

COSC 120: Computer Science I

Module 3

Instructors:

Dr. Xiaohong (Sophie) Wang
(xswang@salisbury.edu)

Department of Computer Science

Salisbury University

Spring 2024



Module 3: Arrays and Functions

1. Arrays
2. Modular Programming
3. Defining and Calling Functions
4. Passing Data into a Function
5. Returning a Value from a Function
6. Using Reference Variables as Parameters
7. Local and Global Variables
8. Default Arguments
9. Overloading Functions
10. Recursion Function

- Partial contents of this note refer to <https://www.pearson.com/us/>
- Copyright 2018, 2015, 2012, 2009 Pearson Education, Inc., All rights reserved
- Dissemination or sale of any part of this note is NOT permitted

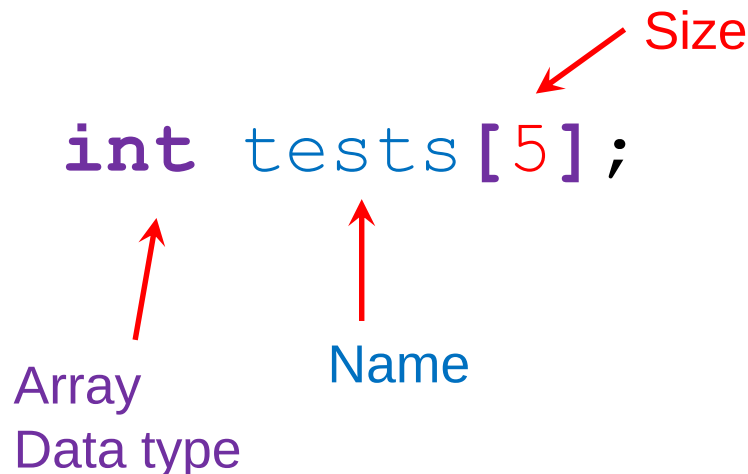
Arrays

- Array in C++
- Range-Based `for` loop
- Processing Array Contents
- Arrays as Function Arguments
- Two-Dimensional Arrays

- Partial contents of this note refer to <https://www.pearson.com/us/>
- Copyright 2018, 2015, 2012, 2009 Pearson Education, Inc., All rights reserved
- Dissemination or sale of any part of this note is NOT permitted

Array in C++

- Array:
*is a data type that allows variables of this type store **multiple** values of the **same type***
- Values are stored in **adjacent memory** locations
- Defined using the data type of each element and a **[]** operator:



The diagram shows the C++ declaration `int tests[5];` with three red arrows pointing to its components. One arrow points from the word `int` to the label "Array Data type" below it. Another arrow points from the word `tests` to the label "Name" below it. A third arrow points from the number `5` inside the brackets to the label "Size" above it.

```
int tests[5];
```

Array
Data type

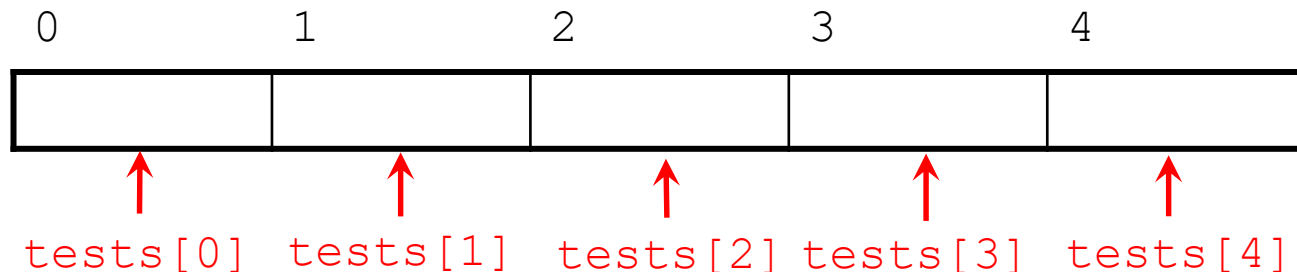
Name

Size

Accessing Array Elements

- Each element in an array is assigned a **unique subscript** from 0 to $n-1$ while n is the size of the array
- To access an element in an array:
array_name[subscript]

```
int tests[5];
```



Accessing Array Elements (Cont'd)

- Each array element can be used as a regular variable:

```
tests[0] = 79;  
cout << tests[0]; //  
cin >> tests[1];  
tests[4] = tests[0] + tests[1];
```

- Arrays must be accessed via **individual** elements:

```
cout << tests; // not legal
```

