

Writing Program in C

Expressions and Control Structures (Statements and Loops)

Jan Faigl

Department of Computer Science
Faculty of Electrical Engineering
Czech Technical University in Prague

Lecture 02

B3B36PRG – Programming in C



Overview of the Lecture

- Part 1 – Expressions
 - Expressions – Literals and Variables
 - Expressions – Operators
 - Associativity and Precedence
 - Assignment
- Part 2 – Control Structures: Selection Statements and Loops
 - Statements and Coding Styles
 - Selection Statements
 - Loops
 - Conditional Expression
- Part 3 – Assignment HW 01

K. N. King: chapter 4 and 20

K. N. King: chapters 5 and 6



Part I

Part 1 – Expressions



Outline

- Expressions – Literals and Variables
- Expressions – Operators
- Associativity and Precedence
- Assignment



Expressions

- **Expression** prescribes calculation value of some given input.
- Expression is composed of **operands**, **operators**, and **brackets**.
- Expression can be formed of
 - literals,
 - variables,
 - constants,
 - unary and binary operators,
 - function call,
 - brackets.
- The order of operation evaluation is prescribed by the operator **precedence** and **associativity**.

```
10 + x * y    // order of the evaluation 10 + (x * y)
10 + x + y    // order of the evaluation (10 + x) + y
```

** has higher priority than +
+ is associative from the left-to-right*

- The evaluation order can be prescribed by **fully parenthesized expression**.

Simply: If you are not sure, use brackets.



Literals – Integer and Rational

- Integer values are stored as one of the integer type (keywords): `int`, `long`, `short`, `char` and their `signed` and `unsigned` variants. *Further integer data types are possible.*
- Rational numbers (data types `float` and `double`) can be written with floating point – `13.1`; or with mantissa and exponent – `31.4e-3` or `31.4E-3`. *Scientific notation*
- Floating point numeric types depends on the implementation (usually as IEEE-754-1985).

Integer literals (values)

Decimal	123 450932	
Hexadecimal	0x12 0xFAFF	(starts with <code>0x</code> or <code>0X</code>)
Octal	0123 0567	(starts with <code>0</code>)
<code>unsigned</code>	12345U	(suffix <code>U</code> or <code>u</code>)
<code>long</code>	12345L	(suffix <code>L</code> or <code>l</code>)
<code>unsigned long</code>	12345ul	(suffix <code>UL</code> or <code>ul</code>)
<code>long long</code>	12345LL	(suffix <code>LL</code> or <code>ll</code>)

Rational literals

- `double` – by default, if not explicitly specified to be another type;
- `float` – suffix `F` or `f`;
`float f = 10.f;`
- `long double` – suffix `L` or `l`.
`long double ld = 10.11;`

Without suffix, the literal is of the type `typu int`.



Literals – Characters and Text Strings

- Character literal is single (or multiple) character in apostrophe.

'A', 'B' or '\n'

- Value of the single character literal is the ASCII code of the character.

'0' ~ 48, 'A' ~ 65

Value of character out of ASCII (greater than 127) depends on the compiler.

- Type of the character constant (literal).
 - Character constant is the int type.**

```
char c = '8'; // Letter of the digit 8
int v = c - '0'; // Conversion to int
           value 8
```

```
char a = '0'; // Test a letter is upper
           case
_Bool upper = (a >= 'A' && a <= 'Z');
char i = '5'; // Test a letter is a digit
_Bool digit = (i >= '0' && i <= '9');
```

- Text string is a sequence of characters enclosed in quotation marks.

"A string with the end of line \n".

- String literals separated by white spaces are joined to single one.

"A string literal" "with the end of the line \n" is concatenate into

"A string literal with end of the line \n"

- String literal is stored in the array of the type `char` terminated by the `null` character `'\0'`.

A string literal "word" is stored as

'w'	'o'	'r'	'd'	'\0'
-----	-----	-----	-----	------

*The size of the array must be **+1 item longer** to store \0!*



Literals – Enumeration (Constants of the Enumerated Type)

- The default values of the enumeration type constants start from 0 and the values can be explicitly prescribed.
- Without specifying a value, the next element has a value one higher than the previous one.
- Enumeration type constants can have the same values.

```
1 enum {                1 enum {                1 enum {
2   WHITE,              2   SPADES = 10,        2   NUMBER_1 = 1,
3   BLACK,              3   CLUBS, // the value is 11  3   NUMBER_2 = 2,
4   RED,                4   HEARTS = 15,       4   NUMBER_3 = 1,
5   GREEN,              5   DIAMONDS = 13     5   NUMBER_4, // the value is 2
6 };                   6 };                   6 };
```

The enumeration values are usually written in uppercase.

- Type – enumerated constant is the `int` type.
 - Value of the enumerated literal can be used in loops.

```
1 enum { WHITE = 0, BLACK, RED, GREEN, BLUE, NUM_COLORS };
3 for (int color = WHITE; color < NUM_COLORS; ++color) {
4     ...
5 }
```

lec02/enum.c



Variable Definition

- The variable definition has a general form
declaration-specifiers variable-identifier;
- Declaration specifiers are following.
 - **Storage classes:** at most one of the `auto`, `static`, `extern`, `register`;
 - **Type quantifiers:** `const`, `volatile`, `restrict`;
None or more type quantifiers are allowed.
 - **Type specifiers:** `void`, `char`, `short`, `int`, `long`, `float`, `double`, `signed`, `unsigned`.
In addition, `struct` and `union` type specifiers can be used. Finally, own types defined by `typedef` can be used as well.
How many keywords are covered?

```
float f = 10.1f; // float variable initialized by float literal
const double pi = 3.14; //const double variable initialized to 3.14
unsigned char v = 255; //one byte integer variable with the full range 0..255
const unsigned long l = 1001; //constant long integer variable initialized by long literal
int i; // i variable of the common C integer type int that is not initialized
```



Outline

- Expressions – Literals and Variables
- Expressions – Operators
- Associativity and Precedence
- Assignment



Operators

- Operators are selected characters (or sequences of characters) dedicated for writing expressions.
- Five types of **binary operators** can be distinguished.
 - **Arithmetic** operators – additive (addition/subtraction) and multiplicative (multiplication/division);
 - **Relational** operators – comparison of values (less than, greater than, ...);
 - **Logical** operators – logical **AND** and **OR**;
 - **Bitwise** operators – bitwise **AND**, **OR**, **XOR**, bitwise shift (left, right);
 - **Assignment operator** **=** – a variables (l-value) is on its left side.
- **Unary operators**
 - Indicating positive/negative value: **+** and **-**.

Operator – modifies the sign of the expression.
 - Modifying a variable : **++** and **--**.
 - Logical negation: **!**.
 - Bitwise negation: **~**.
- **Ternary operator** – conditional expression **? :**



Variables, Assignment Operator, and Assignment Statement

- Variables are defined by the type and name.
 - Name of the variable is in lowercase.
 - Multi-word names can be written with underscore `_`.
 - Each variable is defined at a new line.

*Or we can use **CamelCase**.
That is our coding style choice.*

```
int n;  
int number_of_items;  
int numberOfItems;
```

- Assignment is setting the value to the variable, i.e., the value is stored at the memory location referenced by the variable name.
- **Assignment operator**

$\langle \text{l-value} \rangle = \langle \text{expression} \rangle$

Expression is literal, variable, function calling, ...

