January 20, 2019 7:31 AM

- History
 - o 1960s ALGOL
 - C is based off that starting point
 - o 1967 BCPL (Basic Combined Programming Language)
 - Created by Martin Richards
 - o 1970 B Language
 - Created by Ken Thompson
 - o 1972 C Language
 - Created by Dennis Ritchie
 - A direct derivative of the B programming language
 - o 1989 ANSI C standardization
 - o 1999 Major C standard update
 - o 2011 Minor C standard update
- Basic Steps
 - a. Understand
 - b. Plan
 - c. Code *
 - d. Compile *
 - e. Test *
 - f. Implement
- Don't forget documentation
- Errors
 - Syntax error
 - Prevents the program from compiling because the language is wrong
 - Error messages may help to solve syntax errors
 - Often times syntax errors are misspellings
 - Logic error
 - Prevent a program from running properly
 - Logic errors are more subtle than other errors
 - A program can still run even with logic errors
 - Testing is very important
- Five key components to the program
 - Preprocessor directives
 - Global declarations
 - Local declarations
 - Goes inside main
 - Statements
 - Goes inside main
 - Other functions as required
- Comments
 - Describes a function or code block's purpose
 - o Describe why you are doing something not how you are doing something
 - Used to communicate what the program does to other and yourself
 - o Can be
 - Bock comments, which use /* and */
 - Line comments, which use //
 - o Don't overuse comments
 - o Can appear anywhere a space can, but cannot be nested
- Preprocessor directives
 - o #include <stdio.h>
 - $\circ\quad \text{Tell the computer to do something before compiling}$
 - o Appear at the beginning of the code
 - o Begin with a '#'
 - #include includes a header file or library
 - Appendix G pg. 1071
 - o Line the # all the way to the left
 - No space between # and include

- Libraries
 - Additional features (mostly functions), which can be available the program
 - o C is a small language libraries extend it as needed
 - o Standard libraries available
 - Appendix F pg. 1059
 - o Programmers can create their own
- The main() function

 - o A main() is required
 - The program begins and ends with main()
 - o It calls other functions
 - o Every main() will have at least one action
 - o Will always end with return 0
- The printf() Function
 - Printf("Hello World!\n");
 - o Printf() is a standard library function from <stdio.h>
 - This library is used for most programs
- Printf() Control Code
 - "Escape sequences" used for special things
 - Control codes begin with a '\'
 - List of codes pg. 48
 - #include <stdio.h> allows the use of printf()
- Variables Identifiers
 - o Generally have a name referring to a place in memory where data or objects can be stored
 - Variable parts
 - Name
 - Type
 - Value
 - Address
 - o Using a variable name accesses the value stored at that memory location
 - Variables are dynamically allocated to a program in C
 - Three areas of memory
 - Literal Pool
 - Code/Instructions
 - Variable Pool/Memory
 - o Every time you ask for a variable the Variable Pool grows
- Identifier Naming
 - Syntax rules
 - First Character must be alphabetic character or underscore
 - Must consist only of alphabetic characters, digits, or underscore
 - First 63 characters of an Identifier are significant
 - Cannot duplicate a keyword
 - Use meaningful names
 - o C is a case-sensitive language
 - $\circ \quad \text{Use 'camel' casing for this class} \\$
- Data Types
 - o Defines a set of values and a set of operations that can be applied on those values
 - o Common types
 - Decimal numbers primitive
 - Non-decimal numbers primitive
 - Characters primitive
 - Strings advanced
 - When a variable is created, the computer reserves memory to hold the maximum value for that data type
- **❖** Void
 - A void type has no values and no operations
 - This cannot be used for variables
 - o Functions the same way you would use a postcard in real life
- Integral Types
 - Integral types are whole numbers

	Three integral types
	Boolean (bool)
	□ Represents a true or a false value
	☐ True is 1 false is 0 ☐ Takes up 1 buts of data (8 bits)
	Takes up 1 byte of data (8 bits)The library <stdbool.h> must be included to use this data type</stdbool.h>
	□ Added for the C99 standard
	Character (char)
	☐ Are symbols that we look up with a number
	□ Takes up 1 byte of data
	□ ASCII 48: 0, 65: A, 97: a
	■ Integer (int)
	□ Value without a fraction part
	□ Four types:
	Short int, int, long int, long long int
	◆ Short: 2 bytes
	• Int: 4 bytes
	◆ Long int: 4 bytes
	◆ Long long int: 8 bytes
	 A signed integer means you can have both positive and negative numbers
	 Technically 0 is false and anything other than 0 is true in the C language
*	Floating-Point Types
	Values containing a fractional part
	o Three types:
	■ Float
	□ 4 bytes
	 Double
	□ 8 bytes
	 More precise than a float
	 Long double
*	Declaring Variables
	Syntax lists the type then the name
*	Assignment Operator
	Data is assigned to a variable after it has been created
	 Assignments are done using the = operator
.*.	■ "gets"
**	Important Point!
	What happens if you declare a variable and it doesn't get a value? The variable will have "ivale" in it.
	The variable will have "junk" in it Figure yariable should be initialized before being used as an output in a program.
	 Every variable should be initialized before being used as an output in a program P. 45
*	Initializer
•	When you initialize a variable upon creation
	• int myVariable = 77;
*	Important items
·	In a block, variables and created - then used
	A block is surrounded by { }
	The main block has two sections
	 Declarative
	□ Variables are defined
	Executable
	□ Variables are used
	Variables can be declared in the executable section
*	Literal constants
	o A literal constant is a set value that never changes and it is what the programmer has literally typed in their code
	o Boolean
	Two possible values 1 (true) and 0 (false)
	Include the stdbool.h library
	o Character
	Enclosed between two single quotes (apostrophes)
	Notice control characters (table 2-6, pg. 48)
	■ 1 byte
	Integer (defaults to int type)

