Chapter 14: The Preprocessor

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The Preprocessor

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Introduction

- Directives such as #define and #include are handled by the *preprocessor*, a piece of software that edits C programs just prior to compilation.
- Its reliance on a preprocessor makes C (along with C++) unique among major programming languages.
- The preprocessor is a powerful tool, but it also can be a source of hard-to-find bugs.

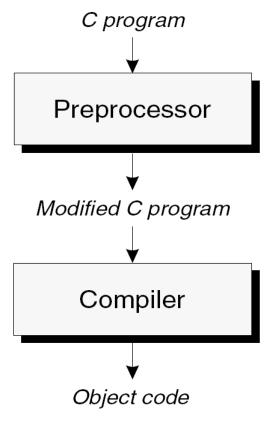
- The preprocessor looks for *preprocessing directives*, which begin with a # character.
- We've encountered the #define and #include directives before.
- #define defines a *macro*—a name that represents something else, such as a constant.
- The preprocessor responds to a #define directive by storing the name of the macro along with its definition.
- When the macro is used later, the preprocessor "expands" the macro, replacing it by its defined value.

- #include tells the preprocessor to open a particular file and "include" its contents as part of the file being compiled.
- For example, the line

```
#include <stdio.h>
```

instructs the preprocessor to open the file named stdio. h and bring its contents into the program.

• The preprocessor's role in the compilation process:



- The input to the preprocessor is a C program, possibly containing directives.
- The preprocessor executes these directives, removing them in the process.
- The preprocessor's output goes directly into the compiler.

• The celsius.c program of Chapter 2:

```
/* Converts a Fahrenheit temperature to Celsius */
#include <stdio.h>
#define FREEZING PT 32.0f
#define SCALE_FACTOR (5.0f / 9.0f)
int main(void)
 float fahrenheit, celsius;
 printf("Enter Fahrenheit temperature: ");
  scanf("%f", &fahrenheit);
 celsius = (fahrenheit - FREEZING_PT) * SCALE_FACTOR;
 printf("Celsius equivalent is: %.1f\n", celsius);
 return 0;
```



• The program after preprocessing:

```
Blank line
Blank line
Lines brought in from stdio.h
Blank line
Blank line
Blank line
Blank line
int main(void)
  float fahrenheit, celsius;
  printf("Enter Fahrenheit temperature: ");
  scanf("%f", &fahrenheit);
  celsius = (fahrenheit - 32.0f) * (5.0f / 9.0f);
  printf("Celsius equivalent is: %.1f\n", celsius);
  return 0;
```

PROGRAMMING

- The preprocessor does a bit more than just execute directives.
- In particular, it replaces each comment with a single space character.
- Some preprocessors go further and remove unnecessary white-space characters, including spaces and tabs at the beginning of indented lines.

- In the early days of C, the preprocessor was a separate program.
- Nowadays, the preprocessor is often part of the compiler, and some of its output may not necessarily be C code.
- Still, it's useful to think of the preprocessor as separate from the compiler.

- Most C compilers provide a way to view the output of the preprocessor.
- Some compilers generate preprocessor output when a certain option is specified (GCC will do so when the -E option is used).
- Others come with a separate program that behaves like the integrated preprocessor.

- A word of caution: The preprocessor has only a limited knowledge of C.
- As a result, it's quite capable of creating illegal programs as it executes directives.
- In complicated programs, examining the output of the preprocessor may prove useful for locating this kind of error.

- Most preprocessing directives fall into one of three categories:
 - Macro definition. The #define directive defines a macro; the #undef directive removes a macro definition.
 - *File inclusion*. The #include directive causes the contents of a specified file to be included in a program.
 - Conditional compilation. The #if, #ifdef,
 #ifndef, #elif, #else, and #endif directives
 allow blocks of text to be either included in or excluded from a program.

- Several rules apply to all directives.
- Directives always begin with the # symbol.