- The side is the so-called **l-value – location-value, left-value**
It must represent a memory location where the value can be stored.
 - Assignment is an expression and we can use it everywhere it is allowed to use the expression of the particular type.
- **Assignment statement** is the assignment operator `=` and `;`



Basic Arithmetic Expressions

- For an operator of the numeric types `int` and `double`, the following operators are defined.

Also for `char`, `short`, and `float` numeric types.

- Unary operator for changing the sign `-`;
 - Binary addition `+` and subtraction `-`;
 - Binary multiplication `*` and division `/`.
- For integer operator, there is also
 - Binary module (integer remainder) `%`.
 - If both operands are of the same type, the results of the arithmetic operation is the same type.
 - In a case of combined data types `int` and `double`, the data type `int` is converted to `double` and the results is of the `double` type.

Implicit type conversion.



Example – Arithmetic Operators 1/2

```
1  int a = 10;
2  int b = 3;
3  int c = 4;
4  int d = 5;
5  int result;
7  result = a - b; // subtraction
8  printf("a - b = %i\n", result);
10 result = a * b; // multiplication
11 printf("a * b = %i\n", result);
13 result = a / b; // integer division
14 printf("a / b = %i\n", result);
16 result = a + b * c; // priority of the operators
17 printf("a + b * c = %i\n", result);
19 printf("a * b + c * d = %i\n", a * b + c * d);           // -> 50
20 printf("(a * b) + (c * d) = %i\n", (a * b) + (c * d)); // -> 50
21 printf("a * (b + c) * d = %i\n", a * (b + c) * d);     // -> 350
                                                                    lec02/arithmetic_operators.c
```



Example – Arithmetic Operators 2/2

```
1  #include <stdio.h>
3  int main(void)
4  {
5      int x1 = 1;
6      double y1 = 2.2357;
7      float x2 = 2.5343f;
8      double y2 = 2;
10     printf("P1 = (%i, %f)\n", x1, y1);
11     printf("P1 = (%i, %i)\n", x1, (int)y1);
12     printf("P1 = (%f, %f)\n", (double)x1, (double)y1);
13     printf("P1 = (%.3f, %.3f)\n", (double)x1, (double)y1);
15     printf("P2 = (%f, %f)\n", x2, y2);
17     double dx = (x1 - x2); // implicit data conversion to float
18     double dy = (y1 - y2); // and finally to double
20     printf("(P1 - P2)=(%.3f, %0.3f)\n", dx, dy);
21     printf("|P1 - P2|^2=%.2f\n", dx * dx + dy * dy);
22     return 0;
23 }
```

lec02/points.c



Arithmetic Operators

- Operands of arithmetic operators can be of any arithmetic type.

The only exception is the operator for the integer remainder % defined for the `int` type.

*	Multiplication	$x * y$	Multiplication of x and y
/	Division	x / y	Division of x and y
%	Reminder	$x \% y$	Reminder from the x / y
+	Addition	$x + y$	Sum of x and y
-	Subtraction	$x - y$	Subtraction x and y
+	Unary plus	$+x$	Value of x
-	Unary minus	$-x$	Value of $-x$
++	Increment	$++x/x++$	Incrementation before/after the evaluation of the expression x
--	Decrement	$--x/x--$	Decrementation before/after the evaluation of the expression x



Integer Division

- The results of the division of the operands of the `int` type is the integer part of the division.

E.g.. 7/3 is 2 and -7/3 is -2

- For the integer remainder, it holds $x \% y = x - (x/y) * y$.

E.g., 7 % 3 is 1

-7 % 3 is -1

7 % -3 is 1

-7 % -3 is -1

- **C99**: The result of the integer division of negative values is the value closer to 0.
 - It holds that $(a/b)*b + a \% b = a$.

For older versions of C, the results depends on the compiler.



Implementation-Defined Behaviour

- The C standard deliberately leaves parts of the language unspecified.
- Thus, some parts depend on the implementation, such as compiler, environment, or computer architecture.

E.g., Remainder behavior for negative values and version of the C prior C99.

- The reason for that is the focus of C on efficiency, i.e., match the hardware behavior.
- Having it in mind, it is best to avoid writing programs that depend on implementation-defined behavior.

K.N.King: Page 55

That is one example of difference in writing programs that seem to be working and functional and a program that is correct.



Unary Arithmetic Operators

- Unary operator (`++` and `--`) change the value of its operand.

*The operand must be the **l-value**, i.e., an expression that has memory space, where the value of the expression is stored, e.g., a variable.*

- It can be used as **prefix** operator, e.g., `++x` and `--x`;
- or as **postfix** operator, e.g., `x++` and `x--`.
- In each case, the **final value of the expression is different!**

<code>int i; int a;</code>	value of <code>i</code>	value of <code>a</code>
<code>i = 1; a = 9;</code>	1	9
<code>a = i++;</code>	2	1
<code>a = ++i;</code>	3	3
<code>a = ++(i++);</code>	Not allowed! Value of <code>i++</code> is not the l-value	

For the unary operator `i++`, it is necessary to store the previous value of `i` and then the variable `i` is incremented. The expression `++i` only increments the value of `i`. Therefore, `++i` can be more efficient.



Relational Operators

- Operands of relational operators can be of arithmetic type, pointers (of the same type) or one operand can be `NULL` or pointer of the `void` type.

<code><</code>	Less than	<code>x < y</code>	1 if x is less than y; otherwise 0
<code><=</code>	Less than or equal	<code>x <= y</code>	1 if x is less than or equal to y; otherwise 0
<code>></code>	Greater than	<code>x > y</code>	1 if x is greater than y; otherwise 0
<code>>=</code>	Greater than or equal	<code>x >= y</code>	1 if x is greater than or equal to y; otherwise 0
<code>==</code>	Equal	<code>x == y</code>	1 if x is equal to y; otherwise 0
<code>!=</code>	Not equal	<code>x != y</code>	1 if x is not equal to y; otherwise 0



Logical operators

- Operands can be of arithmetic type or pointers.
- Resulting value `1` means `true`, `0` means `false`.
- In the expressions `&&` (Logical AND) and `||` (Logical OR), the left operand is evaluated first.
- If the results is defined by the left operand, the right operand is not evaluated.

Short-circuiting behavior – it may speed evaluation of complex expressions in runtime.

`&&` Logical AND `x && y` 1 if x and y is not 0; otherwise 0.

`||` Logical OR `x || y` 1 if at least one of x, y is not 0;
otherwise 0.

`!` Logical NOT `!x` 1 if x is 0; otherwise 0.

- Operands `&&` a `||` have the short-circuiting behavior, i.e., the second operand is not evaluated if the result can be determined from the value of the first operand.



