

CSC 322: Computer Organization Lab

Lecture 01: Introduction to C

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Grading and Class Policies

- Exam: 30%
- Labs: 70%
- Exam Details
 - Exams are closed book, closed notes
- All assignments must be your own original work.
 - Cheating/copying/partnering will not be tolerated

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Lab Reports

- You need to submit a report at the start of the next lab
- You will need to use the template on the course page

Course Introduction

- Lab will be held on Monday from 2:00-4:00 pm
 - Prefer to break it into two sessions: 30 minutes for the lecture and 30 minutes for the hands-on
 - You will work in groups of two for most of the labs
- Prerequisites
 - The ability to program
- What will we do in the lab?
 - Learn C programming
 - Learn Verilog
 - Model hardware using the above languages
- We will be using *Overleaf* in order to write the reports!

Contact Information

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Lab Assignments

- All assignments and handouts will be communicated via piazza
 - Make sure you enable your account
- Use *Google Classroom* for questions and inquiries
 - No questions will be answered via email
- All assignments must be submitted via github
 - git is a distributed version control system
 - Version control systems are better tools for sharing code than emailing files, using flash drives, or Dropbox
 - Make sure you get a private repo
 - Apply for a free account: https://education.github.com/discount_requests/new

On to C ...

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Why learn C (after Java)?

- Both high-level and low-level language
 - OS: user interface to kernel to device driver
- Better control of low-level mechanisms
 - Memory allocation, specific memory locations
- Performance better than Java
 - More predictable
- Java hides many details needed for writing OS code
- But you will have to worry about:
 - Memory management
 - Initialization and error detection
- More room for mistakes in C
- Philosophical considerations:
 - Being multi-lingual is good!
 - Should be able to trace program from UI to assembly (EEs: to electrons)

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C history

- C
 - Dennis Ritchie in late 1960s and early 1970s
 - *systems* programming language
 - make OS portable across hardware platforms
 - not necessarily for real applications – could be written in Fortran or PL/I
- C++
 - Bjarne Stroustrup (Bell Labs), 1980s
 - object-oriented features
- Java
 - James Gosling in 1990s, originally for embedded systems
 - object-oriented, like C++
 - ideas and some syntax from C

C for Java programmers

- Java is mid-90s high-level OO language
- C is early-70s *procedural* language
- C advantages:
 - Direct access to OS primitives (system calls)
 - Fewer library issues – just execute
- (More) C disadvantages:
 - language is portable, APIs are not
 - memory and “handle” leaks
 - preprocessor can lead to obscure errors

Simple Example

```
#include <stdio.h>

void main(void)
{
    printf("Hello World. \n \t and you ! \n ");
    /* print out a message */
    return;
}

$ gcc hello.c
$ ./a.out
$ Hello World.
    and you !
$
```

Simple Example

```
#include <stdio.h>

void main(void)
{
    printf("Hello World. \n \t and you ! \n ");
    /* print out a message */
    return;
}

$ gcc -o hello hello.c
$ ./hello
$ Hello World.
    and you !
$
```

Dissecting the example

- `#include <stdio.h>`
 - include header file `stdio.h`
 - # lines processed by *pre-processor*
 - No semicolon at end
 - Lower-case letters only – C is case-sensitive
- `void main(void){ ... }` is the only code executed
- `printf(" /* message you want printed */ ");`
- `\n` = newline, `\t` = tab
- `\` in front of other special characters within `printf`.
 - `printf("Have you heard of \"The Rock\" ? \n");`

Compiling and Executing a C Program

Executing the C program

- How can we pass parameters to a C program?
- Example
 - Assume we have a set of names in a file
 - I would like to pass the file as an argument so that these names are processed.
 - I do not wish to be prompted for a file name

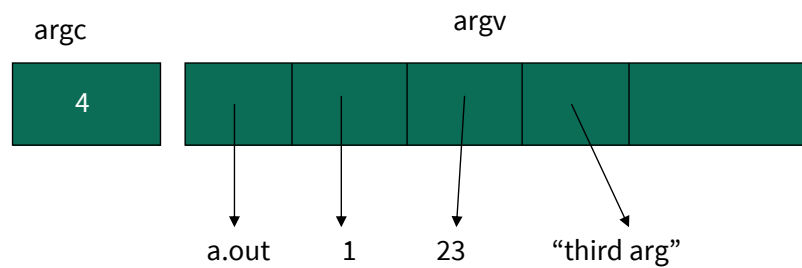
Executing the C program

```
int main(int argc, char argv[])
```

- argc is the argument count
- argv is the argument vector
 - array of strings with command-line arguments
- the `int` value is the return value
 - convention: 0 means success, > 0 some error
 - can also declare as void (no return value)

Executing a C program

- Name of executable + space-separated arguments
- \$ a.out 1 23 'third arg'



Executing a C program

- If no arguments, simplify:

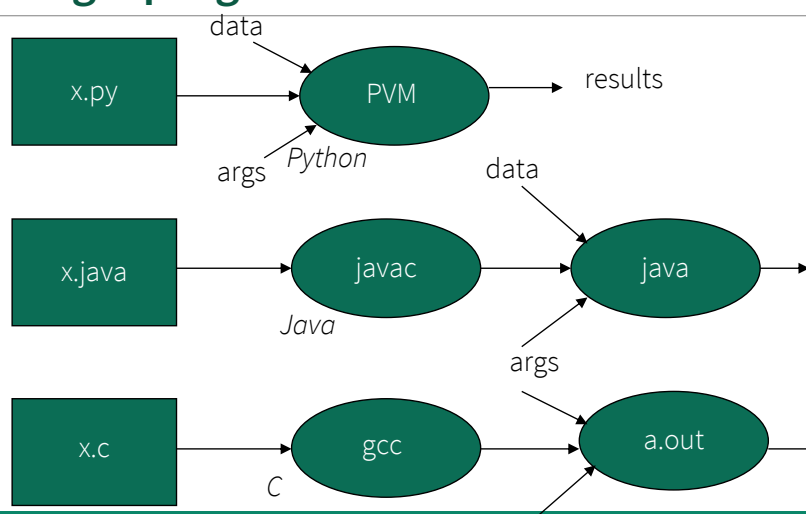
```
int main() {  
    puts("Hello World");  
    exit(0);  
}
```

- Uses `exit()` instead of `return` – same thing.

Executing C programs

- Scripting languages are usually interpreted
 - perl (python, Tcl) reads script, and executes it
 - sometimes, just-in-time compilation – invisible to user
- Java programs semi-interpreted:
 - javac converts foo.java into foo.class
 - not machine-specific
 - byte codes are then interpreted by JVM
- C programs are normally compiled and linked:
 - gcc converts foo.c into a.out
 - a.out is executed by OS and hardware

Executing C programs



The C compiler gcc

- gcc invokes C compiler
- gcc translates C program into executable for some target
- default file name a.out
- also “cross-compilation”

```
$ gcc hello.c
```

```
$ a.out
```

```
Hello, World!
```

Using gcc

- Two-stage compilation
 - pre-process & compile: `gcc -c hello.c`
 - link: `gcc -o hello hello.o`
- Linking several modules:

```
gcc -c a.c → a.o
gcc -c b.c → b.o
gcc -o hello a.o b.o
```
- Using math library
 - `gcc -o calc calc.c -lm`

Error reporting in gcc

- Multiple sources
 - preprocessor: missing include files
 - parser: syntax errors
 - assembler: rare
 - linker: missing libraries

