

# ENGG1003 - Tuesday Week 2

Calculating Pi  
Arithmetic  
Datatypes

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# Before we start...

- ▶ Today's lecture is information overload
  - ▶ It is a long list of “stuff” to rote learn
  - ▶ Half of programming is just “playing with Lego” with this “stuff”
  - ▶ There is a lot to learn before we can solve interesting problems
- ▶ It will probably push you out of your comfort zone
- ▶ Lab experience will rebuild your confidence
  - ▶ Much of this content will be used in every lab
- ▶ But first, a problem for motivation...

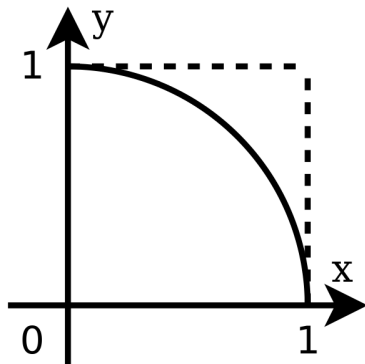
# Case Study: Calculating $\pi$

- ▶ Computers are *really* good at repetitive things
- ▶ Lets use this fact to calculate  $\pi$  using a “monte-carlo” method
  - ▶ Informally, these are methods which solve problems by repeating the same thing with different inputs until patterns emerge
  - ▶ It could repeat millions or billions of times
  - ▶ Name comes from the Monaco Principality’s high concentration of casinos
- ▶ Algorithm pseudocode will be written before an implementation in C

# Case Study: Calculating $\pi$

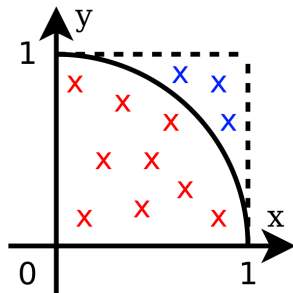
Consider a quadrant of a unit circle ( $r = 1$ ) with a square around it:

- ▶ Area of the square  
 $A_1 = 1$
- ▶ Area of the circle quadrant  $A_2 = \frac{\pi r^2}{4} = \frac{\pi}{4}$
- ▶ Ratio of areas  $\frac{A_2}{A_1} = \frac{\pi}{4}$
- ▶ Therefore  $\pi = 4 \times \frac{A_2}{A_1}$



# Case Study: Calculating $\pi$

- ▶ We can't calculate the area ratio without knowing  $\pi$
- ▶ Estimate it by:
  - ▶ Randomly picking many points inside the square
  - ▶ Test if the point is inside the circle with  $x^2 + y^2 < 1$



- ▶ 
$$\pi \approx 4 \times \frac{\text{Number of points which land inside circle}}{\text{Total number of points tested}} = 4 \times \frac{9}{12} = 3$$

# Algorithm for Calculating $\pi$

- ▶ How can the above *mathematics* be turned into an *algorithm*?
  - ▶ **NB:** You only have to understand the algorithm
- ▶ The algorithm needs to repeat the *same thing* multiple times
  - ▶ This implies use of a loop
  - ▶ The loop's *exit condition* needs to be defined
- ▶ As the loop repeats, we need to keep track of the following *variables*:
  - ▶ The number of points tested
  - ▶ The number of points which landed inside the circle
  - ▶ The  $(x, y)$  coordinates of the point under test

# Algorithm for Calculating $\pi$

- ▶ The number of points tested will be an integer, we will call it `countTotal`
- ▶ The number of points found to be inside the circle is also an integer, we will call it `countInside`
- ▶ Before these variables are used they should be *initialised*
  - ▶ ie: The algorithm will explicitly include `countTotal = 0` and `countInside = 0`
  - ▶ So-called *uninitialised* variables have undefined (or random) values

# Algorithm for Calculating $\pi$

- ▶ Incrementing the `countInside` variable is *conditional* on the values of  $x$  and  $y$ 
  - ▶ This implies `IF...ENDIF` *flow control*
- ▶ The condition on incrementing `countInside` is  $x^2 + y^2 < 1$
- ▶ Incrementing a variable in pseudocode takes the form:
  - ▶ `variable = variable + 1`
  - ▶ This can be read as “variable *becomes* variable plus 1”
  - ▶ Maths people would write:  $x_{n+1} = x_n + 1$