		Written as is, can use U, L, LL
		□ LL long long integer
		□ U unsigned integer
	0	Floating-point (defaults to double type)
		■ Written as is, can use F, L
		■ We will mainly be using F
	0	String
		 Zero or more characters enclosed in double quotes
*	More	e Constants
	0	Defined constants
		#define identifier value
		#define is the best type of constant to use in the C language
	0	Memory constants (don't use)
		const type identifier = value;
		 Follows the same syntax as defining a variable
	0	Points
		Must appear at the top of the program
		 We will write constants in ALL CAPS
		 We will use the underscore to separate constants
*		s for Constants
		Limit using literal constants, especially when they could be more understandably replaced by defined constants
*		t/Output Streams
		Data is input to and output to a stream
		A stream is a source or destination for data
	0	Two types are available: text and binary
		■ Text streams - all data is sent via characters
		Less efficient for the computer but much easier to work with
		Binary streams - all data is sent via 1s and 0s More efficient for the computer but more difficult to work with
	0	 More efficient for the computer but more difficult to work with A monitor can only display a text stream
	O	Called standard output
	0	A keyboard can only send a text stream
	Ŭ	Called standard input
*	Usina	g printf()
•		Used to display text and formatted data
	0	Requires one parameter but has many
		One format control string
		□ Surrounded by double quotes
		 Zero or more conversion specifications
		□ Each begin with a %
	0	Each specification is replaced with the data that has been formatted during runtime
 Conversion specifications 		ersion specifications
	0	Consists of a %, three optional modifiers, and a conversion code
	0	Three major conversion codes
		■ %c, %d, %f
		• %c - character
		• %d - integer
		• %f - floating-point
		□ Floating-point will default to 6 decimal places
	0	Four different modifiers
		Size Defines the size of the data time.
		Defines the size of the data typeh, ll, L
		◆ Lowercase I for a double - most common
		Uppercase L for a long double
		■ Precision
		Specifies how many decimal places are displayed for a number
		 Only applies to floating-point data types
		□ Starts with a period and ends with a number
		♦ %. 2 d
		Minimum width
		 Specifies at minimum how many spaces the conversion will take up
		□ %2d without a period

□ %2.2d with a period Flag □ Only works if there is a minimum width □ Generally works with int, char, and float Justification ◆ This will change the alignment to the left ◆ %-2d □ Padding ◆ Only works if you are right aligned □ Sign Can be used with justification or padding Using scanf() Used to take text from the keyboard, format that data, and store it into variables One format control string, with one or more conversion specifications □ Surrounded by double quotes Zero or more variable addresses □ Each begin with the & (address operator) ♦ %2d, &variable Ampersand ◆ This allows us to "read in" data Must have at least one conversion specification • Size (Modify the type) ■ Flag (assignment suppression = "%*d" we will never use this) Maximum width □ Reads to the maximum number or whitespace Precision cannot be used in a scanf() o scanf() ceases to execute code until the user has entered in data Reading values o scanf() can be used to read in any type • When the user enters ints or floats, a space must separate each Spaces, tabs, or enters Prompting the user o Be clear on the type of data needed Usually used before a scanf() statement What if... o The program asks for 3 numbers, yet the user only enters 2? • The program will just wait until another number is entered in • The program asks for 3 numbers, yet the user enters 4? • The extra number typed in will be left on the text stream and will be automatically used in the next scanf() statement if there is one in the program • The program asks for a character, yet the user enters and integer? The first integer is used and any other numbers or letters are left on the input stream Characters and scanf() • The enter character is a valid character so it can be left on the input stream o When reading numeric input, white space is skipped and only numeric values are read

o Solution

Add a space in front of the %c in a scanf()

It skips all whitespace characters scanf(" %c", &firstChar); February 11, 2019 8:00 AM

Expression

- A sequence of operands and operators that reduces to a single value
- Expressions are generally thought of actions to perform
- Operator
 - A token or symbol that requires an action
- Operand
 - An object (value) on which an operation is performed
 - □ 1 + 2 the numbers are operands and the "+" is the operator
- Expression categories (pg. 94)

Statements

- o An action performed by the program, which generally ends with a semicolon (pg. 121)
- Statements use expressions to perform actions
 - A compound statement does not use a semicolon
- o The value of an expression can be assigned to a variable
 - Often expressions are stored for later use
 - □ Variable = expression;
 - The assignment operator is an expression that returns whatever value is on the right
- Binary Expressions
 - Means two operands with one operator
 - Sub categories
 - Multiplicative expressions
 - Multiplication, division, and modulus
 - □ All multiplicative expressions are binary expressions
 - Additive expressions
 - □ Addition & subtraction
- Math Operations
 - Operations in C are related to data types
 - Int + int = int
 - Int + float = float
 - o Same for subtraction, multiplication, and division
 - Decimals are truncated not rounded when converting data types
- Division the Same (but different)
 - o Float / int = float
 - Int / int = int
- ❖ Modulus (%) Operator
 - o The modulus operator only works with two integer operands; cannot use floats
 - Its used to give the remainder from division
- Expression Types
 - Simple expression contains only one operator
 - Complex expression contains more than one operator
- Order of Precedence
 - o Complex expressions can reduce to simple expression
 - Operators are evaluated by 'priority'
 - See front cover
- Associativity
 - o Direction used to evaluate operators of the same precedence
 - **8/4*2**