Using a Loop to Step Through an Array

- Example – The following code defines an array, `numbers`, and assigns 99 to each element:

```
const int ARRAY_SIZE = 5;  
int numbers[ARRAY_SIZE];
```

```
for (int count = 0; count < ARRAY_SIZE; count++)  
    numbers[count] = 99;
```

The variable `count` starts at 0, which is the first valid subscript value

The loop ends when the variable `count` reaches 5, which is the first invalid subscript value

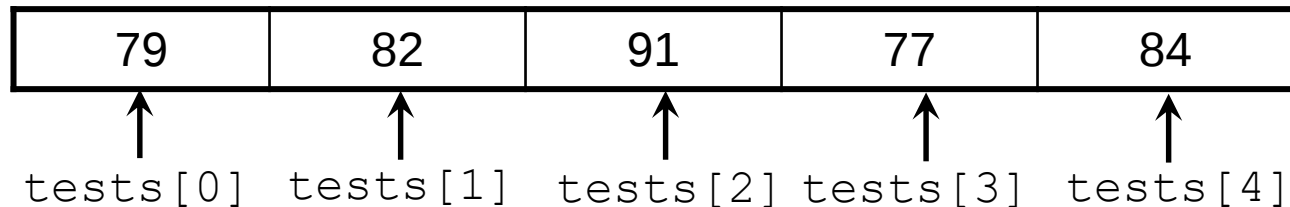
The variable `count` is incremented after each iteration

Array Initialization

- An array can be initialized with an initialization list:

```
const int SIZE = 5;  
int tests[SIZE] = {79, 82, 91, 77, 84};
```

- The values are stored in the array in the order in which they appear in the list.



- The initialization list cannot exceed the array size.

No Bounds Checking in C++

- When you use an array subscript, C++ does not check whether it is a *valid* subscript or not
 - You can use subscripts that are beyond the bounds of the array

```
int values[3] = {5, 8, 10};
```

```
// Syntax correct, but may corrupt other memory  
// locations, crash program, or cause elusive bugs  
values[3] = 12;
```

- A common mistake: **off-by-one error**
 - Subscripts are between 0 and $n-1$, not 1 and n

```
int numbers[10];  
for (int count = 0; count < 10; count++)  
    numbers[count] = 0;
```

Processing Array Contents

- Array elements can be treated as ordinary variables of the same type as the array
 - Each element is a variable
 - Processing an element is no different than processing other variables
- When using ++, -- operators, don't confuse the element with the subscript: `i=2; tests[i]=10;`

```
cout << tests[i]++; //add 1 to tests[i] then display
cout << tests[i++]; // increment i (i=i+1), then display
```

Array Assignment

To copy one array to another,

- Don't try to assign one array to the other:

```
newTests = tests;    // Won't work
```

- Instead, assign element-by-element:

```
for (i = 0; i < ARRAY_SIZE; i++)  
    newTests[i] = tests[i];
```

Note: Anytime the name of an array is used without brackets and a subscript, it is seen as the array's **beginning memory address** (not a variable).

In-class practice

- Take 5 integers from user and store these numbers in an array
- Use a `for` loop to find the largest element of this array
- Display this element
- Test you code

Question: How to implement this practice using range-based `for` loop?

Modular Programming

- Modular programming: breaking a program up into smaller, manageable functions or modules

This program has one long, complex function containing all of the statements necessary to solve a problem.

[illegible]

In this program the problem has been divided into smaller problems, each of which is handled by a separate function.

```
int main()
{
    statement;
    statement;
    statement;
}
```

main function

```
void function2()
{
    statement;
    statement;
    statement;
}
```

function 2

```
void function3()
{
    statement;
    statement;
    statement;
}
```

function 3

Advantages of using functions

- Code reuse:
 - Golden rule of function: if you need to write one sentence more than once, write it as a function
- Decompose complex problem into simpler ones
- Reliability: avoid to copy bugs
- Maintainability: modify one place, affect all calls to this function
- Improve the clarity of code

Question: Is there any disadvantage of using functions?

Defining and Calling Functions

- Function definition: contains the statements that make up a function
- Function call: a statement that causes a function to execute

Note:

- You MUST place either the **function definition** or the **function prototype** ahead of all calls to the function. Otherwise, the program will not compile.
- We will introduce **function prototype** later.

