



京都先端科学大学

Information Processing 2 06

statements and blocks
conditional statements
loops, `break` and `continue`
labels and `goto`, `switch`

Ian Piumarta

Faculty of Engineering, KUAS

last week: declarations, operators, precedence

declarations and initialisation
operators: arithmetic, relational
increment and decrement operators
bitwise logical operators
assignment operators
conditional expressions
operator precedence and associativity
sequence points during expression evaluation
ambiguous (undefined) expressions

Chapter 2. Types, Operators, and Expressions
2.1 Variable Names
2.2 Data Types and Sizes
2.3 Constants
2.4 Declarations
2.5 Arithmetic Operators
2.6 Relational and Logical Operators
2.7 Type Conversions
2.8 Increment and Decrement Operators
2.9 Bitwise Operators
2.10 Assignment Operators and Expressions
2.11 Conditional Expressions
2.12 Precedence and Order of Evaluation

review: integers

integer constants have type `int` by default

to make a constant be `unsigned`

add '`U`' to the end

`long`

add '`L`' to the end

`unsigned long`

add '`UL`' to the end

integers are represented in decimal (base 10) by default

octal, hexadecimal, and binary are useful too:

binary base 2 `0b101010`

octal base 8 `052`

decimal base 10 `42`

hexadecimal base 16 `0x2A`

review: evaluation order and strings

C does not specify the order of operand evaluation

beware of sequence-dependent (and therefore undefined) expressions:

- `f(i++, i++)`
- `i + i--`
- etc.

a string is an array of `char` that is *terminated* with a nul (character 0)

every string is an array of `char`

an array of `char` is not a string

- unless you ensure it is always terminated with a nul
- leave an additional space for it in an array if you have to
(the compiler will do this for you if initialise from a string and leave the size blank)

```
char a[6] = "string"; // a is not a string (no space for nul)
```

```
char s[7] = "string"; // s is a string (one extra element for nul)
```

test

this week: control flow

semicolons and expression statements

`if`, `else`, `else if`; binary search

`switch`, `break`; count digits, whitespace, others

`while` and `for`; infinite loops

nested loops; sorting, sieve for primes

`reverse()` using comma operator

do loop

`break` and `continue`

simplifying loop conditions with `break`

labels and `goto`

Chapter 3. Control Flow

3.1 Statements and Blocks

3.2 If-Else

3.3 Else-If

3.4 Switch

3.5 Loops – While and For

3.6 Loops – Do-while

3.7 Break and Continue

3.8 Goto and Labels

control flow

the order in which computations are performed

default order is linear, top to bottom

control statements modify the flow of control

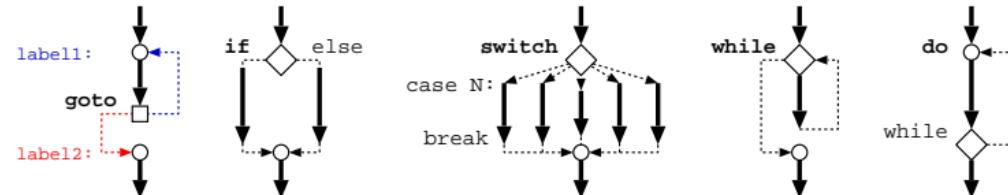
conditional statements: `if, else`

jumps: `goto, switch`

loops: `for, while, do`

*default
control
flow*

a = 3;
b = 4;
h = sqrt(a*a + b*b);



statements and blocks

any expression becomes a statement when followed by a semicolon

<i>expression</i>	→	<i>statement</i>
x = 0		x = 0;
i++		i++;
printf(...)		printf(...);

braces { and } group declarations and statements into a *block*

- also called a *compound statement*
- equivalent to a single statement
- no semicolon after the ‘closing’ brace }

```
if (i < limit - 1) {  
    int c = getchar();  
    line[i] = c;  
    ++i;  
}
```

conditional statement: if and else

used to express decisions (the *else* part is optional)