- ▶ The point under test needs two “real” variables:  $x$  and  $y$ 
  - ▶ “Real” comes from mathematics: any number with integer and fractional components. Eg: 1.45
- ▶ These values take new random values each loop
- ▶ The pseudocode doesn’t need to describe how a random number is generated
  - ▶ Stating: “ $x =$  a random number between 0 and 1” is totally acceptable
- ▶ At the end of the algorithm the final step will be  $\pi = 4 \times \frac{\text{countInside}}{\text{countTotal}}$

# Algorithm for Calculating $\pi$

```
BEGIN
  integer countTotal = 0
  integer countInside = 0
  WHILE countTotal < A large number
    x = random number between 0 and 1
    y = random number between 0 and 1
    countTotal = countTotal + 1
    IF x*x + y*y < 1
      countInside = countInside + 1
    ENDIF
  ENDWHILE
  pi = 4*countInside/countTotal
  PRINT pi
END
```

# Missing Knowledge for C Implementation

- ▶ More information about arithmetic
  - ▶ Relational operators (less/greater-than) look useful
  - ▶ Is there a neat way to do `count=count+1`?
  - ▶ `countInside` and `countTotal` are both integers. What happens when we divide?
- ▶ Datatypes and how they are handled in arithmetic statements
- ▶ How do we generate random numbers?
- ▶ Syntax for WHILE loops and IF statements

# C Arithmetic

- ▶ Basic arithmetic was seen in the lab
  - ▶ You all did the lab, right?

Operation	C Symbol
Addition	+
Subtraction	-
Multiplication	*
Division	/

Table: Basic arithmetic operators in C

- ▶ Complex expressions can be built from these operators and parentheses

# C Arithmetic

## Examples:

$$\begin{array}{ll} z = x^2 + 5(y + b) & z = x * x + 5 * (y + b) ; \\ u = \frac{x+1}{x-1} & u = (x + 1) / (x - 1) ; \\ v = z^3 + \frac{5(y+b)}{2} & v = z * z * z + (5 * (y + b)) / 2 ; \end{array}$$

- ▶ Multiplication is not assumed. If you write  $5(y+b)$  the compiler will generate a syntax error.
- ▶ To be valid C expressions the semicolon is required.

# C Arithmetic

- ▶ C supports two time-saving *unary* operators:
  - ▶ Very useful in loops.

Operation	C Syntax	Replaces
Increment	<code>x++;</code> or <code>++x;</code>	<code>x = x + 1;</code>
Decrement	<code>x--;</code> or <code>--x;</code>	<code>x = x - 1;</code>

- ▶ It also supports the following shorthand syntax:

<code>x = x + y;</code>	<code>x += y;</code>
<code>x = x - y;</code>	<code>x -= y;</code>
<code>x = x * y;</code>	<code>x *= y;</code>
<code>x = x / y;</code>	<code>x /= y;</code>

# C Arithmetic

What's the difference between  $x++$  and  $++x$ ?

- ▶  $x++$  is a *post-increment*
- ▶  $++x$  is a *pre-increment*
- ▶ If they appear in an arithmetic expression, pre-increment is processed *before* the variable is used and post-increment is processed *after* it is used.
- ▶ In isolation there is no difference.

# Increment Example

```
1 #include <stdio.h>
2 int main() {
3     int x = 0;
4     int y = 0;
5     int z = 0;
6     y = ++x + 10;
7     printf("Pre-increment: %d\n", y);
8     y = z++ + 10;
9     printf("Post-increment: %d\n", y);
10    return 0;
11 }
```

Listing 1: increment.c

Pre/post-inc/decrements have many applications,  
more details in coming weeks.