Function Definition

```
return_type function_name(parameter list)
{
    body of the function
}
```

- return type: data type of the value that function returns (*the output of the function*)
- name: name of the function. Function names follow same rules as variables
- parameter list: variables containing values passed to the function (*the input of the function*)
- body: statements that perform the function's task, enclosed in { }

Take a function as a black box. The input and output are its interfaces.

Example

```
// function returning the max between two numbers
```

```
int max(int num1, int num2) {  
    // local variable declaration  
    int result;  
  
    if (num1 > num2)  
        result = num1;  
    else  
        result = num2;  
  
    return result;  
}
```

Questions:

- What is the return type?
- How many input parameters? What are their types?

Calling a Function

- Function `main` is called **automatically** when a program starts; all other functions are called by function call statements

- How to call a function:

`function_name(arguments);`

- E.g.: `max(a, 200);`

Values/variables
corresponding to the
parameter list

- When called, program executes the body of the called function
- After the function terminates, execution resumes in the calling function at point of call

Flow of Function Call

Jump to the
called function

```
void displayMessage()  
{  
    cout << "Hello from the function displayMessage.\n";  
}
```

```
int main() Program starts  
{  
    cout << "Hello from main.\n"  
    displayMessage();  
    cout << "Back in function main again.\n";  
    return 0;  
}
```

Back to the
calling function

In-class practice

- Define a function named `rectDraw` to draw the following rectangle with asterisks
- Call the `rectDraw` function in the `main` function
- Test your code

*

```
*****  
*****  
*****  
*****
```

Function Prototypes

- Compiler must know the following about a function before it is called:
 - name
 - return type
 - number of parameters
 - data type of each parameter
- Two solutions:
 - Define a function before call it
 - Declare a function with a function prototype (i.e. `function declaration`) before call it

Function Prototypes

- Syntax of function prototype:

```
return_type function_name (parameter_list) ;
```

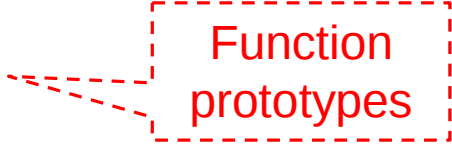
- Must end with a semicolon
- Usually placed near the top of a program
- When using prototypes, can place function definitions in any order in source file
- In the parameter list, the parameter names are optional.

For example, the following two are both correct.

```
int protofunction (int first, int second) ; or  
int protofunction (int, int) ;
```

Example

```
...  
void deep();  
void deeper();
```



Function
prototypes

```
int main() {  
    cout << "I am starting in function main. \n"  
    deep();  
    cout << "Back in function main again. \n"  
    return 0;  
}
```

```
void deep() {  
    cout << "I am now in the function deep. \n"  
    deeper();  
    cout << "Now I am back in deep. \n"  
}
```

```
void deeper() {  
    cout << "I am now in the function deeper. \n"  
}
```

Passing Data into a Function

- Can pass values into a function at time of call:

```
ret = max(a, b);
```

Function call

Passing
data

```
int max(int num1, int num2) {  
    // local variable declaration  
    int result;
```

Function definition

```
    if (num1 > num2)  
        result = num1;  
    else  
        result = num2;
```

```
    return result;  
}
```

Parameter and Argument

- Values passed to function are arguments

```
ret = max(a, b);
```

Arguments

- Variables in a function that hold the values passed as arguments are parameters

```
int max(int num1, int num2)
```

Parameters

In-class practice

- Define a function named `rectDraw` to draw a rectangle of size `width * height` with asterisks.
 - `width` and `height` are two parameters of the `rectDraw` function
- In the `main` function, ask the user to input the values of these two arguments; call the `rectDraw` function to draw the rectangle
- Test your code

Arrays as Function Arguments

- To pass an array to a function, use the array name:

```
int tests[5] = {79, 82, 91, 77, 84};  
showScores(tests);
```

- To define a function that takes an array parameter, use empty `[]` for array argument:

```
// function prototype  
void showScores(int []);
```

```
// function header
```

```
void showScores(int scores[])
```

No size declarator
inside the brackets

Note: When an entire array is passed to a function, it is not passed by value, but passed by reference (only the starting memory address is passed).

