



COMP 2012H Honors Object-Oriented Programming and Data Structures

Topic 2: Fundamentals of C++

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Data Types: Introduction

- A computer program has to deal with different **types** of data. In a programming language, data are categorized into different **types**.
- Each **data type** comes with a set of **operations** for manipulating its **values**. Operations on **basic data types** are built into a programming language.



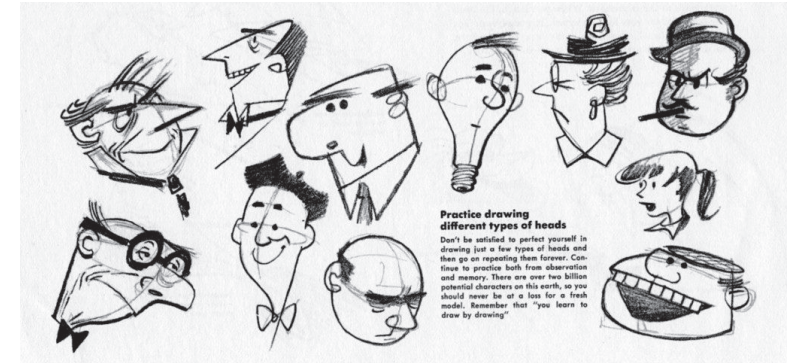
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Part I

Simple C++ Data Types



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C++ Basic Types

TYPES	COMMON SIZE (#BYTES ON A 32-BIT MACHINE)	VALUE RANGE
bool	1	{ true, false }
char	1	[-128, 127]
short	2	[-32768, 32767]
int	4	$[-2^{31}, 2^{31} - 1]$
long	4	$[-2^{31}, 2^{31} - 1]$
float	4	$\pm [1.17549\text{E-}38, 3.40282\text{E}+38]$
double	8	$\pm [2.22507\text{E-}308, 1.79769\text{E}+308]$

- Not all** numbers of a **type** can be represented by a computer.
- It depends on how many bytes you use to represent it: with more bytes, more numbers can be represented.

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Find Out Their Sizes using `sizeof`

```
#include <iostream>    /* File: value.cpp */
using namespace std;

int main()
{
    cout << "sizeof(bool) = " << sizeof(bool) << endl;
    cout << "sizeof(char) = " << sizeof(char) << endl;
    cout << "sizeof(short) = " << sizeof(short) << endl;
    cout << "sizeof(int) = " << sizeof(int) << endl;
    cout << "sizeof(long) = " << sizeof(long) << endl;
    cout << "sizeof(long long) = " << sizeof(long long) << endl;
    cout << "sizeof(float) = " << sizeof(float) << endl;
    cout << "sizeof(double) = " << sizeof(double) << endl;
    cout << "sizeof(long double) = " << sizeof(long double) << endl;

    return 0;
}
```

Size of Basic Types on 2 Computers

on a 32-bit machine

```
sizeof(bool) = 1
sizeof(char) = 1
sizeof(short) = 2
sizeof(int) = 4
sizeof(long) = 4
sizeof(long long) = 8
sizeof(float) = 4
sizeof(double) = 8
sizeof(long double) = 12
```

on a 64-bit machine

```
sizeof(bool) = 1
sizeof(char) = 1
sizeof(short) = 2
sizeof(int) = 4
sizeof(long) = 8
sizeof(long long) = 8
sizeof(float) = 4
sizeof(double) = 8
sizeof(long double) = 16
```

- Note that the figures may be different on your computer.
- A 32(64)-bit machine uses CPUs of which the data bus width and memory address width are 32 (64) bits.

Integers

- Type names: `short (int)`, `int`, `long (int)`, `long long (int)`
- Their sizes depend on the CPU and the compiler.
- ANSI C++ requires:
size of `short` \leq size of `int` \leq size of `long` \leq size of `long long`
- e.g., What are the numbers that can be represented by a 2-byte `short int`?
- Each integral data type has 2 versions:
 - `signed` version: represents both +ve and -ve integers.
e.g. `signed short`, `signed int`, `signed long`
 - `unsigned` version: represents only +ve integers.
e.g. `unsigned short`, `unsigned int`, `unsigned long`
- `signed` versions are the default.
- Obviously `unsigned int` can represent 2 times more +ve integers than `signed int`.