Example – Short-Circuiting Behaviour 1/2

```
1 #include <stdio.h>
2 #include <stdlib.h>
3
4 int fce_a(int n);
5 int fce_b(int n);
6
7 int main(int argc, char *argv[])
8 {
9     if (argc > 1 && fce_a(atoi(argv[1])) && fce_b(atoi(argv[1])) )
10    {
11        printf("Both functions fce_a and fce_b pass the test\n");
12    } else {
13        printf("One of the functions does not pass the test\n");
14    }
15    return 0;
16 }
17
18 int fce_a(int n)
19 {
20     printf("Calling fce_a with the argument '%d'\n", n);
21     return n % 2 == 0;
22 }
23
24 int fce_b(int n)
25 {
26     printf("Calling fce_b with the argument '%d'\n", n);
27     return n > 2;
28 }
```

lec02/demo-short_circuiting.c



Example – Short-Circuiting Behaviour 2/2 – Tasks

In the example `lec02/demo-short_circuiting.c`

- Test how the logical expressions (a function call) are evaluated.
- Identify what functions `fce_a()` and `fce_b()` are implementing.
- Rename the functions appropriately.
- Identify the function headers and why they have to be stated above the main function.
- Try to split implementation of the functions to a separate module.



Bitwise Operators

- Bitwise operators treat operands as a series of bits.

Low-Level Programming – A programming language is low level when its programs require attention of the irrelevant. K.N.King: Chapter 20.

<code>&</code>	Bitwise AND	<code>x & y</code>	1 if x and y is equal to 1 (bit-by-bit)
<code> </code>	Bitwise inclusive OR	<code>x y</code>	1 if x or y is equal to 1 (bit-by-bit)
<code>^</code>	Bitwise exclusive or (XOR)	<code>x ^ y</code>	1 if only x or only y is 1 (bit-by-bit)
<code>~</code>	Bitwise complement (NOT)	<code>~x</code>	1 if x is 0 (bit-by-bit)
<code><<</code>	Bitwise left shift	<code>x << y</code>	Shift of x by y bits to the left
<code>>></code>	Bitwise right shift	<code>x >> y</code>	Shift of x by y bits to the right



Bitwise Shift Operators

- Bitwise shift operators shift the binary representation by a given number of bits to the left or right.
 - Left shift – Each bit shifted off a zero bit enters at the right.
 - Right shift – Each bit shift off.
 - A zero bit enters at the left – for positive values or unsigned types.
 - For negative values, the entered bit can be either 0 (logical shift) or 1 (arithmetic shift right). Depends on the compiler.
- Bitwise shift operators **have lower precedence than the arithmetic operators!**
 - `i << 2 + 1` means `i << (2 + 1)`

Do not be surprised – parenthesized the expression!



Example – Bitwise Expressions

```
1  #include <inttypes.h>
3  uint8_t a = 4;
4  uint8_t b = 5;

6  a      dec: 4 bin: 0100
7  b      dec: 5 bin: 0101
8  a & b  dec: 4 bin: 0100
9  a | b  dec: 5 bin: 0101
10 a ^ b  dec: 1 bin: 0001
12 a >> 1 dec: 2 bin: 0010
13 a << 1 dec: 8 bin: 1000
```

[lec02/bits.c](#)



Operators for Accessing Memory

Here, for completeness, details in the further lectures.

- In C, we can directly access the memory address of the variable. *We need in `scanf()`!*
- The access is realized through a pointer. *It is an integer value, typically long.*

*It allows great options and **also understand data representation and memory access models.***

Operator	Name	Example	Result
&	Address	&x	Pointer to x
*	Indirection	*p	Variable (or function) addressed by the pointer p.
[]	Array subscripting	x[i]	*(x+i) – item of the array x at the position i.
.	Structure/union member	s.x	Member x of the struct/union s.
->	Structure/union member	p->x	Member x of the struct/union addressed by the pointer p.

It is not allowed an operand of the & operator is a bit field or variable of the register class, because it has to be addressable memory space.

*Operator of the indirect address * allows to access to the memory using pointers.*



Other Operators

Operator	Name	Example	Result
()	Function call	<code>f(x)</code>	Call the function <code>f</code> with the argument <code>x</code> .
(type)	Cast	<code>(int)x</code>	Change the type of <code>x</code> to <code>int</code> .
<code>sizeof</code>	Size of the item	<code>sizeof(x)</code>	Size of <code>x</code> in bytes.
<code>? :</code>	Conditional	<code>x ? y : z</code>	Do <code>y</code> if <code>x != 0</code> ; otherwise <code>z</code> .
<code>,</code>	Comma	<code>x, y</code>	Evaluate <code>x</code> and then <code>y</code> , the result is the result of the last expression.

- The operand of `sizeof()` can be a type name or expression.

```

1 int a = 10;
2 printf("%lu %lu\n", sizeof(a), sizeof(a + 1.0));

```

[lec02/sizeof.c](#)

- Example of the `comma` operator.

```

1 for (c = 1, i = 0; i < 3; ++i, c += 2) {
2     printf("i: %d c: %d\n", i, c);
3 }

```



Cast Operator

- Changing the variable type in runtime is called type cast.
- Explicit cast is written by the name of the type in `()`, e.g.,

```
1 int i;  
2 float f = (float)i;
```

- Implicit cast is made automatically by the compiler during the program compilation.
- If the new type can represent the original value, the value is preserved by the cast.
- Operands of the `char`, `unsigned char`, `short`, `unsigned short`, and the bit field types can be used everywhere where it is allowed to use `int` or `unsigned int`.
C expects at least values of the `int` type.
 - Operands are automatically cast to the `int` or `unsigned int`.



Outline

- Expressions – Literals and Variables
- Expressions – Operators
- **Associativity and Precedence**
- Assignment



Operators Associativity and Precedence

- Binary operation op is **associative** on the set \mathbf{S} if
$$(x \text{ op } y) \text{ op } z = x \text{ op } (y \text{ op } z), \text{ for each } x, y, z \in \mathbf{S}.$$
- For not associative operators, it is required to specify the order of evaluation.
 - Left-associative – operations are grouped from the left.
$$\text{E.g., } 10 - 5 - 3 \text{ is evaluated as } (10 - 5) - 3.$$
 - Right-associative – operations are grouped from the right.
$$\text{E.g., } 3 + 5^2 \text{ is } 28 \text{ or } 3 \cdot 5^2 \text{ is } 75 \text{ vs } (3 \cdot 5)^2 \text{ is } 225.$$
- The assignment is right-associative.

E.g., $y=y+8$.

First, the whole right side of the operator = is evaluated, and then, the results are assigned to the variable on the left.

- The order of the operator evaluation can be defined by the **fully parenthesized expression**.



Outline

- Expressions – Literals and Variables
- Expressions – Operators
- Associativity and Precedence
- **Assignment**



Simple Assignment

- Set the value to the variable.

Store the value into the memory space referenced by the variable name.

- The form of the assignment operator is

$\langle \text{variable} \rangle = \langle \text{expression} \rangle$

Expression is literal, variable, function call, ...

- C is statically typed programming language.

- A value of an expression can be assigned only to a variable of the same type.

Otherwise the type cast is necessary.

- Example of the implicit type cast.

```
1 int i = 320.4; // implicit conversion from 'double' to 'int' changes value from 320.4 to 320
   [-Wliteral-conversion]
3 char c = i;    // implicit truncation 320 -> 64
```

- C is type safe only within a limited context of the compilation, e.g., for `printf("%d\n", 10.1);` a compiler reports an error.