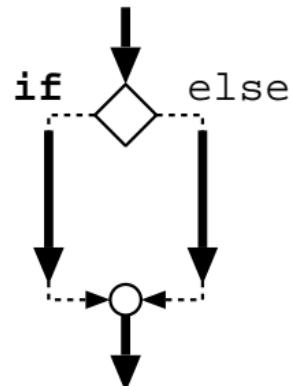
```
if ( expression ) // 1. the expression is evaluated  
    statement1 // 2. if expression is true (non-zero), statement1 is executed  
else // if the else part is present, then  
    statement2 // 3. if expression is false (zero), statement2 is executed
```

the *expression* is tested for its numeric value

coding shortcuts are possible:

```
if (expression != 0) ↔ if (expression)
```

write the *expression* in the way that is most natural and clear



conditional statement: if and ambiguous else

nested `ifs` with only one `else` could be ambiguous

- rule: an `else` is associated with the closest matching (`else-less`) `if`

```
if (n > 0)
    if (a > b)
        z = a;
    else // a <= b
        z = b;
```

```
if (n > 0)
    if (a > b)
        z = a;
    else // n <= 0 ← wrong!
        z = b;
```

recommended: use braces to make the associated `if` unambiguous

```
if (n > 0) {
    if (a > b)
        z = a;
    else // a <= b
        z = b;
}
```

```
if (n > 0) {
    if (a > b)
        z = a;
}
else // n <= 0
    z = b;
```

labels and goto

a label is a name attached to a statement

- precede the statement with an identifier then a colon ‘:’, e.g., ‘myLabel :’

the `goto` statement unconditionally changes the flow of control

- use a label to specify where control should go, e.g., ‘`goto myLabel;`’

```
int i = 0;
repeat:                      // destination label for 'goto'
    printf("%d", i);
    i += 1;
    if (i < 10) goto repeat; // go back to the printf statement above
    printf("\n");
```

replacing goto with a do loop

in the previous example, the ‘loop test’ comes at the *end* of the loop

this pattern of ‘test-and-goto’ can be written as a `do` loop

```
int i = 0;  
repeat:  
    printf("%d", i);  
    i += 1;  
    if (i < 10) goto repeat;  
    printf("\n");
```



```
int i = 0;  
do {  
    printf("%d", i);  
    i += 1;  
} while (i < 10);  
printf("\n");
```

output: 123456789

most uses of labels and `goto` can (and should) be avoided

- they can be replaced by loops which are easier to understand and modify

(the various loops were invented to replace the most common patterns of `if` and `goto`)

loops: do

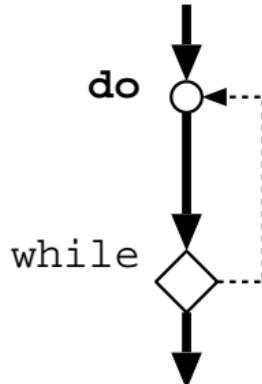
the `do` loop repeats a statement while a condition is true

- the repeated part of the loop is called the *body*
- the body will always run at least once
- the *condition* for repeating the loop is at the end of the body

`do`

statement

`while (expression);`



1. execute *statement*
2. evaluate *expression*
3. if the value of *expression* is true
 - then transfer control back to step 1

replacing goto with a while loop

the test can also be placed at the *start* of a loop

this pattern of ‘test-and-goto’ can be written as a `while` loop

```
int getInt(void)
{
    int n = 0;
    int c = getchar();
repeat:
    if (!isdigit(c)) goto done;
    n = n * 10 + c - '0';
    c = getchar();
    goto repeat;
done:
    return n;
}
```

```
int getInt(void)
{
    int n = 0;
    int c = getchar();
    while (isdigit(c)) {
        n = n * 10 + c - '0';
        c = getchar();
    }
    return n;
}
```

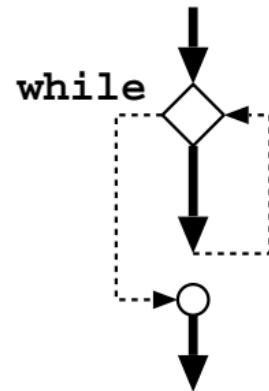
loops: while

the `while` loop is similar to `do` except...

