

C++ Primer Part 1

CMSC 202

Topics Covered

- Our first “Hello world” program
- Basic program structure
- main()
- Variables, identifiers, types
- Expressions, statements
- Operators, precedence, associativity

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A Sample C++ Program

Display 1.1 A Sample C++ Program

```
1 #include <iostream>
2 using namespace std;
3 int main( )
4 {
5     int numberOfLanguages;
6     cout << "Hello reader.\n"
7         << "Welcome to C++.\n";
8     cout << "How many programming languages have you used? ";
9     cin >> numberOfLanguages;
10    if (numberOfLanguages < 1)
11        cout << "Read the preface. You may prefer\n"
12            << "a more elementary book by the same author.\n";
13    else
14        cout << "Enjoy the book.\n";
15    return 0;
16 }
```

Display 1.1 A Sample C++ Program (2 of 2)

SAMPLE DIALOGUE 1

Hello reader.
Welcome to C++.
How many programming languages have you used? 0 ← User types in 0 on the keyboard.
Read the preface. You may prefer
a more elementary book by the same author.

SAMPLE DIALOGUE 2

Hello reader.
Welcome to C++.
How many programming languages have you used? 1 ← User types in 1 on the keyboard.
Enjoy the book

C++ Variables

- C++ Identifiers
 - Keywords/reserved words vs. Identifiers
 - Case-sensitivity and validity of identifiers
 - Meaningful names!
- Variables
 - A memory location to store data for a program
 - Must declare all data before use in program

Variable Declaration

- Syntax: `<type> <legal identifier>;`
- Examples:

```
int sum;  
float average;  
double grade = 98;
```

Semicolon required!

- Must be declared before being used
- May appear in various places and contexts (described later)
- Must be declared of a given type (e.g. int, float, char, etc.)

Variable Declarations (con't)

When we declare a variable, we tell the compiler:

- When and where to set aside memory space for the variable
- How much memory to set aside
- How to interpret the contents of that memory: the specified data **type**
- What name we will be referring to that location by: its **identifier**

Naming Conventions

- Naming *conventions* are rules for names of variables to improve readability
 - CMSC 202 has its own standards, described in detail on the course website
 - Start with a lowercase letter
 - Indicate "word" boundaries with an uppercase letter
 - Restrict the remaining characters to digits and lowercase letters
- `topSpeed` `bankRate1` `timeOfArrival`
- Note: variable names are case sensitive!

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Data Types: Display 1.2 Simple Types (1 of 2)

Display 1.2 Simple Types

TYPE NAME	MEMORY USED	SIZE RANGE	PRECISION
<code>short</code> (also called <code>short int</code>)	2 bytes	-32,768 to 32,767	Not applicable
<code>int</code>	4 bytes	-2,147,483,648 to 2,147,483,647	Not applicable
<code>long</code> (also called <code>long int</code>)	4 bytes	-2,147,483,648 to 2,147,483,647	Not applicable
<code>float</code>	4 bytes	approximately 10^{-38} to 10^{38}	7 digits
<code>double</code>	8 bytes	approximately 10^{-308} to 10^{308}	15 digits

Data Types: Display 1.2 Simple Types (2 of 2)

<code>long double</code>	10 bytes	approximately 10^{-4932} to 10^{4932}	19 digits
<code>char</code>	1 byte	All ASCII characters (Can also be used as an integer type, although we do not recommend doing so.)	Not applicable
<code>bool</code>	1 byte	<code>true</code> , <code>false</code>	Not applicable

The values listed here are only sample values to give you a general idea of how the types differ. The values for any of these entries may be different on your system. *Precision* refers to the number of meaningful digits, including digits in front of the decimal point. The ranges for the types `float`, `double`, and `long double` are the ranges for positive numbers. Negative numbers have a similar range, but with a negative sign in front of each number.