- In general, C is not type safe. *In runtime, it is possible to write out of the allocated memory space.*



Compound Assignment

- A short version of the assignment to compute a new value of the variable from itself:

$\langle \text{variable} \rangle = \langle \text{variable} \rangle \langle \text{operator} \rangle \langle \text{expression} \rangle$

- can be written as

$\langle \text{variable} \rangle \langle \text{operator} \rangle = \langle \text{expression} \rangle$

Example

```
1 int i = 10;
2 double j = 12.6;
4 i = i + 1;
5 j = j / 0.2;
```

```
1 int i = 10;
2 double j = 12.6;
4 i += 1;
5 j /= 0.2;
```

- Note that the assignment is an expression.

The assignment of the value to the variable is a side effect.

```
1 int x, y;
3 x = 6;
4 y = x = x + 6;
```



Compound Assignment

- A short version of the assignment to compute a new value of the variable from itself:

$\langle \text{variable} \rangle = \langle \text{variable} \rangle \langle \text{operator} \rangle \langle \text{expression} \rangle$

- can be written as

$\langle \text{variable} \rangle \langle \text{operator} \rangle = \langle \text{expression} \rangle$

Example

```
1 int i = 10;
2 double j = 12.6;
4 i = i + 1;
5 j = j / 0.2;
```

```
1 int i = 10;
2 double j = 12.6;
4 i += 1;
5 j /= 0.2;
```

- Note that the assignment is an expression.

The assignment of the value to the variable is a side effect.

```
1 int x, y;
3 x = 6;
4 y = x = x + 6;
```



Assignment Expression and Assignment Statement

- The statement performs some action and it is terminated by ;

```
1 robot_heading = -10.23;  
2 robot_heading = fabs(robot_heading);  
3 printf("Robot heading: %f\n", robot_heading);
```

- Expression has **type and value**.

23 **int** type, value is 23

14+16/2 **int** type, value is 22

y=8 **int** type, value is 8

- Assignment is an expression and its value is assigned to the left side.
- By adding **the semicolon**, the assignment expression becomes the assignment statement.



Undefined Behaviour

- There are some statements that can cause **undefined behavior** according to the C standard.
 - `c = (b = a + 2) - (b - 1);`
 - `j = i * i++;`
- The program may behave differently according to the used compiler, but may also not compile or may not run; or it may even crash and behave erratically or produce meaningless results.
- It may also happen if variables are used without initialization.
- **Avoid statements that may produce undefined behavior!**

A further detailed example of undefined behavior and code optimization with its analysis is in Lecture 09.



Part II

Part 2 – Control Structures: Selection Statements and Loops



Outline

- Statements and Coding Styles
- Selection Statements
- Loops
- Conditional Expression



Statement and Compound Statement (Block)

- Statement is terminated by ;

Statement consisting only of the semicolon is empty statement.

- Block consists of sequences of declarations and statements.
- **ANSI C, C89, C90**: Declarations must be placed prior other statements.

It is not necessary for C99.

- Start and end of the block is marked by the curly brackets { and }.
- A block can be inside other block.

```
void function(void)
{ /* function block start */
  /* inner block */
  for (i = 0; i < 10; ++i)
  {
    //inner for-loop block
  }
}
```

```
void function(void) { /* function block
  start */
  /* inner block */
  for (int i = 0; i < 10; ++i) {
    //inner for-loop block
  }
}
```

Notice the coding styles.



Coding Style

- It supports clarity and readability of the source code.

https://www.gnu.org/prep/standards/html_node/Writing-C.html

- Formatting of the code is the fundamental step.

- Appropriate identifiers.

Setup automatic formatting in your text editor.

- Train yourself in coding style even at the cost of slower coding!

- Readability and clarity is important, especially during debugging!

- Recommend coding style.

Notice, sometimes it can be better to start from scratch.

```
1 void function(void)
2 { /* function block start */
3     for (int i = 0; i < 10; ++i) {
4         //inner for-loop block
5         if (i == 5) {
6             break;
7         }
8     }
9 }
```

- Use English, especially for identifiers.
- Use nouns for variables.
- Use verbs for function names.

Lecturer's preference: indent shift 3, space characters rather than tabular.

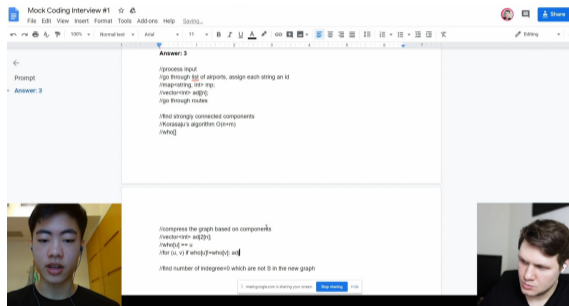


Coding Style – Code Clarity and Readability

- There are many different coding styles.
- Inspire yourself by existing recommendations and by reading representative source codes.



Clean Code - Uncle Bob / Lesson 1
<https://youtu.be/7EmboKQH81M>



Google Coding Interview with a High School Student
<https://youtu.be/qz9tK1F431k>

<http://users.ece.cmu.edu/~eno/coding/CCodingStandard.html>;

<https://www.doc.ic.ac.uk/lab/cplus/cstyle.html>;

http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Indent_style;

<https://google.github.io/styleguide/cppguide.html>;

<https://www.kernel.org/doc/Documentation/process/coding-style.rst>



Compound Command and Nesting 1/2

Four nested levels.

```

1 int get_sum_of_even_numbers(int from, int to)
2 {
3     if (from < to) {
4         int sum = 0;
5         for (int number = from; number <= to; ++number) {
6             if (number % 2 == 0) {
7                 sum += number;
8             }
9         } // end for loop
10        return sum;
11    } else {
12        return 0;
13    }
14 }
```

We aim to have a more readable form.

```

1 int get_sum_of_even_numbers(int from, int to)
2 {
3     if (from > to) return 0;
4     int sum = 0;
5     for (int number = from; number <= to; ++number) {
6         sum += filter_odd(number);
7     } // end for loop
8     return sum;
9 }
```

Extraction (new function definition).

```

1 int filter_odd(int number);
2
3 int get_sum_of_even_numbers(int from, int to)
4 {
5     if (from < to) {
6         int sum = 0;
7         for (int number = from; number <= to; ++number) {
8             sum += filter_odd(number);
9         } // end for loop
10        return sum;
11    } else {
12        return 0;
13    }
14 }
15
16 int filter_odd(int number)
17 {
18     if (number % 2 == 0) {
19         return number;
20     }
21     return 0;
22 }
```

- Using **extraction** and inversion techniques, we reduce the nesting depth.

<https://youtu.be/CFRhGnuXG-4>



Compound Command and Nesting 2/2

Inversion (substitution of the input value conditions).

```

1  int filter_odd(int number);
3  int get_sum_of_even_numbers(int from, int to)
4  {
5      , if (from > to) {
6          return 0;
7      }
8      int sum = 0;
9      for (int number = from; number <= to; ++number) {
10         sum += filter_odd(number);
11     } // end for loop
12     return sum;
13 }
15 int filter_odd(int number)
16 {
17     if (number % 2 == 0) {
18         return number;
19     }
20     return 0;
21 }

```

Final cleanup.

```

1  int filter_odd(int number);
3  int get_sum_of_even_numbers(int from, int to)
4  {
5      , if (from > to) return 0;
7      int sum = 0;
8      for (int number = from; number <= to; ++
9          number) {
10         sum += filter_odd(number);
11     } // end for loop
12     return sum;
14 int filter_odd(int number)
15 {
16     return (number % 2 == 0) ? number : 0;
17 }

```

<https://youtu.be/CFRhGnuXG-4>

- Using extraction and **inversion** techniques, we reduce the nesting depth.