- **2** * 2
- An expression always reduces to a single value
- Primary Expressions
 - One operand with no operator
 - Includes
 - Names
 - □ Variables, functions
 - Literals
 - Parenthetical
 - ☐ Any set of values or expressions within parentheses
 - o There is no associativity with primary expressions
 - Functions do have associativity
- Postfix Expressions
 - One operand followed by one operator
 - Includes
 - Postfix increment "++"
 - Can be a statement or part of an expression
 - □ Variable++;
 - The value is determined <u>before</u> the variable is incremented (the side effect)
 - Postfix decrement "--"
 - □ Variable--;
- Prefix Expressions
 - Includes
 - Prefix increment
 - ++variable:
 - The value is determined <u>after</u> the variable is incremented (the side effect)
 - Prefix decrement
 - □ --variable;
- The Difference is Timing
 - With prefix and postfix, the result is the same... To that variable
 - When it happens becomes critical
- Used as a Statement
 - o It is common to see a single statement
 - Called an expression statement (pg. 122)
 - In this situation, prefix and postfix are the same; normal use is postfix
- Additional notes
 - Be careful in complex expressions

$$myC = myX++ * --myZ$$

- Cannot use post/pre-fix on multiple variables in parentheses or constants and literals
- If it is confusing or unclear, make it clear
 - Correctness overrides conciseness
- Do not attempt to modify a variable more than once in an expression -- undefined
- Unary Expression
 - o An expression that has one operator and one operand
 - o The sizeof() operator
 - Gives the size, in bytes, of a type or expression
 - The minus operator
 - Changes the sign of a value (+ or +)
 - □ It does NOT change the value of the variable itself
 - The address operator (ampersand)
 - Gets the memory location of a variable
- Implicit Type Conversion
 - When working with two values of different types, one type is automatically converted the higher-level type

- An int + a float results in the calculation being that of a float type
- Implicit type conversion rank
- **Explicit** Type Conversion
 - Type cast operator
 - Int x = 5, y = 2; float z = (float) x / y;
 - o Casting overrides the type of the value for that calculation only
 - o Both implicit and explicit conversions take extra processing
- Compound assignments
 - o Common to see simple assignments
 - A = A + 2;
 B = B * 5;
 - Compound assignments can be used
 - A += 2B *= 5;
 - Operators + * / can be used
 - Note that it has a low order of precedence
- Statement Types
 - o **Null** statement
 - Line with just a semicolon
 - □ ;
 - □ Seems odd, but some situations call for it
 - Expression statements
 - Expression with a semicolon
 - ☐ Complete side effects and discard the expression value
 - **♦** 1+2;
 - o **Return** statement
 - Terminates a function
 - Compound statement
 - Zero or more statements surrounded by curly braces, needs no semicolon
- Final comments
 - Limit the use of expressions in printf() statements (pg. 10 style guide)
 - o Know the order of precedence and prefix, postfix
 - o When the precedence is equal for two operators, associativity takes over
 - A few operators associate right to left

February 15, 2019 8:37 AM

- **Logical Bitwise** Operators
 - o & And
 - o | Inclusive Or
 - o ^ Exclusive Or
- One's Complement Operator
 - ~ Flips the bits
- Shift Operators
 - o << Left Shift
 - Multiplies by 2
 - >> Right Shift
 - Divides by 2
- Final Comments
 - O Why are these used?
 - Allows low-level data manipulation
 - Increase storage potential
 - Masking data

February 21, 2019 8:01 AM

Functions

- Are a critical part of programming
- o Breaking big tasks into smaller tasks makes sense and is more manageable
- Every C program is a collection of functions
 - Must have main()
- ❖ Why use functions?
 - Allow the breaking up of programs
 - Makes programming easier
 - Promote abstraction
 - Can be reused and shared
 - o Permit multiple programmers
 - Permit customizing to fit one's needs
- Structure/Hierarchy Charts
 - o Top-down design is a popular method in programming and system development
- Function calls
 - When main() calls a function that code is loaded and then executed
- Creating a Function
 - A function exists in 3 places (p.155)
 - Declaration
 - ☐ Appears in the global declaration section
 - Definition
 - □ Appears after main()
 - ☐ Actual code to perform the function's task
 - Function call
 - □ Inside main()
 - □ Appears when using the function
- Function Declaration
 - Appears in the global declaration section
 - Consists of
 - Function return type
 - Function name
 - Parameters
 - Semicolon (null)
 - Example:
 - void clearScreen();
 int calculateSum(int one, int two); one and two are needed for style not syntax
 return; must return nothing in a void function

Function Definition

- Appears after main()
- Consists of:
 - Function return type
 - Function name
 - Parameters
 - Curly braces and body
- Function Calls
 - Appears in main() or in another function
 - Consists of:

- Function name
- Parameters
- ❖ A Process to Writing Functions
 - Decide what the function does
 - Choose a name for the function
 - See what data the function needs
 - Determine the type of data to return
- Return values
 - Just because a function returns a value does not mean the program must use the value
 - o printf() and scanf() both return a value
 - Sometimes, the value returned by a function is important sometimes it is not
- Miscellaneous Comments
 - Automatic return type
 - A function without explicit return type is an int
 - Although previous standards did not, the C99 standard requires an explicit return type
 - Return
 - Causes a function to stop at the statement and immediately return
 - Avoid printing in functions that perform a calculation
- Function Documentation
 - o Generally, program documentation should consist of:
 - Comments at the beginning about the entire program
 - □ Comments before each function definition
 - Basics would be:
 - ☐ Explain what the function is supposed to do
 - □ Describe the parameters
- Math Functions
 - Used by including the #include <math.h> library
 - When compiling, include an -lm
 - c99 -Wall myProg.c -o myProg.exe -lm
 - Power & square root functions (p. 191)
 - o Absolute values (p. 187)
 - Int versions part of #include <stdlib.h>
 - Ceiling functions (p. 188)
 - Always round up
 - Floor functions (p. 189)
 - Always round down
 - Truncate & round functions (p. 190)
- Random Numbers
 - It's a pseudo random number
 - o First, seed the random number
 - srand(value);
 - □ For example:
 - srand(time(NULL));
 - Second, get a random number
 - rand()
 - Will give a random integer value
 - To create a range of random numbers
 - rand() % range + minimum
 - rand() % 10; 0-9
 - rand() % 10 + 1; 1-10
 - The library stdlib.h is needed for rand() and srand()
 - The library time.h is needed for time(NULL)
 - Use srand() only once for each random number series

- Parameters & Variable Scope
 - o Each function is its own self-contained unit
 - Functions can declare variables within themselves
 - Called local variables
 - Only visible within the block where created
 - o When one function needs values from another function, parameters must be used
 - DON'T USE GLOBAL VARIABLES
 - Visible within any part of the program
 - o Parameters are similar to local variables
 - o Parameters match up in left to right order
 - Type is important
 - Name is unimportant
 - Functions can accept and return any type
 - A function can only return one value at a time
 - The void type is used to indicate 'none'
 - void displayValue(int number);
- Pass by Value
 - o by default, parameters are passed to a function by value
 - Technically, all parameters in C are pass by value
 - o In other words, a copy of the **value** is made and given to the function
 - o The original value in memory is left untouched
- Pass by Reference
 - o Parameters can also be passed by reference
 - This works by passing an address value
 - □ A copy of the **location** is sent
 - Sometimes called pass by address
 - The function can change the original
- How/Why is this done?
 - First
 - Pass the variables address to the function
 - Use the address (&) operator
 - □ &x
 - Second
 - Make the parameter a pointer in the declaration and definition
 - Use the asterisk (*) in front of the parameter
 - Style guide:
 - □ void change(int *param);
 - Third
 - Use the asterisk (*) in the parameter in the definition code to access the variable
 - Dereference:
 - □ *param = 8;
 - Never forget the asterisk (*)
- ❖ Why?
 - o If the function must modify 2 values
 - o Only do this if it's necessary
 - Sometimes a function can be broken into two sub-functions to avoid this

March 1, 2019 8:25 AM

- Logical Data
 - Logical data conveys either true or false
 - boolean
 - o In the past, C had no logical data type
 - False was 0; all other values were true
 - The **boolean** type is now available
 - 0 is still false; all other values are true
 - To display a boolean value, use %d
- Comparative Operators (p. 236)
 - Relational operators
 - Greater than >
 - Less than <
 - Greater than or equal to >=
 - Less than or equal to <=</p>
 - Equality operators
 - Equal to ==
 - ☐ Must use 2 equal signs
 - Not equal to -!=
 - Logical Operators
 - NOT (!)
 - AND (&&)
 - OR (||)
 - All three result in a logical value (1 or 0)
 - o AND and OR allow a test condition to evaluate more than one item at a time
- The '!' (NOT) Operator
 - Works the same way we use it in English
 - Changes true to false; false to true
 - 1 to 0 and 0 to 1
 - !(a > b) == (a <= b)
 - !(b <= 7) == (b > 7)
- The '&&' and '||' Operators
 - Gives one logical value from two values
 - (money > 50 && amount < 100)</p>
- ❖ Short-Circuit Evaluation
 - In a logical operation, evaluation stops once the outcome is known
 - o The following evaluates to **0** once any value is found to be **false**
 - W && X && Y && Z
 - o The following evaluates to 1 once any value is found to be true
 - W | | X | | Y | | Z
 - o Y gets evaluated first, then Z, then X
 - X | | Y && Z
- Conditional Statements
 - o Decision making deals with choosing to execute one set of statements over another
 - C's simple if structure:
 - If (test condition) {Statement;

```
Statement; }
```

□ If you put a semicolon after the parentheses or after curly braces is a **logic error**