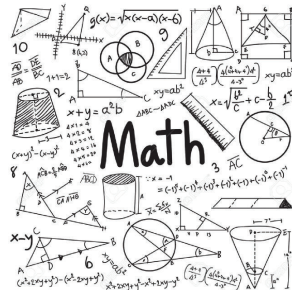
Floating-Point Data Types

- Floating-point numbers are used to represent real numbers and very large integers (which cannot be held in `long long`).
- Type names:
 - `float` for `single-precision` numbers.
 - `double` for `double-precision` numbers.
- Precision:** For decimal numbers, if you are given more decimal places, you may represent a number to higher precision.
 - for 1 decimal place: 1.1, 1.2, 1.3, ... etc.; can't get 1.03.
 - for 2 decimal places: 1.01, 1.02, 1.03, ... etc.; can't get 1.024.
- In `scientific notation`, a number has 2 components. e.g. $5.16\text{E-}02$
 - mantissa:** 5.16
 - exponent:** -2
- More mantissa bits \Rightarrow higher precision.
- More exponent bits \Rightarrow larger real number.

$$3.14159 = \underbrace{314159}_{\substack{\text{mantissa,} \\ \text{or} \\ \text{significant}}} \times 10^{\underbrace{-5}_{\substack{\text{exponent} \\ \text{base}}}}$$

Integer Arithmetic and Floating-Point Arithmetic

- Arithmetic expressions involving only integers use **integer arithmetic**.
- Arithmetic expressions involving only floating-point numbers use **floating-point arithmetic**.
- For $+$, $-$, \times operations, results should be what you expect.
- However, **integer division** and **floating-point division** may give different results. e.g.,
 - $10/2 = 5$ and $10.0/2.0 = 5.0$
 - $9/2 = 4$ and $9.0/2.0 = 4.5$
 - $4/8 = 0$ and $4.0/8.0 = 0.5$



Integers, Characters, Character Strings

- Integers**
 - Examples: $\dots, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, \dots$
 - C++ type name: **int**
- Characters**
 - Examples: **'a'**, **'b'**, **'4'**
 - Represent a single character by delimiting it in **single quotes**.
 - For special characters, use the escape character ****. e.g.
 - '\t'** = tab **'\n'** = newline
 - '\b'** = backspace **'\0'** = null character
 - C++ type name: **char**
- Character Strings**
 - Examples: **"hkust"**, **"How are you?"**, **"500 dollars"**
 - Character strings are **not** a basic data type in C++.
 - They are **sequences** of basic **char** data.

Note: There is a **string** library that defines **string** objects which are more than a character string. (More about it later.)

Relation between Characters and Integers

- In C++, a **char** datum is represented by 1 byte (8 bits).
- Question:** How many different characters can 8 bits represent?
- Put it in another way, a char datum is encoded by one of the possible 8-bit patterns.
- The most common **encoding scheme** is called **ASCII** (American Standard Code for Information Interchange).
- Since a computer only recognizes bits, a **char** datum may also be **interpreted** as an **integer**!

CHARACTER	ASCII CODE	Integral Value
'0'	00110000	48
'1'	00110001	49
'9'	00111001	57
'?'	00111111	63
'A'	01000001	65
'B'	01000010	66
'Z'	01011010	90
'a'	01100000	97
'b'	01100001	98
'z'	01111010	122

Boolean Data Type

- Type name: **bool**.
- Used to represent the **truth value**, **true** or **false** of logical (boolean) expressions like:

$a > b$ $x + y == 0$ $\text{true} \ \&\& \ \text{false}$

- Since C++ evolves from C, C++ follows C's convention:
 - zero** may be interpreted as **false**.
 - non-zero values** may be interpreted as **true**.
- However, since internally everything is represented by 0's and 1's,
 - false** is represented as **0**.
 - true** is represented as **1**.
- Even if you put other values to a **bool** variable, its **internal value** always is changed back to either **1** or **0**.

Example: Output Boolean Values

```
#include <iostream>    /* File: boolalpha.cpp */
using namespace std;

int main()
{
    bool x = true;
    bool y = false;

    // Default output format of booleans
    cout << x << " && " << y << " = " << (x && y) << endl << endl;

    cout << boolalpha;    // To print booleans in English
    cout << x << " && " << y << " = " << (x && y) << endl << endl;

    cout << noboolalpha; // To print booleans in 1 or 0
    cout << x << " && " << y << " = " << (x && y) << endl;

    return 0;
}
```

