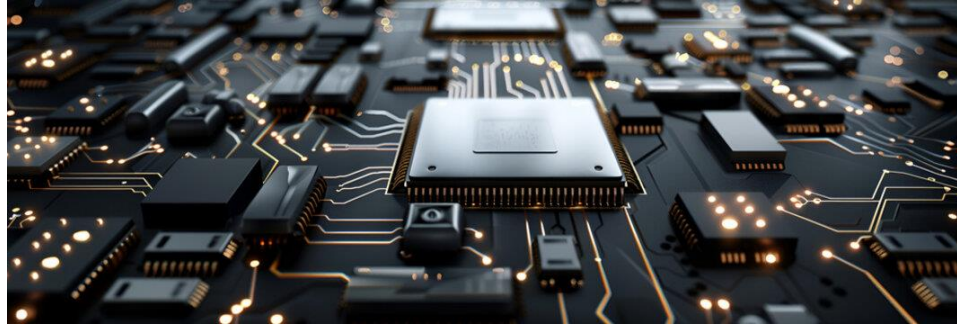


EECS 2032: Introduction to Embedded Systems



Course Instructor

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Lecture 4

Recap

- Command Substitution
 - Arrays
 - The **read** and **test** Commands
 - The **if** Command
 - Test Conditions (contd.)
 - Example – **if** Command
- The **case** Command
 - Looping Commands
 - **for, while, until, shift, break, continue**
 - Functions

Topics to be Covered

❑ BASH

- **here** Document and **here** Strings
- Test Subtleties
- **sed** Command
- String Manipulations

❑ Programming with **C**

- Introduction to **C**
- Software Development Cycle

- Testing and Types of Errors
- Getting started
- Reading/Writing (**I/O**)
- Variables and Data Types
- Number Systems in **C**
- Basic Arithmetic Operations
- Pre and Post Operators
- Boolean Expressions
- **while** loop for **Lab 4**

here Document

- The **here** document is a special form of **quoting**
- It accepts inline text for a program expecting input until a user-defined terminator is reached
- The command receiving the input is appended with a **<<** symbol, followed by a **user-defined word or symbol**, and a newline

\$ **n=`bc << EOF**

EOF: A marker that denotes the end of the input

- The next lines of text will be the lines of input to be sent to the command

> **scale=3**

> **13/2**

- The input is terminated when the **user-defined word or symbol** is then placed on a line by itself in the leftmost column (it cannot have spaces surrounding it)

> **EOF`**

\$ **echo \$n**

Outputs 6.500

Ref - Prev. Example

here Document

```
$ n=`bc << EOF  
> scale=3  
> 13/2  
> EOF`  
$ echo $n
```

Example 1

```
$ cat <<FINISH  
> This is line 1 of the input.  
> This is line 2 of the input.  
> This is line 3 of the input.  
> FINISH  
This is line 1 of the input.  
This is line 2 of the input.  
This is line 3 of the input.
```

Example 2

- The **word** is used in place of **Ctrl-D** to stop the program from reading input
- The user-defined terminating word or symbol must match exactly from “**here**” to “**here**”
- It is much more practical to use them in scripts making the scripts easier to read and maintain by breaking them up into multiple lines

here Document – Example of a Script

```
#!/bin/bash  
  
# Create a new file called  
"output.txt"  
  
cat > output.txt <<EOF  
This is line 1 of the output.  
This is line 2 of the output.  
This is line 3 of the output. EOF
```

here String

- A **here** string is a feature in Unix/Linux shell scripting that allows you to pass a single string as input to a command, without using a **here** document or an external file.
- It's more concise than a **here** document and is useful when you want to provide a small amount of data as input to a command.
- **here** strings are specified using <<<

\$ command <<< "your input string"

```
$ bc <<< "scale=2; 10 / 3"
```

```
# Outputs 3.33
```

```
$ read -a array <<< "1 2 3 4"
```