Arrays as Function Arguments

- When passing an array to a function, it is common to pass **array size** so that function knows how many elements to process:

```
showScores(tests, ARRAY_SIZE);
```

of elements

- Array size must also be reflected in prototype, header:

```
// function prototype  
void showScores(int [], int);
```

```
// function header  
void showScores(int scores[], int size)
```

Example

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;

void showValues(int [], int); // Function prototype

int main() {
    const int ARRAY_SIZE = 8;
    int numbers[ARRAY_SIZE] = {5, 10, 15, 20, 25, 30, 35, 40};

    showValues(numbers, ARRAY_SIZE);
    return 0;
}

void showValues(int nums[], int size) {
    for (int index = 0; index < size; index++)
        cout << nums[index] << " ";
    cout << endl;
}
```

Output:
5 10 15 20 25 30 35 40

In-class practice: Array Rotation

- Write a function `Rotate` that rotates an array of size `n` by `d` elements to the left
- Use array as argument
- In the `main` function, call the function `Rotate` and show the rotated array
- Test your code

For example:

Input: [1 2 3 4 5 6 7], `n = 7`, `d = 2`

Output: [3 4 5 6 7 1 2]

Returning a Value from a Function

■ The `return` Statement

- Used to **return a value** from a function or **end execution** of a function
- Can be placed anywhere in a function
 - Statements that follow the `return` statement will not be executed
- Can be used to prevent abnormal termination of program
- In a `void` function without a `return` statement, the function ends at its last `}`

End Function Execution Using `return`

```
//*****  
// Definition of function divide. *  
// Uses two parameters: arg1 and arg2. The function divides arg1 *  
// by arg2 and shows the result. If arg2 is zero, however, the *  
// function returns. *  
//*****  
  
void divide(double arg1, double arg2)  
{  
    if (arg2 == 0.0)  
    {  
        cout << "Sorry, I cannot divide by zero.\n";  
        return;  
    }  
    cout << "The quotient is " << (arg1 / arg2) << endl;  
}
```

Returning a Value From a Function

- In a value-returning function, the `return` statement can be used to return a value from function to the point of call. Example:

Return
Type →

```
int sum(int num1, int num2)
{
    double result;
    result = num1 + num2;
    return result;
}
```

← Value Being Returned

In-class practice

- Define a function that takes an integer `n` as input and return whether it is a power of 4 or not
- In the `main` function, ask the user to input an integer; call this function to show the result
- Example :

Input: 16

Output: 16 is a power of 4

Input: 20

Output: 20 is not a power of 4

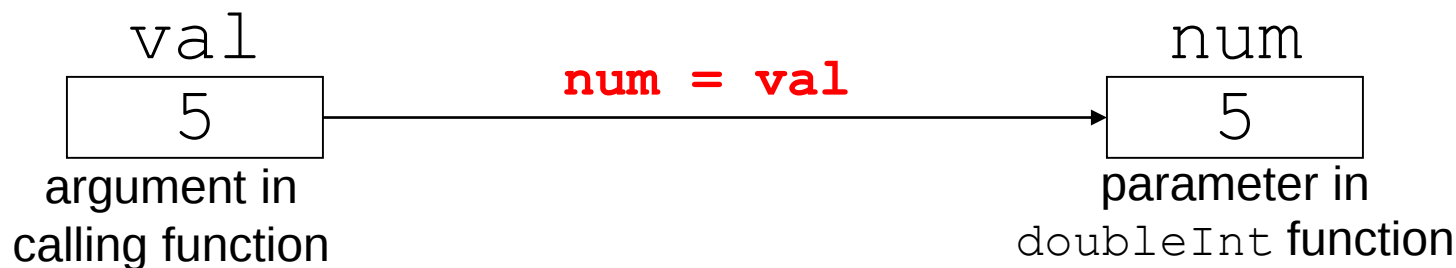
Reference code: [PowerOf4.cpp](#)

Using Reference Variables as Parameters

- Passing data into a function (**passing by value**)
 - The argument value is **copied** into the parameter (`num = val`)
 - Value change of the parameter (`num`) does **not** affect the argument (`val`) because they are two **independent** variables

```
int val=5;  
doubleInt(val);
```

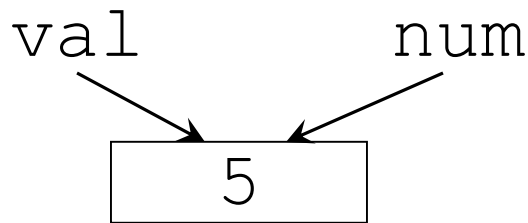
```
void doubleInt(int num){  
    num *= 2; // num = num*2  
}
```



Q: How to change the argument value synchronously when we change the parameter value?

Passing by Reference

- A reference variable is an **alias** for another variable
 - An alias is another name for an existing variable



If we change `num`, what will happen to `val`? Why?

- Use a reference variable as a function parameter
 - Any changes made to the reference variable are actually performed on the argument variable

Passing by Reference

- How to define?

- Place an ampersand (&) in front of the parameter name in the function header