Assigning Data

- Initializing data in declaration statement
 - Results "undefined" if you don't!
 - `int myValue = 0;`
- Assigning data during execution
 - Lvalues (left-side) & Rvalues (right-side)
 - Lvalues must be variables
 - Rvalues can be any expression
 - Example:
`distance = rate * time;`
Lvalue: "distance"
Rvalue: "rate * time"

Data Assignment Rules

- Compatibility of Data Assignments
 - Type mismatches
 - General Rule: Cannot place value of one type into variable of another type
 - `intVar = 2.99; // 2 is assigned to intVar!`
 - Only integer part "fits", so that's all that goes
 - Called "implicit" or "automatic type conversion"
 - Literals
 - 2, 5.75, "Z", "Hello World"
 - Considered "constants": can't change in program

Escape Sequences

- "Extend" character set
- Backslash, \ preceding a character
 - Instructs compiler: a special "escape character" is coming
 - Following character treated as "escape sequence char"
 - Display 1.3 next slide

Display 1.3 Some Escape Sequences (1 of 2)

Display 1.3 Some Escape Sequences

SEQUENCE	MEANING
<code>\n</code>	New line
<code>\r</code>	Carriage return (Positions the cursor at the start of the current line. You are not likely to use this very much.)
<code>\t</code>	(Horizontal) Tab (Advances the cursor to the next tab stop.)
<code>\a</code>	Alert (Sounds the alert noise, typically a bell.)
<code>\\</code>	Backslash (Allows you to place a backslash in a quoted expression.)

Display 1.3 Some Escape Sequences (2 of 2)

<code>\'</code>	Single quote (Mostly used to place a single quote inside single quotes.)
<code>\"</code>	Double quote (Mostly used to place a double quote inside a quoted string.)

The following are not as commonly used, but we include them for completeness:

<code>\v</code>	Vertical tab
<code>\b</code>	Backspace
<code>\f</code>	Form feed
<code>\?</code>	Question mark

Literal Data

- Literals
 - Examples:
 - 2 // Literal constant int
 - 5.75 // Literal constant double
 - 'Z' // Literal constant char
 - "Hello World\n" // Literal constant string
- Cannot change values during execution
- Called "literals" because you "literally typed" them in your program!

Constants

- You should not use literal constants directly in your code
 - It might seem obvious to you, but not so:
 - "limit = 52": is this weeks per year... or cards in a deck?
- Instead, you should use named constants
 - Represent the constant with a meaningful name
 - Also allows you to change multiple instances in a central place

Constants

- There are two ways to do this:
 - Old way: preprocessor definition:

```
#define WEEKS_PER_YEAR 52
```

(Note: there is no "=")
 - New way: constant variable:
 - Just add the keyword "const" to the declaration

```
const float PI = 3.14159;
```

Arithmetic Operators: Display 1.4 Named Constant (1 of 2)

- Standard Arithmetic Operators
 - Precedence rules – standard rules

Display 1.4 Named Constant

```
1 #include <iostream>
2 using namespace std;
3
4 int main( )
5 {
6     const double RATE = 6.9;
7     double deposit;
8
9     cout << "Enter the amount of your deposit $";
10    cin >> deposit;
```

Arithmetic Operators: Display 1.4 Named Constant (2 of 2)

```
10 double newBalance;
11 newBalance = deposit + deposit*(RATE/100);
12 cout << "In one year, that deposit will grow to\n"
13     << "$" << newBalance << " an amount worth waiting for.\n";
14
15 return 0;
16 }
```

SAMPLE DIALOGUE
Enter the amount of your deposit \$100
In one year, that deposit will grow to
\$106.9 an amount worth waiting for.

Operators, Expressions

- Recall: most programming languages have a variety of *operators*: called unary, binary, and even ternary, depending on the number of operands (things they operate on)
- Usually represented by special symbolic characters: e.g., '+' for addition, '*' for multiplication

Operators, Expressions

- There are also relational operators, and Boolean operators
- Simple units of operands and operators combine into larger units, according to strict rules of *precedence* and *associativity*
- Each computable unit (both simple and larger aggregates) are called *expressions*

Binary Operators

- What is a binary operator?
 - An operator that has two operands
`<operand> <operator> <operand>`
 - Arithmetic Operators
`+ - * / %`
 - Relational Operators
`< > == <= >=`
 - Logical Operators
`&& ||`

Relational Operators

- In C++, all relational operators evaluate to a boolean value of either **true** or **false**.

```
x = 5;  
y = 6;
```

`x > y` will always evaluate to **false**.

