

Introduction to Programming

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WS 2008/2009

Outline

- A first Java-program
- Basic types and type conversion
 - Numbers
 - Booleans
 - Strings
 - Type conversions
- Controlling execution
 - Conditions
 - Loops
- Arrays

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Calculating a reduced price

Example1.java

```
import static lib.IO.*; // import for printing

public class Example1 {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        double price, discount; // declare two reals
        price = 62.00; // assign values
        discount = 10;
        price = price * (100 - discount) / 100;
        print("The reduced price is ");
        println(price); // and output the new price
    }
}
```

output: The reduced price is 55.80

Structure of a Java-source-file

- class declaration: `public class Example1 { /*method-decls */ }`
 - each source-file consists of exactly one `class`
 - each class has a name, here: `Example1`
 - the name of the file must be the class-name + `.java` (`Example1.java`)
 - a `class` consists of several sub-programs (`methods`)
 - the execution always starts in the `main`-method
- import statement: `import static lib .IO.*;`

each file has several import statements to access methods of libraries here, all methods `print`, `println`, ... of the library `lib .IO` are imported

 - `public`, `class`, `import`, ... are keywords and cannot be changed
 - `main`, `lib`, `IO`, ... are names (`identifier`) which can be freely chosen

Structure of a method

- method declaration:


```
public static void main(String [] args) { /* body */ }
```

 - each `method` has an identifier, here the identifier is `main`
 - a `method` can have arguments (`String [] args`) which are explained later
 - the `body` is a list of basic instructions (so called `statements`)
 - (currently just ignore the keywords `public`, `static`, and `void`)

Statements

- variable declarations: `double price, discount;`
 - each **variable** has to be declared and initialized before it is used
 - each variable has a **type** which is written in front of a variable declaration
 - here, two variables `price` and `discount` of type `double` (real numbers) are declared
- assignments: `price = price * (100 - discount) / 100;`
 - the **variable on the left** of “=” gets the value of the **expression on the right** of “=”
 - so, if currently `price` has value 62 and `discount` has value 10 then first the right-hand side is evaluated to $62 \times (100 - 10) / 100 = 55.80$ which will be the new value of `price`
- method-calls: `println (price)`
 - method-calls execute sub-programs of the class or of some library
 - here, the method `println` is called to display the value of `price`
 - (the difference of `print` and `println` is that the latter also jumps to the beginning of the next line)

Being interactive

```
import static lib.IO.*; // import for reading
public class Example2 {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        double price, discount;
        print("Please enter the price: ");
        price = readDouble(); // read value
        print("Please enter the discount: ");
        discount = readDouble();
        price = price * (100 - discount) / 100;
        print("The reduced price is ");
        println(price);
    }
}
```

```
output: Please enter the price: 19.99
Please enter the discount: 12.5
The reduced price is 17.49
```

A note on style

- class/variable/method-identifiers consist of letters (a-zA-Z), digits, and “_”
- identifiers must be different from keywords (**public**, **class**, ...)
- identifiers must not start with a number
- class identifiers should start uppercase, variables lowercase
- identifiers should be meaningful but not too long
 - bad: `a`, `b`, `c`, `d`, `e`, `f`, ...
 - good: `discount`, `price`, `salary`, ...
 - bad: `discountOfACustomerNamedJohnDoe`, ...
- capitalize when starting a new word
 - bad: `specialdiscount`, `nOrmALDIScouNT`
 - good: `specialDiscount`, `normalDiscount`
 alternatively, use underscores: `special_discount`, `normal_discount`
- use fixed indention (standard for Java: 4 spaces)
 - bad:


```
public class C {public static void main(String [] a){print ("a");}}
```
 - good: the other examples in this lecture