```
void doubleInt(int & num) {  
    num *= 2  
}
```

- In the function prototype, also include the ampersand after the data type

```
void doubleInt(int & num);
```

or

```
void doubleInt(int&);
```

Why Passing by Reference?

- Allow a function to work with the original argument from the function call, not a copy of the argument
- Allow the function to modify values stored in the calling environment
- Provide a way for the function to 'return' more than one value

Example

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;

void swap (int &first, int &second)
{
    int temp = first;
    first = second;
    second = temp;
}

int main()
{
    int a = 2, b = 3;
    swap(a, b);
    cout << a << " " << b;
    return 0;
}
```

Output:
3 2

In-class practice

- Ask the user to input three integers
- Define a function to sort these integers in ascending order, using reference variables as parameters
- Test your code

Input three integers: 1 3 2

Sorted List: 1 2 3

Reference code: [Sort3Integers.cpp](#)

Local and Global Variables

- Local variables

- Defined within a block
- Do not exist outside the function in which they are declared, i.e. they can not be accessed or used outside that function
- Other functions may have separate, distinct variables with the same name

```
void func() {  
    // age is a local variable and cannot be  
    // accessed outside this function  
    int age = 18;  
    cout << age;  
}
```

Global Variables

- Are usually declared **outside** of all of the functions, at the **top** of the program
- Can be accessed from **any part** of the program
- Are available **throughout the lifetime** of a program

```
int g = 10; // Global variable
```

```
void func1() {  
    g = 20;  
    cout << g << endl;  
}
```

```
int main() {  
    func1();  
    g = 30;  
    cout << g << endl;  
    return 0;  
}
```

Output:
20
30

Local Variables VS Global Variables

Local Variables	Global Variables
Declares within a function	Declared outside any function
Accessible only within the function it is declared	Accessible by all functions in the program
Created when the function starts executing and is destroyed when control leave the function	Are destroyed when the program is terminated
More reliable and secure (the value can't be changed by other functions)	Are used when values are to be shared among different functions

Lifetime of Variables

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
```

```
int num = 0;
```

Global variable

```
void func() {
    int num = 2;
    cout << "num defined in func: " << num << "\n";
}
```

Local variable

```
int main() {
    cout << "Global variable num: " << num << "\n";
    int num = 1;
    cout << "num defined in main: " << num << "\n";
    func();
    return 0;
}
```

Local variable

Output:

Global variable num: 0
num defined in main: 1
num defined in func: 2

Note: Local variables → smaller scope → larger priority
Global variables → larger scope → smaller priority

Lifetime of Variables

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
```

```
int num = 0;
```

```
void func() {
    int num = 2;
    cout << "num defined in func: " << num << "\n";
}
```

```
int main() {
    Here → cout << "Global variable num: " << num << "\n";
    int num = 1;
    cout << "num defined in main: " << num << "\n";
    func();
    return 0;
}
```

Global num = 0

main

Lifetime of Variables

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
```

```
int num = 0;
```

```
void func() {
    int num = 2;
    cout << "num defined in func: " << num << "\n";
}
```

```
int main() {
    cout << "Global variable num: " << num << "\n";
    Here → int num = 1;
    cout << "num defined in main: " << num << "\n";
    func();
    return 0;
}
```

Global num = 0

main num = 1

Lifetime of Variables

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
```

```
int num = 0;
```

```
void func() {
```

Here →

```
    int num = 2;
    cout << "num defined in func: " << num << "\n";
}
```

```
int main() {
```

```
    cout << "Global variable num: " << num << "\n";
```

```
    int num = 1;
```

```
    cout << "num defined in main: " << num << "\n";
```

```
    func();
```

```
    return 0;
```

```
}
```

