rectangle.NumRectangles  
       + " rectangle objects have been created");
    - When rect1 is instantiated, its copy of length is set to 2 and its copy of width is set to 4, then the single NumRectangles variable is incremented to 1. Then, when rect2 is instantiated, its copy of length is set to 7 and its copy of width is set to 5, and the NumRectangles variable is incremented to 2.
  + Static variables are also useful for **constants**
    - The const keyword, which we learned about earlier, is actually very similar to static
    - A const variable is just a static variable that can’t be modified
    - Like a static variable, it can be accessed using the name of the class where it is defined (e.g. Math.PI), and there is only one copy for the entire program
* Static methods and variables
  + Static methods cannot access instance variables, but they *can* access static variables
  + There’s no ambiguity when accessing a static variable: you don’t need to know which object’s variable to access, because there is only one copy of the static variable shared by all objects
  + This means you can write a “getter” or “setter” for a static variable, as long as it’s a static method. For example, we could improve our NumRectangles counter by ensuring that the Main method can only read it through a getter method, like this:
  + class Rectangle  
    {  
     private static int NumRectangles = 0;  
     private int length;  
     private int width;  
     public Rectangle(int lengthP, int widthP)  
     {  
     length = lengthP;  
     width = widthP;  
     NumRectangles++;  
     }  
     public static int GetNumRectangles()  
     {  
     return NumRectangles;  
     }  
    }
    - The NumRectangles variable is now declared private, which means only the Rectangle constructor will be able to increment it. Before, it would have been possible for the Main method to execute something liek Rectangle.NumRectangles = 1; and throw off the count.
    - The GetNumRectangles method can’t access length or width because they are instance variables, but it can access NumRectangles
    - The static method would be called from the Main method like this:
    - Rectangle rect1 = new Rectangle(2, 4);  
      Rectangle rect2 = new Rectangle(7, 5);  
      Console.WriteLine(Rectangle.GetNumRectangles()  
       + " rectangle objects have been created");
* Summary of static access rules
  + Static variables and instance variables are both **fields** of a class; they can also be called “static fields” and “non-static fields”
  + This table summarizes how methods are allowed to access them:

|  | * + Static Field | * + Non-static Field |
| --- | --- | --- |
| * + Static method | * + Yes | * + No |
| * + Non-static method | * + Yes | * + Yes |

## Static Classes

* The static keyword can also be used in a class declaration
* If a class is declared static, all of its members (fields and methods) must be static
* This is useful for classes that serve as “utility libraries” containing a collection of functions, and are not supposed to be instantiated and used as objects
* For example, the Math class is declared like this:
* static class Math  
  {  
   public static double Sqrt(double x)  
   {  
   ...  
   }  
   public static double Pow(double x, double y)  
   {  
   ...  
   }  
  }
* There is no need to ever create a Math object, but all of these methods belong together (within the same class) because they all implement standard mathematical functions.

# Random

* Random Number Generation
  + Produce a number within some bounds following some statistical rules.
  + A true random number is a number that is **nondeterministically** selected from a set of numbers wherein each possible selection has an equal probability of occurrence.
  + Usually in computer science we contend with **pseudo-random** numbers. These are not truly nondeterministic, but an approximation of random selection based on some algorithm.
  + Since pseudo-random selections are “determined” by an algorithm, or set of rules, they are technically **deterministic**.
* Random Class in C#
  + Instantiate a random number generator and use to select numbers:
  + Random rand = new Random();  
    Random randB = new Random(seed\_int);
  + Notice that we can create a generator with or without an argument. The argument is called a **seed** for the generator.
  + A seed tells the generator where to start its sequence. Using the same seed will always reproduce the same sequence of numbers.
  + The default constructor still has a seed value, but it is a hidden value pulled from the clock time during instantiation.
  + Time-based seeds only reset approximately every 15 milliseconds.
  + The random class is not “random enough” for cryptography.
  + For cryptographic randomness, use the [RNGCryptoServiceProvider](https://docs.microsoft.com/en-us/dotnet/api/system.security.cryptography.rngcryptoserviceprovider?view=net-5.0) class or [System.Security.Cryptography.RandomNumberGenerator](https://docs.microsoft.com/en-us/dotnet/api/system.security.cryptography.randomnumbergenerator?view=net-5.0).
* Using Random
  + Next() method returns a pseudo-random number between 0 and 2,147,483,647 (max signed int), inclusive.
  + By default, the number is always non-negative and within that range.
  + int randomInt = rand.Next();
  + What if we wanted to create a random number between 0 and 100?
  + We could use rand.Next() and then use modulo to cut down the answer range!
  + Alternatively, we could give the Next() method an int argument to set a ceiling.
  + int randomUpto100 = rand.Next(101);
  + The ceiling value is **exclusive**, so remember to use one number higher than what you want to be your max number.
  + We can also pass two arguments in order to set a range for the values.
  + int random50to100 = rand.Next(50,101);
  + The ceiling value is still exclusive, but the floor is **inclusive**.
  + NextDouble() returns a **normalized** value (value between 0.0 and 1.0 inclusive).
  + What if we want a different range? Adjust with math!
  + double randNeg2to3 - (rand.NextDouble()\*5)-2;
  + NextBytes() method takes a byte array as an argument and generates a random byte value for each index.
  + Remember, a byte has an unsigned value between 0 and 255 inclusive.
  + byte[] byteArray = new byte[10];  
    rand.NextBytes(byteArray);
* Creating Random Strings
  + What if we want to construct random strings made of a, b, c, and d?
  + Other techniques are available, but we can use a loop and switch!
  + Random rand = new Random();  
    string answer = “”;  
    int selection = 0;  
      
    for(int i = 0; i < 10; i++)  
    {  
     selection = rand.Next(4);  
     switch(selection){  
     case(0):  
     answer+=“a”;  
     break;  
     case(1):  
     answer+=“b”;  
     break;  
     case(2):  
     answer+=“c”;  
     break;  
     default:  
     answer+=“d”;  
     break;  
     }  
    }

1. That will be studied in the course of your study if you continue as a CS major. [↑](#footnote-ref-22)