 The # symbol need not be at the beginning of a line, as long as only white space precedes it.
- Any number of spaces and horizontal tab characters may separate the tokens in a directive. Example:

```
# define N 100
```



• Directives always end at the first new-line character, unless explicitly continued.

To continue a directive to the next line, end the current line with a \ character:

- Directives can appear anywhere in a program.

 Although #define and #include directives usually appear at the beginning of a file, other directives are more likely to show up later.
- Comments may appear on the same line as a directive.

It's good practice to put a comment at the end of a macro definition:

#define FREEZING_PT 32.0f /* freezing point of water */



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Macro Definitions

- The macros that we've been using since Chapter 2 are known as *simple* macros, because they have no parameters.
- The preprocessor also supports *parameterized* macros.

• Definition of a *simple macro* (or *object-like macro*):

#define identifier replacement-list replacement-list is any sequence of preprocessing tokens.

- The replacement list may include identifiers, keywords, numeric constants, character constants, string literals, operators, and punctuation.
- Wherever *identifier* appears later in the file, the preprocessor substitutes *replacement-list*.

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Simple Macros

- Any extra symbols in a macro definition will become part of the replacement list.
- Putting the = symbol in a macro definition is a common error:

```
#define N = 100  /*** WRONG ***/
...
int a[N];  /* becomes int a[= 100]; */
```

• Ending a macro definition with a semicolon is another popular mistake:

```
#define N 100;  /*** WRONG ***/
...
int a[N];  /* becomes int a[100;]; */
```

- The compiler will detect most errors caused by extra symbols in a macro definition.
- Unfortunately, the compiler will flag each use of the macro as incorrect, rather than identifying the actual culprit: the macro's definition.

• Simple macros are primarily used for defining "manifest constants"—names that represent numeric, character, and string values:

```
#define STR_LEN 80
#define TRUE 1
#define FALSE 0
#define PI 3.14159
#define CR '\r'
#define EOS '\0'
#define MEM_ERR "Error: not enough memory"
```

- Advantages of using #define to create names for constants:
 - It makes programs easier to read. The name of the macro can help the reader understand the meaning of the constant.
 - It makes programs easier to modify. We can change the value of a constant throughout a program by modifying a single macro definition.
 - It helps avoid inconsistencies and typographical errors. If a numerical constant like 3.14159 appears many times in a program, chances are it will occasionally be written 3.1416 or 3.14195 by accident.

- Simple macros have additional uses.
- Making minor changes to the syntax of C Macros can serve as alternate names for C symbols:

```
#define BEGIN {
#define END }
#define LOOP for (;;)
```

Changing the syntax of C usually isn't a good idea, since it can make programs harder for others to understand.

Renaming types

An example from Chapter 5:

#define BOOL int

Type definitions are a better alternative.

• Controlling conditional compilation

Macros play an important role in controlling conditional compilation.

A macro that might indicate "debugging mode":

#define DEBUG



- When macros are used as constants, C programmers customarily capitalize all letters in their names.
- However, there's no consensus as to how to capitalize macros used for other purposes.
 - Some programmers like to draw attention to macros by using all upper-case letters in their names.
 - Others prefer lower-case names, following the style of K&R.

• Definition of a *parameterized macro* (also known as a *function-like macro*):

```
#define identifier (x_1, x_2, ..., x_n) replacement-list x_1, x_2, ..., x_n are identifiers (the macro's parameters).
```

- The parameters may appear as many times as desired in the replacement list.
- There must be *no space* between the macro name and the left parenthesis.
- If space is left, the preprocessor will treat $(x_1, x_2, ..., x_n)$ as part of the replacement list.

- When the preprocessor encounters the definition of a parameterized macro, it stores the definition away for later use.
- Wherever a macro *invocation* of the form *identifier* $(y_1, y_2, ..., y_n)$ appears later in the program, the preprocessor replaces it with *replacement-list*, substituting y_1 for x_1 , y_2 for x_2 , and so forth.
- Parameterized macros often serve as simple functions.

