CS 11 C track: lecture 2

- Last week: basics of C programming
 - compilation
 - data types (int, float, double, char, etc.)
 - operators (+ * / = == += etc.)
 - functions
 - conditionals
 - loops
 - preprocessor (#include)

This week

- Preprocessor (#define)
- Operators and precedence
- Types and type conversions
- Function prototypes
- Loops (while, do/while)
- More on input/output and scanf()
- Commenting
- Using the make program

#define (1)

- So far, only preprocessor command we know is #include
- Lots of other ones as well
 - will see more later in course
- One major one: #define
- Used in almost all C header files

#define (2)

#define usually used to define symbolic constants:

```
#define MAX_LENGTH 100
```

- Then preprocessor substitutes the number 100 for MAX_LENGTH everywhere in program
- NOTE: Just a textual substitution!
 - no type checking

#define (3)

```
#define MAX_LENGTH 100
/* later... */
int i;
/* later... */
if (i > MAX_LENGTH) {
    printf("Whoa there!\n");
}
```

#define (4)

```
/* That code expands into: */
if (i > 100) {
    printf("Whoa there!\n");
}
```

- Note that all occurrences of MAX_LENGTH replaced with 100
- Why not just write 100 in the first place?

#define (5)

- Why not just write 100 in the first place?
- If you decide you want to change MAX_LENGTH to another number instead
 - only have to change one #define statement and all occurrences of MAX_LENGTH will be changed to the new number
- Hard-coded numbers like 100 are called magic numbers
 - usually repeated many times in a program
 - would have to change many lines to change the number throughout the program

Digression: ? : operator

- C has one ternary operator (three arguments),
 the ? : ("question mark") operator
- Like an if statement that returns a value:

```
int i = 10;
int j;
j = (i == 10) ? 20 : 5; /* note 3 args */
/* "(i == 10) ? 20 : 5" means:
    * "If i equals 10 then 20 else 5." */
```

Not used very often

#define macros

#define can also be used to define short function-like macros e.g.

```
#define MAX(a, b) \
  (((a) > (b)) ? (a) : (b))
```

- Like a short function that gets expanded everywhere it's used (a.k.a. an inline function)
- But pitfalls exist (won't discuss further)

#define style

- #define defines new meaning for names
- Names that have been defined using #define are conventionally written with ALL CAPITAL LETTERS
- That way, they're easy to identify in code
- Conversely, don't use this style for regular variable names

Operators and precedence

Low to high precedence:

```
= (assignment) += -= *= /=
= == !=
= < <= > >=
+ and -
= * and /
= ++ --
```

- 15 precedence levels in all!
- Use () for all non-obvious cases

++ and -- (1)

++ and -- can be prefix or postfix

```
int a = 0;
a++; /* OK */
++a; /* OK */
```

Here they mean the same thing

++ and -- (2)

Prefix is <u>not</u> the same as postfix!

Types (1)

- int
 - usually 32 bits wide
 - could be 64 (depends on computer)
- long
 - "longer" integer
 - length >= length of int
 - usually same as int
- short (will see later in course)

Types (2)

- float
 - single-precision approximate real number
 - 32 bits wide
- double
 - double-precision
 - 64 bits wide

Type conversions (1)

Converting numbers between types

```
int i = 10;
float f = (float) i;
double d = (double) i;
```

- (float) etc. are type conversion operators
- Compiler will convert automatically
- But don't do it that way!

Type conversions (2)

Dangers of implicit conversions:

```
int i, j;
double d;
i = 3;
j = 4;
d = i / j;
                       /* d = ? */
                       /* 0.0 */
d = ((double) i) / ((double) j);
/* d = ? */
/* 0.75 */
```

Function prototypes (1)

Normally, functions must be defined before use:

```
int foo(int x) { ... }
int bar(int y)
{
    return 2 * foo(y);
}
```

- Couldn't define bar before foo
- Compiler isn't that smart

Function prototypes (2)

- Can get around this with <u>function prototypes</u>
- Consist of <u>signature</u> of function w/out body

```
int foo(int x);  /* no body yet. */
int bar(int y);  /* no body yet. */
int bar(int y)
{
    return 2 * foo(y);  /* OK */
}
/* Define 'foo' later. */
```

Function prototypes (3)

- Note that foo not defined when bar defined
- Rule of thumb: always write function prototypes at top of file
- That way, can use functions anywhere in file

while loops

```
int a = 10;
while (a > 0)
{
    printf("a = %d\n", a);
    a--;
}
```

Useful when # of iterations not known in advance

Infinite loops and break

```
int a;
while (1) /* or: for (;;) */
    scanf("%d ", &a);
    printf("a = %d\n", a);
    if (a <= 0)
       break; /* get out of loop */
```