Global num = 0

main num = 1

func num = 2

Lifetime of Variables

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
```

```
int num = 0;
```

```
void func() {
```

```
    int num = 2;
```

```
    cout << "num defined in func: " << num << "\n";
```

Here → }

```
int main() {
```

```
    cout << "Global variable num: " << num << "\n";
```

```
    int num = 1;
```

```
    cout << "num defined in main: " << num << "\n";
```

```
    func();
```

```
    return 0;
```

```
}
```

Global num = 0

main num = 1

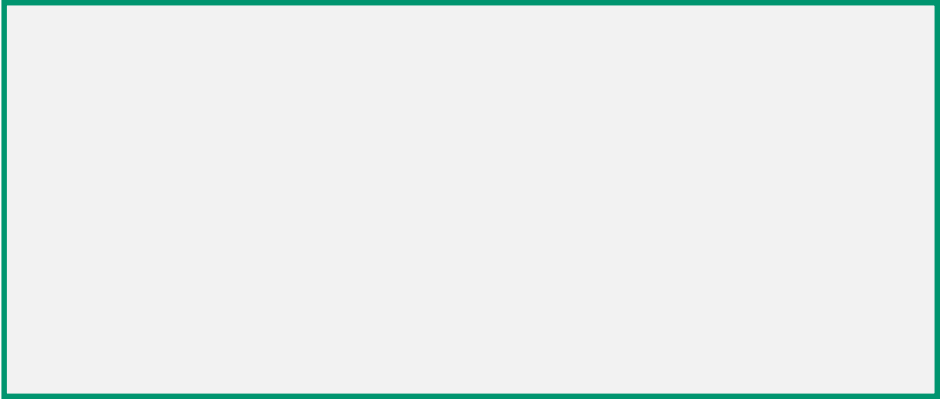
Lifetime of Variables

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;

int num = 0;

void func() {
    int num = 2;
    cout << "num defined in func: " << num << "\n";
}

int main() {
    cout << "Global variable num: " << num << "\n";
    int num = 1;
    cout << "num defined in main: " << num << "\n";
    func();
    return 0;
}
Here →
```



Question: How can C++ distinguish these variables with same names?

Static Local Variables

- How can a program “remember” what value is stored in a local variable?
 - `static` local variables retain their contents between function calls.
 - `static` local variables are defined and **initialized only the first time the function is executed**. `0` is the default initialization value.

Example

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
```

```
void showLocal(); // Function prototype
```

```
int main() {
    showLocal();
    showLocal();
    return 0;
}
```

```
void showLocal() {
    static int localNum = 0; // Static local variable
    cout << localNum << endl;
    localNum += 5;
}
```

The default initialization value is
0, which is equivalent to:
`static int localNum = 0;`

Output:

0

5

Thinking: Is static local variable a good design?

In-class practice

- What is the output of the following program?

```
int globvar;

void fct1() {
    int i = 5;
    cout << globvar << " " << i << endl;
}

void fct2() {
    int i;
    i = 17;
    globvar = 3;
}

int main() {
    globvar = 25;
    fct1();
    fct2();
    fct1();
    return 0;
}
```

Output:
25 5
3 5

Default Arguments

- A default argument is a constant that is passed **automatically** to a parameter if the argument is missing on the function call.
- Usually listed in the function prototype. E.g.:

```
void showArea(double = 20.0, double = 10.0);
```

or

```
void showArea(double length = 20.0, double width = 10.0);
```

```
void showArea(double length, double width) {  
    double area = length * width;  
    cout << "The area is " << area << endl;  
}
```

```
showArea();
```

The area is 200

```
showArea(12.0);
```

The area is 120

```
showArea(12.0, 5.5);
```

The area is 66

Default Arguments

- Default arguments can be declared in function header if no prototype

```
void showArea(double length = 20.0, double width = 10.0)
{
    double area = length * width;
    cout << "The area is " << area << endl;
}
```

- Multi-parameter functions may have default arguments for some or all of them:
 - The **defaultless** ones are declared first in the parameter list

```
int getSum(int, int=0, int=0);
```

Two-Dimensional Arrays

- A 2-D array is an array of 1-D arrays
- Use two size declarators in definition:
 - First declarator is number of rows; second is number of columns

```
const int ROWS = 4, COLS = 3;  
int exams[ROWS][COLS];
```

columns

rows	exams[0][0]	exams[0][1]	exams[0][2]
	exams[1][0]	exams[1][1]	exams[1][2]
	exams[2][0]	exams[2][1]	exams[2][2]
	exams[3][0]	exams[3][1]	exams[3][2]

- Use two subscripts to access element:

```
exams[2][2] = 86;
```

2D Array Initialization

- Two-dimensional arrays are initialized row-by-row:

```
const int ROWS = 2, COLS = 2;  
int exams[ROWS][COLS] = {{84, 78}, {92, 97}};
```

84	78
92	97

- Some array elements without initial values will be set to 0 or NULL