• Examples of parameterized macros:

```
#define MAX(x,y) ((x)>(y)?(x):(y))
#define IS_EVEN(n) ((n)%2==0)
```

• Invocations of these macros:

```
i = MAX(j+k, m-n);
if (IS_EVEN(i)) i++;
```

• The same lines after macro replacement:

```
i = ((j+k)>(m-n)?(j+k):(m-n));
if (((i)%2==0)) i++;
```

• A more complicated function-like macro:

```
#define TOUPPER(c) \
('a'<=(c)&&(c)<='z'?(c)-'a'+'A':(c))
```

- The <ctype.h> header provides a similar function named toupper that's more portable.
- A parameterized macro may have an empty parameter list:

```
#define getchar() getc(stdin)
```

• The empty parameter list isn't really needed, but it makes getchar resemble a function.

- Using a parameterized macro instead of a true function has a couple of advantages:
 - The program may be slightly faster. A function call usually requires some overhead during program execution, but a macro invocation does not.
 - Macros are "generic." A macro can accept arguments of any type, provided that the resulting program is valid.

- Parameterized macros also have disadvantages.
- The compiled code will often be larger.

Each macro invocation increases the size of the source program (and hence the compiled code).

The problem is compounded when macro invocations are nested:

```
n = MAX(i, MAX(j, k));
```

The statement after preprocessing:

```
n = ((i)>(((j)>(k)?(j):(k)))?(i):(((j)>(k)?(j):(k)));
```



• Arguments aren't type-checked.

When a function is called, the compiler checks each argument to see if it has the appropriate type.

Macro arguments aren't checked by the preprocessor, nor are they converted.

• It's not possible to have a pointer to a macro.

C allows pointers to functions, a useful concept.

Macros are removed during preprocessing, so there's no corresponding notion of "pointer to a macro."



• A macro may evaluate its arguments more than once.

Unexpected behavior may occur if an argument has side effects:

```
n = MAX(i++, j);
```

The same line after preprocessing:

```
n = ((i++)>(j)?(i++):(j));
```

If i is larger than j, then i will be (incorrectly) incremented twice and n will be assigned an unexpected value.

- Errors caused by evaluating a macro argument more than once can be difficult to find, because a macro invocation looks the same as a function call.
- To make matters worse, a macro may work properly most of the time, failing only for certain arguments that have side effects.
- For self-protection, it's a good idea to avoid side effects in arguments.



- Parameterized macros can be used as patterns for segments of code that are often repeated.
- A macro that makes it easier to display integers:

```
#define PRINT_INT(n) printf("%d\n", n)
```

• The preprocessor will turn the line

```
PRINT_INT(i/j);
into
printf("%d\n", i/j);
```

The # Operator

- Macro definitions may contain two special operators, # and ##.
- Neither operator is recognized by the compiler; instead, they're executed during preprocessing.
- The # operator converts a macro argument into a string literal; it can appear only in the replacement list of a parameterized macro.
- The operation performed by # is known as "stringization."

The # Operator

- There are a number of uses for #; let's consider just one.
- Suppose that we decide to use the PRINT_INT macro during debugging as a convenient way to print the values of integer variables and expressions.
- The # operator makes it possible for PRINT_INT to label each value that it prints.

The # Operator

• Our new version of PRINT_INT:

```
#define PRINT_INT(n) printf(#n " = %d\n", n)
```

• The invocation

```
PRINT_INT(i/j);
will become
printf("i/j" " = %d\n", i/j);
```

• The compiler automatically joins adjacent string literals, so this statement is equivalent to

```
printf("i/j = %d\n", i/j);
```

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The ## Operator

- The ## operator can "paste" two tokens together to form a single token.
- If one of the operands is a macro parameter, pasting occurs after the parameter has been replaced by the corresponding argument.