- C++ has a ternary operator – the general form is:
(conditional expression) ? true case : false case ;

- Ternary example:

```
Cout << (( x > y ) ? "X is greater" : "Y is greater");
```

Unary Operators

- Unary operators only have one operand.
 - ! ++ --
 - ! is logical negation, !true is false, !false is true
 - ++ and -- are the **increment** and **decrement** operators
 - x++ a **post-increment** (postfix) operation
 - ++x a **pre-increment** (prefix) operation
- ++ and -- are “shorthand” operators. More on these later...

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Precedence, Associativity

- Order of operator application to operands:
 - Postfix operators: ++ -- (right to left)
 - Unary operators: + - ++ -- ! (right to left)
 - * / % (left to right)
 - + - (left to right)
 - < > <= >=
 - == !=
 - &&
 - ||
 - ?:
 - Assignment operator: = (right to left)

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Associativity

- What is the value of the expression?
 - 3 * 6 / 9
 - (3 * 6) / 9
 - 18 / 9
 - 2
- What about this one?
 - int x, y, z;
 - x = y = z = 0;

Arithmetic Precision

- Precision of Calculations
 - VERY important consideration!
 - Expressions in C++ might not evaluate as you'd "expect"!
 - "Highest-order operand" determines type of arithmetic "precision" performed
 - Common pitfall!

Arithmetic Precision Examples

- Examples:
 - $17 / 5$ evaluates to 3 in C++!
 - Both operands are integers
 - Integer division is performed!
 - $17.0 / 5$ equals 3.4 in C++!
 - Highest-order operand is "double type"
 - Double "precision" division is performed!
 - `int intVar1 =1, intVar2=2;`
`intVar1 / intVar2;`
 - Performs integer division!
 - Result: 0!

Individual Arithmetic Precision

- Calculations done "one-by-one"
 - $1 / 2 / 3.0 / 4$ performs 3 separate divisions.
 - First $\rightarrow 1 / 2$ equals 0
 - Then $\rightarrow 0 / 3.0$ equals 0.0
 - Then $\rightarrow 0.0 / 4$ equals 0.0!
- So not necessarily sufficient to change just "one operand" in a large expression
 - Must keep in mind all individual calculations that will be performed during evaluation!

Type Casting

- Casting for Variables
 - Can add ".0" to literals to force precision arithmetic, but what about variables?
 - We can't use "myInt.0"!
 - `static_cast<double>intVar`
 - Explicitly "casts" or "converts" `intVar` to `double` type
 - Result of conversion is then used
 - Example expression:
`doubleVar = static_cast<double>intVar1 / intVar2;`
 - Casting forces double-precision division to take place among two integer variables!

Type Casting

- Two types
 - Implicit—also called "Automatic"
 - Done FOR you, automatically
`17 / 5.5`
This expression causes an "implicit type cast" to take place, casting the `17` → `17.0`
 - Explicit type conversion
 - Programmer specifies conversion with cast operator
`static_cast<double>17 / 5.5`
Same expression as above, using explicit cast
`static_cast<double>myInt / myDouble`
More typical use; cast operator on variable

Shorthand Operators

- Increment & Decrement Operators
 - Just short-hand notation
 - Increment operator, `++`
`intVar++`; is equivalent to
`intVar = intVar + 1;`
 - Decrement operator, `--`
`intVar--`; is equivalent to
`intVar = intVar - 1;`

Shorthand Operators: Two Options

- Post-Increment
`intVar++`
 - Uses current value of variable, THEN increments it
- Pre-Increment
`++intVar`
 - Increments variable first, THEN uses new value
- "Use" is defined as whatever "context" variable is currently in
- No difference if "alone" in statement:
`intVar++`; and `++intVar`; → identical result

Post-Increment in Action

- Post-Increment in Expressions:

```
int    n = 2,
      valueProduced;
valueProduced = 2 * (n++);
cout << valueProduced << endl;
cout << n << endl;
```

 - This code segment produces the output:
4
3
 - Since post-increment was used

Pre-Increment in Action

- Now using Pre-increment:

```
int    n = 2,
      valueProduced;
valueProduced = 2 * (++n);
cout << valueProduced << endl;
cout << n << endl;
```