```
int exams[ROWS][COLS] = {{84}, {92, 97}};
```

exams[0][1] is automatically set to 0

Passing Two-Dimensional Array to Function

- When a 2-D array is passed to a function, the parameter type must contain a size declarator for the columns
 - The size declarator for rows is optional (use empty [])

```
const int COLS = 2;
```

```
// Prototype
```

```
void getExams(int[][COLS], int);
```

Here COLS is a global constant

```
// Header
```

```
void getExams(int exams[][COLS], int rows)
```

- Use array name as argument in function call:

```
getExams(exams, 2);
```

Use Nested Loop to Step through 2D Array

- What is the output of the following program?

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
```

```
void readArray(int n[][2], int row) {
}
int sumOfArray(int n[][2], int row) {
    int total = 0;
    for (int i = 0; i < row; i++) {
        for (int j = 0; j < 2; j++) {
            total += n[i][j];
        }
    }
    return total;
}
```

```
int main() {
    int num[3][2] = {{3, 4}, {9, 5}, {7, 1}};
    readArray(num, 3);
```

```
    cout << "The sum is: " << sumOfArray(num, 3);
    return 0;
}
```

Output:
The sum is: 29

Overloading Functions

- Sometimes we want to create functions that perform the same task but take different parameter types or different number of parameters

```
float absolute(float var) { //float type parameter
    if (var < 0.0)
        var = -var;
    return var;
}
```

```
int absolute(int var) { //int type parameter
    if (var < 0)
        var = -var;
    return var;
}
```

Overloading Functions

- Overloaded functions have the same name but different parameter lists

- Different **number** of parameters

```
int sum(int num1, int num2);  
int sum(int num1, int num2, int num3);  
int sum(int num1, int num2, int num3, int num4);
```

- Different **data types** of parameters

```
float absolute(float var);  
int absolute(int var);
```

- Do **NOT** consider different return types

- Compiler will determine which version of function to call by argument and parameter lists

Example

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;

int plusFunc(int x, int y) {
    return x + y;
}

double plusFunc(double x, double y) {
    return x + y;
}

int main() {
    int myNum1 = plusFunc(8, 5);
    double myNum2 = plusFunc(4.3, 6.26);
    cout << "Int: " << myNum1 << "\n";
    cout << "Double: " << myNum2;
    return 0;
}
```

Output:
Int: 13
Double: 10.56

In-class practice

- Define 3 overloading functions
 - have the same name `Average`
 - have 2, 3, and 4 integer parameters, respectively
 - return the average of input arguments
 - the return type is `double`
- In the main function, call `Average` functions to calculate and show the average of
 - 2 and 3
 - 2, 3, and 5
 - 2, 3, 5, and 8

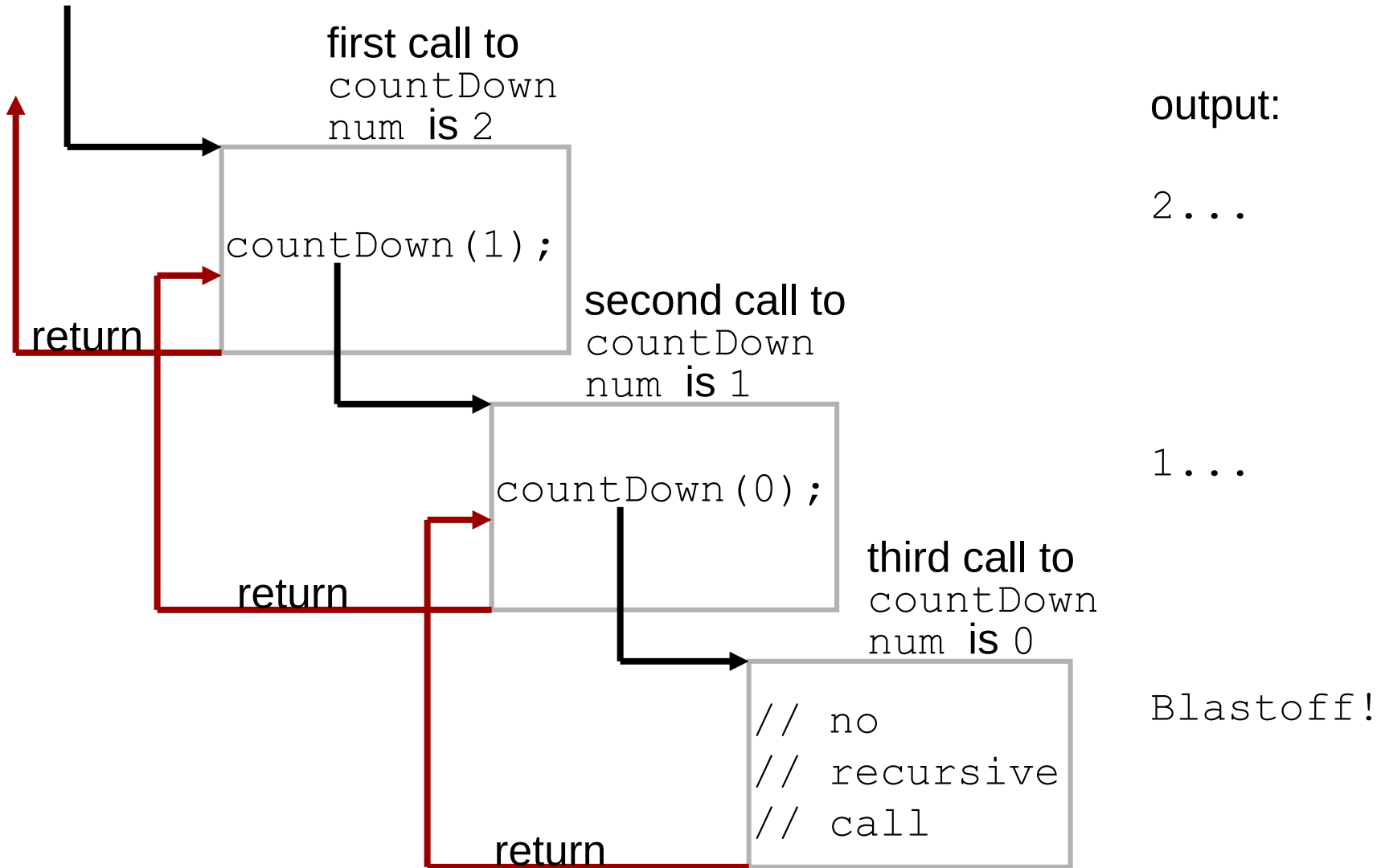
9. Recursion Function

- A recursive function is one that **calls itself**