Error reporting in gcc

- If gcc gets confused, hundreds of messages
 - fix first, and then retry – ignore the rest
- gcc will produce an executable with warnings
 - don't ignore warnings – compiler choice is often not what you had in mind
- Does not flag common mindos
 - `if (x = 0)` vs. `if (x == 0)`

gcc errors

- Produces object code for each module
- Assumes references to external names will be resolved later
- Undefined names will be reported when linking:

```
undefined symbol first referenced in file
  _print program.o
ld fatal: Symbol referencing errors
No output written to file.
```

Let us try to compile something using gcc

Source Code

```
#include <stdio.h>


int main(void)
{
    int iNumberOfMoney = 0; /* Initialization, required */

    printf("How much money do you have ?:" );
    scanf ("%d", &iNumberOfMoney); /* Read input */
    printf("You have %d Lebanese Pounds.\n", iNumberOfMoney);

    return 0;
}

$ How much money do you have ?: 200000 (enter)
You have 200000 Lebanese Pounds.
```

Using emacs, Linux, and gcc



```
haidar — -bash — 103x24
yoda:~ haidar$ emacs example.c
```

Type The code

```
haidar — emacs example.c — 103x24
#include <stdio.h>

int main(void)
{
    int iNumberOfMoney = 0; /* Initialization, required */

    printf("How much money do you have ?:");
    scanf ("%d", &iNumberOfMoney); /* Read input */
    printf("You have %d Lebanese Pounds.\n", iNumberOfMoney);

    return 0;
}

uuu:---F1 example.c All L11 (C/l Abbrev)-----
```

Compile and Run

```
haidar — -bash — 103x24
[yoda:~ haidar$ gcc -o example example.c ]
[yoda:~ haidar$ ./example ]
How much money do you have ?:200000
You have 200000 Lebanese Pounds.
yoda:~ haidar$
```

gcc Options

- **gcc -o example example.c -g -Wall**
 - ‘-o’ option tells the compiler to name the executable ‘**example**’
 - ‘-g’ option adds symbolic information to **example** for debugging
 - ‘-Wall’ tells it to print out all warnings (very useful!!!)
 - Can also give ‘-O6’ to turn on full optimization
 - -l to include libraries
 - -E for preprocessor output only
- To execute the program simply type: **./example**
- **gdb** is the Linux debugger

gcc Options: Summary

- Behavior controlled by command-line switches:

-o <i>file</i>	output file for object or executable
-Wall	all warnings – use always!
-c	compile single module (non-main)
-g	insert debugging code (gdb)
-p	insert profiling code
-l	library
-E	preprocessor output only

Let us redo the same example using Developer Studio or Xcode

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Open Xcode:

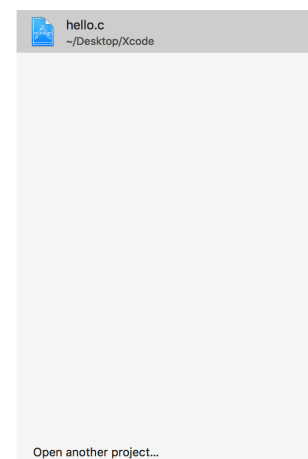
- Make sure that **Xcode** is already installed
 - Otherwise, freely download it from the **App Store**



Welcome to Xcode

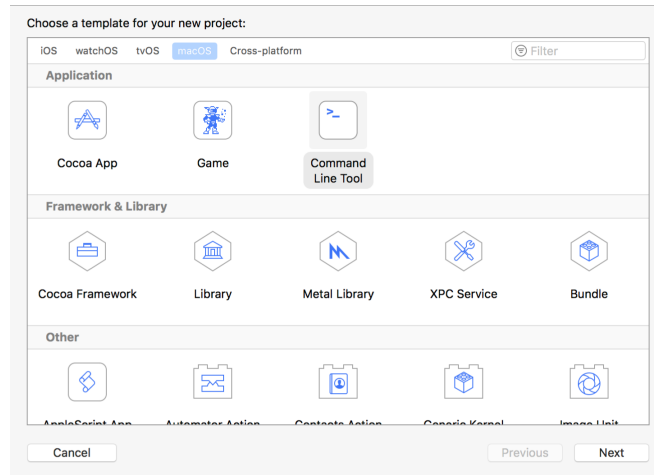
Version 9.2 (9C40b)

-  **Get started with a playground**
Explore new ideas quickly and easily.
 -  **Create a new Xcode project**
Create an app for iPhone, iPad, Mac, Apple Watch or Apple TV.
 -  **Clone an existing project**
Start working on something from an SCM repository.
- Show this window when Xcode launches



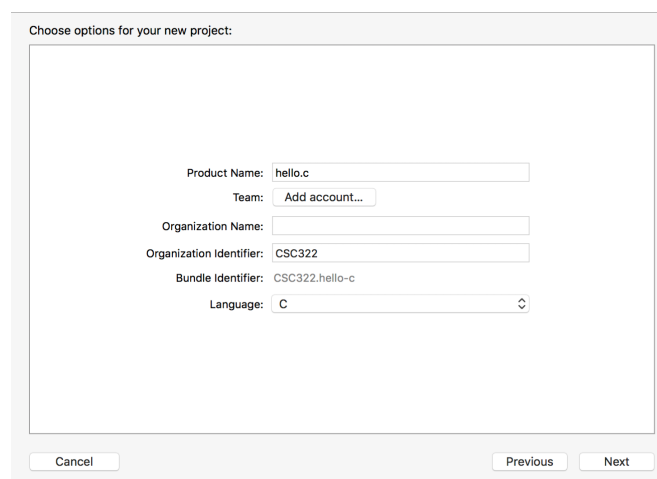
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Open Xcode and Create a Project Using the Command Line Tool




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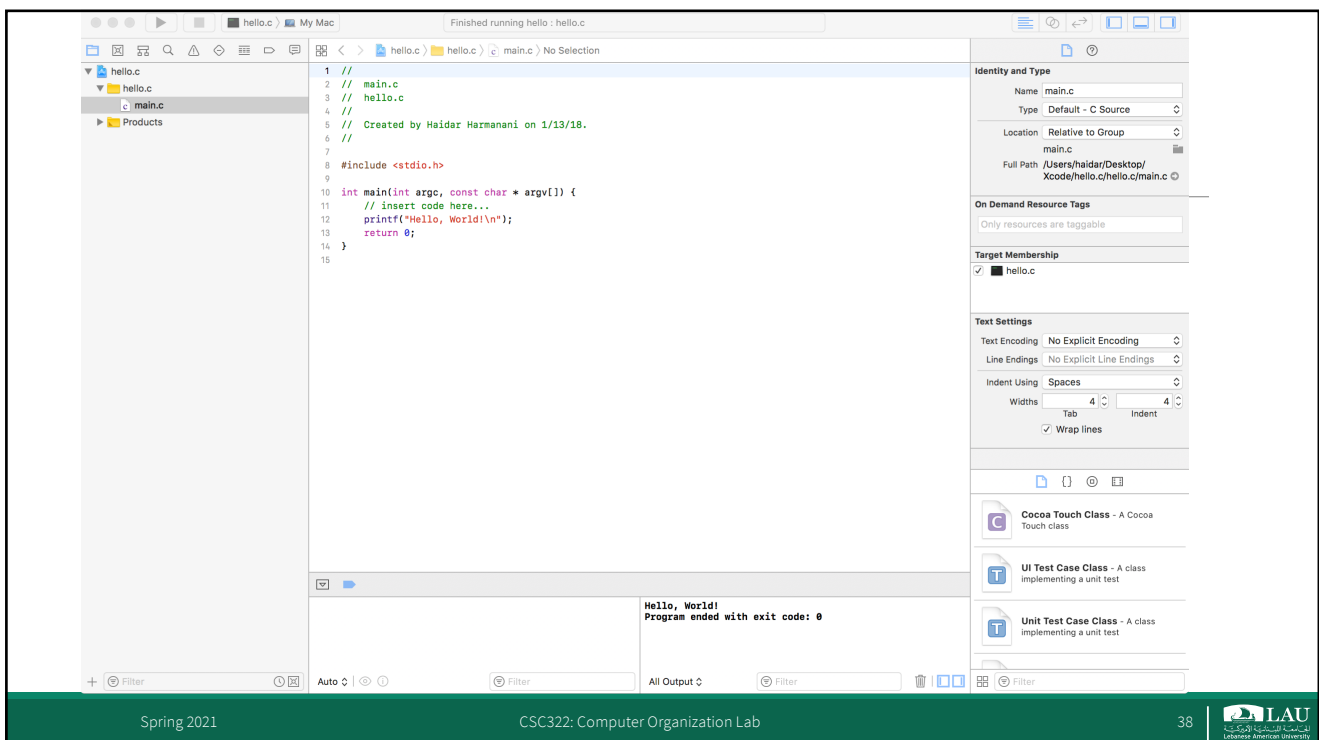
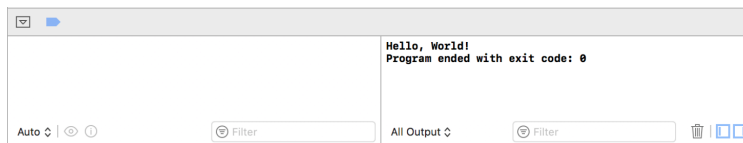
Name your project `hello.c` and Select any organization identifier