- the test is performed at the start of the body
- the body might not be run at all

```
while ( expression )  
    statement
```

1. *expression* is evaluated
2. if the value is non-zero
 - *statement* is executed
 - control goes back to step 1
3. when *expression* becomes zero
 - the loop stops and control resumes after *statement*



processing an array of data almost always looks the same

algorithms that process a sequence of data often use the same common pattern

e.g., a function to sum the integers in an array

```
int sum(int items[], int numItems)
{
    int result = 0;
    int i = 0;                      // set-up a variable controlling the loop
    while (i < numItems) {          // loop condition
        result += items[i];         // loop body
        ++i;                        // update the variable controlling the loop
    }
    return result;
}
```

replacing while with a for loop

this pattern of ‘set-up, test, loop body, update, repeat’ can be written as a **for** loop

```
int sum(int items[], int numItems)      int sum(int items[], int numItems)
{
    int result = 0;
    int i = 0;
    while (i < numItems) {
        result += items[i];
        ++i;
    }
    return result;
}                                         int result = 0;
                                            for (int i = 0; i < numItems; ++i)
                                                result += items[i];
                                            return result;
}
```

the variable **i** controls the execution of the loop

- initial value, condition, updated value for next iteration of the loop

the advantage of **for** is that it gathers all these operations on **i** into a single line

loops: for

```
for ( expression1 ; expression2 ; expression3 )  
    statement
```

is equivalent to

```
expression1 ;  
while ( expression2 ) {  
    statement  
    expression3 ;  
}
```

all three *expressions* are optional

- if *expression₁* (setup) is missing, it means ‘do nothing’
- if *expression₂* (test) is missing, it is ‘always true’
- if *expression₃* (update) is missing, it means ‘do nothing’

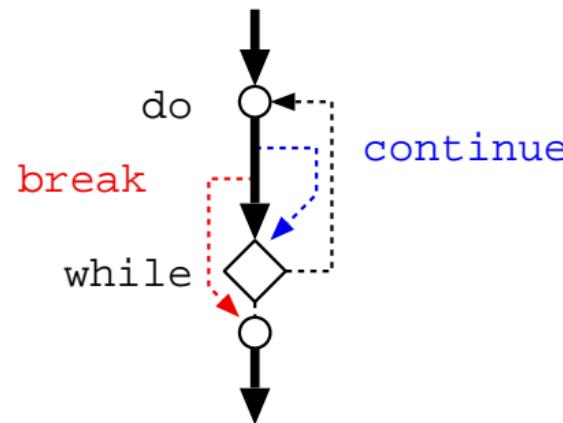
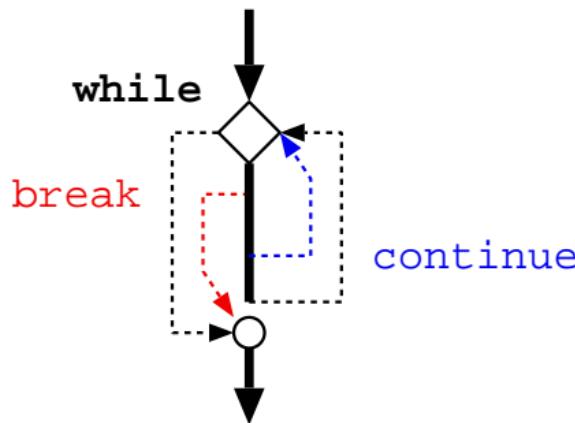
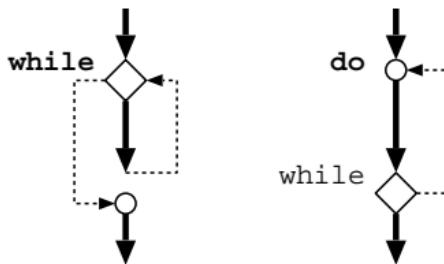
a popular way to write an *infinite loop* is therefore: `for (; ;) statement`

