## CHAPTER 2 ELEMENTARY PROGRAMMING

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT: THESE SLIDES ARE ADAPTED FROM SLIDES PROVIDED WITH INTRODUCTION TO JAVA PROGRAMMING, LIANG (PEARSON 2014)

## NEXT STEP IN PROGRAMMING

- Computations! Support for basic mathematics
- In pseudocode, we might write the following
- $x \leftarrow 0$
- $a \leftarrow \pi r^{2}$
- Here we make variables (store data) and give values ( $\leftarrow$ means "gets", note I do not use "equals" in pseudocode)


## INTERACTIVE LEARNING

- In this class, we will sometimes work in tandem between programming and discussion
- If you get lost, I will have the programs written in the slides, or you can ask
- To facilitate:
- Make a new directory for the day
- Open sublime and the terminal and be ready to go


## EXAMPLE: COMPUTING THE AREA

```
1. public class ComputeArea
2. public static void main(String[] args) {
3. double radius; // Declare radius
4. double area; // Declare area
5.
6. // Assign a radius
7. radius = 20; // New value is radius
8.
9. // Compute area
10. area = radius * radius * 3.14159;
11.
12. // Display results
13. System.out.println("The area for the circle of radius " +
14. radius + " is " + area);
15. }
16.}
```


## TRACING

- Tracing is an activity used by computer scientists to follow a piece of code to check correctness, find errors, etc
- We will learn how to trace programs and follow execution of code exactly as a computer might
- But first, a note on memory


## MEMORY

- Memory is storage for data and programs
- We will pretend that memory is an infinitely long piece of tape separated into different cells
- Each cell has an address, i.e., a location, and a value
- In the computer these values are represented in binary ( $0 s$ and 1 s ) and addresses are located in hexadecimal (base 16, 0x)

| $x$ | $y$ | $z$ | $\ldots$ |  | $\ldots$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $0 \times 0 \quad 0 \times 1 \quad 0 \times 2$ | $0 \times A$ |  |  |  |  |

## EXAMPLE: COMPUTING THE AREA

No value yet!

1. public class ComputeArea \{
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## EXAMPLE: COMPUTING THE AREA

 giving a value to a variable1. public class ComputeArea \{
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13 - 12
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16.\}

Print values to terminal

## READING INPUT FROM THE CONSOLE

1. 
2. 
3. public static void main(String[] args) \{
4. System.out.print("Enter a radius: "); //Message to "prompt" the user
5. Scanner in $=$ new Scanner(System.in); //Scanner gathers input
6. 
7. 
8. 
9. 

10
11. System.out.println("The area for the circle of radius " +
12. radius + " is " + area); // Display results
13. \}
14.$\}$

- Use a Scanner to gather input from a user!


## IDENTIFIERS (NAMES)

- An identifier is a sequence of characters that consist of letters, digits, underscores (_), and dollar signs (\$).
- An identifier must start with a letter, an underscore (_), or a dollar sign (\$). It cannot start with a digit.
- An identifier cannot be a reserved word. (See Appendix A, "Java Keywords," for a list of reserved words). An identifier cannot be true, false, or null.
- An identifier can be of any length.


## DECLARING VARIABLES

- A variable is a named piece of data (memory). It stores a value!
- It has a type that defines how the memory is interpreted and what operations are allowed
- A declaration states the existence of a variable for use in the program. It defines the type and an identifier (name) for a variable.
- int $x$;
// Declare x to be an integer variable
- double radius; // Declare radius to be a doủle variable
- char a;


In pseudocode (just $x$, to say a variable) we often exclude the type for numeric variables

## ASSIGNMENT STATEMENTS

- Assignment statements give values to a variable
- The type defines what possible values are allowable
- $\mathrm{x}=1$;

```
// Assign 1 to x;
```

-radius $=1.0 ; ~ / / ~ A s s i g n ~ 1.0 ~ t o ~ r a d i u s ; ~$

- $\mathrm{a}=$ 'A'; $^{\prime}$
// Assign 'A' to a;


## DECLARING AND INITIALIZING IN ONE STEP

- Initialization is how we refer to the very first assignment of a variable's value
- Declarations and initialization are allowed in one step
- int $\mathrm{x}=1$;
- double d = 1.4;


## NAMED CONSTANTS

- Often, we need constants in programs, e.g., $\pi$. Use the keyword final to specify a variable can ONLY be initialized.
- final double PI = 3.14159;
- final int SIZE = 3;