- Curly Braces...Required?
 - If there are **2 or more** statements use curly braces
 - STYLE GUIDE: ALWAYS USE CURLY BRACES NO MATTER WHAT!
- If-else Statement
 - Every if statement has two paths
 - A simple if statement, true path does something; false path is empty
 - An **if-else** statement, both paths perform different tasks
 - C's if-else statement (p.238)
 - Syntax rules (p.239)
 - o Conditions only go with if
 - Nested if statements
 - True path (p.243); false path (p.261)
 - O Mutually exclusive statement:
 - If (x < 0 && x > 10)
 - Overlapping statement:
 - If (x > 0 | | x < 10)
- Conditional Operator
 - This operator is used for simple tests (p. 247)
 - Basic syntax:
 - <condition> ? <true value> : <false value> value = A > B ? 25 : 19
- Switch statement (nested if's could always be used instead)
 - Sometimes, multiple tests need to be performed on the same variable
 - The test value must be an integral type
 - No floats
 - This function can be a variable, function
 - Ranges cannot be done in C
 - This can be done in nested if statements
 - o The default case is taken if no match is found in the switch
 - Is not required
 - Does not have to be the last item
 - Is required for our class style
- The "break" statement
 - The break statement jumps to the **end** of the switch
 - Break statements are important but are **not** required
 - o However, without break statements, control falls through the remaining cases
 - Sometimes this may be desired (p. 258, 260)
- The goto statement
 - o C has them but **DON'T** use them
 - Allows the control to jump to another part of the program
 - Use of goto tends to create "spaghetti code" that is difficult at best to follow
 - Adding comments doesn't make bad code good
- Final comments
 - o One of the biggest benefits of a switch statement is it's great for **menu-driven** programs
 - Don't forget the curly braces
 - Use single quotes around characters
 - Remember the break statements
 - STYLE GUIDE: do not indent like in the book
 - Classifying and conversion functions (p.266)
 - Exiting functions (p.268)

- Don't ever use them
- exit(1);

March 13, 2019 8:02 AM

*	▶ Looping		
Repeats a section of code			
	 Common in algorithms and program logic 		
	 Types 		
	Definite iteration		
	□ Count from 1-100		
	Indefinite iteration		
	 Prompt the user for a value from 1 to 10; continue until the user does so 		
	 User data and Sensor data are usually indefinite 		
	Infinite iteration		
 Loops forever (this is generally a bad thing) 			
*	❖ Looping Constructs in C		
	 Pre-test loop 		
	Test at the beginning of the loop		
	Like asking permission before you do something		
	Post-test loop		
	Test at the end of the loop		
	Like asking forgiveness after you've done something		
	 C provides three loops: 		
	Indefinite, pre-test (while loop)		
	Indefinite, post-test (do while loop)		
	☐ Both are event-controlled loops		
	□ Do-while is the only post-test loop		
	Definite, pre-test (for loop)		
□ Counter-controlled loop			
***	Initialization & Updating		
	 Initialization 		
	 Setting loop variables to starting values 		
	Can be explicit or implicit		
	□ Explicit - start at a value		
	☐ Implicit - start at a value read-in from the user		
	Updating Separations incide the least to change the condition called a least undete		
	 Something inside the loop to change the condition, called a loop update 		
*	 Performed each iteration (time through the loop) 		
*	The while loop (p. 310)		
	 Repeat a section of code from <u>0 to possibly infinite times</u> based on a test condition Test condition evaluated before entering the loop 		
	I est condition evaluated before entering the loop If true, enter the loop; false, skip the loop.		

- If true, enter the loop; false, skip the loop
- o A **priming read** is often needed (implicit initialization)
- o Once control enters the while loop, the entire body of the loop is executed
- o At the end, control returns to the top and re-evaluates the test condition
 - True, loop again; False, exit the loop
- o At some point, the test condition must evaluate to false
- The do while loop
 - o Repeat a section of code at least once
 - o The difference between while and do while
 - While is a pre-test loop

- Do while is a post-test loop
- It is the least used loop
- Syntax: (p.320)
- The for loop
 - Repeat a section of code a definite number of times
 - for (x = 1; x < 10; x++)</pre>
 - **Initialization** (starting conditions)
 - Executed only once when the loop begins
 - Test condition (limit-test condition)
 - Must be a logical condition
 - Evaluated before each loop iteration
 - Must evaluate to TRUE to continue looping
 - End of loop expression (update expression)
 - Executed at the end of each iteration
 - It will happen the same number of times as the loop body
- Also note
 - o Can have more than 1 initialization and more than 1 end of loop expression
 - for (j = 2, k = 4; j < k; j += 2, k++)</p>
 - o Parts can be left "blank" if not needed
 - for (; j < k; j += 2)</pre>
 - o It is best to always to have a condition and update
 - The control variable can be changed within the loop body
- Loop interchangeability
 - Any looping structure can be rewritten with either of the other two structures
 - How to pick the correct loop?

Missing notes

- Nested loops
 - Any loop can be placed inside another
- Exiting a loop
 - All C loops end when the test condition is false
 - Sometimes, the loop must end before reaching the test condition
 - The break; exits the current loop
 - Use a flag value instead (p. 339, 340)
 - Does not exit nested loops
 - The **continue**; skips directly to the test condition
 - End of loop expression is still executed in a for loop
- Recursion
 - WARNING! An advanced topic (briefly discussed)
 - -The Ttp Project
 - o Recursion is a repetitive process in which a function calls itself
 - This includes a function calling a second function which in turn calls the first function
 - Primary limitation
 - Eats up memory; lack of efficiency
 - o Keep in mind that the recursion must end sometime; infinite recursion is not good
 - Every recursion function call must get closer to solving the problem
 - The TTP Project is infinite recursion
 - CSS 227 will talk more about this
 - Do not use recursion in this class