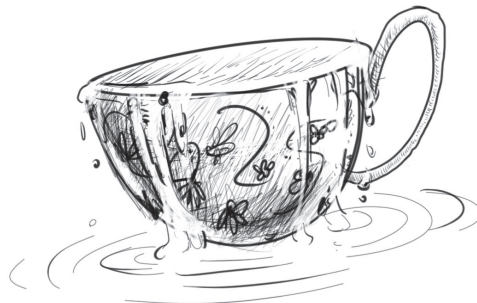
Underflow and Overflow in Integral Data Types

- **Overflow**: occurs when a data type is used to represent a number **larger** than what it can hold. e.g.
 - ▶ if you use a **short int** to store HK's population.
 - ▶ when a **short int** has its max value of 32767, and you want to add 1 to it.
- **Underflow**: occurs when a data type is used to represent a number **smaller** than what it can hold. e.g.
 - ▶ use an **unsigned int** to store a -ve number.



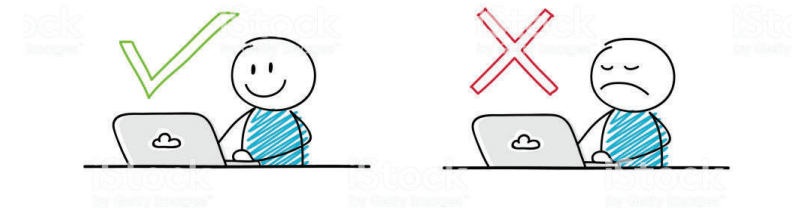
Underflow and Overflow in Floating-Point Data Types

- **Underflow**: when the -ve exponent becomes too large to fit in the **exponent field** of the floating-point number.
- **Overflow**: when the +ve exponent becomes too large to fit in the **exponent field** of the floating-point number.
- To prevent these from happening, use **double** if memory space allows.
- In fact, all **floating literals** (e.g., 1.23) is treated as **double** unless explicitly specified by a **suffix** (e.g., 1.23f).



Part II

Type Checking and Type Conversion



Type Checking and Coercion

- For most languages, data types have to be **matched** during an operation \Rightarrow **type checking**.
- However, sometimes, a type is **made compatible** with a different type \Rightarrow **coercion**.



Operand Coercion

Coercion is the automatic conversion of the data type of operands during an operation.

- Example: $3 + 2.5 \Rightarrow \text{int} + \text{double}$.
- The C++ compiler will automatically change it to $3.0 + 2.5 \Rightarrow \text{double} + \text{double}$
- Thus, the **integer** 3 is **coerced** to the **double** 3.0.

Example: Convert a Small Character to Capital Letter

```
char small_y, big_y;  
cin >> small_y;           // Character in small case  
big_y = small_y + 'A' - 'a'; // Character in big case
```

Here `big_y`, `small_y`, `'A'`, and `'a'` are “**coerced**” by “**promoting**” it to **int** before addition. The result is converted back (or coerced) to **char**.

Priority Rules for the Usual Arithmetic Conversions for Binary Operations (Simplified Version)

- If **either** operand is of type **long double**, convert the other operand also to **long double**.
- If **either** operand is of type **double**, convert the other operand also to **double**.
- If **either** operand is of type **float**, convert the other operand also to **float**.
- Otherwise, the **integral promotions** shall be performed on **both** operands.
 - Similar rules are used for integral promotion of the operands.
 - Compute using integer arithmetic.

Question: What is the result of $3/4$?

Automatic Type Conversion During Assignment

Examples

```
float x = 3.2;           // Initialize x with 3.2 by assignment  
double y = 5.7;          // Initialize y with 5.7 by assignment  
  
short k = x;             // k = ?  
int n;  
n = y;                   // n = ?
```

- Since **float|double** can hold numbers bigger than **short | int**, the assignment of `k` and `n` in the above program will cause the compiler to issue a warning — not an error.

Compiler Warnings

```
a.cpp:9: warning: converting to 'short int' from 'float'  
a.cpp:11: warning: converting to 'int' from 'double'
```

Automatic Type Conversion During Assignment ..

- A **narrowing conversion** changes a value to a data type that might not be able to hold some of the possible values.
- A **widening conversion** changes a value to a data type that can accommodate any possible value of the original data.
- C++ uses **truncation** rather than **rounding** in converting a `float` | `double` to `short` | `int` | `long`.



Manual Type Conversion (Casting)

```
int k = 5;
int n = 2;
float x = n/k;           // What is the value of x?
```

- In the above example, one can get $x = 0.4$ by manually converting n and/or k from `int` to `float` | `double`.