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The ## Operator

• A macro that uses the ## operator:

```
#define MK_ID(n) i##n
```

A declaration that invokes MK_ID three times:

```
int MK_ID(1), MK_ID(2), MK_ID(3);
```

• The declaration after preprocessing:

```
int i1, i2, i3;
```

The ## Operator

- The ## operator has a variety of uses.
- Consider the problem of defining a max function that behaves like the MAX macro described earlier.
- A single max function usually isn't enough, because it will only work for arguments of one type.
- Instead, we can write a macro that expands into the definition of a max function.
- The macro's parameter will specify the type of the arguments and the return value.

The ## Operator

- There's just one snag: if we use the macro to create more than one function named max, the program won't compile.
- To solve this problem, we'll use the ## operator to create a different name for each version of max:

```
#define GENERIC_MAX(type)

type type##_max(type x, type y) \
{
  return x > y ? x : y;
}
```

• An invocation of this macro:

```
GENERIC_MAX(float)
```

• The resulting function definition:

```
float float_max(float x, float y) { return x > y ? x : y; }
```



- Several rules apply to both simple and parameterized macros.
- A macro's replacement list may contain invocations of other macros.

Example:

```
#define PI 3.14159
#define TWO_PI (2*PI)
```

When it encounters TWO_PI later in the program, the preprocessor replaces it by (2*PI).

The preprocessor then *rescans* the replacement list to see if it contains invocations of other macros.



• The preprocessor replaces only entire tokens.

Macro names embedded in identifiers, character constants, and string literals are ignored.

Example:

```
#define SIZE 256
int BUFFER_SIZE;
if (BUFFER_SIZE > SIZE)
  puts("Error: SIZE exceeded");
```

Appearance after preprocessing:

```
int BUFFER_SIZE;
if (BUFFER_SIZE > 256)
  puts("Error: SIZE exceeded");
```



• A macro definition normally remains in effect until the end of the file in which it appears.

Macros don't obey normal scope rules.

A macro defined inside the body of a function isn't local to that function; it remains defined until the end of the file.

• A macro may not be defined twice unless the new definition is identical to the old one.

Differences in spacing are allowed, but the tokens in the macro's replacement list (and the parameters, if any) must be the same.



• Macros may be "undefined" by the #undef directive.

The #undef directive has the form

#undef identifier

where identifier is a macro name.

One use of #undef is to remove the existing definition of a macro so that it can be given a new definition.

Parentheses in Macro Definitions

- The replacement lists in macro definitions often require parentheses in order to avoid unexpected results.
- If the macro's replacement list contains an operator, always enclose the replacement list in parentheses:

```
#define TWO_PI (2*3.14159)
```

• Also, put parentheses around each parameter every time it appears in the replacement list:

```
\#define\ SCALE(x)\ ((x)*10)
```

• Without the parentheses, we can't guarantee that the compiler will treat replacement lists and arguments as whole expressions.



Parentheses in Macro Definitions

• An example that illustrates the need to put parentheses around a macro's replacement list:

```
#define TWO_PI 2*3.14159
/* needs parentheses around replacement list */
```

• During preprocessing, the statement

```
conversion_factor = 360/TWO_PI;
```

becomes

```
conversion_factor = 360/2*3.14159;
```

The division will be performed before the multiplication.

Parentheses in Macro Definitions

• Each occurrence of a parameter in a macro's replacement list needs parentheses as well:

```
#define SCALE(x) (x*10)
  /* needs parentheses around x */
```

• During preprocessing, the statement

```
j = SCALE(i+1);
becomes
j = (i+1*10);
This statement is equivalent to
j = i+10;
```



- The comma operator can be useful for creating more sophisticated macros by allowing us to make the replacement list a series of expressions.
- A macro that reads a string and then prints it:

 #define ECHO(s) (gets(s), puts(s))
- Calls of gets and puts are expressions, so it's perfectly legal to combine them using the comma operator.
- We can invoke ECHO as though it were a function:

```
ECHO(str); /* becomes (gets(str), puts(str)); */
```

• An alternative definition of ECHO that uses braces:

```
#define ECHO(s) { gets(s); puts(s); }
```

• Suppose that we use ECHO in an if statement:

```
if (echo_flag)
   ECHO(str);
else
   gets(str);
```

Replacing ECHO gives the following result:

```
if (echo_flag)
    { gets(str); puts(str); };
else
    gets(str);
```



• The compiler treats the first two lines as a complete if statement:

```
if (echo_flag)
{ gets(str); puts(str); }
```

- It treats the semicolon that follows as a null statement and produces an error message for the else clause, since it doesn't belong to any if.
- We could solve the problem by remembering not to put a semicolon after each invocation of ECHO, but then the program would look odd.