# Modulus

- ▶ Integer division ignores (truncates) any fractional component
- ▶ The *modulus* operator provides the remainder after division
  - ▶ C uses the `%` character
  - ▶ “`a % b`” means “remainder of `a / b`”
- ▶ Example:
  - ▶  $10 / 3 = 3$
  - ▶  $10 \% 3 = 1$

# Modulus Example 1 - Printing Every *nth* Loop

```
1 #include <stdio.h>
2 int main() {
3     int x = 0;
4     while(x < 1000)
5     {
6         // Presumably something useful is done with x
7         // inside this loop
8         if(x%100 == 0)
9             printf("%d\n", x);
10    }
11    return 0;
12 }
```

Listing 2: loopmod.c

# Modulus Example 2 - Factor Testing

```
1 #include <stdio.h>
2 int main() {
3     int x, y;
4     printf("Enter an integer: ");
5     scanf("%d", &x);
6     printf("Enter another integer: ");
7     scanf("%d", &y);
8     if(x % y == 0) { // ie: if the remainder is zero
9         printf("%d is a factor of %d\n", y, x);
10    } else {
11        printf("%d is NOT a factor of %d\n", y, x);
12    }
13    return 0;
14 }
```

Listing 3: factorTest.c



# Modulus Example 3 - Finding Factors

```
1 #include <stdio.h>
2 int main() {
3     int input, x;
4     printf("Enter an integer to factorise: ");
5     scanf("%d", &input);
6     x = input;
7     while(x > 0) {
8         if(input % x == 0) // ie: if the remainder is
9             printf("%d is a factor of %d\n", x, input);
10        x--;
11    }
12    return 0;
13 }
```

Listing 4: factors.c

# Relational Operators

- C supports six *relational* operators:

Operation	C Symbol
Less than	<
Less than or equal to	<=
Greater than	>
Greater than or equal to	>=
Equal to	==
Not equal to	!=

# Relational Operators

- ▶ The result of a relational operation is 0 or 1
  - ▶ C treats 0 as Boolean FALSE and non-zero as TRUE
- ▶ They are typically used as flow control conditions
  - ▶ `if(condition) {statements}`
  - ▶ `while(condition) {statements}`
- ▶ While we're here: the above is the correct syntax for IF and WHILE flow control in C

# Boolean Operators

- ▶ We discussed Boolean algebra last week
- ▶ It has three operators: AND, OR, NOT
- ▶ In C, these are implemented with:

Operator	C Characters
AND	& &
OR	
NOT	!

- ▶ I know the | character as a “pipe” symbol or “vertical slash”
  - ▶ Ask your demonstrator to find it on the keyboard

# Conditions

- ▶ We have seen that `if()` and `while()` statements need *conditions*
- ▶ A condition can be any combination of variables, operators, and literals (numbers, defined later)
- ▶ The following are all valid:
  - ▶ `if (x > 29)`
  - ▶ `if (x == 2)`
  - ▶ `if (! (x == y) )`
  - ▶ `if ( (x > 5) && (x < 20) )`
  - ▶ `if (x = y + z)`
    - ▶ Evaluates `(y + z)`, assigns to `x`, uses result as `if()` condition.



# C Arithmetic Operator Precedence

- ▶ C has an “order of operations”
- ▶ eg:  $1+5*2$  evaluates to 11
  - ▶ You remember BODMAS / PEDMAS, right?
- ▶ Multiplication and division first
- ▶ Addition and subtraction second
- ▶ Relational operators somewhere below that
- ▶ If in doubt: force order with parentheses
  - ▶ This makes the code more readable
  - ▶ It doesn't cost you anything
  - ▶ C compilers understand algebra and will optimise inefficient expressions automatically

# Variable Declaration

- ▶ In C, all variables are *declared* before use
- ▶ Declaration specifies the variable's:
  - ▶ Datatype
  - ▶ Name
  - ▶ An *initialisation value* (optional)
    - ▶ Always assume uninitialised variables have random values! Behaviour varies between compilers and target platforms.
- ▶ eg: `int counter = 0;`
  - ▶ Type is `int`
  - ▶ Name is `counter`
  - ▶ Initial value is `0` (optional)
- ▶ C is a “strongly-typed” language
  - ▶ Every variable has a fixed type