Control Statements

- Selection Statement
 - Selection Statement: `if ()` or `if () ... else`
 - Switch Statement: `switch () case ...`
- Control Loops
 - `for ()`
 - `while ()`
 - `do ... while ()`
- Jump statements (unconditional program branching)
 - `continue`
 - `break`
 - `return`
 - `goto`



Outline

- Statements and Coding Styles
- Selection Statements
- Loops
- Conditional Expression



Selection Statement – if

- `if (expression) statement1; else statement2`
- For `expression != 0` the `statement1` is executed; otherwise `statement2`.
The statement can be the compound statement.
- The `else` part is optional.
- Selection statements can be nested and cascaded.

Why You Shouldn't Nest Your Code – <https://youtu.be/CFRhGnuXG-4>.

```
1 int max;
2 if (a > b) {
3     if (a > c) {
4         max = a;
5     }
6 }
```

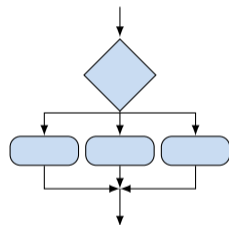
```
1 int max;
2 if (a > b) {
3     ...
4 } else if (a < c) {
5     ...
6 } else if (a == b) {
7     ...
8 } else {
9     ...
10 }
```



The switch Statement

- Allows to branch the program based on the value of the expression of the enumerate (integer) type, e.g., **int**, **char**, **short**, **enum**.
- The form is

```
switch (expression) {  
    case constant1: statements1; break;  
    case constant2: statements2; break;  
    ...  
    case constantn: statementsn; break;  
    default: statementsdef; break;  
}
```



where *constants* are of the same type as the *expression* and *statements_i* is a list of statements.

- Switch statements can be nested.

Semantics: First the expression value is calculated. Then, the statements under the same value are executed. If none of the branch is selected, statements_{def} under default branch as performed (optional).



The switch Statement – Example

```
switch (v) {  
    case 'A':  
        printf("Upper 'A'\n");  
        break;  
    case 'a':  
        printf("Lower 'a'\n");  
        break;  
    default:  
        printf(  
            "It is not 'A' nor 'a'\n");  
        break;  
}
```

```
if (v == 'A') {  
    printf("Upper 'A'\n");  
} else if (v == 'a') {  
    printf("Lower 'a'\n");  
} else {  
    printf(  
        "It is not 'A' nor 'a'\n");  
}
```

lec02/switch.c



The Role of the break Statement

- The statement **break** terminates the branch. If not presented, the execution continues with the statement of the next **case** label.

```
1  int part = ?
2  switch(part) {
3      case 1:
4          printf("Branch 1\n");
5          break;
6      case 2:
7          printf("Branch 2\n");
8      case 3:
9          printf("Branch 3\n");
10         break;
11     case 4:
12         printf("Branch 4\n");
13         break;
14     default:
15         printf("Default branch\n");
16         break;
17 }
```

- part ← 1
Branch 1
- part ← 2
Branch 2
Branch 3
- part ← 3
Branch 3
- part ← 4
Branch 4
- part ← 5
Default branch

lec02/demo-switch_break.c



Outline

- Statements and Coding Styles
- Selection Statements
- **Loops**
- Conditional Expression



Loops

- The **for** and **while** loop statements test the controlling expression before the enter to the loop body.

- **for** – initialization, condition, change of the controlling variable is a part of the syntax.

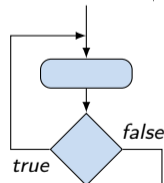
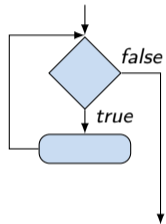
```
1 for (int i = 0; i < 5; ++i) {  
2     ...  
3 }
```

- **while** – controlling variable is out of the syntax

```
1 int i = 0;  
2 while (i < 5) {  
3     ...  
4     i += 1;  
5 }
```

- The **do** loop tests the controlling expression after the 1st loop is performed.

```
1 int i = -1;  
2 do {  
3     ...  
4     i += 1;  
5 } while (i < 5);
```



The **for** Loop

- The basic form has four parts (three expressions and a single statement).

```
for (expr1; expr2; expr3) statement
```

- All `expri` are expressions and typically they are used for
 1. `expr1` – initialization of the controlling variable (side effect of the assignment expression);
 2. `expr2` – Test of the controlling expression;
 3. If `expr2 != 0` the `statement` is executed; Otherwise the loop is terminated.
 4. `expr3` – updated of the controlling variable (performed at the end of the loop)
- Any of the expressions `expri` can be omitted.
- **break** statement – force termination of the loop.
- **continue** – force end of the current iteration of the loop.

The expression `expr3` is evaluated and test of the loop is performed.

- An infinity loop can be written by omitting the expressions.

```
for (;;) {...}
```



The continue Statement

- It transfers the control to the evaluation of the controlling expression.
- The `continue` statement can be used inside the body of the loops.
 - `for ()`
 - `while ()`
 - `do...while ()`

```

1 int i;
2 for (i = 0; i < 20; ++i) {
3     if (i % 2 == 0) {
4         continue;
5     }
6     printf("%3d", i);
7 }
8 putchar('\n');
```

lec02/continue.c

```
$ clang continue.c && ./a.out
```

```
1 3 5 7 9 11 13 15 17 19
```

```

1 for (int i = 0; i < 10; ++i) {
2     printf("i: %i ", i);
3     if (i % 3 != 0) {
4         continue;
5     }
6     printf("\n");
7 }
```

lec02/demo-continue.c

```
$ clang demo-continue.c
```

```
$ ./a.out
```

```
i:0
```

```
i:1 i:2 i:3
```

```
i:4 i:5 i:6
```

```
i:7 i:8 i:9
```



The continue Statement

- It transfers the control to the evaluation of the controlling expression.
- The `continue` statement can be used inside the body of the loops.
 - `for ()`
 - `while ()`
 - `do...while ()`

```

1 int i;
2 for (i = 0; i < 20; ++i) {
3     if (i % 2 == 0) {
4         continue;
5     }
6     printf("%3d", i);
7 }
8 putchar('\n');
```

lec02/continue.c

```
$ clang continue.c && ./a.out
```

```
1 3 5 7 9 11 13 15 17 19
```

```

1 for (int i = 0; i < 10; ++i) {
2     printf("i: %i ", i);
3     if (i % 3 != 0) {
4         continue;
5     }
6     printf("\n");
7 }
```

lec02/demo-continue.c

```
$ clang demo-continue.c
```

```
$ ./a.out
```

```
i:0
```

```
i:1 i:2 i:3
```

```
i:4 i:5 i:6
```

```
i:7 i:8 i:9
```