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Edit and Compile

- Type your code in the built-in editor
- Compile by clicking on the arrow 
- Output will be appear in the bottom window



More C Programming

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C preprocessor

- The C preprocessor (cpp) is a macro-processor which
 - manages a collection of macro definitions
 - reads a C program and transforms it
 - Example:

```
#define MAXVALUE 100
#define check(x) ((x) < MAXVALUE)
if (check(i) { ...}
becomes
if ((i) < 100) {...}
```

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C preprocessor

- Preprocessor directives start with # at beginning of line:
 - define new macros
 - input files with C code (typically, definitions)
 - conditionally compile parts of file
- `gcc -E` shows output of preprocessor
- Can be used independently of compiler

C preprocessor

- ```
#define name const-expression
#define name (param1,param2,...) expression
#undef symbol
```
- replaces name with constant or expression
  - textual substitution
  - symbolic names for global constants
  - *in-line* functions (avoid function call overhead)
    - mostly unnecessary for modern compilers
  - type-independent code

## C preprocessor

- Example: `#define MAXLEN 255`
  - Lots of system .h files define macros
  - invisible in debugger
  - `getchar()`, `putchar()` in stdio library
- ```
#define valid(x) ((x) > 0 && (x) < 20)
if (valid(x++)) {...}
valid(x++) -> ((x++) > 0 && (x++) < 20)
```



Don't treat macros like function calls

C preprocessor –file inclusion

- ```
#include "filename.h"
#include <filename.h>
```
- inserts contents of filename into file to be compiled
  - "filename" relative to current directory
  - <filename> relative to `/usr/include`
  - `gcc -I` flag to re-define default
  - import function prototypes (cf. Java import)
  - Examples:

```
#include <stdio.h>
#include "mydefs.h"
#include "/home/alice/program/defs.h"
```

## C preprocessor – conditional compilation

```
#if expression
code segment 1
#else
code segment 2
#endif
```

- preprocessor checks value of expression
- if true, outputs code segment 1, otherwise code segment 2
- machine or OS-dependent code
- can be used to comment out chunks of code – bad!

```
#define OS linux
...
#if OS == linux
 puts("Linux!");
#else
 puts("Something else");
#endif
```

## C preprocessor - ifdef

- For boolean flags, easier:

```
#ifdef name
code segment 1
#else
code segment 2
#endif
```

- preprocessor checks if name has been defined  
– #define USEDB
- if so, use code segment 1, otherwise 2

## Advice on preprocessor

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- Limit use as much as possible
  - subtle errors
  - not visible in debugging
  - code hard to read
- much of it is historical baggage
- there are better alternatives for almost everything:
  - #define INT16 -> type definitions
  - #define MAXLEN -> const
  - #define max(a,b) -> regular functions
  - comment out code -> CVS, functions
- limit to .h files, to isolate OS & machine-specific code

## C Comments and data types



## Comments

- `/* any text until */`
- `//` C++-style comments – careful!
- no `/** */`, but doc++ has similar conventions
- Convention for longer comments:  

```
/*
 * AverageGrade()
 * Given an array of grades, compute the average.
 */
```
- Avoid `****` boxes – hard to edit, usually look ragged.

## Numeric data types

| type      | bytes | range                           |
|-----------|-------|---------------------------------|
| char      | 1     | -128 ... 127                    |
| short     | 2     | -65536...65535                  |
| int, long | 4     | -2,147,483,648 to 2,147,483,647 |
| long long | 8     | $2^{64}$                        |
| float     | 4     | 3.4E+/-38 (7 digits)            |
| double    | 8     | 1.7E+/-308 (15 digits)          |

## Remarks on data types

- Range differs – `int` is “native” size, e.g., 64 bits on 64-bit machines, but sometimes `int` = 32 bits, `long` = 64 bits
- Also, unsigned versions of integer types
  - same bits, different interpretation
- `char` = 1 “character”, but only true for ASCII and other Western char sets

## Type conversion

```
#include <stdio.h>
void main(void)
{
 int i,j = 12; /* i not initialized, only j */
 float f1,f2 = 1.2;

 i = (int) f2; /* explicit: i <- 1, 0.2 lost */
 f1 = i; /* implicit: f1 <- 1.0 */

 f1 = f2 + (int) j; /* explicit: f1 <- 1.2 + 12.0 */
 f1 = f2 + j; /* implicit: f1 <- 1.2 + 12.0 */
}
```

## Explicit and implicit conversions

---

- Implicit: e.g., `s = a (int) + b (char)`
- Promotion: `char -> short -> int -> ...`
- If one operand is `double`, the other is made `double`
- If either is `float`, the other is made `float`, etc.
- Explicit: type casting - (`type`)
- Almost any conversion does something - but not necessarily what you intended

## Type conversion

---

```
int x = 100000;
short s;

s = x;
printf("%d %d\n", x, s);

100000 -31072
```

## C – no booleans

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- C doesn't have booleans
- Emulate as int or char, with values 0 (false) and 1 or non-zero (true)
- Allowed by flow control statements:

```
if (n = 0) {
 printf("something wrong");
}
```

- Assignment returns zero -> false

## User-defined types

---

- typedef gives names to types:  
typedef short int smallNumber;  
typedef unsigned char byte;  
typedef char String[100];

```
smallNumber x;
byte b;
String name;
```

## Defining your own boolean

---

```
typedef char boolean;
#define FALSE 0
#define TRUE 1
```

- Generally works, but beware:  
`check = x > 0;`  
`if (check == TRUE) {...}`
- If `x` is positive, `check` will be non-zero, but may not be 1.