```
void countdown(int num) {  
    if (num == 0)                                // stop condition  
        cout << "Blastoff!";  
    else{  
        cout << num << "... \n";  
        countdown(num-1);                        // recursive call  
    }  
}
```

- Assume the input argument is 2:
 - `countdown(2)` outputs 2 . . . , then it calls `countdown(1)`
 - `countdown(1)` outputs 1 . . . , then it calls `countdown(0)`
 - `countdown(0)` outputs Blastoff!, then returns to `countdown(1)`
 - `countdown(1)` returns to `countdown(2)`
 - `countdown(2)` returns to the calling function

What Happens When Called?



Solving Problems with Recursion

- Two important steps:

- Define the recursive function
- Define the stop condition

- Example: factorial calculation

$$n! = n * (n-1) * (n-2) * \dots * 3 * 2 * 1 \text{ if } n > 0$$

$$n! = 1 \text{ if } n = 0$$

- Define the recursive function:

$$n! = n * (n-1)!$$

- Define the stop condition:

$$0! = 1 \text{ (base case)}$$

Recursive Factorial Function

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;

int factorial(int); // Function prototype

int main(){
    int number;
    cout << "Enter an integer value to display its factorial: ";
    cin >> number;

    cout << "The factorial of " << number << " is " << factorial(number);
    return 0;
}

int factorial(int n){
    if (n == 0)
        return 1; // Base case
    else
        return n * factorial(n - 1); // Recursive case
}
```

Enter an integer value to display its factorial: 5

The factorial of 5 is 120

Example code: Factorial.cpp

In-class practice

- The Fibonacci numbers are the numbers in the following integer sequence

0, 1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 13, 21, 34, 55, 89, 144, ...

- In mathematical terms, the sequence F_n of Fibonacci numbers is defined as

$$F_n = F_{n-1} + F_{n-2}$$

where:

$$F_0 = 0 \text{ and } F_1 = 1$$

- Use recursive function to calculate and display the first 10 Fibonacci numbers
- Test your code

Thanks

Reading textbook

- Chapter 6, 7, 8, 20

Reference

- The teaching materials of this course refer to:
 - Professor Xiaohong (Sophie) Wang. COSC 120 teaching materials
 - Salisbury University
 - Textbook:
 - Starting Out with C++: From Control Structures through Objects, by Tony Gaddis, Pearson (9th Edition)
 - Instructor materials of the above textbook (All rights reserved)