The continue Statement

- It transfers the control to the evaluation of the controlling expression.
- The `continue` statement can be used inside the body of the loops.
 - `for ()`
 - `while ()`
 - `do...while ()`

```

1 int i;
2 for (i = 0; i < 20; ++i) {
3     if (i % 2 == 0) {
4         continue;
5     }
6     printf("%3d", i);
7 }
8 putchar('\n');
```

lec02/continue.c

```
$ clang continue.c && ./a.out
```

```
1 3 5 7 9 11 13 15 17 19
```

```

1 for (int i = 0; i < 10; ++i) {
2     printf("i: %i ", i);
3     if (i % 3 != 0) {
4         continue;
5     }
6     printf("\n");
7 }
```

lec02/demo-continue.c

```
$ clang demo-continue.c
```

```
$ ./a.out
```

```
i:0
```

```
i:1 i:2 i:3
```

```
i:4 i:5 i:6
```

```
i:7 i:8 i:9
```



The continue Statement

- It transfers the control to the evaluation of the controlling expression.
- The `continue` statement can be used inside the body of the loops.
 - `for ()`
 - `while ()`
 - `do...while ()`

```

1 int i;
2 for (i = 0; i < 20; ++i) {
3     if (i % 2 == 0) {
4         continue;
5     }
6     printf("%3d", i);
7 }

```

lec02/continue.c

```
$ clang continue.c && ./a.out
```

```
1 3 5 7 9 11 13 15 17 19
```

```

1 for (int i = 0; i < 10; ++i) {
2     printf("i: %i ", i);
3     if (i % 3 != 0) {
4         continue;
5     }
6     printf("\n");
7 }

```

lec02/demo-continue.c

```
$ clang demo-continue.c
```

```
$ ./a.out
```

```
i:0
```

```
i:1 i:2 i:3
```

```
i:4 i:5 i:6
```

```
i:7 i:8 i:9
```



The break Statement – Force Termination of the Loop

- The program continues with the next statement after the loop.

- `break` example in the `while` loop.

```

1  int i = 10;
2  while (i > 0) {
3      if (i == 5) {
4          printf("i reaches 5, leave the loop\n");
5          break;
6      }
7      i--; // or -i; or i -= 1; or i = i - 1;
8      printf("End of the while loop i: %d\n", i);
9  }

```

```

1  $ clang break.c
2  $ ./a.out
3  End of the while loop i: 9
4  End of the while loop i: 8
5  End of the while loop i: 7
6  End of the while loop i: 6
7  End of the while loop i: 5
8  i reaches 5, leave the loop
   lec02/break.c

```

- `continue` and `break` example in the `for` loop.

```

1  for (int i = 0; i < 10; ++i) {
2      printf("i: %i ", i);
3      if (i % 3 != 0) {
4          continue;
5      }
6      printf("\n");
7      if (i > 5) {
8          break;
9      }
10 }

```

```

$ clang demo-break.c
$ ./a.out
i:0
i:1 i:2 i:3
i:4 i:5 i:6
   lec02/demo-break.c

```

lec02/demo-break.c



The break Statement – Force Termination of the Loop

- The program continues with the next statement after the loop.

- **break**

example in the
while loop.

```
1 int i = 10;
2 while (i > 0) {
3     if (i == 5) {
4         printf("i reaches 5, leave the loop\n");
5         break;
6     }
7     i--; // or -i; or i -= 1; or i = i - 1;
8     printf("End of the while loop i: %d\n", i);
9 }
```

```
1 $ clang break.c
2 $ ./a.out
3 End of the while loop i: 9
4 End of the while loop i: 8
5 End of the while loop i: 7
6 End of the while loop i: 6
7 End of the while loop i: 5
8 i reaches 5, leave the loop
```

lec02/break.c

- **continue** and
break
example in the
for loop.

```
1 for (int i = 0; i < 10; ++i) {
2     printf("i: %i ", i);
3     if (i % 3 != 0) {
4         continue;
5     }
6     printf("\n");
7     if (i > 5) {
8         break;
9     }
10 }
```

```
$ clang demo-break.c
$ ./a.out
i:0
i:1 i:2 i:3
i:4 i:5 i:6
```

lec02/demo-break.c



The break Statement – Force Termination of the Loop

- The program continues with the next statement after the loop.

- **break**

example in the
while loop.

```

1  int i = 10;
2  while (i > 0) {
3      if (i == 5) {
4          printf("i reaches 5, leave the loop\n");
5          break;
6      }
7      i--; // or -i; or i -= 1; or i = i - 1;
8      printf("End of the while loop i: %d\n", i);
9  }
```

```

1  $ clang break.c
2  $ ./a.out
3  End of the while loop i: 9
4  End of the while loop i: 8
5  End of the while loop i: 7
6  End of the while loop i: 6
7  End of the while loop i: 5
8  i reaches 5, leave the loop
```

lec02/break.c

- **continue** and
break
example in the
for loop.

```

1  for (int i = 0; i < 10; ++i) {
2      printf("i: %i ", i);
3      if (i % 3 != 0) {
4          continue;
5      }
6      printf("\n");
7      if (i > 5) {
8          break;
9      }
10 }
```

```

$ clang demo-break.c
$ ./a.out
i:0
i:1 i:2 i:3
i:4 i:5 i:6
```

lec02/demo-break.c



The break Statement – Force Termination of the Loop

- The program continues with the next statement after the loop.

- break**

example in the
while loop.

```

1  int i = 10;
2  while (i > 0) {
3      if (i == 5) {
4          printf("i reaches 5, leave the loop\n");
5          break;
6      }
7      i--; // or -i; or i -= 1; or i = i - 1;
8      printf("End of the while loop i: %d\n", i);
9  }
```

```

1  $ clang break.c
2  $ ./a.out
3  End of the while loop i: 9
4  End of the while loop i: 8
5  End of the while loop i: 7
6  End of the while loop i: 6
7  End of the while loop i: 5
8  i reaches 5, leave the loop
```

lec02/break.c

- continue** and
break
example in the
for loop.

```

1  for (int i = 0; i < 10; ++i) {
2      printf("i: %i ", i);
3      if (i % 3 != 0) {
4          continue;
5      }
6      printf("\n");
7      if (i > 5) {
8          break;
9      }
10 }
```

```

$ clang demo-break.c
$ ./a.out
i:0
i:1 i:2 i:3
i:4 i:5 i:6
```

lec02/demo-break.c



The goto Statement

- `goto` allows transfiging the control to the defined label. *It can be used only within a function body.*
- Syntax `goto label;`
- The `goto` can jump only outside of the particular block, it jumps to a statement.
- Label is not a statement! *Add empty statement ; if necessary.*

```
1  int test = 3;
2  for (int i = 0; i < 3; ++i) {
3      for (int j = 0; j < 5; ++j) {
4          if (j == test) {
5              goto loop_out;
6          }
7          fprintf(stdout, "Loop i: %d j: %d\n", i, j);
8      }
9  }
10 return 0;
11 loop_out:
12 fprintf(stdout, "After loop\n"); // goto can jump to a label that
    represents statement (there must be an address to be jumped at).
13 return -1;
```

lec02/goto.c



Nested Loops

- The **break** statement terminates the inner loop.

```
1  for (int i = 0; i < 3; ++i) {
2      for (int j = 0; j < 3; ++j) {
3          printf("i-j: %i-%i\n", i, j);
4          if (j == 1) {
5              break;
6          }
7      }
8  }
```