## Enumerated types

---

- Define new integer-like types as enumerated types:

```
typedef enum {
 Red, Orange, Yellow, Green, Blue, Violet
} Color;
enum weather {rain, snow=2, sun=4};
```

- look like C identifiers (names)
- are listed (enumerated) in definition
- treated like integers
  - can add, subtract – even `color + weather`
  - can't print as symbol (unlike Pascal)
  - but debugger generally will

## Enumerated types

---

- Just syntactic sugar for ordered collection of integer constants:

```
typedef enum {
 Red, Orange, Yellow
} Color;
```

is like

```
#define Red 0
#define Orange 1
#define Yellow 2
```

- `typedef enum {False, True} boolean;`

## Bit fields

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- On previous slides, labeled integers with size in bits (e.g., `pt:7`)
- Allows aligning struct with real memory data, e.g., in protocols or device drivers
- Order can differ between little/big-endian systems
- Alignment restrictions on modern processors – *natural* alignment
- Sometimes clearer than `(x & 0x8000) >> 31`

## Control Structures

## Control structures

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- Same as Java
- sequencing: `;`
- grouping: `{...}`
- selection: `if, switch`
- iteration: `for, while`

## Sequencing and grouping

---

- `statement1 ; statement2; statement n;`
  - executes each of the statements in turn
  - a semicolon after every statement
  - not required after a `{...}` block
- `{ statements } { declarations statements }`
  - treat the sequence of statements as a single operation (block)
  - data objects may be defined at beginning of block

## The `if` statement

---

- Same as Java

```
if (condition1) {statements1}
else if (condition2) {statements2}
else if (conditionn-1) {statementsn-1}
else {statementsn}
```
- evaluates statements until find one with non-zero result
- executes corresponding statements



## The `if` statement

---

- Can omit {}, but careful

```
if (x > 0)
 printf("x > 0!");
 if (y > 0)
 printf("x and y > 0!");
```

## The `switch` statement

---

- Allows choice based on a single value

```
switch(expression) {
 case const1: statements1; break;
 case const2: statements2; break;
 default: statementsn;
}
```

- Effect: evaluates integer expression
- looks for case with matching value
- executes corresponding statements (or defaults)

## The switch statement

```
Weather w;
switch(w) {
 case rain:
 printf("bring umbrella");
 case snow:
 printf("wear jacket");
 break;
 case sun:
 printf("wear sunscreen");
 break;
 default:
 printf("strange weather");
}
```

## Repetition

- C has several control structures for repetition

| Statement              | repeats an action...                               |
|------------------------|----------------------------------------------------|
| while(c) {}            | zero or more times, while condition is $\neq 0$    |
| do {...} while(c)      | one or more times, while condition is $\neq 0$     |
| for (start; cond; upd) | zero or more times, with initialization and update |

## The break statement

---

- `break` allows early exit from one loop level

```
for (init; condition; next) {
 statements1;
 if (condition2) break;
 statements2;
}
```

## The continue statement

---

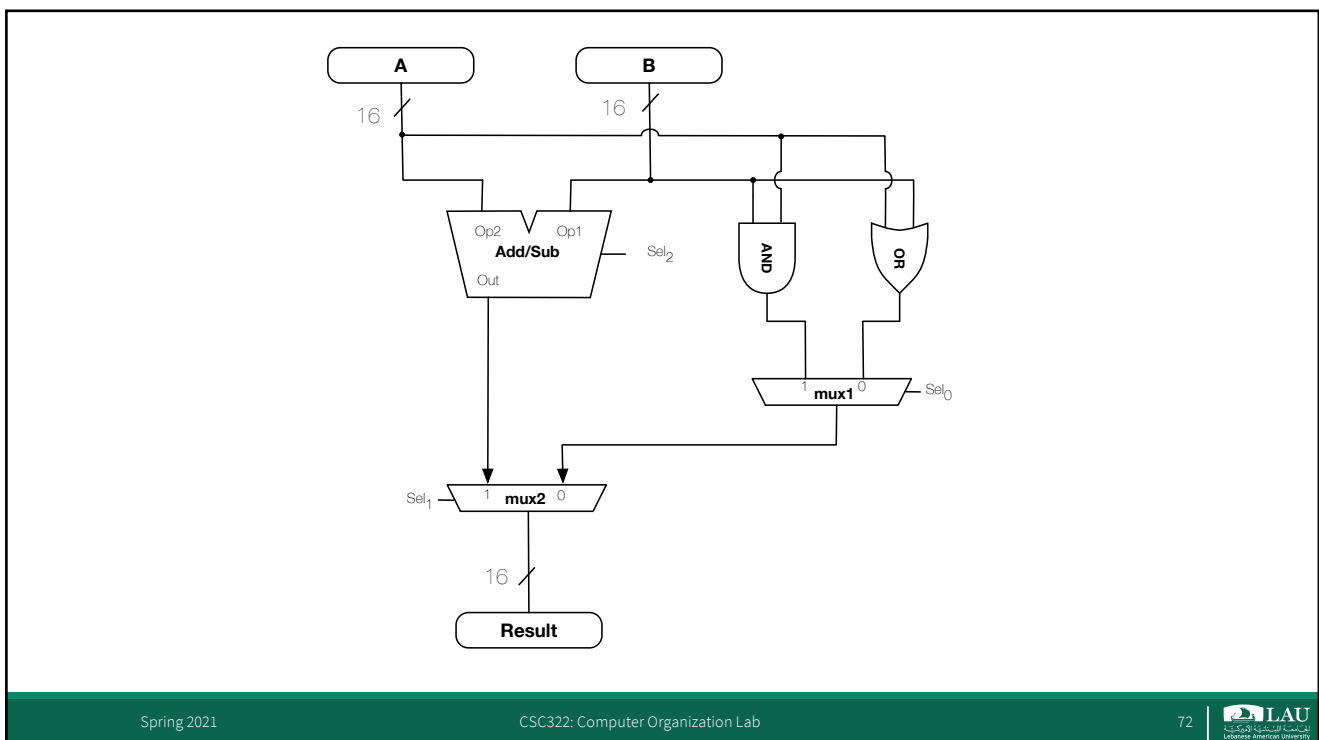
- `continue` skips to next iteration, ignoring rest of loop body

```
for (init; condition1; next) {
 statement2;
 if (condition2) continue;
 statement2;
}
```

- often better written as `if` with block

## Using C to Model Hardware

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## C Objects (or lack thereof)

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### Objects (or lack thereof)

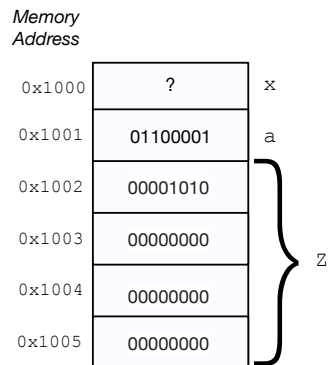
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- C does not have objects (C++ does)
- Variables for C's primitive types are defined very similarly:  

```
short int x;
char ch;
float pi = 3.1415;
float f, g;
```
- Variables defined in {} block are active only in block
- Variables defined outside a block are global (persist during program execution), but may not be globally visible (static)

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```
char x;
char y = 'a';
int z = 10;
```



## C Variables

- Variable = container that can hold a value
  - in C, pretty much a CPU word or similar
- default value is (mostly) undefined – treat as random
  - compiler may warn you about uninitialized variables
- `ch = 'a'; x = x + 4;`
- Always pass by value, but can pass address to function:  
`scanf("%d%f", &x, &f);`

## C Variables

---

- Every data object in C has
  - a name and data type (specified in definition)
  - an address (its relative location in memory)
  - a size (number of bytes of memory it occupies)
  - visibility (which parts of program can refer to it)
  - lifetime (period during which it exists)

- Warning:

```
int *foo(char x) {
 return &x;
}
pt = foo(x);
*pt = 17;
```

## C Variables

---

- Unlike scripting languages and Java, all C data objects have a fixed size over their lifetime
  - except dynamically created objects
- Size of object is determined when object is created:
  - global data objects at compile time (data)
  - local data objects at run-time (stack)
  - dynamic data objects by programmer (heap)

## Dynamic Memory Allocation

```
int x;
int arr[20];
int main(int argc, char *argv[]) {
 int i = 20;
 {into x; x = i + 7;}
}
int f(int n)
{
 int a, *p;
 a = 1;
 p = (int *)malloc(sizeof int);
}
```

## Dynamic Memory Allocation

- `malloc()` allocates a block of memory
- Lifetime until memory is freed, with `free()`.
- Memory *leakage* – memory allocated is never freed:

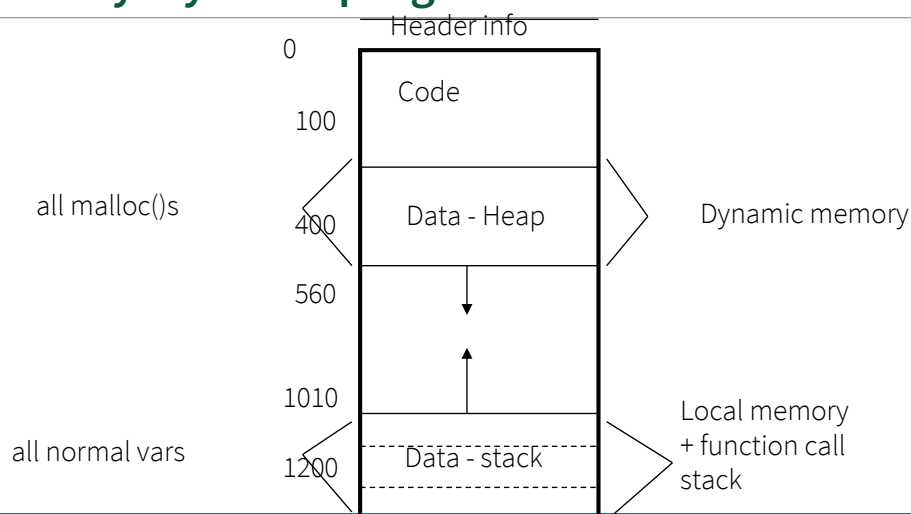
```
char *combine(char *s, char *t) {
 u = (char *)malloc(strlen(s) + strlen(t) + 1);
 if (s != t) {
 strcpy(u, s); strcat(u, t);
 return u;
 } else {
 return 0;
 }
}
```



## Dynamic Memory Allocation

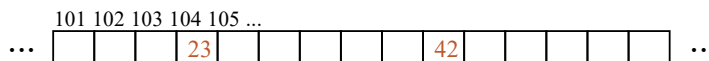
- Note: `malloc()` does not initialize data
- `void *calloc(size_t n, size_t elsize)` does initialize (to zero)
- Can also change size of allocated memory blocks:  
`void *realloc(void *ptr, size_t size)`  
`ptr` points to existing block, `size` is new size
- New pointer may be different from old, but content is copied.

## Memory layout of programs



## Address vs. Value

- Consider memory to be a single huge array:
  - Each cell of the array has an address associated with it.
  - Each cell also stores some value.
  - Do you think they use signed or unsigned numbers? Negative address?!
- Don't confuse the **address** referring to a memory location with the **value** stored in that location.

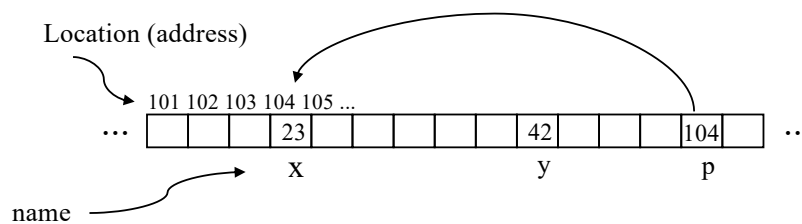


## C Pointers

- The memory **address** of a data object, e.g., `int x`
  - can be obtained via `&x`
  - has a data type `int *` (in general, `type *`)
  - has a value which is a large (4/8 byte) unsigned integer
  - can have pointers to pointers: `int **`
- The **size** of a data object, e.g., `int x`
  - can be obtained via `sizeof x` or `sizeof(x)`
  - has data type `size_t`, but is often assigned to `int` (bad!)
  - has a value which is a small(ish) integer
  - is measured in bytes

## C Pointers

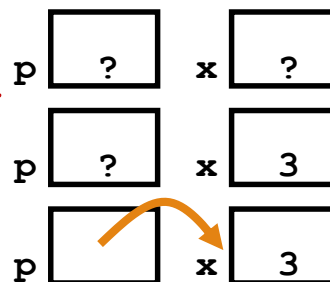
- An address refers to a particular memory location. In other words, it points to a memory location.
- **Pointer**: A variable that contains the address of a variable.



## C Pointers

- How to create a pointer:
  - & operator: get address of a variable

```
int *p, x;
x = 3;
p = &x;
```



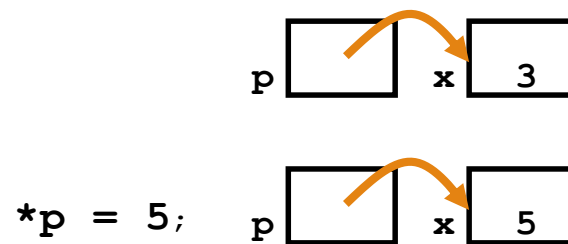
Note the “\*” gets used 2 different ways in this example.

In the declaration to indicate that **p** is going to be a pointer, and in the **printf** to get the value pointed to by **p**.

- How get a value pointed to?
  - \* “dereference operator”: get value pointed to
  - printf(“p points to %d\n”, \*p);

## C Pointers

- How to change a variable pointed to?
  - Use dereference \* operator on left of =



## C Pointers

```
int x = 5, y = 10;
float f = 12.5, g = 9.8;
char c = 'c', d = 'd';
```

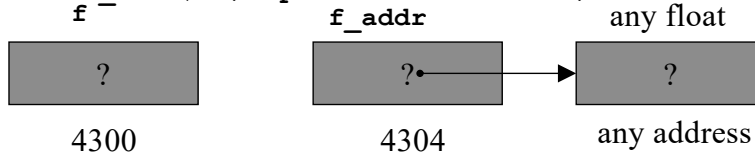
|      |      |      |      |      |      |
|------|------|------|------|------|------|
| 5    | 10   | 12.5 | 9.8  | c    | d    |
| 4300 | 4304 | 4308 | 4312 | 4316 | 4317 |

## C Pointers

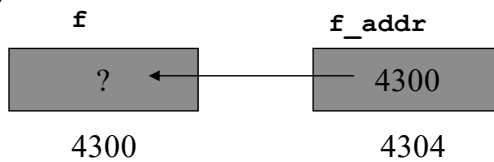
- *Pointer* = variable containing address of another variable

```
float f; /* data variable */
```

```
float *f_addr; /* pointer variable */
```

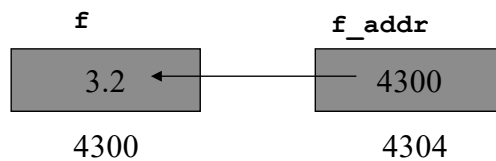


