# ENGG1003 - Tuesday Week 4

Loose Ends Functions

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March 15, 2019



### Subscript Notation

Last chance to learn that we use:

$$x_1, x_2, x_3, ..., x_n$$
 (1)

and

$$x_n = x_{n-1} + x_{n-2} (2)$$

notation because it is the simplest method that gets the point across.



### Subscript Notation

- $ightharpoonup x_n$  means that x is "some number" and n is an integer value
- ightharpoonup n implies *uniqueness* (ie:  $x_1$  and  $x_2$  can differ)
- n implies an order to the x's
- A formal mathematical statement of the above would be something like:

$$x_n: x \in \mathbb{R} \text{ and } n \in \mathbb{Z}$$
 (3)

- $ightharpoonup \mathbb{R}$  is the set of real numbers
- $ightharpoonup \mathbb{Z}$  is the set of all integers



### Subscript Notation

Without this notation it is *really* hard to write things like:

$$x_n = x_{n-1} + x_{n-2} (4)$$

► If you instead wrote: "Calculate a sequence of numbers, a, b, c, d, ..." how would you write the equation?

# FOR Loops in C

► The C FOR loop syntax is:

```
for( initial ; condition ; increment ) {
   // Loop block
}
```

#### ► Where:

- initial is a statement executed once
- condition is a statement executed and tested before every loop iteration
- increment is a statement executed after every loop iteration, but before the condition is tested

# FOR Loops in C

```
for( x = 0 ; x < 10 ; x++ ) {
  printf("%d\n", x);
}</pre>
```

- Run this code
- Observe that:
  - 0 is printed
  - ▶ 10 is **not** printed
  - x increments automatically

# FOR Example 1 - Factorials

- Use FOR to count from 2 to our input number
- Keep a running product as we go

```
BEGIN
   INPUT x
   result = 1
   FOR k = 2 TO x
     result = result * k
   ENDFOR
END
```

Is this algorithm robust? What happens if:

```
x = -1
x = 1
```

 $\rightarrow$  x = 0 (**NB**: 0! = 1 because *maths*)



### **BREAK Statements**

- Sometimes you want to exit a loop before the condition is re-tested
- The flow-control mechanism for this is a BREAK statement
- If executed, the loop quits
- BREAKs typically go inside an IF
- It adds an extra condition on loop exit placed at any point in the loop



## FOR Example 2

► Two equivalent ways to implement the cos() series from before are:

**NB:** |tmp| means "absolute value of tmp".

```
BEGIN

INPUT x

sum = 0

FOR k = 0 to 10

tmp = \frac{(-1)^k x^{2k}}{(2k)!}
sum = sum + tmp

IF |tmp| < 1e-6

BREAK

ENDIF

ENDWHILE
```

```
BEGIN
INPUT x
tmp = 1
k = 0
sum = 0
WHILE (k<10) AND(|tmp|>1e-6)
tmp = \frac{(-1)^k x^{2k}}{(2k)!}
sum = sum + tmp
k = k + 1
ENDWHILE
```

#### break Statements

- ► The example is mildly pointless
  - ▶ In C, the |tmp| < 1e 6 condition can go in the for () statement. In pseudocode it *sort of* can't.
- It is there to illustrate what break does, not explain how to use it
- As the "experienced engineer' that's up to you

# FOR Loops in C (Advanced)

- for() syntax allows multiple expressions in the inital / condition /increment sections
- Separate expressions with commas
- eg:

```
int x, y=10;
for( x = 0 ; x < 10 ; x++, y++ ) {
  printf("x: %d y: %d\n", x, y);
}</pre>
```

► This increments both x and y but only x is used in the condition



### Loop continue Statements

- A continue causes execution to jump back to the loop start
- The condition is tested before reentry
- eg, run this in the Che debugger:

```
1 int x;
2 for(x = 0; x < 10; x++) {
3   if(x%2 == 0)
4      continue;
5   printf("%d is odd\n");
6 }</pre>
```

► (Not the best example but gets the point across)



### break and continue

- Some programmers claim that break and continue are "naughty"
- ► Well, yes, but actually no
- They can make your code needlessly complicated
- They might make it simpler
- It is up to you to judge
- As engineers you shouldn't follow strict rules
- Always try to choose the best tool for the job



### **GOTO**

- There exists a GOTO flow control mechanism
  - Sometimes also called a branch
- It "jumps" from one line to a different line
  - An ability some consider to be unnatural
- It exists for a purpose
- That purpose does not (typically) exist when writing C code
  - C supports a goto statement
  - It results in "spaghetti code" which is hard to read
  - Don't use it in ENGG1003
- ▶ You *must* use branch instructions in ELEC1710



### Loose End: Increment Example

```
#include <stdio.h>
int main() {
  int x = 0;
  int y = 0;
  int z = 0;
  y = ++x + 10;
  printf("Pre-increment: %d\n", y);
  y = z++ + 10;
  printf("Post-increment: %d\n", y);
  return 0;
}
```

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

### Binary Nomenclature

- ► A data type's 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.