 - This code segment produces the output:
6
3
 - Because pre-increment was used

Assigning Data: Shorthand Notations

- Display, page 14

EXAMPLE	EQUIVALENT TO
<code>count += 2;</code>	<code>count = count + 2;</code>
<code>total -= discount;</code>	<code>total = total - discount;</code>
<code>bonus *= 2;</code>	<code>bonus = bonus * 2;</code>
<code>time /= rushFactor;</code>	<code>time = time/rushFactor;</code>
<code>change %= 100;</code>	<code>change = change % 100;</code>
<code>amount *= cnt1 + cnt2;</code>	<code>amount = amount * (cnt1 + cnt2);</code>

Console Input/Output

- I/O objects `cin`, `cout`, `cerr`
- Defined in the C++ library called `<iostream>`
- Must have these lines (called pre-processor directives) near start of file:
 - `#include <iostream>`
 - `using namespace std;`
 - Tells C++ to use appropriate library so we can use the I/O objects `cin`, `cout`, `cerr`

Console Output

- What can be outputted?
 - Any data can be outputted to display screen
 - Variables
 - Constants
 - Literals
 - Expressions (which can include all of above)
 - `cout << numberOfGames << " games played.";`
2 values are outputted:
 - "value" of variable `numberOfGames`,
 - literal string " games played."
- Cascading: multiple values in one `cout`

Separating Lines of Output

- New lines in output
 - Recall: "\n" is escape sequence for the char "newline"
- A second method: object endl
- Examples:

```
cout << "Hello World\n";
```

 - Sends string "Hello World" to display, & escape sequence "\n", skipping to next line

```
cout << "Hello World" << endl;
```

 - Same result as above

Formatting Output

- Formatting numeric values for output
 - Values may not display as expected

```
cout << "The price is $" << price << endl;
```

 - If price (declared a double) has the value 78.5, you might get
 - The price is \$78.5000000
 - The price is \$78.5
 - Neither is what you want
 - Have to tell C++ how to output numbers.

Formatting Numbers

- "Magic Formula" to force decimal sizes:

```
cout.setf(ios::fixed);  
cout.setf(ios::showpoint);  
cout.precision(2);
```
- These statements force all future cout'ed values to have exactly two digits after the decimal place:
 - Example:

```
cout << "The price is $" << price << endl;
```

 - Now results in the following:
The price is \$78.50
- Can modify precision "as you go" as well.

Formatting Integers

- Field width and fill characters
 - Must `#include <iomanip>`
 - `setw(n)` sets field width to `n`
 - `cout.fill(c)` sets “fill” character to `c`
- Example:

```
int x = 7;
cout.fill('0'); // set fill character to zero
cout << setw(3) << x << endl;
```

Outputs 007 (left-pads with zeros)

C-strings

- C++ has two different kinds of “string of characters”:
 - the original C-string: array of characters
 - The object-oriented *string* class
- C-strings are terminated with a null character (`'\0'`)

```
char myString[80];
```

declares a variable with enough space for a string with 79 usable characters, plus null.

C-strings

- You can initialize a C-string variable:

```
char myString[80] = "Hello world";
```

This will set the first 11 characters as given, make the 12th character `'\0'`, and the rest unused for now.

String type

- C++ added a data type of "string"
 - Not a primitive data type; distinction will be made later
 - May need `#include <string>` at the top of the program
 - The "+" operator on strings concatenates two strings together
 - `cin >> str` where `str` is a string only reads up to the first whitespace character

String Equality

- In Python, you can use the simple "==" operator to compare two strings:
if name == "Fred":
- In C++, you can use "==" to compare two *string* class items, **but not C-strings!**
- To compare two C-strings, you have to use the function `strcmp()`; it is not syntactically incorrect to compare two C-strings with "==" , but it does not do what you expect...