## NAMING CONVENTIONS

- Choose meaningful and descriptive names.
- Variables and method names: Use lowercase. If the name consists of several words, concatenate all in one, use lowercase for the first word, and capitalize the first letter of each subsequent word in the name, called camelCasing.
- radius
- area
- computeArea


## NAMING CONVENTIONS

- Class names: Capitalize the first letter of each word in the name
- ComputeArea.
- Constants: Capitalize all letters in constants, and use underscores to connect words
- PI
- MAX_VALUE


## INTEGERS <br> REPRESENTATION

- Synonymously, binary numbers work the same way. Except instead of base 10, it is base 2. A digit can only be 0 or 1 . Example: 00100101

| 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $2^{7}=128$ | $2^{6}=64$ | $2^{5}=32$ | $2^{4}=16$ | $2^{3}=8$ | $2^{2}=4$ | $2^{1}=2$ | $2^{1}=1$ |
| $0 * 2^{7}+$ | $0 * 2^{6}+$ | $1 * 2^{5}+$ | $0 * 2^{4}+$ | $0 * 2^{3}+$ | $1 * 2^{2}+$ | $0 * 2^{1}+$ | $1 * 2^{1}=37$ |

- And adding $00101010+00000101$

|  | $\mathbf{0}$ | $\mathbf{0}$ | $\mathbf{1}$ | $\mathbf{0}$ | $\mathbf{0}$ | $\mathbf{1}$ | $\mathbf{0}$ | $\mathbf{1}$ |
| ---: | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| + | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 |
| 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 |  |

- Note there are other common number systems: Octal (base 8, digits 0-7) and Hexadecimal (base 16, digits $0-9$ and A-F, used for memory addresses)


## NUMERICAL DATA TYPES

We will use int and double most often in this class.

| Name | Range | Storage Size |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| byte | $-2^{7}$ to $2^{7}-1(-128$ to 127) | 8-bit signed |
| short | $-2^{15}$ to $2^{15}-1(-32768$ to 32767) | 16-bit signed |
| int | $-2^{31}$ to $2^{31}-1(-2147483648$ to 2147483647$)$ | 32-bit signed |
| long | $\begin{aligned} & -2^{63} \text { to } 2^{63}-1 \\ & \text { (i.e., }-9223372036854775808 \text { to } 9223372036854775807 \text { ) } \end{aligned}$ | 64-bit signed |
| float | Negative range: $-3.4028235 \mathrm{E}+38 \text { to }-1.4 \mathrm{E}-45$ <br> Positive range: $1.4 \mathrm{E}-45 \text { to } 3.4028235 \mathrm{E}+38$ | 32-bit IEEE 754 |
| double | Negative range: $-1.7976931348623157 \mathrm{E}+308 \text { to }-4.9 \mathrm{E}-324$ | 64-bit IEEE 754 |
|  | Positive range: $4.9 \mathrm{E}-324 \text { to } 1.7976931348623157 \mathrm{E}+308$ |  |

## LITERALS

- A literal is a constant value that appears directly in the program. For example, 34, 1,000,000, and 5.0 are literals in the following statements:
- int i = 34;
- long $\mathrm{x}=1000000$;
- double d = 5.0;


## INTEGER LITERALS

- An integer literal can be assigned to an integer variable as long as it can fit into the variable. A compilation error would occur if the literal were too large for the variable to hold. For example, the statement byte $b=1000$ would cause $a$ compilation error, because 1000 cannot be stored in a variable of the byte type.
- An integer literal is assumed to be of the int type, whose value is between $-2^{31}(-$ $2147483648)$ to $2^{31}-1(2147483647)$. To denote an integer literal of the long type, append it with the letter L or I. L is preferred because I (lowercase L) can easily be confused with 1 (the digit one).


## FLOATING-POINT LITERALS

- Floating-point literals are written with a decimal point. By default, a floatingpoint literal is treated as a double type value. For example, 5.0 is considered a double value, not a float value. You can make a number a float by appending the letter $f$ or $F$, and make a number a double by appending the letter $d$ or D. For example, you can use 100.2 f or 100.2 F for a float number, and 100.2 d or 100.2 D for a double number.


## SCIENTIFIC NOTATION

- Floating-point literals can also be specified in scientific notation, for example, $1.23456 \mathrm{e}+2$, same as 1.23456 e 2 , is equivalent to 123.456 , and $1.23456 \mathrm{e}-$ 2 is equivalent to 0.0123456 . $E$ (or e) represents an exponent and it can be either in lowercase or uppercase.