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Built-in datatypes: numbers

$type(\subseteq \mathbb{Z})$	<i>range</i>	<i>range</i>	<i>bits</i>
byte	$-128 \dots 127$	$-2^7 \dots 2^7 - 1$	8
short	$-32768 \dots 32767$	$-2^{15} \dots 2^{15} - 1$	16
char	$0 \dots 65535$	$0 \dots 2^{16} - 1$	16
int	$-2147483648 \dots 2147483647$	$-2^{31} \dots 2^{31} - 1$	32
long	$\approx 9.22 \cdot 10^{18} \dots \approx -9.22 \cdot 10^{18}$	$-2^{63} \dots 2^{63} - 1$	64

short `x = 32767; x = x + 1; print(x);` outputs

$type(\subseteq \mathbb{R})$	<i>range</i>	<i>min</i>	<i>precision</i>	<i>bits</i>
float	$[+/-]3.4 \cdot 10^{38}$	$1.4 \cdot 10^{-45}$	23	32
double	$[+/-]1.8 \cdot 10^{308}$	$4.9 \cdot 10^{-324}$	52	64

float `x = 2147483647; float y = x - 10; print(x-y);` outputs

Arithmetic

Standard mathematical operations

operator	operation	example
+	addition	
-	subtraction	int <code>x = 5 - 3;</code>
-	negation	int <code>x = 5; x = -x;</code>
*	multiplication	
/	integer-division	int <code>x = 10; x = x / 3;</code> yields
/	division	float <code>x = 10; x = x / 3;</code> yields
%	remainder	int <code>x = 10; x = x % 3;</code> yields

Shortcuts

operator	short version	long version
<code>+=, -=, *=, ...</code>	<code>x -= 5;</code>	<code>x = x - 5;</code>
<code>++, --</code>	<code>x++;</code>	<code>x = x + 1;</code>

recall standard precedence: `5 + 3 * 7` is the same as `5 + (3 * 7)`

Built-in datatype: Boolean

- a **Boolean** is a truth-value: true or false
 - **Boolean expressions** evaluate to a Boolean and are build as follows
 - using the constants **true** or **false**
 - using variables of type Boolean
 - combining arithmetic expressions with comparison operators == (equality), != (non-equality), > (greater), >=, <, ...
 - using one of the Boolean operators ! (negation), || (disjunction), && (conjunction)
 - b1 || b2** is true iff at least one of **b1** or **b2** is true
 - b1 && b2** is true iff both **b1** and **b2** are true
 - || and && are evaluated lazily in their second argument: whenever **b1** is evaluated to true then **b2** is not evaluated in **b1 || b2**
 - ⇒
 - binding precedence: binary Boolean operators < comparison operators < ! < arithmetic operators
- ⇒ `3 > y && !4 == x && b`

Datatype: String

- a **String** is sequence of characters
 - two ways to build strings:
 - using double-quotes: `"some text"`
 - using the string concatenation operator +: `s1 + s2`
- example: `String s = "look "; s = s + "at this"; print(s);`
 outputs
- problem: construct string like `I said "hello"`.

⇒ solution: use special **escape sequences** starting with \

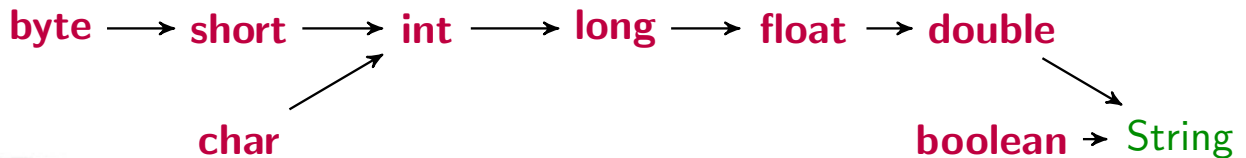
escape sequence	character
<code>\"</code>	<code>"</code>
<code>\\</code>	<code>\</code>
<code>\n</code>	newline
<code>\t</code>	tabulator

Automatic type conversion

- consider

```
float f = 4; int i = 3; byte b = 127; print(b + i); print(f / i);
```

- problem: arithmetic operation on different types
 - $b+i$ yields -126 or 130: overflow or not?
 - f/i yields 1 or 1.33: integer-division or not?
- solution: automatic conversion of operands into greater compatible type