- The comma operator solves this problem for ECHO, but not for all macros.
- If a macro needs to contain a series of *statements*, not just a series of *expressions*, the comma operator is of no help.
- The solution is to wrap the statements in a do loop whose condition is false:

```
do \{ \dots \} while (0)
```

• Notice that the do statement needs a semicolon at the end.

A modified version of the ECHO macro:

```
#define ECHO(s) \
    do {
       gets(s); \
       puts(s); \
       while (0)
```

• When ECHO is used, it must be followed by a semicolon, which completes the do statement:

```
ECHO(str);
/* becomes
do { gets(str); puts(str); } while (0); */
```

Predefined Macros

- C has several predefined macros, each of which represents an integer constant or string literal.
- The __DATE__ and __TIME__ macros identify when a program was compiled.
- Example of using ___DATE__ and __TIME__:

 printf("Wacky Windows (c) 2010 Wacky Software, Inc.\n");

 printf("Compiled on %s at %s\n", __DATE__, __TIME__);
- Output produced by these statements:

```
Wacky Windows (c) 2010 Wacky Software, Inc. Compiled on Dec 23 2010 at 22:18:48
```

• This information can be helpful for distinguishing among different versions of the same program.

Predefined Macros

- We can use the __LINE__ and __FILE__ macros to help locate errors.
- A macro that can help pinpoint the location of a division by zero:

• The CHECK_ZERO macro would be invoked prior to a division:

```
CHECK_ZERO(j);
k = i / j;
```



Predefined Macros

• If j happens to be zero, a message of the following form will be printed:

```
*** Attempt to divide by zero on line 9 of file foo.c ***
```

- Error-detecting macros like this one are quite useful.
- In fact, the C library has a general-purpose errordetecting macro named assert.
- The remaining predefined macro is named ___STDC___.
- This macro exists and has the value 1 if the compiler conforms to the C standard (either C89 or C99).

Additional Predefined Macros in C99

- C99 provides a few additional predefined macros.
- The __STDC__HOSTED__ macro represents the constant 1 if the compiler is a hosted implementation. Otherwise, the macro has the value 0.
- An *implementation* of C consists of the compiler plus other software necessary to execute C programs.
- A *hosted implementation* must accept any program that conforms to the C99 standard.
- A *freestanding implementation* doesn't have to compile programs that use complex types or standard headers beyond a few of the most basic.

Additional Predefined Macros in C99

- The __STDC__VERSION__ macro provides a way to check which version of the C standard is recognized by the compiler.
 - If a compiler conforms to the C89 standard, including Amendment 1, the value is 199409L.
 - If a compiler conforms to the C99 standard, the value is 199901L.

Additional Predefined Macros in C99

• A C99 compiler will define up to three additional macros, but only if the compiler meets certain requirements:

__STDC_IEC_559__ is defined (and has the value 1) if the compiler performs floating-point arithmetic according to IEC 60559.

___STDC_IEC_559_COMPLEX___ is defined (and has the value 1) if the compiler performs complex arithmetic according to IEC 60559.

___STDC_ISO_10646___ is defined as yyyymmL if wide characters are represented by the codes in ISO/IEC 10646 (with revisions as of the specified year and month).



- C99 allows any or all of the arguments in a macro call to be empty.
- Such a call will contain the same number of commas as a normal call.
- Wherever the corresponding parameter name appears in the replacement list, it's replaced by nothing.