```
f_addr = &f; /* & = address operator */
```



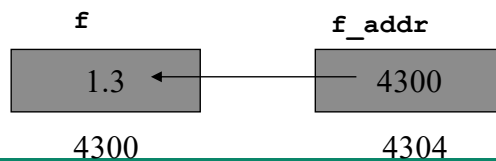
## C Pointers

```
f_addr = 3.2; / indirection operator */
```



```
float g=*f_addr; /* indirection:g is now 3.2 */
```

```
f = 1.3;
```



## Pointers and Parameter Passing

- Java and C pass parameters “by value”
  - procedure/function/method gets a copy of the parameter, so changing the copy cannot change the original

```
void addOne (int x)
{
 x = x + 1;
}
int y = 3;
addOne(y);
```

*What is the value of y? Why?*

## Pointers and Parameter Passing

- How to get a function to change a value?

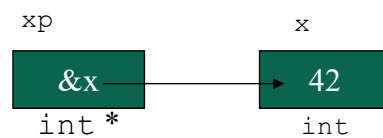
```
void addOne (int *p) {
 *p = *p + 1;
}
int y = 3;

addOne(&y);
```

*y is now = 4*

## C Pointers

- Every data type T in C/C++ has an associated pointer type T \*
- A value of type \* is the address of an object of type T
- If an object `int *xp` has value `&x`, the expression `*xp` dereferences the pointer and refers to `x`, thus has type `int`



## C Pointers

- If `p` contains the address of a data object, then `*p` allows you to use that object

- `*p` is treated just like normal data object

```
int a, b, *c, *d;
d = 17; / BAD idea */
a = 2; b = 3; c = &a; d = &b;
if (*c == *d) puts("Same value");
*c = 3;
if (*c == *d) puts("Now same value");
c = d;
if (c == d) puts ("Now same address");
```

## void pointers

- Generic pointer
- Unlike other pointers, can be assigned to any other pointer type:

```
void *v;
char *s = v;
```

- Acts like char \* otherwise:  
v++, sizeof(\*v) = 1;

## What does this C program do ?

```
#include <stdio.h>
struct list(int data; struct list *next);
struct list *start, *end;
void add(struct list *head, struct list *list, int data);
int delete(struct list *head, struct list *tail);

void main(void) {
 start=end=NULL;
 add(start, end, 2);
 add(start, end, 3);
 printf("First element: %d", delete(start, end));
}

void add(struct list *head, struct list *tail, int data) {
 if(tail==NULL) {
 head=tail=malloc(sizeof(struct list));
 head->data=data; head->next=NULL;
 }
 else {
 tail->next= malloc(sizeof(struct list));
 tail=tail->next; tail->data=data; tail->next=NULL;
 }
}
```

Terrified ? Come  
back to this at  
the end of the  
slide set and  
work through it.



## What does this C program, do – cont'd?

```
void delete (struct list *head, struct list *tail){
 struct list *temp;
 if(head==tail){
 free(head); head=tail=NULL;
 }
 else{
 temp=head->next; free(head); head=temp;
 }
}
```

## C Data Structures

## Structured data objects

- Structured data objects are available as

| object   | property                    |
|----------|-----------------------------|
| array [] | enumerated, numbered from 0 |
| struct   | names and types of fields   |
| union    | occupy same space (one of)  |

## Arrays

- Arrays are defined by specifying an element type and number of elements

```
- int vec[100];
- char str[30];
- float m[10][10];
```

- For array containing  $N$  elements, indexes are  $0..N-1$
- Stored as linear arrangement of elements
- Often similar to pointers

## Arrays

- C does not remember how large arrays are (i.e., no length attribute)
- `int x[10]; x[10] = 5;` may work (for a while)
- In the block where array A is defined:
  - `sizeof A` gives the number of bytes in array
  - can compute length via `sizeof A / sizeof A[0]`
- When an array is passed as a parameter to a function
  - the size information is not available inside the function
  - array size is typically passed as an additional parameter
    - `PrintArray(A, VECSIZE);`
  - or as part of a `struct` (best, object-like)
  - or globally
    - `#define VECSIZE 10`

## Arrays

- Array elements are accessed using the same syntax as in Java: `array[index]`
- Example (iteration over array):

```
int i, sum = 0;
...
for (i = 0; i < VECSIZE; i++)
 sum += vec[i];
```
- C does not check whether array index values are sensible (i.e., no bounds checking)
  - `vec[-1]` or `vec[10000]` will not generate a compiler warning!
  - if you're lucky, the program crashes with  
Segmentation fault (core dumped)

## Arrays

- C references arrays by the address of their first element
- `array` is equivalent to `&array[0]`
- can iterate through arrays using pointers as well as indexes:

```
int *v, *last;
int sum = 0;
last = &vec[VECSIZE-1];
for (v = vec; v <= last; v++)
 sum += *v;
```

## 2-D arrays

- 2-dimensional array  
`int weekends[52][2];`



- `weekends[2][1]` is same as `*(weekends+2*2+1)`  
– NOT `*weekends+2*2+1` :this is an int !

## Arrays - example

```
#include <stdio.h>
void main(void) {
 int number[12]; /* 12 cells, one cell per student */
 int index, sum = 0;
 /* Always initialize array before use */
 for (index = 0; index < 12; index++) {
 number[index] = index;
 }
 /* now, number[index]=index; will cause error:why ?*/

 for (index = 0; index < 12; index = index + 1) {
 sum += number[index]; /* sum array elements */
 }
 return;
}
```

## Aside: void, void \*

- Function that doesn't return anything declared as void
- No argument declared as void
- Special pointer \*void can point to anything

```
#include <stdio.h>
extern void *f(void);
void *f(void) {
 printf("the big void\n");
 return NULL;
}
int main(void) {
 f();
}
```

## Overriding functions – function pointers

- overriding: changing the implementation, leave prototype
- in C, can use function pointers  
returnType (\*ptrName)(arg1, arg2, ...);
- for example, int (\*fp)(double x); is a pointer to a function that return an integer
- double \* (\*gp)(int) is a pointer to a function that returns a pointer to a double

## structs

- Similar to fields in Java object/class definitions
- components can be any type (but not recursive)
- accessed using the same syntax struct.field

- Example:

```
struct {int x; char y; float z;} rec;
...
r.x = 3; r.y = 'a'; r.z= 3.1415;
```

## structs

---

- Record types can be defined
  - using a tag associated with the struct definition
  - wrapping the struct definition inside a typedef
- Examples:

```
struct complex {double real; double imag;};
struct point {double x; double y;} corner;
typedef struct {double real; double imag;} Complex;
struct complex a, b;
Complex c,d;
```
- a and b have the same size, structure and type
- a and c have the same size and structure, but different types

## structs

---

- Overall size is sum of elements, plus padding for alignment:

```
struct {
 char x;
 int y;
 char z;
} s1; sizeof(s1) = ?
struct {
 char x, z;
 int y;
} s2; sizeof(s2) = ?
```

## structs - example

```
struct person {
 char name[41];
 int age;
 float height;
 struct { /* embedded structure */
 int month;
 int day;
 int year;
 } birth;
};
struct person me;
me.birth.year=1977;
struct person class[60];
 /* array of info about everyone in class */
class[0].name="Gun"; class[0].birth.year=1971;.....
```

## structs

- Often used to model real memory layout, e.g.,