⇒ above program yields values

- conversion into **String** is only possible with operator `+` where one of the operands is a **String**

⇒

⇒

⇒

Casting

- consider

```
int i = 5; byte b,c; b = i; i = 130; c = i; print(b+", "+c);
```

- problem: **b** cannot store **int**-value, automatic conversion only yields greater type

⇒ above program is invalid, rejected by compiler

- solution: explicit conversion (**casting**) to lower type: `(type)expr`

```
int i = 5; byte b,c;
b = (byte)i; i = 130; c = (byte)i;
print(b+", "+c);
```

outputs

⇒ with casting you can introduce overflows

- remark: it not possible to cast strings into numbers or Booleans

solution: `Integer.parseInt("4")` or `Boolean.parseBoolean("true")`

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Conditional statements

```
import static lib.IO.*;
public class Example3a {
    public static void main(String [] args) {
        print("Please enter the price: ");
        double price = readDouble();
        print("Please enter the discount: ");
        double discount = readDouble();
        price = price * (100 - discount) / 100;
        println("The reduced price is "+price);
    }
}
```

Output: Please enter the price: 50
 Please enter the discount: 120
 The reduced price is -10.00

- up to now: no control of execution
- ⇒ how can we forbid to use discounts over 100 or below 0 percent?

Conditional statements

solution: use **conditional statement** where
a **condition** is just a Boolean expression

```
if ( /* condition */ ) { /* stmts1 */ } else { /* stmts2 */ }
```

the execution of a conditional statement works as follows

- if condition is satisfied (resulting value is true) then the first statements are executed
- otherwise the second statements are executed

shortcut:

```
if ( /* condition */ ) { /* statements */ }
```

is identical to

```
if ( /* condition */ ) { /* statements */ } else { }
```

Conditional statements

```
import static lib.IO.*;
public class Example3b {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        print("Please enter the price: ");
        double price = readDouble();
        print("Please enter the discount: ");
        double discount = readDouble();
        if (discount < 0 || discount > 100) {
            println("The discount is invalid");
        } else {
            price = price * (100 - discount) / 100;
            println("The reduced price is "+price);
        }
    }
}
```

output: Please enter the price: 50
Please enter the discount: 120
The discount is invalid

Nesting of conditional statements

```
import static lib.IO.*;
public class Example3c {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        print("Please enter the price: ");
        double price = readDouble();
        print("Please enter the discount: ");
        double discount = readDouble();
        if (discount > 100) {
            println("The discount is too high");
        } else {
            if (discount < 0) {
                println("The discount is too low");
            } else {
                price = price * (100 - discount) / 100;
                println("The reduced price is "+price);
            }
        }
    }
}
```

Loop statements

- up to now: each statement is executed at most once
- ⇒ output cannot get longer than program + input
- consider problem:
 - given capital (10,000), ask for interest rate and number of years
 - output for each year the corresponding capital

```
Please enter the interest rate: 4.5
Please enter the number of years: 6
capital after 0 year(s): 10000.00
capital after 1 year(s): 10450.00
capital after 2 year(s): 10920.25
capital after 3 year(s): 11411.66
capital after 4 year(s): 11925.19
capital after 5 year(s): 12461.82
capital after 6 year(s): 13022.60
```

While-loops

a **while-loop** is a statement of the following form

```
while ( /* condition */ ) { /* body statements */ }
```

the execution of a while-loop works as follows

- if the condition is satisfied then the body statements are executed once and afterwards the whole procedure is iterated once again
- otherwise the execution of the while-loop is finished

Capital growth over many years

```
1  import static lib.IO.*;
2  public class Example4a {
3      public static void main(String[] args) {
4          double capital = 10000;
5          print("Please enter the interest rate: ");
6          double factor = 1 + readDouble()/100;
7          print("Please enter the number of years: ");
8          int years = readInt();
9          int year = 0;
10         while (year <= years) {
11             print("capital after "+year+" year(s): ");
12             println(capital);
13             capital *= factor;
14             year++;
15         }
16     }
17 }
```