More on break

- break exits the nearest enclosing loop
- To exit more deeply-nested loops, need
 goto
- Avoid using goto in general

goto

```
for (i = 0; i < m; i++) {
    for (j = 0; j < n; j++) {
        /* code ... */
        goto out; /* something went wrong */
    }
}
out: /* a label */
/* continue here */</pre>
```

do/while

Sometimes want to test at end of loop:

```
int i = 10;
do
{
    /* try something at least once */
    /* i gets changed */
}
while (i > 0);
```

continue

To exit a single iteration of a loop early, but keep on executing the loop itself, use a **continue** statement

```
int i;
for (i = 0; i < 100; i++) {
   if (i % 2 == 0)
       continue;
   else
       printf("i = %d\n", i)
}</pre>
```

Here, only prints out odd numbers

Note on syntax

- Body of for, while, do/while, if, if/
 else statements can be either
 - a block of code (surrounded by curly braces)
 - a single line of code
- Better to always use a block of code
 - expresses intent more clearly to reader
 - can add extra statements later more easily

Input/output and scanf() (1)

- C provides three input/output "files" for you to use:
 - stdin for input from the terminal
 - stdout for output to the terminal
 - stderr for error output
 - normally also outputs to terminal
- All defined in stdio.h header file

Input/output and scanf() (2)

- printf() function outputs to stdout
- scanf() function reads from stdin
- More general versions to read from other files:
- fprintf() outputs to any file
- fscanf() reads from any file

Input/output and scanf() (3)

• fprintf() and stderr used to print error messages:

- Still prints to terminal
- Always use this for printing error messages or program usage messages!

Input/output and scanf() (4)

- Recall scanf() function from lab 1
- Reads in from terminal input (known as stdin)
- Uses funny syntax e.g.

```
char s[100];
scanf("%99s", s);
```

 This says: "read in a string s that is no more than 99 characters long".

Input/output and scanf() (5)

- scanf() changes the variable(s) in its argument list
- scanf() also returns an int value
 - if scanf() was successful, return the number of items
 read
 - if input unavailable, the special EOF ("end of file")
 value is returned
 - EOF is also defined in stdio.h header file

Input/output and scanf() (6)

Testing scanf()'s return value:

```
int val;
int result;
result = scanf("%d", &val);
if (result == EOF)
{
    /* print an error message */
}
```

Input/output and scanf() (7)

Notice the &val in the scanf() call:

```
int val, result;
result = scanf("%d", &val);
```

- What's that all about?
- Can't explain in detail now
- Will explain when we talk about pointers
- Rule: need & for reading int or double, but not strings



Commenting your code (1)

The most important thing is to realize that

COMMENTS ARE <u>VERY</u> <u>VERY IMPORTANT!</u>



Commenting your code (2)

- Purposes of comments:
 - explain how to use your functions
 - explain how your functions work
 - explain anything that's tricky or nonobvious
- Who reads the comments?
 - anyone modifying your code
 - you, in a few weeks/months/years

Commenting your code (3)

- Put comments right before functions
 - purpose of function
 - what arguments mean
 - what's returned
- Comment code that's not obvious
- Assume others will read your code
- Style (spelling, grammar) counts!
- Poor commenting → marks off!

Good commenting

```
* area: finds area of circle
 * arguments: r: radius of circle
* return value: the computed area
*/
double area(double r) {
    double pi = 3.1415926;
    return (pi * r * r);
```

Variable names

Usually use meaningful variable names

```
double x; /* what does x mean? */
double distance; /* better */
```

Not always necessary

```
int loop_index;  /* bad */
int i;  /* good */
```

The make program (1)

- make is a program which
 - automates compilation of programs
 - only recompiles files that
 - have changed
 - depend on files that have changed
- Only really useful for programs with multiple source code files

The make program (2)

- Write compilation info in a Makefile
- Usually compile by typing make
- Clean up by typing make clean
- We usually supply the Makefile
- Details:

http://www.cs.caltech.edu/courses/cs11/material/c/mike/misc/make.html

The make program (3)

Trivial Makefile:

```
program: program.o
      gcc program.o -o program
program.o: program.c program.h
      gcc -c program.c
clean:
    rm program.o program
```

The make program (4)

Targets in red

```
program: program.o

    gcc program.o -o program

program.o: program.c program.h

    gcc -c program.c

clean:

rm program.o program
```

The make program (5)

Dependencies in green

```
program: program.o

    gcc program.o -o program

program.o: program.c program.h

    gcc -c program.c

clean:

    rm program.o program
```

The make program (6)

Commands in blue

```
program: program.o

gcc program.o -o program

program.o: program.c program.h

gcc -c program.c

clean:
    rm program.o program
```

The make program (7)

- If program.c or program.h changes
 - program.o is now out-of-date
 - program.o gets recompiled (changes)
 - program is now out-of-date
 - program gets recompiled
- If multiple .c files exist and only one changes, only necessary files recompiled



- Arrays
- Strings
- Command-line arguments
- assert