# Variable Naming Rules

- ▶ Variable names:
  - ▶ Are case sensitive
  - ▶ Must **not** be a C keyword (eg: `int`, `char`, `while`, etc)
  - ▶ Must **not** contain special characters (`*-+/,` etc)
  - ▶ Must begin with a letter
  - ▶ Can contain numbers
  - ▶ Can contain underscores
- ▶ What you do with those rules is up to you
- ▶ Modern practice encourages:
  - ▶ `camelCaseVariableNames`
  - ▶ `names_with_underscores`

# Diversion: Binary Nomenclature

- ▶ The value range is a result of the underlying binary storage mechanism
- ▶ A single binary digit is called a *bit*
- ▶ There are 8 bits in a *byte*
- ▶ In programming we use the “power of two” definitions of kB, MB, etc:
  - ▶ 1 kilobyte is  $2^{10} = 1024$  bytes
  - ▶ 1 Megabyte is  $2^{20} = 1048576$  bytes
  - ▶ 1 Gigabyte is  $2^{30} = 1073741824$  bytes
  - ▶ (Advanced) These numbers look better in hex: 0x3FF, 0xFFFFF, etc.

# Diversion: Binary Nomenclature

- ▶ Observe that kilobyte, Megabyte, Gigabyte, etc use scientific prefixes
- ▶ These *normally* mean a power of 10:
  - ▶ kilo- =  $10^3$
  - ▶ Mega- =  $10^6$
  - ▶ Giga- =  $10^9$
  - ▶ ...etc (see the inside cover of a physics text)
- ▶ Computer science stole these terms and re-defined them

# Diversion: Binary Nomenclature

- ▶ This has made some people *illogically angry*
- ▶ Instead, we can use a more modern standard:
  - ▶  $2^{10}$  bytes = 1 kibiByte (KiB)
  - ▶  $2^{20}$  bytes = 1 Mebibyte (MiB)
  - ▶  $2^{30}$  bytes = 1 Gibibyte (GiB)
  - ▶ ...etc
- ▶ Generally speaking, KB (etc) implies:
  - ▶ powers of two to *engineers*
  - ▶ powers of ten to *marketing*
    - ▶ The number is smaller
    - ▶ Hard drive manufacturers, ISPs, etc like this

# Integer Data Types

- ▶ There are several integer data types
- ▶ They vary by their:
  - ▶ Size
  - ▶ Support for negative numbers
- ▶ C integer types can be 1, 2, 4, or 8 bytes long
  - ▶ `int` and `long` sizes vary by platform
  - ▶ Larger sizes store larger numbers, use more RAM
- ▶ Each type can be *signed* or *unsigned*
  - ▶ Unsigned numbers are always positive but you get double the *value range*

# Integer Data Types

- ▶ The integer data type ranges can be calculated from the data type's size in bits
- ▶ For unsigned numbers of bit length  $n$ :

$$\text{max} = 2^n - 1 \quad (1)$$

- ▶ For signed numbers of bit length  $n$ :

$$\text{max} = 2^{(n-1)} - 1 \quad (2)$$

$$\text{min} = -2^{(n-1)} \quad (3)$$

- ▶ Signed numbers are stored in *two's complement* format, covered in ELEC1710



# Integer Data Types

- ▶ C includes the `sizeof()` expression so that a program can discover the size of a data type on a given platform
- ▶ On a modern 64-bit Linux desktop machine:

Type	Bytes	Bits	Value Range
<code>char</code>	1	8	-128, +127
<code>short</code>	2	16	-32768, 32767
<code>int</code>	4	32	-2147483648, 2147483647
<code>long</code>	8	64	-9223372036854775808, ...