break and continue

`break` makes a loop terminate immediately

`continue` makes a loop immediately jump back to its ‘test’ step

- in a `while` loop, `continue` jumps *back* to the test at the *start* of the loop
- in a `do` loop, `continue` jumps *forward* to the test at the *end* of the loop



break and **continue** facilitate complex loop conditions

break and **continue** offer a lot of flexibility to simplify complex loops

```
int getlineNoSpaces(char line[], int limit)
{
    int i = 0;                                // next index to write in line
    while (i < limit - 1) {                    // test 1: line is not full
        int c = getchar();
        if (c == EOF) break;                  // test 2: no more input
        if (c == ' ') continue;              // test 3: ignore spaces
        line[i++] = c;                      // body: store character in array
        if (c == '\n') break;                // test 4: stop at end of line
    }
    line[i] = 0;                                // terminate string
    return i;                                    // answer length of string
}
```

(this is *exactly* how I would write this function in my own programs)

break and continue in for loop

```
int i = 0;
while (i < 10) {           // <-
    printf("%d\n", i);      // +
    if (i == 5) continue;   // --+ return to test, skipping update
    printf("%d\n", i + 100);
    ++i;                   // update (not run after 'continue')
}
//           +-----+
//           |           |
int i; //           v           |
for (i = 0; i < 10; ++i) { //   |
    printf("%d\n", i);     //   |
    if (i == 5) continue;  // --+ return to update, and then test
    printf("%d\n", i + 100);
}
```

comma operator in for

use comma to

- initialise more than variable before the loop
- update more than one variable each time the loop repeats

```
/* reverse a string in place */

void reverse(char s[])
{
    int c, i, j;

    for (i = 0, j = strlen(s) - 1; i < j; ++i, --j) {
        c = s[i];
        s[i] = s[j];
        s[j] = c;
    }
}
```

multi-way conditionals using else if

common way to write multi-way decision:

```
if ( expression1 )
    statement1
else if ( expression2 )
    statement2
else if ( expression3 )
    statement3
else if ( expression4 )
    statement4
else          // optional
    statement // executed if no expression was true
```

if any $expression_i$ is true

- its associated $statement_i$ is executed
- control passes to the statement following the entire chain of conditionals

sequences of ifs to test multiple values

often an action depends on which value a variable has out of many possibilities

```
int isspace(int c)
{
    if (c == ' ') return 1; // space
    if (c == '\t') return 1; // tab
    if (c == '\n') return 1; // newline
    if (c == '\r') return 1; // carriage return
    return 0;
}
```

note that an `else` between the `ifs` is redundant

- the first `if` that is satisfied will `return`, terminating the function

replacing multiple ifs with switch

a sequence of `ifs` comparing with constant integers can be replaced with a `switch`

```
int isspace(int c) {  
    if (c == ' ') return 1;  
    if (c == '\t') return 1;  
    if (c == '\n') return 1;  
    if (c == '\r') return 1;  
  
    return 0;  
}
```