## READING NUMBERS FROM THE KEYBOARD

1. Scanner input =
new Scanner(System.in);
2. int value =
input. nextInt (); $\frac{\text { Method }}{\text { nextByte () } \quad \text { reacription }}$
nextShort() reads an integer of the short type.
nextInt() reads an integer of the int type.
nextLong () reads an integer of the long type.
nextFloat() reads a number of the float type.
nextDouble() reads a number of the double type.

## NUMERIC OPERATORS

| Name | Meaning | Example | Result |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| + | Addition | $34+1$ | 35 |
| - | Subtraction | $34.0-0.1$ | 33.9 |
| * | Multiplication | $300 * 30$ | 9000 |
| $/$ | Division | $1.0 / 2.0$ | 0.5 |
| $\%$ | Remainder | $20 \div 3$ | 2 |

## ARITHMETIC EXPRESSIONS

- Expressions are combinations of literals, variables, operations, and method calls that generate new values
- $\frac{3+4 x}{5}-\frac{10(y-5)(a+b+c)}{x}+9\left(\frac{4}{x}+\frac{9+x}{y}\right)$
- is translated to
- $(3+4 * x) / 5-10 *(y-5) *(a+b+c) / x+9 *(4 / x+(9+x) / y)$


## HOW TO EVALUATE AN EXPRESSION

- Though Java has its own way to evaluate an expression behind the scene, the result of a Java expression and its corresponding arithmetic expression are the same. Therefore, you can safely apply the arithmetic rules for evaluating a Java expression.



## EXERCISE

- Write a program to compute the average of three numbers
- Make the numbers integers to see what happens?
- Make the numbers floats to see what happens?
- Trace the execution in memory if the user enters 3, 5, 7
- Write a program to draw a circle based on user input!


## ACTIVITY

- With a partner
- Convert the binary number 10011001 to decimal
- Add the binary number 01010101 to 10011001 (DO NOT DO THIS IN DECIMAL) and then convert to a decimal number
- Bonus: OxA1 to decimal, add 0x0E to it and convert to decimal. Hint: Ox means that the number is a hexadecimal (base 16)


## INTEGERS DIVISION

- Integers do not store decimals
- Division computes how many times a divisor evenly goes into a number
- Remainder (modulus) computes what is left over
- 5 / 2 yields an integer 2
- $5 \% 2$ yields 1 (the remainder of the division)
- Practice: What is 3456421 \% 2? 25\%3? 87\%4?


## FLOATING-POINT NUMBERS (DOUBLE)

- Calculations involving floating-point numbers are approximated because these numbers are not stored with complete accuracy. For example,
- System.out.println(1.0-0.1-0.1-0.1-0.1-0.1);
- displays 0.5000000000000001 , not 0.5 , and
- System.out.println(1.0 - 0.9);
- displays 0.09999999999999998, not 0.1. Integers are stored precisely. Therefore, calculations with integers yield a precise integer result.


## DOUBLE VS. FLOAT

- The double type values are more accurate than the float type values. For example,

```
System.out.println("1.0 / 3.0 is " + 1.0 / 3.0);
displays 1.0 / 3.0 is 0. 3 [ 
System.out.println("1.0F / 3.0F is " + 1.0F / 3.0F);
displays 1.0F / 3.0F is 0. }\mp@subsup{\underbrace}{7\mathrm{ digits}}{33333334
```


## AUGMENTED ASSIGNMENT OPERATORS

| Operator | Name | Example | Equivalent |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $+=$ | Addition assignment | $\mathrm{i}+=8$ | $\mathrm{i}=\mathrm{i}+8$ |
| $-=$ | Subtraction assignment | $\mathrm{i}-=8$ | $\mathrm{i}=\mathrm{i}-8$ |
| $\%=$ | Multiplication assignment | $\mathrm{i} *=8$ | $\mathrm{i}=\mathrm{i} * 8$ |
| $/=$ | Division assignment | $\mathrm{i} /=8$ | $\mathrm{i}=\mathrm{i} / 8$ |
| $\%=$ | Remainder assignment | $\mathrm{i} \%=8$ | $\mathrm{i}=\mathrm{i} \% 8$ |