# Unsigned Integers

- ▶ Unsigned integers are *always positive*
- ▶ They are the same size as their signed counterparts
- ▶ The `unsigned` keyword placed before the data type makes that variable unsigned
- ▶ eg: `unsigned char` is 1 byte and has a value range of 0 to 255

# Unambiguous Integer Data Types

- ▶ Because the standard `int` and `long` data types don't have fixed size unambiguous types exist
- ▶ Under OnlineGDB (ie: Linux with `gcc`) these are defined in `stdint.h` (`#include` it)
- ▶ You will see them used commonly in embedded systems programming (eg: Arduino code)
- ▶ The types are:
  - ▶ `int8_t`
  - ▶ `uint8_t`
  - ▶ `int16_t`
  - ▶ `...etc`

# Why Care About Data Types?

- ▶ You may be thinking “why not make everything a `long`?”
- ▶ Answer: speed and memory
- ▶ Smaller types use less RAM
- ▶ Arithmetic on a type larger than the target platform's *native size* is slow
- ▶ Matters if you store millions of the same type
- ▶ Makes a *huge* difference on embedded targets
  - ▶ Don't declare 32-bit variables on an 8-bit AVR microcontroller *unless you have to*

# Overflow

- ▶ *Overflow* occurs when the result of a calculation is too big to fit into the target type
- ▶ Example:  $127 + 1 = -128$

```
1 #include <stdio.h>
2 int main() {
3     char x = 127;
4     printf("%d\n", x);
5     x++;
6     printf("%d\n", x);
7     return 0;
8 }
```

Listing 5: overflow.c

# Overflow

- ▶ Message: make variables as small you can, but no smaller
  - ▶ Or just use `long` everywhere are cop the performance hit
- ▶ Quite often you need to take a guess at how big a variable needs to be
- ▶ Typically a good idea to document software limits due to variable choice

# Floating Point Data Types

- ▶ To store real numbers C has several *floating point* data types
- ▶ As with integers, try to use the smallest you can get away with
- ▶ Quad precision (`__float128`) is supported in gcc but *very* slow
  - ▶ Not used in this course
- ▶ Run benchmark demonstration

Type	Size	Range	Precision
float	4	$1.2 \times 10^{-38}$ to $3.4 \times 10^{38}$	6 dp
double	8	$2.3 \times 10^{-308}$ to $1.7 \times 10^{308}$	15 dp

# Floating Point Problems

- ▶ Q: Why not *always* use float or double?
- ▶ A: Floating point arithmetic is **NOT** exact
- ▶ Example 1: Does this code exit?

```
1 #include <stdio.h>
2 int main() {
3     float x = 16000000.0;
4     while(x < 17000000.0) {
5         x = x + 1.0;
6         printf("%f\n", x);
7     }
8 }
```

Listing 6: floatLoop.c



# Floating Point Problems

- ▶ Example 2:  $\tan\left(\frac{\pi}{2}\right)$  is undefined
- ▶ But using floating point  $\pi$  can't be represented exactly, so C produces a result anyway

```
1 #include <stdio.h>
2 #include <math.h>
3 int main() {
4     double pi = 3.141592653589793238;
5     printf("%f\n", tan(pi/2.0));
6     printf("%f\n", ftanf((float)pi/2.0));
7 }
```

Listing 7: taninf.c

# Literals

- ▶ A *literal* is any number written in the code
- ▶ Why not “constant”?
  - ▶ That word means something different
- ▶ Examples:
  - ▶ `x = 5; // 5 is a literal int`
  - ▶ `y = 2.0 / z; // 2.0 is a literal double`
- ▶ By default:
  - ▶ An integer literal is stored as an `int` data type
    - ▶ ie: has the value range and arithmetic limits of `int`
  - ▶ A floating point literal is stored as `double`

# Literals

- ▶ Integer literals can be in:
  - ▶ Decimal: 123
  - ▶ Hexadecimal: 0xA34 // Zero-x
  - ▶ Octal: 0125 // Capital letter O
  - ▶ (Hex and octal are covered in ELEC1710)
- ▶ Integer literals can be specified as *unsigned* with the `u` suffix:
  - ▶ 938u
- ▶ They can also be declared `long` with the `l` suffix:
  - ▶ 3726484l
  - ▶ The compiler will issue a warning if a literal is too big for `int`