Watching the execution

Do- and for-loops

- a **do-loop** is similar to the while loop, but body is executed before condition is checked

```
do { /* body stmts */ } while (/* condition */ );
```

equivalent program with while-loop

```
/* body stmts */ while (/* condition */) { /* body stmts */ }
```

- a **for-loop** has additional an initialization and iteration statement

```
for (/*init stmt*/; /* condition */; /*iter stmt*/) {  
  /* body statements */  
}
```

equivalent program with while-loop

```
/* init stmt */  
while (/* condition */) {  
  /* body stmts */  
  /* iter stmt */  
}
```

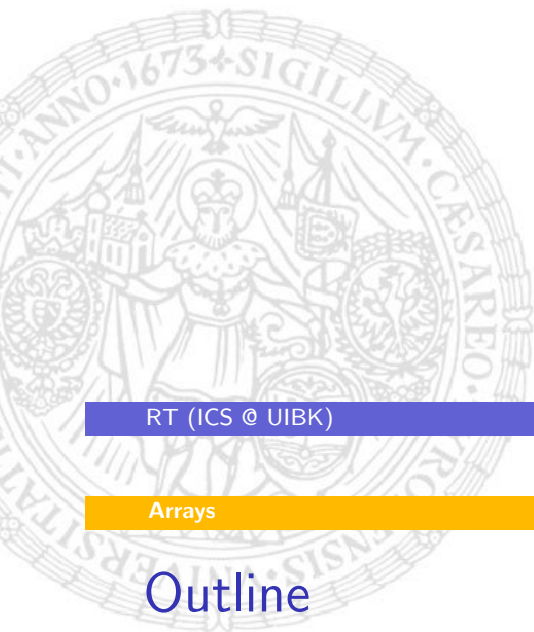
Capital growth over many years with do-loop

```
import static lib.IO.*;
public class Example4b {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        double capital = 10000;
        print("Please enter the interest rate: ");
        double factor = 1 + readDouble()/100;
        print("Please enter the number of years: ");
        int years = readInt();
        int year = 0;
        do {
            print("capital after "+year+" year(s): ");
            println(capital);
            capital *= factor;
            year++;
        } while (year <= years);
    }
}
```

Capital growth over many years with for-loop

```
import static lib.IO.*;
public class Example4c {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        double capital = 10000;
        print("Please enter the interest rate: ");
        double factor = 1 + readDouble()/100;
        print("Please enter the number of years: ");
        int years = readInt();
        for (int year = 0; year <= years; year++) {
            print("capital after "+year+" year(s): ");
            println(capital);
            capital *= factor;
        }
    }
}
```

More control over loop execution



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The need for arrays

- up to now: number of storable values = number of variables in code
- but one may need to process and **store** more input
- simple example: palindrom sequences (sequence = reversed sequence)

```
length of sequence: 5
```

```
1. number: 7
2. number: 2
3. number: 5
4. number: 2
5. number: 7
[7, 2, 5, 2, 7]
palindrom
```

```
length of sequence: 5
```

```
1. number: 7
2. number: 2
3. number: 5
4. number: 2
5. number: 6
[7, 2, 5, 2, 6]
no palindrom
```

- program needs to store all numbers
⇒ use arrays

Palindrom program

```
print("length of sequence: ");
int n = readInt();
int [] numbers = new int[n];
for (int i=0; i<n; i++) {
    print((i+1)+". number: ");
    numbers[i] = readInt();
}
println(numbers);
boolean palindrom = true;
for (int i=0; i<n/2; i++) {
    if (numbers[i] != numbers[n-1-i]) {
        palindrom = false;
        break;
    }
}
if (!palindrom) {
    print("no ");
}
println("palindrom");
```


Dealing with arrays

- array: sequence of fixed length of elements of some type
 - `["foo", "bar"]` – array of strings, length is 2
 - `[0, 4, -2]` – array of integers, length is 3
 - specifying the type of an array: `elementtype []`
 - `String [] array1;` – array of strings
 - `int [] array2;` – array of integers
 - `int [] [] array3;` – array of array of integers
 - expressions of array type
 - the non-existing array: `null`
 - creation of new arrays: `new elementtype[length]`
 - new memory will be allocated
 - each element in array is initialized by default value
 numbers: 0 **boolean**: false **String**: **null** arrays: **null**
- ⇒ `new int[2]` yields array `[0,0]`, `new int[2][]` yields array `[null, null]`
- good praxis: perform own initialization of elements

Dealing with arrays, ctd.