March 22, 2019 8:02 AM

•		
**	Introd	duction
	11111101	auction

- File input/output is a fundamental process
- o A file is an external collection of related data treated as a unit
- Two classes of files:
 - Text variety
 - ☐ All the data is stored as **character** values
 - □ Easier to work with
 - □ WE WILL BE USING TEXT FILES FOR THIS CLASS
 - Binary variety
 - ☐ All the data is stored as **binary** values
 - □ More efficient
- This chapter deals with text files
 - Contain human-readable characters
- Steps to working with a file
 - Declare a file variable (points to the file)
 - Create a stream
 - Open the file
 - Associate the stream with the file
 - The operating system prepares the file
 - Use the file
 - Input or output
 - Close the file
 - Tells the operating system to release the resources
- **❖** Declare a file variable
 - Uses the **<stdio.h>** library
 - o A variable is used to store a value
 - A file variable is used to refer to a collection of values
 - Declare the variables

FILE *fileIn;

- The **FILE** type is in all caps
- o There is a star (asterisk) in front of the file's variable name
- ALWAYS PUT THE ASTERISK ON THE VARIABLE NAME NOT THE DATA TYPE
- Open the file
 - Associate the FILE reference variable with a file on the computer
 - o For this, use the **fopen()** function which is part of the <stdio.h> library
 - fopen("filename", "mode")
 - ☐ Filename is the variable we are trying to access
 - This function returns as a return value
 - Keep files in the same location as the program
 - Whenever you call fopen() you will always store the result

fileIn = fopen("text_in.txt", "r");

fileOut = fopen("data_out.dat", "w");

- Modes for fopen (it is a string use double quotes)
 - o "r" (read) input load open to read from a file
 - Error if there is no file
 - The only mode where we have to worry about a problem
 - o "w" (write) output save store open to write to a file

- Always starts from an empty file
- If the file exists, delete and replace
- If the file does not exist, **create** it
- o "a" (append) opened at the end of a file
 - If the file does not exist, create it
- Close the file (p. 398 401)
 - Close the file (when finished) to free system resources

fclose(fileIn);

fclose(fileOut);

- o Files can only be open in one instance at a time
- Reading a file
 - Use the **fscanf()** function to read a file
 - Similar to scanf(), with 1 difference the first argument is the FILE reference variable fscanf(fileIn, "%d", &valueIn);
 - □ No asterisk
 - o The fscanf() can only be used for files that have been opened for reading
 - "Obviously" the format/contents of the file must be known to read correctly
 - Know your data!
- Writing a file
 - Use **fprintf()** to write to a file
 - Similar to printf(), with 1 difference the first argument is the FILE reference variable fprintf(fileOut, "%d", count);
 - The fprintf() can only be used for files that have been opened for write or append
- Error Checking
 - o Page 402 shows file error checking
 - o We will be using a modified technique than what the book shows
 - Only error check when you are in "read" mode
 - fopen() returns a pointer or NULL
 - fclose() returns 0 or EOF
- Read Until EOF
 - The **fscanf()** function returns a value; used in **indefinite** situations
 - The value is **EOF** if it encounters the end of a file when it reads from the file
 - while (fscanf(fileIn, " %d", &value) != EOF)
 - o The above while loop will read integers over and over from a file until it reads the end of the file
- Control Breaks
 - This is a break in the loop to perform extra processing
- Special File Variables (p.397)
 - o stdin scanf
 - o stdout printf
 - o stderr printf
 - o They are already declared and open, so never open them, and never close them
- FILE Variables as Parameters
 - Pass the variable like pass by reference
 - But in the call there is no ampersand before the file variable
- Additional Functions (p. 433)
 - The process one character at a time and are found in <stdio.h>
 - getchar()
 - putchar()
 - fgetc()
 - fputc()

```
New Data Structure - Array
      • Sequenced collection (order) of elements of the same data type
      o Instead of one name for one value, an array is one name that references a number of cells
               int singleValue;
               int manyValues[100];
               float singleTemp;
               float manyTemps[31];
Visualizing an Array (p. 462 & 464)

    Think of an array like rooms on a hallway

               int ageArray[10];
               An integer can be placed into each of the cells
Array indexes
      • The array index [subscript] refers to the slot or location in an array
      • The actual value within the slot is called an element
      • The first box of all array subscripts always start at 0
      o An array of 10 elements looks like this:
               [0] [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] [6] [7] [8] [9]
Declaring an Array

    Arrays are derived types

      Two type of arrays:
             • Fixed-length (in the book)
                  □ Data type, name, and [constant] size are required
                  □ Choose a max size that will be needed
             Variable-length (in the book)
                  □ Data type, name, and [variable] size are required
                           int bigGradebook[students]
                  □ most people call all of these examples fixed-length arrays
                  □ C only supports fixed-length arrays
Initializing Arrays (p. 466) - memorize picture examples

    Types (works with any data type)

             Basic
                  ☐ Fills every box with a value
                  □ The order of numbers matters
                           int x[5] = {3, 7, 12, 24, 25};
             Without size (bad practice)
                  □ Same amount of values as there are boxes, indefinite
                           int x[] = {3, 7, 12, 24, 25};
             Partial
                  □ Defaults the rest of the array boxes to 0 if there is no value given
                           Int x[] = {3, 7}; (3, 7, 0, 0, 0);
             All zeros
                  □ Will set all the values to 0
                           int x[1000] = \{0\}; (1000 zeros)
      o You can only declare and initialize the array once (on creation)
      • Specifying more values than elements int the array is a compiler error
Assigning values

    A single array index acts as a variable

             The index must be an integral value (whole numbers)
      o For example:
               scores[0] = 23;
               scores[counter] = 8;
               scanf("%d", &scores[index]);
               fscanf(fileIn, "%d", &scores[ctrl]);
```