- The outer loop can be terminated by the **goto** statement.

```
1  for (int i = 0; i < 5; ++i) {
2      for (int j = 0; j < 3; ++j) {
3          printf("i-j: %i-%i\n", i, j);
4          if (j == 2) {
5              goto outer;
6          }
7      }
8  }
9  outer:
10 ;
```

lec02/demo-goto.c



Nested Loops

- The **break** statement terminates the inner loop.

```

1  for (int i = 0; i < 3; ++i) {
2      for (int j = 0; j < 3; ++j) {
3          printf("i-j: %i-%i\n", i, j);
4          if (j == 1) {
5              break;
6          }
7      }
8  }
```

```

i-j: 0-0
i-j: 0-1
i-j: 1-0
i-j: 1-1
i-j: 2-0
i-j: 2-1
```

- The outer loop can be terminated by the **goto** statement.

```

1  for (int i = 0; i < 5; ++i) {
2      for (int j = 0; j < 3; ++j) {
3          printf("i-j: %i-%i\n", i, j);
4          if (j == 2) {
5              goto outer;
6          }
7      }
8  }
9  outer:
10 ;
```

lec02/demo-goto.c



Nested Loops

- The **break** statement terminates the inner loop.

```
1 for (int i = 0; i < 3; ++i) {
2     for (int j = 0; j < 3; ++j) {
3         printf("i-j: %i-%i\n", i, j);
4         if (j == 1) {
5             break;
6         }
7     }
8 }
```

```
i-j: 0-0
i-j: 0-1
i-j: 1-0
i-j: 1-1
i-j: 2-0
i-j: 2-1
```

- The outer loop can be terminated by the **goto** statement.

```
1 for (int i = 0; i < 5; ++i) {
2     for (int j = 0; j < 3; ++j) {
3         printf("i-j: %i-%i\n", i, j);
4         if (j == 2) {
5             goto outer;
6         }
7     }
8 }
9 outer:
10 ;
```

lec02/demo-goto.c



Nested Loops

- The **break** statement terminates the inner loop.

```

1  for (int i = 0; i < 3; ++i) {
2      for (int j = 0; j < 3; ++j) {
3          printf("i-j: %i-%i\n", i, j);
4          if (j == 1) {
5              break;
6          }
7      }
8  }

```

i-j: 0-0
i-j: 0-1
i-j: 1-0
i-j: 1-1
i-j: 2-0
i-j: 2-1

- The outer loop can be terminated by the **goto** statement.

```

1  for (int i = 0; i < 5; ++i) {
2      for (int j = 0; j < 3; ++j) {
3          printf("i-j: %i-%i\n", i, j);
4          if (j == 2) {
5              goto outer;
6          }
7      }
8  }
9  outer:
10 ;

```

i-j: 0-0
i-j: 0-1
i-j: 0-2

lec02/demo-goto.c



Example – isPrimeNumber() 1/2

```
1 #include <stdbool.h>
2 #include <math.h>
4 _Bool isPrimeNumber(int n)
5 {
6     _Bool ret = true;
7     for (int i = 2; i <= (int)sqrt((double)n); ++i) {
8         if (n % i == 0) {
9             ret = false;
10            break;
11        }
12    }
13    return ret;
14 }
```

lec02/demo-prime.c

- Once the first factor is found, call `break` to terminate the loop.

It is not necessary to test other numbers.



Example – isPrimeNumber() 2/2

- The value of `(int)sqrt((double)n)` is not changing in the loop.

```
1 for (int i = 2; i <= (int)sqrt((double)n); ++i) {
2     ...
3 }
```

- We can use the **comma operator** to initialize the `maxBound` variable.

```
1 for (int i = 2, maxBound = (int)sqrt((double)n);
2     i <= maxBound; ++i) {
3     ...
```

- Or, we can define `maxBound` as a constant variable.

```
1 _Bool ret = true;
2 const int maxBound = (int)sqrt((double)n);
3 for (int i = 2; i <= maxBound ; ++i) {
4     ...
5 }
```

E.g., Compile and run `demo-prime.c`: `clang demo-prime.c -lm; ./a.out 13.`



Outline

- Statements and Coding Styles
- Selection Statements
- Loops
- Conditional Expression



Conditional Expression – Example Greatest Common Divisor

```
1 int getGreatestCommonDivisor(int x, int y)
2 {
3     int d;
4     if (x < y) {
5         d = x;
6     } else {
7         d = y;
8     }
9     while ( (x % d != 0) || (y % d != 0) ) {
10        d = d - 1;
11    }
12    return d;
13 }
```

- The same with the conditional expression `expr1 ? expr2 : expr3` can be as follows.

```
1 int getGreatestCommonDivisor(int x, int y)
2 {
3     int d = x < y ? x : y;
4     while ( (x % d != 0) || (y % d != 0) ) {
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6     }
7     return d;
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```

lec02/demo-gcd.c



Conditional Expression – Example Greatest Common Divisor

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7     return d;
8 }
```

lec02/demo-gcd.c



Part III

Part 3 – Assignment HW 01



HW 01 – Assignment

Topic: ASCII art

Mandatory: **2 points**; Optional: **none**; Bonus : **none**

- **Motivation:** Have a fun with loops and user parametrization of the program.
- **Goal:** Acquire experience using loops and inner loops.
- **Assignment** <https://cw.fel.cvut.cz/wiki/courses/b3b36prg/hw/hw01>
 - Read parameters specifying a picture of small house using selected ASCII chars.
https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/ASCII_art
 - Assesment of the input values.
- **Deadline:** 15.03.2025, 23:59 AoE.

AoE – Anywhere on Earth.



Summary of the Lecture



Topics Discussed

- Expressions
 - Operators – Arithmetic, Relational, Logical, Bitwise, and others
 - Operator Associativity and Precedence
 - Assignment and Compound Assignment
 - Implementation-Defined Behaviour
 - Undefined Behaviour
- Coding Styles
- Select Statements
- Loops
- Conditional Expression

- Next: Data types, memory storage classes, function call



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 - Undefined Behaviour
- Coding Styles
- Select Statements
- Loops
- Conditional Expression

- Next: Data types, memory storage classes, function call



Part V

Appendix



Outline

- Coding Example
- Summary of the Operators and Precedence



Coding Example – Assignment

- Implement a program that prints the pattern with seven lines.
- The default width n is 27 characters or it is read as the first program argument (if given).
- The width n needs to be odd number, or the program returns **100**.
- It holds $11 \leq n \leq 67$, or the program returns **101**.
- On success, the program prints seven lines and returns 0.
- **Avoid “magic numbers” in the program whenever possible.**

```

1 * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * *
2 ** ** ** ** ** ** ** ** ** ** ** ** ** **
3 *** *** *** *** *** *** *** ***
4 ****
5 *** *** *** ** ** ** ** ** ** **
6 ** ** ** ** ** ** ** ** ** ** ** ** ** ** **
7 * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * *

```

- Convert program `argv[1]` by `atoi()`, if given.
- Decompose the program into printing $7 \times$ line.
- Implement the program infrastructure first.
- Then, focus on logic to particular lines controlled by a suitably designed **expressions**.