Input Using cin

- `cin` for input, `cout` for output
- Differences:
 - ">>" (extraction operator) points opposite
 - Think of it as "pointing toward where the data goes"
 - Object name "cin" used instead of "cout"
 - No literals allowed for cin
 - Must input "to a variable"
- `cin >> num;`
 - Waits on-screen for keyboard entry
 - Value entered at keyboard is "assigned" to `num`

Prompting for Input: cin and cout

- Always "prompt" user for input
cout << "Enter number of dragons: ";
cin >> numOfDragons;
 - Note no "\n" in cout. Prompt "waits" on same line for keyboard input as follows:
Enter number of dragons: _____
 - Underscore above denotes where keyboard entry is made
- Every cin should have cout prompt
 - Maximizes user-friendly input/output

Input/Output (1 of 2)

Display 1.5 Using cin and cout with a string (part 1 of 2)

```
1 //Program to demonstrate cin and cout with strings
2 #include <iostream>
3 #include <string>
4 using namespace std;
5 int main()
6 {
7     string dogName;
8     int actualAge;
9     int humanAge;
10
11     cout << "How many years old is your dog?" << endl;
12     cin >> actualAge;
13     humanAge = actualAge * 7;
14
15     cout << "What is your dog's name?" << endl;
16     cin >> dogName;
17
18     cout << dogName << "'s age is approximately " <<
19         "equivalent to a " << humanAge << " year old human."
20         << endl;
21
22     return 0;
23 }
```

Input/Output (2 of 2)

Display 1.5 Using cin and cout with a string (part 2 of 2)

Sample Dialogue 1

```
How many years old is your dog?
5
What is your dog's name?
Rex
Rex's age is approximately equivalent to a 35 year old human.
```

Sample Dialogue 2

```
How many years old is your dog?
10
What is your dog's name?
Mr. Bojangles
Mr.'s age is approximately equivalent to a 70 year old human.
```

Error Output

- Output with cerr
 - cerr works almost the same as cout
 - Provides mechanism for distinguishing between regular output and error output
- Re-direct output streams
 - Most systems allow cout and cerr to be "redirected" to other devices
 - e.g., line printer, output file, error console, etc.

Program Style

- Bottom-line: Make programs easy to read and modify
- Comments, two methods:
 - // Two slashes indicate entire line is to be ignored
 - /*Delimiters indicates everything between is ignored*/
 - Both methods commonly used
- Identifier naming
 - ALL_CAPS for constants
 - lowerToUpper for variables
 - Most important: MEANINGFUL NAMES!

Libraries

- C++ Standard Libraries
- #include <Library_Name>
 - Directive to "add" contents of library file to your program
 - Called "preprocessor directive"
 - Executes before compiler, and simply "copies" library file into your program file
- C++ has many libraries
 - Input/output, math, strings, etc.

Namespaces

- Namespaces defined:
 - Collection of name definitions
- For now: interested in namespace "std"
 - Has all standard library definitions we need
- Examples:
 - `#include <iostream>`
`using namespace std;`
 - Includes entire standard library of name definitions
 - `#include <iostream>using std::cin;`
`using std::cout;`
 - Can specify just the objects we want

Summary 1

- C++ is case-sensitive
- Use meaningful names
 - For variables and constants
- Variables must be declared before use
 - Should also be initialized
- Use care in numeric manipulation
 - Precision, parentheses, order of operations
- #include C++ libraries as needed

Summary 2

- Object `cout`
 - Used for console output
- Object `cin`
 - Used for console input
- Object `cerr`
 - Used for error messages
- Use comments to aid understanding of your program
 - Do not overcomment

Using the C Compiler at UMBC

- Invoking the compiler is system dependent.
 - At UMBC, we have two C compilers available, **cc** and **gcc**.
 - For this class, we will use the gcc compiler as it is the compiler available on the Linux system.

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Invoking the gcc Compiler

At the prompt, type

```
g++ -Wall program.cpp -o program.out
```

where **program.cpp** is the C++ program source file (the compiler also accepts “.cc” as a file extension for C++ source)

- **-Wall** is an option to turn on all compiler **warnings** (best for new programmers).

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The Result : a.out

- If there are no errors in program.cpp, this command produces an **executable file**, which is one that can be executed (run).
- If you do not use the “-o” option, the compiler names the executable file **a.out**.
- To execute the program, at the prompt, type
`./program.out`
- Although we call this process “compiling a program,” what actually happens is more complicated.

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UNIX Programming Tools

- We will be using the “make” system to automate what was shown in the previous few slides
- This will be discussed in lab