scores[x] = scores[x + 1]; - as long it evaluates to an integral value

• Be careful of the upper array bound! Arrays and Addresses o The name of an array is a constant address Assume the address for the following array is 10000 int arrayName[10]; When using an array name and subscript arrayName[5] = 25; C takes the base address 10000 • And adds to that address the subscript times the data type size 10000 + (integerSize * 5) Resulting in the address **10020** and index **[5]** Processing Arrays An index must be used when getting a value from or assigning a value to an array int testScores[20]; testScores[0] = 95.3; testScores = 88.7; - not correct Arrays must be processed element by element char firstArray [3] = {'a', 'b', 'c'}; Code Examples • It's common practice to **print all the array values** using a for loop • You can also swap values between each array index as needed You can also reverse all the values as needed Array Elements as Parameters o Since an array name and index is just a variable, pass it to a function the same as a variable Pass by value: funFunction(myArray[]); Pass by reference: funFunction(&myArray[]); • The formal parameter is declared as before (p. 474-475) Arrays as Parameters Entire arrays are passed by reference only o The function receiving the array knows the type of values, but not the array size o When the function operates on that array, the actual values in the original array are affected o To prevent a function from possibly changing array values (when it should not), use const before the array formal parameter How is This Done... First, the function prototype/heading ■ The formal parameter is an "anonymous array" void loadArray(float arrayTemps[]) - leave the square brackets empty • The parameter is the same type to be passed to it without a size given • If you need the size in the function, do this: void loadArray(float arrayTemps[], int size) Second, the function call Just pass the array name No type and no square brackets loadArray(arrayTemps); Remember, the name of an array is an address; passing an address of a structure is a pass by reference Array Applications Frequency array Shows how often a particular value occurred Example: □ Numbers of A's, B's, C's, D's, and F's in a class Histogram Visual representation of a frequency array Example:

```
D's ****
```

- Multidimensional Arrays
 - o So far, only **one-dimensional arrays** have been discussed
 - o C can also have multidimensional arrays
- Creating and Using These
 - Declaration examples:

```
int scoreTable[3][5];
float arrayTemps[12][31];
```

o Two dimensions:

```
scoreTable[0][0] = 15;
scoreTable[0][1] = 0;
scoreTable[1][0] = -3;
scoreTable[2][3] = 22;
```

o Three dimensions:

```
Int x[2][3][4];
x[1][1][1] = 5;
x[0][2][3] = -2;
```

- Passing These Arrays
 - Passing the entire array
 - Because of the multiple dimensions, the formal parameter must specify the 2nd dimension's size
 - Example:

void loadBigArray(int scores[][5])

3-dimensional:

void loadBigArray(int scores[][5][3])

- The program can also pass just one row of a multidimensional
- Common Use for Arrays
 - o A common use of arrays is for sorting data
 - o Let us look at some sort algorithms: (p. 491-498)
 - Bubble sort sorts by switching values side by side
 - Selection sort sorts by switching specific values no matter their order
 - Insertion sort sorts by putting numbers in the correct order as it reads them
- ❖ Another common Use of Arrays
 - o Another common use is for searching a set of data
 - Let us look at some search algorithms: (p. 501-509)
 - Sequential search starts from 1
 - Binary search starts from halves

April 15, 2019 8:00 AM

- Introduction program11 (p.495-509)
 - o A series of characters treated as a unit
 - C has no string data type
 - Strings by nature vary in length
 - People's names
 - A string in C is a variable-length array of characters that is delimited by the null character: '\0'
 - A string in C is an array of characters

[H][E][L][L][O][\0]

- Null Character Importance
 - The null character ('\0') is vital to a string
 - It literally ends the string
 - o Without it, C would not know the end of the string
 - Strings can vary in length
 - Remember, when an array is passed to a function, the function knows:
 - The array type
 - The beginning of the array (address)
 - *But it does not know the length
 - o Most of the time, the null character is handled for us; only rarely does the programmer need to worry about it
 - o Lastly, keep in mind that the null character takes up 1 slot in the array
 - The numeric value of the null character is "0"
- Declaration and Initialization
 - Simply declare an array of chars

char lastName[10]; - can have a last name of 9 characters

You can also enter in each character individually

```
char lastName[10] = {'T', 'e', 'i', 'c' . . . };
```

Or use double quotes (shortcut)

char lastName[10] = "Teichroeb";

- You can also use Without Size but this can never change after creation
- o The string must be initialized on creation
- A string is an array
- String Input and Output
 - Using scanf() and printf() will work for strings
 - o The field specification is %s
 - o For example:

```
scanf("%s", lastName);
printf("%s", lastName);
```

- o Be sure to make the array large enough
- Problems with scanf()
 - Two problems arise when reading strings using scanf()
 - It reads all characters until white space
 - □ Could overflow the array
 - It stops at any white space
 - May not read the entire string as it starts
 - Solutions:
 - Place a width on the field specification

```
scanf("%20s", name);
```