Syntax: **static_cast** for manual type casting

`static_cast<data-type> (value)`

- No more warning messages on narrowing conversion.

```
int k = 5, n = 2;
float x = static_cast<double>(n)/k;
float y = n/static_cast<double>(k);
float z = static_cast<double>(n)/static_cast<double>(k);
```

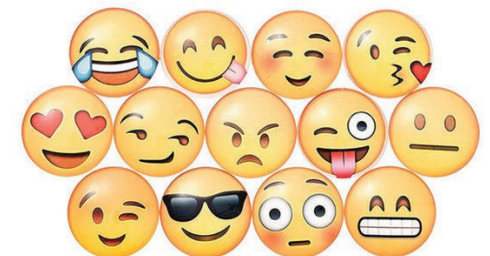
Part III

Constants



Literal Constants

- Constants represent **fixed** values, or **permanent** values that **cannot** be modified (in a program).
- Examples of **literal constants**:
 - **char** constants: `'a'`, `'5'`, `'\n'`
 - **string** constants: `"hello world"`, `"don't worry, be happy"`
 - **int** constants: `123`, `456`, `-89`
 - **double** constants: `123.456`, `-2.90E+11`



Symbolic Constants

- A **symbolic constant** is a **named constant** with an identifier name.
- The rule for identifier names for constants is the same as that for variables. However, by convention, constant identifiers are written in **capital letters**.
- A symbolic constant must be **defined** and/or **declared** before it can be used. (Just like variables or functions.)
- Once defined, **symbolic constants cannot** be changed!

Syntax: Constant Definition

```
const <data-type> <identifier> = <value> ;
```

Example

```
const char BACKSPACE = '\b';
const float US2HK = 7.80;
const float HK2RMB = 0.86;
const float US2RMB = US2HK * HK2RMB;
```

Why Symbolic Constants?

Compared with literal constants, symbolic constants are preferred because they are

- **more readable**. A literal constant does not carry a **meaning**. e.g. the number 67 cannot tell you that it is the enrollment quota of COMP2012H in 2020.

```
const int COMP2012H_QUOTA = 67;
```
- **more maintainable**. In case we want to increase the quota to 100, we only need to make the change in **one** place: the **initial value** in the definition of the constant COMP2012H_QUOTA.

```
const int COMP2012H_QUOTA = 100;
```
- **type-checked** during compilation.

Remark: Unlike variable definitions, **memory** is **not** allocated for constant definitions with only few exceptions.

Example: Use of Symbolic Constants

```
#include <iostream>    /* File: symbolic-constant.cpp */
#include <cmath>       // For calling the ceil() function
using namespace std;

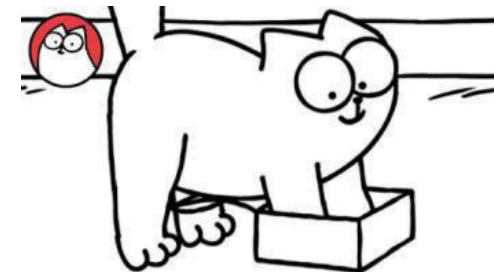
int main()
{
    const int COMP2012H_QUOTA = 67;
    const float STUDENT_2_PROF_RATIO = 100.0;
    const float STUDENT_2_TA_RATIO = 40.0;
    const float STUDENT_2_ROOM_RATIO = 100.0;

    cout << "COMP2012H requires "
         << ceil(COMP2012H_QUOTA/STUDENT_2_PROF_RATIO)
         << " instructors, "
         << ceil(COMP2012H_QUOTA/STUDENT_2_TA_RATIO)
         << " TAs, and "
         << ceil(COMP2012H_QUOTA/STUDENT_2_ROOM_RATIO)
         << " classrooms" << endl;

    return 0;
}
```

Part IV

C++ Variables



Identifiers

$$f(x) = x^2 + c$$

where

f : name of a **function**
 x : name of a **variable**
 c : name of a **constant**

In programming languages, these “names” are called **identifiers**.



