CS100 Recitation 5

GKxx

When? March 21, 2022

Warmup

```
• luna@sappho:~$ bat -p c-js.c
#include <stdio.h>
int main() {
    puts("-0.5" + 1);
luna@sappho:~$ gcc c-js.c && ./a.out
0.5
• luna@sappho:~$
```

Warmup

```
luna@sappho:~$ bat -p c-js.c
#include <stdio.h>
int main() {
    printf("%d\n", 50 ** "2");
luna@sappho:~$ gcc c-js.c && ./a.out
2500
• luna@sappho:~$
```

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Streams

Definition A stream is a sequence of characters read from or (Stream) written to an IO device.

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Streams

Definition

A stream is a sequence of characters read from or (Stream) written to an IO device.

> The term stream is intended to suggest that the characters are generated, or consumed, sequentially over time.

> Standard input and output streams: stdin and stdout.

- scanf, gets, getchar: read from stdin.
- printf, puts, putchar: write to stdout. By default, stdin and stdout are directed to the console.

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We can redirect the standard streams to files:

- Use < filename to redirect stdin to a file.</p>
- Use > filename to redirect stdout to a file.

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- Use < filename to redirect stdin to a file.
- Use > filename to redirect stdout to a file.
- Example: ./program < test.in > test.out
- The online grader redirects your program and compares the output file with the answer file.

We can redirect the standard streams to files:

- Use < filename to redirect stdin to a file.</p>
- Use > filename to redirect stdout to a file.
- Example: ./program < test.in > test.out
- The online grader redirects your program and compares the output file with the answer file.
- Input from any file terminates with EOF!
 - EOF is a special character #defined as −1.
- It is suggested to use int to store the return-value of getchar, why?

```
Use freopen to redirect:
int main() {
  freopen("in_file.txt", "r", stdin);
  freopen("out_file.txt", "w", stdout);
  // ...
}
```

Use freopen to redirect:
int main() {
 freopen("in_file.txt", "r", stdin);
 freopen("out_file.txt", "w", stdout);
 // ...

- stdin and stdout are redirected to "input_file.txt" and "output_file.txt" respectively.
- "r": read; "w": write;
- There are also some other open modes.

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File IO Functions

```
int main() {
  FILE *in = fopen("in_file.txt", "r");
  FILE *out = fopen("out_file.txt", "w");
  int a, b;
  fscanf(in, "%d%d", &a, &b);
  fprintf(out, "%d\n", a + b);
  printf("%d\n", a + b);
  fclose(in);
  fclose(out);
  return 0;
}
```

- FILE: a special type storing the information of a file.
- fscanf, fprintf, fgets, fputs, fgetc, fputc.
- Use fopen and fclose.

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String IO Functions

- sscanf: read data in an "scanf-way" from a string.
- sprintf: write data in a "printf-way" to a string.

```
// roundabout way, just for demostration
int main() {
  char str[100];
  gets(str);
  int a, b;
  sscanf(str, "%d%d", &a, &b);
  char result[100];
  sprintf(result, "%d", a + b);
  puts(result);
  return 0;
}
```

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```
struct Tile {
  int num;
  char kind;
};
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```

- A structure is a user-defined data type: struct Tile.
- We can define a variable of such type:

```
struct Tile t;
```

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struct Tile {
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```

- A structure is a user-defined data type: struct Tile.
- We can define a variable of such type:

```
struct Tile t;
```

Use member-access operator:

```
t.num = 1;
t.kind = 's';
printf("%d\n", t.num);
```

An unnamed structure (which cannot be used after definition):

```
struct {
  int num;
  char kind;
};
```

} t;

An unnamed structure (which cannot be used after definition): struct { int num; char kind; }; Defining both a structure and a variable (**not** suggested coding-style): struct Tile { int num; char kind;

Use typedef

```
typedef long long LL;
Use typedef, so that we don't need the struct
keyword everytime we use it.

typedef struct {
  int num;
  char type;
} Tile;
```

Use typedef

Within the typedef declaration, you cannot refer to the type alia.

```
typedef struct {
  int value;
  Node *next; // Error
} Node;
```

Use typedef

Within the typedef declaration, you cannot refer to the type alia.

```
typedef struct {
  int value;
  Node *next; // Error
} Node;
Correct way: Give it a name first.
typedef struct _node_ {
  int value;
  struct _node_ *next;
} Node;
```

Incomplete Type

You cannot define a member of the type itself:

```
struct Widget {
   struct Widget w;
   int x;
};
```

- In syntax: during the definition, the type 'struct Widget' is an incomplete type. It is not allowed to define a variable of an incomplete type.
- In semantics: What's the size of a 'struct Widget'?