### Binary Nomenclature

- Observe that kilobyte, Megabyte, Gigabyte, etc use scientific prefixes
- ▶ These *normally* mean a power of 10:
  - ightharpoonup 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



### Binary Nomenclature

- This has made some people illogically angry
- Instead, we can use a more modern standard:
  - $ightharpoonup 2^{10}$  bytes = 1 kibiByte (KiB)
  - $ightharpoonup 2^{20}$  bytes = 1 Mebibyte (MiB)
  - $\triangleright$  2<sup>30</sup> 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



# 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
  - ▶ int.16 t
  - ...etc



#### Code Blocks in C

- Semi-revision:
- ▶ The curly braces { } encompass a block
- You have used these with if () and while ()
- ► They define the set of lines executed inside the if() or while()

### Code Blocks in C

- You can place blocks anywhere you like
- Nothing wrong with:

```
int main() {
  int x;
  {
    printf("%d\n", x);
  }
  return 0;
  }
}
```

- ► This just places the printf(); inside a block
- ▶ It doesn't do anything useful, but...

### Variable Scope

- A variable's "existence" is limited to the block where it is declared
  - ▶ Plus any blocks within that one
- Example this code won't compile:

```
#include <stdio.h>
int main() {
  int x = 2;
  if(x == 2) {
    int k;
    k = 2*x;
  }
  printf("%d\n", k);
  return 0;
}
```

## Variable Scope

- Note that k was declared inside the if()
- ► That means that it no longer exists when the if() has finished
- This generates a compiler error
- It frees up some RAM
- It also lets the variable's name be reused elsewhere
  - This can be really confusing. Be careful.



- ► A *function* is a block of code which can be *called* multiple times, from multiple places
- They are used when you want the same block of lines to execute in many places throughout your code
- A function requires:
  - A name
  - (optional) A return value
  - ▶ (optional) One or more arguments



#### Functions in Mathematics

In mathematics you saw functions written as:

$$y = f(x)$$

- ► Here, the function is called f, takes an argument of x and returns a value which is given to y
- C and pure mathematics have these general ideas in common

## Function Examples

- So far, some of you have used library functions
- ► These are functions which are pre-existing within the compiler (and its libraries)
- ► I have shown you:
  - scanf();
  - printf();
  - rand();

## Function Syntax

- Writing rand(); in you code is calling the function
- ► The program execution "jumps" into the function's code, executes it, then jumps back
- General function call syntax is:

```
return value = name(argument1, argument2,...);
```

- Not all functions take arguments
- You may ignore the return value



### Function Examples

#### Example 1:

```
x = rand();
```

- rand is the function name
- It returns a "random" number
- The return value is allocated to x
- It doesn't take an argument

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#### Example 2:

```
y = sqrtf(x);
```

- sqrtf is the function name
- x is the argument
- It returns the square root of x
- ► The return value is allocated to y



 Function arguments and return values have pre-defined data types

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- Example: int rand(void);
  - ► The return value is an int
  - ► The argument is "type" void
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    - ► This just means there aren't any
- Example: float sqrtf(float x);
  - The return value is a float
  - The argument is a float
    - It is called x in documentation but that is irrelevant



### Using Functions

- (semi-revision)
- Before you use a function you must:
  - Read the documentation
  - #include the correct header file
  - Add the correct library to the compiler options
    - In Che I've done this for the maths library
    - stdio and stdlib are always there
  - Be aware of the return value and argument data types
    - Do you need any type casting?
    - Are you using the correct function?



#### Maths Functions

- ➤ Since some of you have already used them, lets learn about the maths library...
- It includes functions for:
  - Trigonometry
  - Exponentials (base e) & logarithms (base e and 10)
  - Exponents
  - Rounding (floor(); & ceil();)
  - Floating point modulus (fmod();
  - Square roots
  - Maybe others?



#### Maths Functions

- There are typically different functions for float and double
- This can have a huge speed impact
- Get in the habit of using the right ones!
- float maths functions typically end in 'f'

```
cosf();
```

- sqrtf();
- atanf();
- ...etc
- double maths functions don't end in 'f'
  - cos();
  - ▶ log();