Rules for Making up Identifier Names

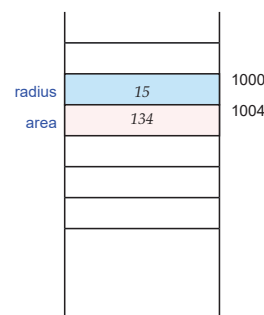
- Only the following characters may appear in an identifier:
0–9, a–z, A–Z, _
- The **first** character cannot be a digit (0–9).
- C++ keyword — **reserved words** — are not allowed.
- Examples: amount, COMP2012H, _myname_
- C++ identifiers are **case-sensitive**: lowercase and uppercase letters are considered **different**.
⇒ hkust, HKUST, HkUst, HKust are **different** identifiers.
- Examples of illegal C++ identifiers:
- Guidelines:
 - use meaningful names. e.g. **amount** instead of **a**
 - for long names consisting of several words, use **'_'** to separate them or **capitalize** them. e.g. **num_of_students** or **numOfStudents** instead of **numofstudents**.
 - usually identifiers starting with **'_'** are used for **system** variables.

Reserved Words in C++

asm	auto	bool	break	case
catch	char	class	const	const_cast
continue	default	delete	do	double
dynamic_cast	else	enum	explicit	extern
false	float	for	friend	goto
if	inline	int	long	mutable
namespace	new	operator	private	public
protected	register	reinterpret	return	short
signed	sizeof	static	static_cast	struct
switch	template	this	throw	true
try	typedef	typeid	typename	union
unsigned	using	virtual	void	volatile
wchar_t	while			

Variables

A **variable** is a **named memory location** for a value that we can write to, retrieve from, and manipulate.



- It can be thought of as a container/box for a value.
- A variable must be **declared** and/or **defined** before it can be used.

Syntax: Variable Definition

<data-type> <identifier> ;

Examples

int radius = 10, sum = 0;

Variable Declaration/Definitions

Syntax: Defining **Several** Variables of the **Same** Type at Once

```
<data-type> <identifier1>, <identifier2>, ... ;
```

Examples

```
int radius, num_of_words;
char choice, gender, pass_or_fail;
```

- When a variable is **defined**, the compiler **allocates memory** for it.
- The amount of memory is equal to the size of its data type.

****** Some books will call this variable declaration. Actually there is a big difference between variable declaration and variable definition. We'll talk about that later. When a variable is defined, it is also declared. The other way is not true.

Variable Initialization

Syntax: **Initialize** Variables While they Are **Defined**

```
<data-type> <identifier> = <value> ;
```

- Several variables of the same type may also be initialized at the same time. e.g.

```
int radius = 10, sum = 0;
```

- A variable may also be initialized by a separate **assignment statement** after it is defined: e.g.

```
int radius;      // Variable definition
radius = 5;      // Initialization by assignment
```

- ANSI C++ does not require compilers to initialize variables.
- Thus, in general, if you do not explicitly initialize variables while you are defining them, their initial contents may be **garbage**. (Global variables are an exception.)

Example: Addition of 2 Numbers Using Variables

```
#include <iostream>    /* File: add-var.cpp */
using namespace std;

int main()             // Program's entry point
{
    int x, y;           // Define 2 variables to hold the int values to add

    cin >> x;            // You may also shorten the 2 statements into one:
    cin >> y;            // cin >> x >> y;

    cout << x << " + " << y << " = " << x+y << endl;

    return 0;          // A nice ending
}
```



Part V

Operators



Assignment Operator

Syntax: Assignment

<variable> = <value> ;

- In C++, the “=” sign is used to assign a value to a variable; it is the **assignment operator**.

Examples

```
int a, b, x = 2, y = 3, z = 4;
```

```
a = 10*x;
```

```
b = a - (100*y - 1000*z);
```

```
a = a + b;
```

- Don't try to understand the assignment statement: `a = a + b;` using normal math notation, otherwise, it doesn't make sense.
- Nor should you treat it as a boolean relational “equality” sign.

Arithmetic Operators

OPERATION	OPERATOR
unary minus	—
addition	+
subtraction	—
multiplication	*
division	/
modulus	%
increment	++
decrement	--

Modulo Arithmetic

Handwritten calculation of 17 divided by 5. The quotient is 3 and the remainder is 2. The modulo operation is shown as $17 \% 5 = 2$.

- `mod` is used to get the **remainder** in an **integer division**.
 $\text{mod}(17, 5) = 17 \bmod 5 = 17 \% 5 = 2$
- Strictly speaking, $m \bmod n$ is defined only if n is +ve.
- Most programming languages support -ve divisor and different languages may give you **different results**!
- In C++, the **modulo arithmetic** is supported by the **remainder operator %** which allows -ve divisor.

Question: What are the results of $(-17) \% 5$, $17 \% (-5)$, or $(-17) \% (-5)$?