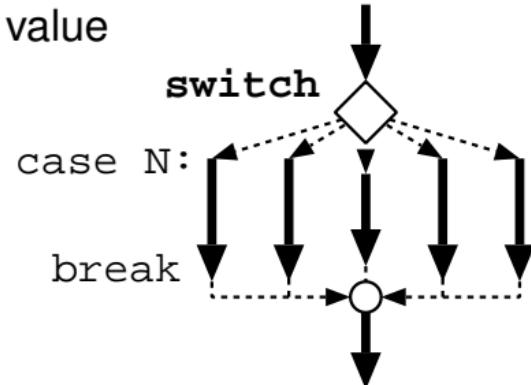
```
int isspace(int c) {  
    switch(c) {  
        case ' ': return 1;  
        case '\t': return 1;  
        case '\n': return 1;  
        case '\r': return 1;  
    }  
    return 0;  
}
```

this *only* works when testing *one int* variable against *constants*

multi-way jump: switch

multi-way `goto` to one of many labels based on an integer's value

```
switch ( expression ) {  
    case const-expr1: statements1  
    case const-expr2: statements2  
    default: default-statements // optional  
}
```



each *const-expr* must be a different integer value

the *expression* is evaluated to produce an integer value v

if v matches one of the *const-expr* _{i} `case` labels

- a `goto` is performed to the corresponding `case` label (i.e., to *statement* _{i})

if v does not match any *const-expr* _{i} **and** a `default` : label is present

- a `goto` is performed to the `default` label (i.e., to *default-statements*)

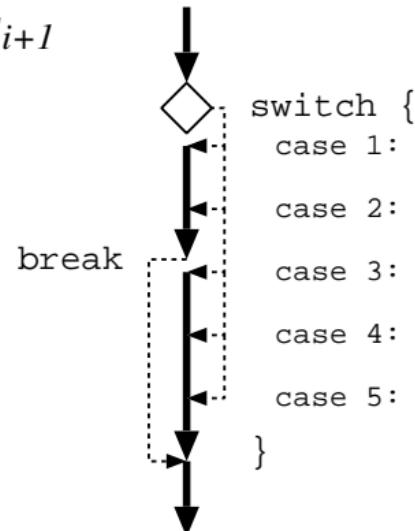
break inside a switch

break causes an immediate exit from the body of the switch statement

each case is just a destination label for the switch to jump to

- control ‘falls through’ linearly from $statements_i$ to $statements_{i+1}$
- break causes a jump to the end of the last $statements_i$

```
for (int i = 0; i <= 6; ++i) {
    switch (i) {                                // output printed...
        case 1: printf("1");                    // 12
        case 2: printf("2");                    // 2
        case 3: printf("3"); break;            // 345
        case 4: printf("4");                    // 45
        case 5: printf("5");                    // 5
    }
    printf("\n");
}
```



case ranges

checking for large sets of value is tedious → use a range: `case first ... last :`

```
switch (i) {  
    case 'A': case 'B': case 'C': case 'D': case 'E':  
    case 'F': case 'G': case 'H': case 'I': case 'J':  
    case 'K': case 'L': case 'M': case 'N': case 'O':  
    case 'P': case 'Q': case 'R': case 'S': case 'T':  
    case 'U': case 'V': case 'W': case 'X': case 'Y':  
    case 'Z':  
        letter();  
        break;  
    case '0': case '1': case '2': case '3': case '4':  
    case '5': case '6': case '7': case '8': case '9':  
        digit();  
        break;  
}
```

```
switch (i) {  
    case 'A' ... 'Z':  
        letter();  
        break;  
    case '0' ... '9':  
        digit();  
        break;  
}
```

counting characters using switch

```
int main() {
    int c, digits[10], blanks = 0, others = 0;

    for (int i= 0; i < 10; ++i)           // set all digit
        digits[i] = 0;                   // counts to 0

    while (EOF != (c = getchar())) {      // c = each character in file
        switch (c) {
            case '0'...'9':              // character is digit
                digits[c - '0']++;
                break;
            case ' ': case '\t': case '\n': // character is blank
                ++blanks;
                break;
            default:                     // all other characters
                ++others;
                break;
        }
    }

    for (int i= 0; i < 10; ++i)          // print count of each digit
        printf("%d: %d\n", i, digits[i]);

    printf("blanks: %d\n", blanks);       // print counts of blanks and others
    printf("others: %d\n", others);

    return 0;
}
```

goto is almost never needed but is *essential* when it is needed

code using loops and conditionals is almost always easier to understand than `gotos`
however, a few situations can be made simpler using `goto`