• Example:

```
\#define ADD(x,y) (x+y)
```

• After preprocessing, the statement

```
i = ADD(j,k);
```

becomes

$$i = (j+k);$$

whereas the statement

```
i = ADD(,k);
```

becomes

$$i = (+k);$$



- When an empty argument is an operand of the # or ## operators, special rules apply.
- If an empty argument is "stringized" by the # operator, the result is "" (the empty string):

```
#define MK_STR(x) #x
...
char empty_string[] = MK_STR();
```

• The declaration after preprocessing:

```
char empty_string[] = "";
```

- If one of the arguments of the ## operator is empty, it's replaced by an invisible "placemarker" token.
- Concatenating an ordinary token with a placemarker token yields the original token (the placemarker disappears).
- If two placemarker tokens are concatenated, the result is a single placemarker.
- Once macro expansion has been completed, placemarker tokens disappear from the program.

• Example:

```
#define JOIN(x,y,z) x##y##z
...
int JOIN(a,b,c), JOIN(a,b,), JOIN(a,,c), JOIN(,,c);
```

• The declaration after preprocessing:

```
int abc, ab, ac, c;
```

- The missing arguments were replaced by placemarker tokens, which then disappeared when concatenated with any nonempty arguments.
- All three arguments to the JOIN macro could even be missing, which would yield an empty result.

Macros with a Variable Number of Arguments (C99)

- C99 allows macros that take an unlimited number of arguments.
- A macro of this kind can pass its arguments to a function that accepts a variable number of arguments.
- Example:

```
#define TEST(condition, ...) ((condition)? \
   printf("Passed test: %s\n", #condition): \
   printf(__VA_ARGS___))
```

- The . . . token (*ellipsis*) goes at the end of the parameter list, preceded by ordinary parameters, if any.
- ___VA_ARGS___ is a special identifier that represents all the arguments that correspond to the ellipsis.

Macros with a Variable Number of Arguments (C99)

• An example that uses the TEST macro:

```
TEST(voltage <= max_voltage,
     "Voltage %d exceeds %d\n", voltage, max_voltage);</pre>
```

Preprocessor output (reformatted for readability):

```
((voltage <= max_voltage)?
  printf("Passed test: %s\n", "voltage <= max_voltage"):
  printf("Voltage %d exceeds %d\n", voltage, max_voltage));</pre>
```

• The program will display the message

```
Passed test: voltage <= max_voltage
if voltage is no more than max_voltage.</pre>
```

• Otherwise, it will display the values of voltage and

```
max_voltage:
```

```
Voltage 125 exceeds 120
```



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The ___func__ Identifier (C99)

- The __func__ identifier behaves like a string variable that stores the name of the currently executing function.
- The effect is the same as if each function contains the following declaration at the beginning of its body:

```
static const char __func__[] = "function-name";
where function-name is the name of the function.
```

The ___func__ Identifier (C99)

• Debugging macros that rely on the ___func___ identifier:

```
#define FUNCTION_CALLED() printf("%s called\n", __func__);
#define FUNCTION_RETURNS() printf("%s returns\n", __func__);
```

• These macros can used to trace function calls:

```
void f(void)
{
   FUNCTION_CALLED();    /* displays "f called" */
   ...
   FUNCTION_RETURNS();    /* displays "f returns" */
}
```

• Another use of ___func___: it can be passed to a function to let it know the name of the function that called it.

Conditional Compilation

- The C preprocessor recognizes a number of directives that support *conditional compilation*.
- This feature permits the inclusion or exclusion of a section of program text depending on the outcome of a test performed by the preprocessor.

The #if and #endif Directives

- Suppose we're in the process of debugging a program.
- We'd like the program to print the values of certain variables, so we put calls of printf in critical parts of the program.
- Once we've located the bugs, it's often a good idea to let the printf calls remain, just in case we need them later.
- Conditional compilation allows us to leave the calls in place, but have the compiler ignore them.