Memory Alignment

```
typedef struct {
  int num;
  char kind;
} Tile;
sizeof(Tile) != sizeof(int) + sizeof(char)
In most implementations, the structure above takes 8
```

bytes. The storage will be aligned to multiple of 4.

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Initialization

- Default initialization of a structure initializes every member by default (with an undefined value).
- Value initialization of a structure initializes every member by value-initialization (with all types of '0').

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- Default initialization of a structure initializes every member by default (with an undefined value).
- Value initialization of a structure initializes every member by value-initialization (with all types of '0').
- Copy initialization: Tile a = b; copies the value of each member of b to a.
- b must be of type Tile.

Copy-assignment

```
Tile a, b;
a.num = 1; a.kind = 's';
b = a;
```

The assignment operator is generated by the compiler, which copies the value of each member of RHS to LHS.

A Unique Type

Every structure is a unique type.

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Every structure is a unique type.

```
typedef struct {
  int num;
  char kind;
} Fake_tile;
Fake_tile ft;
ft = a;  // Error
Fake_tile ft2 = a;  // Error
```

Fake_tile and Tile are different types, even though their definitions look the same.

```
Tile next_tile(Tile t) {
  Tile next;
  next.num = t.num + 1;
  next.kind = t.kind;
  return next;
}
```

```
Tile next_tile(Tile t) {
  Tile next;
  next.num = t.num + 1;
  next.kind = t.kind;
  return next;
}
```

- When passing as an argument, it is in fact copy-initializing the parameter Tile t.
- When returning from a function, it is in fact copy-initializing the temporary object generated by the calling expression. (In C, and before C++11)

```
How many copies are there?
Tile next_tile(Tile t) {
 Tile next = t;
 ++next.num;
 return next;
int main() {
 Tile tile, tile2;
 tile.num = 1;
 tile.kind = 's';
 tile2 = next_tile(tile);
 return 0;
```

```
Tile next_tile(Tile t) {
   Tile next = t;
   ++next.num;
   return next;
}
// in main
Tile tile, tile2;
tile.num = 1; tile.kind = 's';
tile2 = next_tile(tile);
```

- copy-initialization of parameter t.
- copy-initialization of next;
- copy-initialization of a temporary object generated by next_tile(tile), with the value returned.
- copy-assignment to tile2.

Since t is a copy of the argument, we don't need another copy.

```
Tile next_tile(Tile t) {
    ++t.num;
    return t;
}
```

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t is destroyed immediately the function returns.

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- t is destroyed immediately the function returns.
- Why do we have to copy something **almost dead**, instead of simply **extending** its lifetime?

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```
Tile next_tile(Tile t) {
    ++t.num;
    return t;
}
```

- t is destroyed immediately the function returns.
- Why do we have to copy something **almost dead**, instead of simply **extending** its lifetime?
- C++11 solves this problem.

Dynamic Allocation

```
malloc and free as usual.
Tile *thetile
    = (Tile *)malloc(sizeof(Tile));
Tile *manytiles
    = (Tile *)malloc(sizeof(Tile) * n);
free(thetile); free(manytiles);
```

Dynamic Allocation

malloc and free as usual.

*thetile.num = 1; // Error!
(*thetile).num = 1; // Correct
thetile->num = 1; // Preferred

Remark

The member-access operator has **higher** precedence than the dereference operator.

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Good Coding-style

- The simpler, the better.
- Code in a modern way.
- Strive to compile warning-free at the maximum warning level.
- At least understand every warning completely.
- Read masterpieces, and imitate.

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