```
typedef struct {
 unsigned int version:2;
 unsigned int p:1;
 unsigned int cc:4;
 unsigned int m:1;
 unsigned int pt:7;
 u_int16 seq;
 u_int32 ts;
} rtp_hdr_t;
```



## Dereferencing pointers to struct elements

- Pointers commonly to `struct`'s  
`(*sp).element = 42;`  
`y = (*sp).element;`
- Note: `*sp.element` doesn't work
- Abbreviated alternative:  
`sp->element = 42;`  
`y = sp->element;`

## More pointers

```
int month[12]; /* month is a pointer to base address 430*/
month[3] = 7; /* month address + 3 * int elements => int at address (430+3*4) is now 7 */

ptr = month + 2; /* ptr points to month[2], => ptr is now (430+2 * int elements)= 438 */
ptr[5] = 12; /* ptr address + 5 int elements
=> int at address (434+5*4) is now 12.
Thus, month[7] is now 12 */

ptr++; /* ptr <- 438 + 1 * size of int = 442 */
(ptr + 4)[2] = 12; /* accessing ptr[6] i.e., array[9] */
```

- Now, `month[6]`, `*(month+6)`, `(month+4)[2]`, `ptr[3]`, `*(ptr+3)` are all the same integer variable.

## C Functions

## Functions

---

- Prototypes and functions (cf. Java interfaces)
  - extern int putchar(int c);
  - putchar('A');
  - int putchar(int c) {  
    do something interesting here  
}
- If defined before use in same file, no need for prototype
- Typically, prototype defined in .h file
- Good idea to include <.h> in actual definition

## Functions

---

- static functions and variables hide them to those outside the same file:

```
static int x;
static int times2(int c) {
 return c*2;
}
```

- compare protected class members in Java.

## Functions – const arguments

---

- Indicates that argument won't be changed.
- Only meaningful for pointer arguments and declarations:

```
int c(const char *s, const int x) {
 const int VALUE = 10;
 printf("x = %d\n", VALUE);
 return *s;
}
```

- Attempts to change **\*s** will yield compiler warning.

## Functions - extern

```
#include <stdio.h>

extern char user2line [20]; /* global variable defined
 in another file */
char user1line[30]; /* global for this file */
void dummy(void);

void main(void) {
 char user1line[20]; /* different from earlier
 user1line[30] */
 . . . /* restricted to this func */
}

void dummy(){
 extern char user1line[]; /* the global user1line[30] */
 . . .
}
```

## Overloading functions – var. arg. list

- Java:  
void product(double x, double y);  
void product(vector x, vector y);
- C doesn't support this, but allows variable number of arguments:  
debug(“%d %f”, x, f);  
debug(“%c”, c);
- declared as **void debug(char \*fmt, ...)**;
- at least one known argument

## Overloading functions

---

- must include <stdarg.h>:

```
#include <stdarg.h>
double product(int number, ...) {
 va_list list;
 double p;
 int i;
 va_start(list, number);
 for (i = 0, p = 1.0; i < number; i++) {
 p *= va_arg(list, double);
 }
 va_end(list);
}
```

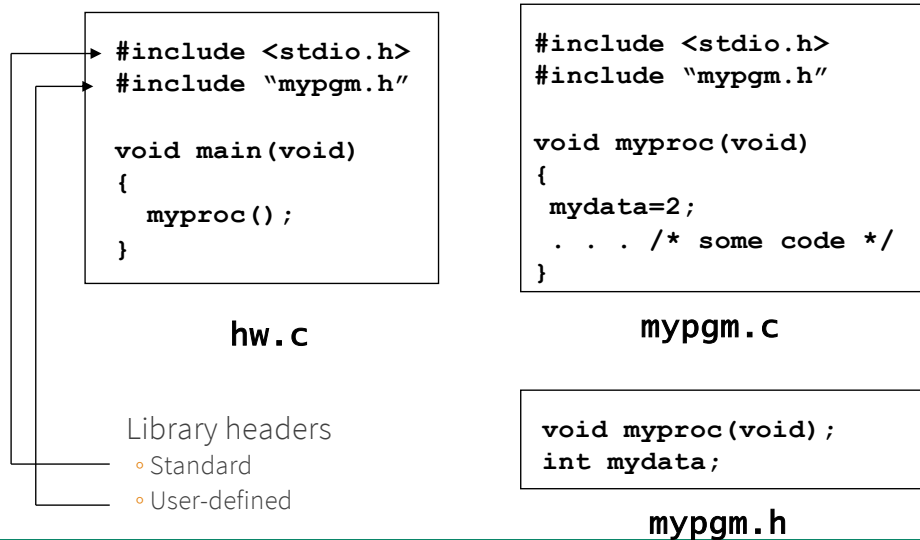
- Danger
  - `product(2, 3, 4)` won't work, needs `product(2, 3.0, 4.0)`;

## Overloading functions

---

- Limitations:
  - cannot access arguments in middle
    - needs to copy to variables or local array
  - client and function need to know and adhere to type

## Program with multiple files



## Data hiding in C

- C doesn't have classes or private members, but this can be approximated

- Implementation defines real data structure:

```
#define QUEUE_C
#include "queue.h"
typedef struct queue_t {
 struct queue_t *next;
 int data;
} *queue_t, queuestruct_t;
queue_t NewQueue(void) {
 return q;
}
```

- Header file defines public data:

```
#ifndef QUEUE_C
typedef struct queue_t *queue_t;
#endif
queue_t NewQueue(void);
```

## Pointer to function

---

```
int func(); /*function returning integer*/
int *func(); /*function returning pointer to integer*/
int (*func)(); /*pointer to function returning integer*/
int **func(); /*pointer to func returning ptr to int*/
```

## Function pointers

---

```
int (*fp)(void);
double* (*gp)(int);
int f(void)
double *g(int);

fp=f;
gp=g;

int i = fp();
double *g = (*gp)(17); /* alternative */
```

## Pointer to function - example

```
#include <stdio.h>

void myproc (int d);
void mycaller(void (* f)(int), int param);

void main(void) {
 myproc(10); /* call myproc with parameter
10*/
 mycaller(myproc, 10); /* and do the same again ! */
}

void mycaller(void (* f)(int), int param){
 (*f)(param); /* call function *f with param */
}

void myproc (int d){
 . . . /* do something with d */
}
```

## C Libraries



## Libraries

- C provides a set of standard libraries for

|                          |            |     |
|--------------------------|------------|-----|
| numerical math functions | <math.h>   | -lm |
| character strings        | <string.h> |     |
| character types          | <ctype.h>  |     |
| I/O                      | <stdio.h>  |     |

## The math library

- `#include <math.h>`
  - careful: `sqrt(5)` without header file may give wrong result!
- `gcc -o compute main.o f.o -lm`
- Uses normal mathematical notation:

|                              |                         |
|------------------------------|-------------------------|
| <code>Math.sqrt(2)</code>    | <code>sqrt(2)</code>    |
| <code>Math.pow(x,5)</code>   | <code>pow(x,5)</code>   |
| <code>4*math.pow(x,3)</code> | <code>4*pow(x,3)</code> |

## Characters

- The char type is an 8-bit byte containing ASCII code values (e.g., 'A' = 65, 'B' = 66, ...)
- Often, char is treated like (and converted to) int
- `<ctype.h>` contains character classification functions:

|                           |              |              |
|---------------------------|--------------|--------------|
| <code>isalnum(ch)</code>  | alphanumeric | [a-zA-Z0-9]  |
| <code>isalpha (ch)</code> | alphabetic   | [a-zA-Z]     |
| <code>isdigit(ch)</code>  | digit        | [0-9]        |
| <code>ispunct(ch)</code>  | punctuation  | [~!@#%^&...] |
| <code>isspace(ch)</code>  | white space  | [\t\n]       |
| <code>isupper(ch)</code>  | upper-case   | [A-Z]        |
| <code>islower(ch)</code>  | lower-case   | [a-z]        |

## Strings

- In Java, strings are regular objects
- In C, strings are just **char** arrays with a **NUL** (`'\0'`) terminator
- "a cat" = 

|   |  |   |   |   |    |
|---|--|---|---|---|----|
| a |  | c | a | t | \0 |
|---|--|---|---|---|----|
- A literal string ("a cat")
  - is automatically allocated memory space to contain it and the terminating `\0`
  - has a value which is the address of the first character
  - can't be changed by the program (common bug!)
- All other strings must have space allocated to them by the program

## Strings

---