Coding Example – Assignment

- Implement a program that prints the pattern with seven lines.
- The default width n is 27 characters or it is read as the first program argument (if given).
- The width n needs to be odd number, or the program returns **100**.
- It holds $11 \leq n \leq 67$, or the program returns **101**.
- On success, the program prints seven lines and returns 0.
- **Avoid “magic numbers” in the program whenever possible.**

```

1 * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * *
2 ** ** ** ** ** ** ** ** ** ** ** ** ** **
3 *** *** *** *** *** *** *** ***
4 *****
5 *** *** *** ** ** ** ** ** ** **
6 ** ** ** ** ** ** ** ** ** ** ** ** ** ** **
7 * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * *

```

- Convert program `argv[1]` by `atoi()`, if given.
- Decompose the program into printing $7 \times$ line.
- Implement the program infrastructure first.
- Then, focus on logic to particular lines controlled by a suitably designed **expressions**.



Coding Example – Implementation Strategy 1/4

- Define return (error) values to make the code clean (0, 100, 101), e.g., using `enum`.
- Define valid range $\langle 11, 67 \rangle$, e.g., using `#define`.
- Ensure accessing passed arguments to the program only if they are passed to the program.
- Ensure the number of lines n is a valid value or set the error program return value.
- Perform any operation only if arguments (values) are valid.
- Split printing 7 lines into two for loops, with one print line call between the loops.
- Implement a function to print the line pattern.

```
1  #include <stdio.h> //for putchar()
2  #include <stdlib.h> //for atoi()
4  enum {
5      ERROR_OK = 0,
6      ERROR_INPUT = 100,
7      ERROR_RANGE = 101
8  };
10 #define MIN_VALUE 11
11 #define MAX_VALUE 67
13 #define LINES 3
15 // Print line of the with n using character in c
   and space; with k continuous characters c
   followed by space.
16 void print(char c, int n, int k);
```



Coding Example – Implementation Strategy 2/4

- Define return (error) values to make the code clean (0, 100, 101), e.g., using enum.
- Define valid range $\langle 11, 67 \rangle$, e.g., using #define.
- Ensure accessing passed arguments to the program only if they are passed to the program.
- Ensure the number of lines n is a valid value or set the error program return value.
- Perform any operation only if arguments (values) are valid.
- Split printing 7 lines into two for loops, with one print line call between the loops.
- Implement a function to print the line pattern.

```

1  ...
2  int main(int argc, char *argv[])
3  {
4      int ret = ERROR_OK;
5      int n = argc > 1 ? atoi(argv[1]) : 27; //
        convert argv[1] or use default value
6      ret = n % 2 == 0 ? ERROR_INPUT : ret; // ensure
        n is odd number
7      if (!ret &&
8          (n < MIN_VALUE || n > MAX_VALUE)) {
9          ret = ERROR_RANGE; //ensure n is in the
10         closed interval [MIN_VALUE, MAX_VALUE]
11     }
12     ...
13     return ret;
14 }

```



Coding Example – Implementation Strategy 3/4

- Define return (error) values to make the code clean (0, 100, 101), e.g., using enum.
- Define valid range $\langle 11, 67 \rangle$, e.g., using #define.
- Ensure accessing passed arguments to the program only if they are passed to the program.
- Ensure the number of lines n is a valid value or set the error program return value.
- Perform any operation only if arguments (values) are valid.
- Split printing 7 lines into two for loops, with one print line call between the loops.
- Implement a function to print the line pattern.

```
1 // print a line with n characters with the
   // pattern: k-times c, then space.
2 // the line ends by new line character '\n'.
3 void print(char c, int n, int k);
4
5 int main(int argc, char *argv[])
6 { ...
7     if (!ret) { // only if ret == ERROR_OK
8         for (int l = 1; l <= LINES; ++l) {
9             print('*', n, l); // print l x '*'
10        }
11        print('*', n, n); // print n x '*'
12        for (int l = LINES; l > 0 ; --l) {
13            print('*', n, l); // print l x 'x'
14        }
15    }
16    return ret;
17 }
```



Coding Example – Implementation Strategy 4/4

- Define return (error) values to make the code clean (0, 100, 101), e.g., using `enum`.
- Define valid range $\langle 11, 67 \rangle$, e.g., using `#define`.
- Ensure accessing passed arguments to the program only if they are passed to the program.
- Ensure the number of lines n is a valid value or set the error program return value.
- Perform any operation only if arguments (values) are valid.
- Split printing 7 lines into two for loops, with one print line call between the loops.
- Implement a function to print the line pattern.

```
1 void print(char c, int n, int k)
2 {
3     for (int i = 0; i < n; ++i) {
4         putchar( (i+1) % (k+1) ? c : ' ');
5     }
6     putchar('\n');
7 }
```

- The line consists of n characters; so n characters has to be printed.
- Space is placed after each k characters of c .
- Multiple of k can be detected by the remainder after division, the operator `%`.
- We need to handle i starts from 0.
- The space is every $(k+1)$ -th character.



Coding Example – Implementation Strategy 4(b)/4

- Define return (error) values to make the code clean (0, 100, 101), e.g., using `enum`.
- Define valid range $\langle 11, 67 \rangle$, e.g., using `#define`.
- Ensure accessing passed arguments to the program only if they are passed to the program.
- Ensure the number of lines n is a valid value or set the error program return value.
- Perform any operation only if arguments (values) are valid.
- Split printing 7 lines into two for loops, with one print line call between the loops.
- Implement a function to print the line pattern.

```

1 void print(char c, int n, int k)
2 {
3     int i, j;
4     for (i = j = 0; i < n; ++i, ++j) {
5         if (j == k) {
6             putchar(' ');
7             j = 0;
8         } else {
9             putchar(c);
10        }
11    }
12    putchar('\n');
13 }

```

- Use extra counter j for space as every k -th printed character.
- Enjoy comma operator to increment j within the `for` loop.



Outline

- Coding Example
- Summary of the Operators and Precedence



Summary of the Operators and Precedence 1/3

Precedence	Operator	Associativity	Name
1	++	L→R	Increment (postfix)
	--		Decrementation (postfix)
	()		<i>Function call</i>
	[]		<i>Array subscripting</i>
	. ->		<i>Structure/union member</i>
2	++	R→L	Increment (prefix)
	--		Decrementation (prefix)
	!		Logical negation
	~		Bitwise negation
	- +		Unary plus/minus
	*		<i>Indirection</i>
	&		<i>Address</i>
	sizeof		<i>Size</i>



Summary of the Operators and Precedence 2/3

Precedence	Operator	Associativity	Name
3	()	R→L	<i>Cast</i>
4	*, /, %	L→R	Multiplicative
5	+ --		Additive
6	>>, <<		Bitwise shift
7	<, >, <=, >=		Relational
8	==, !=		Equality
9	&		Bitwise AND
10	^		Bitwise exclusive OR (XOR)
11			Bitwise inclusive OR (OR)
12	&&		Logical AND
13			Logical OR



Summary of the Operators and Precedence 3/3

Precedence	Operator	Associativity	Name
14	? :	R→L	Conditional
15	=		Assignment
	+=, -=		additive
	*=, /=, %=	R→L	multiplicative
	<<=, >>=		bitwise shift
	&=, ^=, =		Bitwise AND, XOR, OR
15	,	L→R	Comma

K. N. King: Page 735

http://en.cppreference.com/w/c/language/operator_precedence