Pre- and Post- Increment, Decrement

- The **unary** increment operator `++` add 1 to its operand.
- The **unary** decrement operator `--` subtract 1 from its operand.
- However, there are 2 ways to call them: **pre-increment** or **post-increment**. e.g.

`++x` `x++` `--x` `x--`

- If used **alone**, they are equivalent to: $x = x + 1$ and $x = x - 1$.
- But if used **with** other operands, then there is a big difference:
 - `++x` \Rightarrow add 1 to x , and use the result for further operation.
 - `x++` \Rightarrow use the current value of x for some operation, and then add 1 to x .

```
cout << ++x;
/* same as */
x = x + 1;
cout << x;
```

```
cout << x++;
/* same as */
cout << x;
x = x + 1;
```

Example: %, ++, --

```
#include <iostream>    /* File: inc-mod.cpp */
using namespace std;

int main()
{
    int x = 100, y = 100; // Variable definitions and initialization
    int a = 10, b = 10, c = 10, d = 10;

    cout << ++x << "\t"; cout << "x = " << x << endl; // Pre-increment
    cout << y++ << "\t"; cout << "y = " << y << endl; // Post-increment

    a = ++b; cout << "a = " << a << "\t" << "b = " << b << endl;
    c = d++; cout << "c = " << c << "\t" << "d = " << d << endl;

    cout << 17%5 << endl; // Trickiness of the mod function
    cout << (-17)%5 << endl;
    cout << 17%(-5) << endl;
    cout << (-17)%(-5) << endl;

    return 0;
}
```

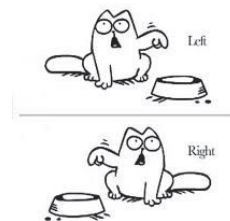
Shorthand Assignment Operators

SHORTHAND NOTATION	NORMAL NOTATION
$n += 2$	$n = n + 2$
$n -= 2$	$n = n - 2$
$n *= 2$	$n = n * 2$
$n /= 2$	$n = n / 2$
$n \% = 2$	$n = n \% 2$



Precedence and Associativity

OPERATOR	DESCRIPTION	ASSOCIATIVITY
- ++ --	minus increment decrement	Right-to-Left
* / %	multiply divide mod	Left-to-Right
+ -	add subtract	Left-to-Right
=	assignment	Right-to-Left



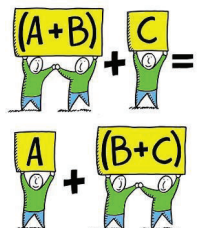
Precedence

Example: $1/2 + 3 * 4 = (1/2) + (3 * 4)$
because $*$, $/$ has a **higher precedence** over $+$, $-$.

- **Precedence rules** decide which operators run first.
- In general,

$$x \ P \ y \ Q \ z = x \ P \ (y \ Q \ z)$$

if operator Q is at a higher precedence level than operator P .



Associativity: Binary Operators

Example: $1 - 2 + 3 - 4 = ((1 - 2) + 3) - 4$
because $+$, $-$ are **left associative**.

- **Associativity** decides the grouping of operands with operators of the same level of precedence.
- If **binary** operator P , Q are of the **same** precedence level
 - ▶ if operator P , Q are both **right associative**, then

$$x \ P \ y \ Q \ z = x \ P \ (y \ Q \ z)$$

- ▶ if operator P , Q are both **left associative**, then

$$x \ P \ y \ Q \ z = (x \ P \ y) \ Q \ z$$

Cascading Assignments

- C++ allows assigning the same value to multiple variables at once.

Examples

```
int w, x, y, z;
```

```
y = z = 5;           // Same as y = (z = 5);  
w = x = y + z;       // Same as w = (x = (y+z));
```



Expression and Statement

- An **expression** has a value which is the result of some operation(s) on its(their) operands.
- Expression examples:

$$4 \quad x - y \quad 2 - a - (b * c)$$

- A **statement** is a sentence that acts as a command.
 - ▶ It does not have a value.
 - ▶ It always ends in a **';**'.

- Statement examples:

- ▶ **Input** statement: `cin >> x;`
- ▶ **Output** statement: `cout << x;`
- ▶ **Assignment** statement: `x = 5;`
- ▶ **Variable** definition: `int x;`

- For the first 3 **statement** examples above, if we take out the ending **';**', they become input/output/assignment **expressions**! (More about this later.)

That's all!

Any questions?