The #if and #endif Directives

• The first step is to define a macro and give it a nonzero value:

```
#define DEBUG 1
```

• Next, we'll surround each group of printf calls by an #if-#endif pair:

```
#if DEBUG
printf("Value of i: %d\n", i);
printf("Value of j: %d\n", j);
#endif
```

The #if and #endif Directives

- During preprocessing, the #if directive will test the value of DEBUG.
- Since its value isn't zero, the preprocessor will leave the two calls of printf in the program.
- If we change the value of DEBUG to zero and recompile the program, the preprocessor will remove all four lines from the program.
- The #if-#endif blocks can be left in the final program, allowing diagnostic information to be produced later if any problems turn up.

The #if and #endif Directives

General form of the #if and #endif directives:

```
#if constant-expression
#endif
```

- When the preprocessor encounters the #if directive, it evaluates the constant expression.
- If the value of the expression is zero, the lines between #if and #endif will be removed from the program during preprocessing.
- Otherwise, the lines between #if and #endif will remain.

The #if and #endif Directives

- The #if directive treats undefined identifiers as macros that have the value 0.
- If we neglect to define DEBUG, the test

```
#if DEBUG
```

will fail (but not generate an error message).

• The test

```
#if !DEBUG
```

will succeed.

The defined Operator

- The preprocessor supports three operators: #, ##, and defined.
- When applied to an identifier, defined produces the value 1 if the identifier is a currently defined macro; it produces 0 otherwise.
- The defined operator is normally used in conjunction with the #if directive.

The defined Operator

• Example:

```
#if defined(DEBUG)
...
#endif
```

- The lines between #if and #endif will be included only if DEBUG is defined as a macro.
- The parentheses around DEBUG aren't required:

```
#if defined DEBUG
```

• It's not necessary to give DEBUG a value:

```
#define DEBUG
```

The #ifdef and #ifndef Directives

• The #ifdef directive tests whether an identifier is currently defined as a macro:

```
#ifdef identifier
```

• The effect is the same as

```
#if defined(identifier)
```

• The #ifndef directive tests whether an identifier is *not* currently defined as a macro:

```
#ifndef identifier
```

• The effect is the same as

```
#if !defined(identifier)
```

The #elif and #else Directives

- #if, #ifdef, and #ifndef blocks can be nested just like ordinary if statements.
- When nesting occurs, it's a good idea to use an increasing amount of indentation as the level of nesting grows.
- Some programmers put a comment on each closing #endif to indicate what condition the matching #if tests:

```
#if DEBUG
...
#endif /* DEBUG */
```



The #elif and #else Directives

 #elif and #else can be used in conjunction with #if, #ifdef, or #ifndef to test a series of conditions:

```
#if expr!
Lines to be included if expr! is nonzero
#elif expr?
Lines to be included if expr! is zero but expr? is nonzero
#else
Lines to be included otherwise
#endif
```

 Any number of #elif directives—but at most one #else—may appear between #if and #endif.

- Conditional compilation has other uses besides debugging.
- Writing programs that are portable to several machines or operating systems.

Example:

```
#if defined(WIN32)
...
#elif defined(MAC_OS)
...
#elif defined(LINUX)
...
#endif
```



• Writing programs that can be compiled with different compilers.

An example that uses the ___STDC__ macro:

#if __STDC__
Function prototypes
#else
Old-style function declarations
#endif

If the compiler does not conform to the C standard, old-style function declarations are used instead of function prototypes.



• Providing a default definition for a macro.

Conditional compilation makes it possible to check whether a macro is currently defined and, if not, give it a default definition:

```
#ifndef BUFFER_SIZE
#define BUFFER_SIZE 256
#endif
```

• Temporarily disabling code that contains comments.

```
A /*...*/ comment can't be used to "comment out" code that already contains /*...*/
comments.
```

An #if directive can be used instead:

```
#if 0
Lines containing comments
#endif
```

Chapter 14: The Preprocessor

Uses of Conditional Compilation

• Chapter 15 discusses another common use of conditional compilation: protecting header files against multiple inclusion.