```
char *makeBig(char *s) {
 s[0] = toupper(s[0]);
 return s;
}
makeBig("a cat");
```

## Strings

---

- We normally refer to a string via a pointer to its first character:

```
char *str = "my string";
char *s;
s = &str[0]; s = str;
```

- C functions only know string ending by \0:

```
char *str = "my string";
...
int i;
for (i = 0; str[i] != '\0'; i++) putchar(str[i]);
char *s;
for (s = str; *s; s++) putchar(*s);
```

## Strings

---

- Can treat like arrays:

```
char c;
char line[100];
for (i = 0; i < 100 && line[c]; i++) {
 if (isalpha(line[c]) ...
}
```

## Copying strings

---

- Copying content vs. copying pointer to content
- `s = t` copies pointer – `s` and `t` now refer to the same memory location

- `strcpy(s, t)`; copies content of `t` to `s`

```
char mybuffer[100];
```

```
...
```

```
mybuffer = "a cat";
```

- is incorrect (but appears to work!)
- Use `strcpy(mybuffer, "a cat")` instead

## Example string manipulation

```
#include <stdio.h>
#include <string.h>
int main(void) {
 char line[100];
 char *family, *given, *gap;
 printf("Enter your name:"); fgets(line,100,stdin);
 given = line;
 for (gap = line; *gap; gap++)
 if (isspace(*gap)) break;
 *gap = '\0';
 family = gap+1;
 printf("Your name: %s, %s\n", family, given);
 return 0;
}
```

## string.h library

- Assumptions:
  - `#include <string.h>`
  - strings are NUL-terminated
  - all target arrays are large enough
- Operations:
  - `char *strcpy(char *dest, char *source)`
    - copies chars from source array into dest array up to NUL
  - `char *strncpy(char *dest, char *source, int num)`
    - copies chars; stops after num chars if no NUL before that; appends NUL

## string.h library

---

- `int strlen(const char *source)`
  - returns number of chars, excluding NUL
- `char *strchr(const char *source, const char ch)`
  - returns pointer to first occurrence of ch in source; NUL if none
- `char *strstr(const char *source, const char *search)`
  - return pointer to first occurrence of search in source

## Formatted strings

---

- String parsing and formatting (binary from/to text)
- `int sscanf(char *string, char *format, ...)`
  - parse the contents of string according to format
  - placed the parsed items into 3<sup>rd</sup>, 4<sup>th</sup>, 5<sup>th</sup>, ... argument
  - return the number of successful conversions
- `int sprintf(char *buffer, char *format, ...)`
  - produce a string formatted according to format
  - place this string into the buffer
  - the 3<sup>rd</sup>, 4<sup>th</sup>, 5<sup>th</sup>, ... arguments are formatted
  - return number of successful conversions

## Formatted strings

---

- The format strings for **sscanf** and **sprintf** contain
  - plain text (matched on input or inserted into the output)
  - formatting codes (which must match the arguments)
- The **sprintf** format string gives template for result string
- The **sscanf** format string describes what input should look like

## Formatted strings

---

- Formatting codes for **sscanf**

| Code  | meaning                            | variable |
|-------|------------------------------------|----------|
| %c    | matches a single character         | char     |
| %d    | matches an integer in decimal      | int      |
| %f    | matches a real number (ddd.dd)     | float    |
| %s    | matches a string up to white space | char *   |
| %[^c] | matches string up to next c char   | char *   |

## Formatted strings

- Formatting codes for printf
- Values normally right-justified; use negative field width to get left-justified

| Code  | meaning                                       | variable      |
|-------|-----------------------------------------------|---------------|
| %nc   | char in field of n spaces                     | char          |
| %nd   | integer in field of n spaces                  | int, long     |
| %n.mf | real number in width n, m decimals            | float, double |
| %n.mg | real number in width n, m digits of precision | float, double |
| %n.ms | first m chars from string in width n          | char *        |

## Formatted strings - examples

```
char *msg = "Hello there";
char *nums = "1 3 5 7 9";
char s[10], t[10];
int a, b, c, n;

n = sscanf(msg, "%s %s", s, t);
n = printf("%10s %-10s", t, s);
n = sscanf(nums, "%d %d %d", &a, &b, &c);

printf("%d flower%s", n, n > 1 ? "s" : " ");
printf("a = %d, answer = %d\n", a, b+c);
```



## The stdio library

---

- Access stdio functions by
  - using `#include <stdio.h>` for prototypes
  - compiler links it automatically
- defines `FILE *` type and functions of that type
- data objects of type `FILE *`
  - can be connected to file system files for reading and writing
  - represent a buffered stream of chars (bytes) to be written or read
- always defines `stdin`, `stdout`, `stderr`

## The stdio library: `fopen()`, `fclose()`

---

- Opening and closing `FILE *` streams:
  - `FILE *fopen(const char *path, const char *mode)`
    - open the file called `path` in the appropriate mode
    - modes: “r” (read), “w” (write), “a” (append), “r+” (read & write)
    - returns a new `FILE *` if successful, `NULL` otherwise
  - `int fclose(FILE *stream)`
    - close the stream `FILE *`
    - return 0 if successful, `EOF` if not

## stdio – character I/O

---

`int getchar()`

– read the next character from `stdin`; returns `EOF` if none

`int fgetc(FILE *in)`

– read the next character from FILE `in`; returns `EOF` if none

`int putchar(int c)`

– write the character `c` onto `stdout`; returns `c` or `EOF`

`int fputc(int c, FILE *out)`

– write the character `c` onto `out`; returns `c` or `EOF`

## stdio – line I/O

---

`char *fgets(char *buf, int size, FILE *in)`

– read the next line from `in` into buffer `buf`

– halts at '`\n`' or after `size-1` characters have been read

– the '`\n`' is read, but not included in `buf`

– returns pointer to `strbuf` if ok, `NULL` otherwise

– do not use `gets(char *)` – buffer overflow

`int fputs(const char *str, FILE *out)`

– writes the string `str` to `out`, stopping at '`\0`'

– returns number of characters written or `EOF`

## stdio – formatted I/O

---

`int fscanf(FILE *in, const char *format, ...)`

- read text from stream according to format

`int fprintf(FILE *out, const char *format, ...)`

- write the string to output file, according to format

`int printf(const char *format, ...)`

- equivalent to `fprintf(stdout, format, ...)`

- Warning:

- do not use `fscanf(...)`; use `fgets(str, ...)`; `sscanf(str, ...)`;

## Before you go....

---

- Always initialize anything before using it (especially pointers)
- Don't use pointers after freeing them
- Don't return a function's local variables by reference
- No exceptions – so check for errors everywhere
  - memory allocation
  - system calls
  - Murphy's law, C version: anything that can't fail, will fail
- An array is also a pointer, but its value is immutable.