- accessing the elements of an array: `somearray[index]`
 if array has length n then indices must be between 0 and $n-1$!

```
int [] a = new int [3]; // array for 3 integers
a[0] = 8; a[1] = a[0]+7; a[2] = a[1*1] - 5;
a[3] = 5; // index-out-of-bounds exception
a = null;
a[0] = 8; // null-pointer exception
```

- accessing the length of an array: `somearray.length`

Visualization: swapping elements

given integer array `a`, two indices `i`, `j`

problem: swap elements at position `i` and `j`

```
int i = 0; int j = 2; int x; int [] a;
```

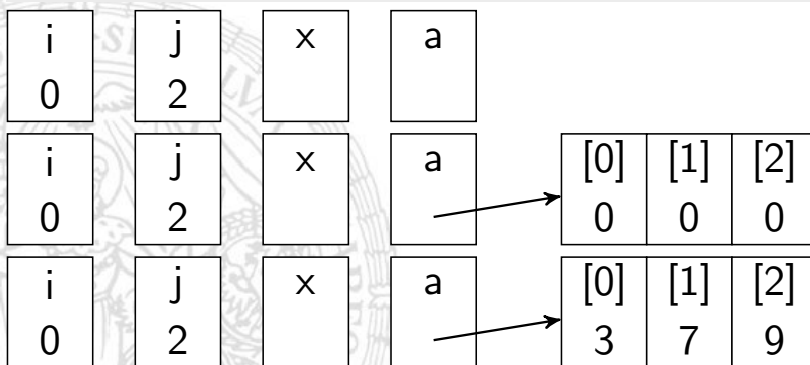
```
a = new int[3];
```

```
a[0] = 3; a[1] = 7; a[2] = 9;
```

```
x = a[i];
```

```
a[i] = a[j];
```

```
a[j] = x;
```



Value- and reference-variables

- value-variables store values

```
int x = 5;
int y = x;
y++;
```

afterwards `x` stores value 5 and `y` stores value 6

- reference-variables only store a reference to an object

```
int [] a = new int [] {3,4,7};
int [] b = a;
b[0]++;
```

afterwards `a` and `b` reference the same array; this array contains the numbers 4,4,7

- in Java, only variables of primitive datatypes (starting with lowercase letters, e.g., `int`, `double`, `boolean`, ...) are value-variables
- all other variables are reference variables (`String`, arrays, ...)

References and side-effects

- the assignment `a = b` for arrays only sets the reference `a` to the object that is referenced by `b`
- ⇒ no new memory is allocated
- ⇒ afterwards, each change of the elements in `a` will also change `b` and vice versa, e.g., `a[3] = 7;` will also change `b[3]` to 7!
this phenomenon is called **side-effect**
- whether `a` and `b` reference the same object can be checked by `a == b`

References and side-effects, example

```
int [] a = new int [] {0,5,7}; int b [] = null;
b = a; // now a and b point to the same array
a[0] = 1; b[1] = 3; // side-effect
a = new int [] {2,7,9};
a[0] = 5; b[0] = 4; // no side-effect
b = a; // old array no longer accessible
```

Example illustrated

Side-effects

- side-effects are often not desired and can lead to subtle bugs (errors)
- consider the code-fragment to check whether an array is sorted

```
int [] a = ... // array to be checked
int [] b = a;
java.util.Arrays.sort(b) // method sorts b
boolean sorted = true;
for (int i=0; i<a.length; i++) {
    if (a[i] != b[i]) {
        sorted = false;
        break;
    }
}
```