- □ Solves only 1 problem stops array overflow
- Use the gets() function

gets(name);

```
□ Solves only 1 problem - allows white space
            Use the fgets() function
               fgets(name, sizeof(name), stdin);
               fgets(name, [constant], stdin);
                  □ Solves both problems but does still read spaces
More on String Output
      Already saw printf()
               printf("%s", name);
      Also have puts()
            puts(name);
            Note: forces a return '\n' after the string
            The same as:
                     printf("%s\n", name);
      As well as fputs()
               fputs(name, stdout);
            No size needed here

    Also no return '\n' forced after the string

      As well as sprintf()
               sprintf(outputString, "Data %d", x);

    Allows you to take data and print it to a character array

What Cannot Be Done

    Assume the following

               char lastName[10];

    Each of the following are illegal

               lastName = "Johnson";
               lastName = newLastName;
               If(lastName == newLastName)

    Because strings are not basic data types in C, string manipulation functions are needed

            Header file to include is <string.h>
strlen()
      o Returns the length of a string (number of characters (int)) less the null character
            If the string is empty, zero is returned
strcpy() and strncpy()
      o strcpy() copies the contents of one string into another
      o strncpy() copies a specified number of characters of one string into another
               char lastName[10] = "Johnson"
               char newName[10];
               strcpy(newName, lastName);
               strncpy(newName, lastName, sizeof(newName) - 1);

    It is the programmer's responsibility to be sure that the receiving array is large enough

            ■ BTW, note page 695
strcmp() and strncmp()

    strcmp() compares two strings until unequal characters are found (if any)

      o strncmp() compares a specified number of characters of two strings until unequal characters are found (if any)
      o Both return an integer
            Zero - two strings are equal - 0
               If(strcmp(name, "Jill") == 0)
            Less than zero - first string is less than second < 0</li>
               If(strcmp(name, "Jill") < 0)</pre>
            Greater than zero - first string greater than the second > 0
               If(strcmp(name, "Jill") > 0)
strcat() and strncat()

    strcat() appends one string to the end of another string
```

```
o strncat() - appends a specified number of characters of one string to the end of another string
               char title[5] = "Mrs.";
               char lastName[10] = "Johnson";
               char wholeName[15];
               strcpy(wholeName, title);
               strcat(wholeName, lastName);
               strncat(wholeName, lastName, sizeof(wholeName) - strlen(wholeName) - 1);
Arrays of Strings
      What would an array of strings be?

    A 2-dimensional array of characters

                     char wholeName[4][10] = { "Jack", "Jill", "Bob"};
      o This concept is important because it allows a program to operate on multiple strings like people's names
Creating and Using These

    Declare the array

               char csTeachers[6][10];
      • The 6 is the number of rows; 10 is the number of columns
             ■ Last names can be max length of ?
      o To read the names
               scanf("%9s", csTeachers[num]);

    Notice, that the array plus a subscript is used

             In a 2-dimensional array, only using one subscript still yields an address
❖ Additional String Functions

    Character in string

    Searches for the first occurrence of a character within a string; returns a pointer

               strchr(lastName, 'a');
               strrchr(lastName, 'a'); - the extra 'r' is for reverse searching
            If it does not find any characters that it is searching for it will return NULL
            If it does find it, it will return the location in memory
String in string

    Searches for the first occurrence of a string within a string; returns a pointer

         strstr(lastName, searchString);
Data in string (p.713)
         sscanf(lastName, "%s", first part);
         sscanf(someString, "%d %f", first_part, second_part)
Additional Strings Functions

    String to long (p.705 lines 15, 18, 21)

               strtol(someString, , ) - will take a string and convert it into a long type

    String to double

               strtod() - always base 10
```

April 29, 2019 8:00 AM

- Pointer Understanding
 - A pointer is a variable that **points to**, or **refers to**, another variable
 - A pointer stores a memory address
 - A pointer variable of type "pointer to int" is a reference to another variable (of type int)
 - o Pointers provide a way to refer to (get access to) a cell of memory
 - Why have a variable that refers to another variable, why not just use the variable itself directly?
 - Using pass by reference
 - Sorting of large structures of data (arrays)
- Pointer Declarations
 - Making pointers is easy

```
<type> *<variable_name>;
```

For example:

```
int *pCount;
int *pTemp;
```

- When a pointer is declared, the compiler must know the type of data to which it points
- o All pointers hold an address, but the type of what they point to is a key issue
- o All pointers take up 4 bytes of data
- Item of Note

int *pCount;

- o Creates a variable called **pCount** which **points to an integer** it is NOT an integer
- o Right now, **pCount** is not pointing to anything
 - Technically, the pointer variable will contain garbage
- Pointer Initialization
 - o To point a pointer at something, assign that pointer the address of the item
 - o For example:

```
int count;
int *pCount;
pCount = &count;
```

- pCount is now pointing to the location of count
- To initialize a pointer to point to nothing

```
int *pCount = NULL;
```

- Pointer Usage
 - To get the value that the pointer is pointing to, use an asterisk and the pointer name int count = 17;

```
int *pCount;
```

```
pCount = &count;
count = count / *pCount;
printf("%d", *pCount);
```

count will be 1

• To change what the pointer points to, use the pointer name <u>without</u> the asterisk

```
pCount = &value;
```

- Important...
 - When <u>creating</u> a pointer, use the *

int *pToSomething; - stores a location to this data type

When pointing it, don't use the *

pToSomething = &something;

- Whether using or modifying that value
- For example:

*pToSomething = *pToSomething * 2; printf("%d", *pToSomething);

- Pointer Usage
 - o Pointers do not do normal calculations
 - o Addition and subtraction on pointers is different then normal math
 - o Adding one to a pointer move to the next address of that data type
 - o Use **%p** to print out the location of a variable or array