1. breaking out of deeply nested loops (`break` only terminates one level of loop)
2. restarting a loop without performing the test again

```
for ( ... )
    for ( ... ) {
        if (problem)
            goto error;
    }
return result;
```

error:

recover from error

```
while (EOF != (c = getchar())) {
    testChar:
    switch (c) {
        case '0'...'9': {
            int i = c - '0';
            while (isdigit(c = getchar()))
                i = i * 10 + c - '0';
            printf("%d\n", i);
            // continue the loop but avoid calling
            // getchar() again in the test
            goto testChar;
        }
    }
}
```

next week: functions and program structure

function to search file for string

flowchart, pseudocode, code

factoring the program

function `getline()`

function `strindex(s, t)`

compilation from multiple files

returning non-integers

`atof()`

using header files to ensure function type safety

simple calculator using `atof()`

desk calculator: stack structure

Chapter 4. Functions and Program Structure

4.1 Basics of Functions

4.2 Functions Returning Non-integers

4.3 External Variables

exercises

please download assignment from
MS Team “Information Processing 2”, “General” channel

exercises

counting many kinds of character using `switch`

generalising a function by adding parameters

- convert a digit value into a character
- print a number in decimal
- convert a number to a string in decimal
- convert a digit value into a character value
- convert a number to a string in a specified base
- convert a number to a string right-justified, padded with spaces
- convert a number to a string padded with a specified character

replacing many specific functions with a single general function

- rewrite the conversion functions using the one general function

bonus: rewrite `while` and `for` loops using `goto`

exercise notes and preparation

transforming a string while copying it

1. convert single input character into multiple output characters

```
int convert(char to[], char from[])
{
    int t= 0, f= 0, c;
    while ((c = to[t] = from[f])) { // not at end of string
        switch (c) {
            case 'x': to[t++] = 'E'; to[t++] = 'K'; to[t] = 'S'; break;
            case 'y': to[t++] = 'W'; to[t++] = 'H'; to[t] = 'Y'; break;
        }
        ++t;
        ++f;
    }
    return t; // to[t] is guaranteed to be the nul terminator
}
```

exercise notes and preparation

2. convert multiple input characters into a single output character

```
int convert(char to[], char from[])
{
    int t= 0, f= 0, c;
    while ((c = to[t] = from[f])) { // not at end of string
        if (c == 'W' && from[f+1] == 'H' && from[f+2] == 'Y') {
            to[t] = 'y';
            f += 2;
        }
        else if (c == 'E' && from[f+1] == 'K' && from[f+2] == 'S') {
            to[t] = 'x';
            f += 2;
        }
        ++t, ++f;
    }
    return t; // to[t] is guaranteed to be the nul terminator
}
```

exercise notes and preparation

3. detecting a range using prefix syntax: "ab*48yz" → "ab45678yz"

```
int convert(char to[], char from[])
{
    int t= 0, f= 0, c, first, last;
    while ((c = to[t] = from[f])) { // not at end of string
        if (c == '*' && (first = from[f+1]) && (last = from[f+2])) {
            while (first <= last)
                to[t++] = first++; // insert chars from first to last
            f += 3; // skip *XY
            continue; // t and f are already correct for next iteration
        }
        ++t, ++f;
    }
    return t; // to[t] is guaranteed to be the nul terminator
}
```

13:00 5 last week: declarations, operators
13:05 5 control flow
13:10 5 statements and blocks
13:15 5 conditional: if and else
13:20 5 ambiguous else
13:25 5 else if
13:30 5 switch
13:35 5 break in switch
13:40 5 case ranges
13:45 10 example: counting characters
13:55 10 while and for
14:05 5 do
14:10 5 break and continue
14:15 5 labels and goto
14:20 15 exercise preparation

14:35 10 *break*
14:45 90 exercises
16:15 00 end