Chapter 14: The Preprocessor

Miscellaneous Directives

- The #error, #line, and #pragma directives are more specialized than the ones we've already examined.
- These directives are used much less frequently.

The #error Directive

• Form of the #error directive:

```
#error message

message is any sequence of tokens.
```

- If the preprocessor encounters an #error directive, it prints an error message which must include *message*.
- If an #error directive is processed, some compilers immediately terminate compilation without attempting to find other errors.

The #error Directive

- #error directives are frequently used in conjunction with conditional compilation.
- Example that uses an #error directive to test the maximum value of the int type:

```
#if INT_MAX < 100000
#error int type is too small
#endif</pre>
```

The #error Directive

• The #error directive is often found in the #else part of an #if-#elif-#else series: #if defined(WIN32) #elif defined(MAC_OS) #elif defined(LINUX) #else #error No operating system specified #endif

The #line Directive

- The #line directive is used to alter the way program lines are numbered.
- First form of the #line directive:

```
#line n
```

Subsequent lines in the program will be numbered n, n + 1, n + 2, and so forth.

• Second form of the #line directive:

```
#line n "file"
```

Subsequent lines are assumed to come from file, with line numbers starting at n.

The #line Directive

- The #line directive changes the value of the __LINE__ macro (and possibly __FILE__).
- Most compilers will use the information from the #line directive when generating error messages.
- Suppose that the following directive appears at the beginning of foo.c:

```
#line 10 "bar.c"
```

If the compiler detects an error on line 5 of foo.c, the message will refer to line 13 of file bar.c.

• The #line directive is used primarily by programs that generate C code as output.

The #line Directive

- The most famous example is yacc (Yet Another Compiler-Compiler), a UNIX utility that automatically generates part of a compiler.
- The programmer prepares a file that contains information for yacc as well as fragments of C code.
- From this file, yacc generates a C program, y.tab.c, that incorporates the code supplied by the programmer.
- By inserting #line directives, yacc tricks the compiler into believing that the code comes from the original file.
- Error messages produced during the compilation of y.tab.c will refer to lines in the original file.



The #pragma Directive

- The #pragma directive provides a way to request special behavior from the compiler.
- Form of a #pragma directive:

#pragma tokens

• #pragma directives can be very simple (a single token) or they can be much more elaborate:

#pragma data(heap_size => 1000, stack_size => 2000)

The #pragma Directive

- The set of commands that can appear in #pragma directives is different for each compiler.
- The preprocessor must ignore any #pragma directive that contains an unrecognized command; it's not permitted to give an error message.
- In C89, there are no standard pragmas—they're all implementation-defined.
- C99 has three standard pragmas, all of which use STDC as the first token following #pragma.

- C99 introduces the _Pragma operator, which is used in conjunction with the #pragma directive.
- A _Pragma expression has the form
 _Pragma (string-literal)
- When it encounters such an expression, the preprocessor "destringizes" the string literal:
 - Double quotes around the string are removed.
 - \" is replaced by ".
 - \\ is replaced by \.

- The resulting tokens are then treated as though they appear in a #pragma directive.
- For example, writing

```
_Pragma("data(heap_size => 1000, stack_size => 2000)")
```

is the same as writing

#pragma data(heap size => 1000, stack size => 2000)

- The _Pragma operator lets us work around the fact that a preprocessing directive can't generate another directive.
- _Pragma, however, is an operator, not a directive, and can therefore appear in a macro definition.
- This makes it possible for a macro expansion to leave behind a #pragma directive.

• A macro that uses the _Pragma operator:

```
#define DO_PRAGMA(x) _Pragma(#x)
```

• An invocation of the macro:

```
DO_PRAGMA(GCC dependency "parse.y")
```

• The result after expansion:

```
#pragma GCC dependency "parse.y"
```

- The tokens passed to DO_PRAGMA are stringized into "GCC dependency \"parse.y\"".
- The _Pragma operator destringizes this string, producing a #pragma directive.