INCREMENT AND DECREMENT OPERATORS

| Operator | Name | Description | Example (assume $i=1$ ) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ++var | preincrement | Increment var by 1 , and use the new var value in the statement | $\begin{aligned} & \text { int } \mathbf{j}=++\mathbf{i} \text {; } \\ & / / \mathrm{j} \text { is } 2, \mathrm{i} \text { is } 2 \end{aligned}$ |
| var++ | postincrement | Increment var by 1 , but use the original var value in the statement | $\begin{aligned} & \text { int } \mathbf{j}=\mathbf{i + +} \text {; } \\ & / / \mathrm{j} \text { is } 1, \text { is } 2 \end{aligned}$ |
| --var | predecrement | Decrement var by 1 , and use the new var value in the statement | $\begin{aligned} & \text { int } \mathbf{j}=-\mathbf{i} ; \\ & / / j \text { is } 0, \text { is } 0 \end{aligned}$ |
| var-- | postdecrement | Decrement var by 1 , and use the original var value in the statement | $\begin{aligned} & \text { int } \mathbf{j}=\mathbf{i - -} \\ & / / \mathrm{j} \text { is } 1, \text { i is } 0 \end{aligned}$ |

## INCREMENT AND <br> DECREMENT OPERATORS

```
lint i = 10; 
```



## INCREMENT AND DECREMENT OPERATORS

- Using increment and decrement operators makes expressions short, but it also makes them complex and difficult to read. Avoid using these operators in expressions that modify multiple variables, or the same variable for multiple times such as this:
- int $k=++i+i++\quad-\quad-i ;$


## ASSIGNMENT EXPRESSIONS AND ASSIGNMENT STATEMENTS

- variable = expression;
- variable op= expression; // Where op is +, -, *, /, or \%
- ++variable; / /preincrement
- variable++; / /postincrement
- --variable; / /predecrement
- variable--; //postdecrement


## NUMERIC TYPE CONVERSION

- Consider the following statements:
- int i = 5;
- double d = i;
- double f = i*d;


## CONVERSION RULES

- When performing an operation involving two operands of different types, Java can automatically converts the operand based on the following rules:
- 1. If one of the operands is double, the other is converted into double.
- 2. Otherwise, if one of the operands is float, the other is converted into float.
- 3. Otherwise, if one of the operands is long, the other is converted into long.
- 4. Otherwise, both operands are converted into int.


## TYPE CASTING

- Implicit casting is done when the range of the data increases, e.g., int to double. Implicit means automatic by Java

```
- double d = 3; //type widening
```

- Explicit casting is done when the range of the data descreases, e.g., double to int. Explicit must be stated by the programmer
- int i $=$ (int) 3.9; (type narrowing, fraction will be truncated not rounded!)
- What is wrong?
- int $x=5 / 2.0$;



## TEMPORARIES - UNSEEN "VARIABLES"

- Temporarily computed values are also stored in memory, but do not have a name
- Important to note - they have a type. It is the type of the final result of the (sub)expression
- Example

1. double $x=1.5$;
2. int $y=2$;
3. double $z=y^{*} y / 3+1.5$;

- Determine the type of each subcomponent of the exression:
- $y^{*} y$ ?
- $\mathrm{y}^{*} \mathrm{y} / 3$ ?
- $y^{*} y / 3+1.5 ?$
- Practice labeling the following for any line of code: kind of (sub)statement, type of (sub)expressions


## EXERCISE

- Write a program to compute sales tax for a purchase. Make sure you only store 2 decimal places!


## COMMON ERRORS AND PITFALLS

- Common Error 1: Undeclared/Uninitialized/Unused Variables
- Common Error 2: Integer Overflow
- Common Error 3: Round-off Errors
- Common Error 4: Unintended Integer Division
- Common Pitfall 1: Redundant Input Objects


## COMMON ERROR 1 UNDECLARED/UNINITIALIZED/UNUSED VARIABLES

double interestRate $=0.05$;
double interest $=$ interestrate * 45;

- Here, interestrate is undeclared to the compiler and interestRate is unused. The programmer just made a "spelling" mistake!
- Following naming conventions help


## COMMON ERROR 2 <br> INTEGER OVERFLOW

int value $=2147483647+1$;
// value will actually be -2147483648

## COMMON ERROR 3 ROUND-OFF ERRORS

System.out.println(1.0-0.1 - 0.1 - 0.1 - 0.1 - 0.1); System.out.println(1.0 - 0.9);

## COMMON ERROR 4 UNINTENDED INTEGER DIVISION

```
int number1 = 1;
int number2 = 2;
double average = (number1 + number2) / 2;
System.out.println(average);
```

```
int number1 = 1;
int number2 = 2;
double average = (number1 + number2) / 2.0;
System.out.println(average);
```


## COMMON PITFALL 1 REDUNDANT INPUT OBJECTS

1.Scanner input = new Scanner(System.in);
2.System.out.print("Enter an integer: ");
3.int v1 = input.nextInt();
4.
5.Scanner input1 = new Scanner(System.in);
6.System.out.print("Enter a double value: ");
7.double v2 = input1.nextDouble();