# Literals

- ▶ Floating point literals can be written in many ways:
  - ▶ `1.0f` // `f` suffix forces float
  - ▶ `(float)2.3` // Forces float
  - ▶ `1.0` // Default to double
  - ▶ `1e2` // Double, 1 times  $10^2$
- ▶ `1e2` is known as “e-notation”
  - ▶  $XeY = X \times 10^Y$
  - ▶ I will use it *all the time*
- ▶ Forcing literals to `float` is frequently necessary in embedded systems which lack double precision hardware

# Mixing Data Types

- ▶ C supports arithmetic between different types
- ▶ Changing a data type is called *casting*
- ▶ When types are mixed two things can happen:
  - ▶ Types get upgraded automatically (*implicit* type casting)
    - ▶ Upgrade path is roughly: short/char - int - long - long long - float - double
  - ▶ Types get specified manually by the programmer (*explicit* type casting)

# Explicit Type Casting

- ▶ The data type of a variable (or literal) can be forced to change using *type casting*
- ▶ Write the desired type in parentheses before the variable or constant
- ▶ Examples:
  - ▶ `x = (float)y / k;`
  - ▶ `y = (unsigned int)y + 32;`

# Format Specifiers

- ▶ A *format specifier* controls how `printf()`; converts numerical (or textual) data to a series of ASCII characters
- ▶ Full details are complex, for now just use:
  - ▶ `%d` for integer types
  - ▶ `%f` for “fixed decimal place” floating point
  - ▶ `%e` for e-notation floating point
  - ▶ Cast inside `printf()` to suppress compiler warnings

# Format Specifiers

## ► Casting example:

```
1 long i;  
2 // ...  
3 printf("%d\n", (int)i); //Breaks when i>2^31
```

## ► %.df produces d decimal places of precision

### ► eg:

```
1 float x = 1.23456;  
2 printf("%.2f", x); // Prints 1.23
```



# Integer Division Example

With *all that* out of the way, what is the output of each `printf()` statement?

```
1 #include <stdio.h>
2 int main() {
3     printf("%d\n", 9/10);
4     printf("%f\n", 9/10);
5     printf("%f\n", 9.0/10);
6     printf("%f\n", 9/10.0);
7     printf("%f\n", (float) 9/10);
8     return 0;
9 }
```

Listing 8: `intdiv.c`

# Random Numbers

- ▶ In C there is a *standard library function* which generates random numbers
- ▶ We will study functions in more detail later
- ▶ To use a library function:
  - ▶ Read the function's documentation
  - ▶ `#include` the correct *header file*
  - ▶ Take note of the *return value* data type
  - ▶ Add any *compiler flags* (beyond ENGG1003)
  - ▶ Use the function in your code
- ▶ Demonstration: read the `rand()` man page
  - ▶ Click [here](#)

# Random Numbers

- ▶ Observe that `rand()` ; requires

```
1 #include <stdlib.h>
```

- ▶ Observe that it returns an `int` between 0 and `RAND_MAX` which, in `gcc`, is  $2^{31} - 1$
- ▶ Note that it has limits (advanced discussion, beyond ENGG1003)
- ▶ For us, using the `%` operator:

```
1 x = rand() % (RANGE+1);
```

produces a *good enough* random number  
between zero and `RANGE`

# Random Numbers

- ▶ Using the above information, we can roll a standard die with:

```
1 int dieRoll;  
2 dieRoll = rand() % 7;
```

- ▶ Or, if you're a D&D fan, roll a D20 with:

```
1 int D20Roll;  
2 D20Roll = rand() % 21;
```

# Random Numbers

- ▶ `RAND_MAX` is a *constant* defined in `stdlib.h`
- ▶ We can try to generate a floating point number from 0 to 1 with a division:

```
1 float num;  
2 num = rand()/RAND_MAX; // This is broken
```

- ▶ Problem: `rand()` is an integer, `RAND_MAX` is a (large) integer
  - ▶ The integer division result will always be zero!
- ▶ Solution: use an explicit cast so that a floating point division occurs:

```
1 double num;  
2 num = (double) rand()/RAND_MAX;
```

Probably out of time by now, lets implement a  $\pi$  calculator in the lab... *In theory* you have enough information by now.