Test Subtleties

- Refers to the less obvious behaviors and conditions that can affect the outcome of tests or evaluations, particularly in conditional statements
- Often arise from the way shells interpret variables, return values, types, or special cases, leading to unexpected results

```
$ [ "$var" = "rightvalue" ] && echo OK  
$ [ = rightvalue ] && echo OK
```

No Syntax Error if var is not previously defined, evaluates to false and no echo!

```
$ [ "X$var" = "Xrightvalue" ] && echo OK ✓
```

```
$ [ -d $dir ] || mkdir $dir
```

the command might fail or behave unexpectedly without quotes around the variable as the \$dir may contain spaces or metacharacters

```
$ [ -d "$dir" ] || mkdir "$dir" ✓
```


Test Subtleties

```
1. read marks
2. if [ $marks -ge 80 ]; then
3.     grade=A
4. elif [ $marks -ge 70 ]; then
5.     grade=B
6. elif [ $marks -ge 60 ]; then
7.     grade=C
8. else
9.     grade=D
10. fi
11. echo $grade
```

what if user enter marks < 70 (e.g. 69)

grade = C ?????? testing?

Note that there is no compilation here,
only interpretation

Test for all test cases, not only for
marks > 80 or marks > 70!

sed - Introduction

- **sed** is a streamlined editor – text processing tool

```
$ sed [-n] [-e script] [-f sfilename] [filename ...]
```

- **sed** edits the file (standard input **default**) according to a script or command and redirect the edited version to the file (standard output **default**)
- The file goes through **the editor (filter)** line by line, where every line may or may not change
- There is an interactive editor **ed** that accepts the same commands – **first one in Linux**

sed - Introduction

- Each command is in the form of **address** and **action**
- The **address** decides if the action will be applied to the line or not
- The **address** can be either a **line number** or a **pattern enclosed between two slashes /pattern/**
- If **address** is not mentioned, the command is applied to every line
- If **one address**, the command is applied to **that line**, if **two addresses**, the command is applied to **the range defined by the two addresses**
- If two commands are applied at the same line, the second command will be applied to the “possibly” modified line by the first command

sed Command

- Explore **man sed**. Here are few useful flags:

flags	Meaning
-n	<ul style="list-style-type: none">■ Suppresses the automatic printing of the pattern space■ By default, sed prints every line after applying the script, but with -n, it only prints lines explicitly requested with p (print command).
-e	<ul style="list-style-type: none">■ Allows specifying a script (set of sed commands) directly from the command line■ This is useful when you want to provide multiple editing instructions in a single sed command
-f	<ul style="list-style-type: none">■ Specifies a file containing a list of sed commands■ Instead of writing the sed commands on the command line, they can be placed in a file, and this flag tells sed to execute the commands from that file
-r	<ul style="list-style-type: none">■ Enables the use of extended regular expressions (ERE) in the sed script, which allows for more advanced pattern matching features compared to basic regular expressions

sed - Action (delete) - Examples

Examples	Meaning
<code>d</code>	Delete all the lines
<code>2d</code>	Delete line 2
<code>1,4d</code>	Delete lines 1 through 4
<code>/^\$/d</code>	Delete all blank lines
<code>7,/^\$/d</code>	Delete lines 7 through the first blank line (<i>^: beginning, \$: end</i>)
<code>/^\$/, \$d</code>	Delete from the first blank line to the last line
<code>/a*b/,/[0-9]\$/d</code>	Delete from the line that contains b, ab, aab, ... to the first line that ends with a digit

Here **d** (delete) is an action

sed - Examples

```
$ sed -f sed_file f1.txt
```

- To read editing commands from a file named `sed_file`.
- The file contains one or more sed commands that you want to apply to the input text `f1.txt`

```
$ sed -e '2d' f1.txt
```

`f1.txt`, before execution

```
This is line 1  
This is line 2  
This is line 3  
This is line 4
```

Address and action in single quote

`f1.txt`, after execution

```
This is line 1  
This is line 3  
This is line 4
```

sed - Examples

`$ sed -e '1d' -e '3d' -e '5d' f2.txt` # multiple commands

`$ sed -f com1 f2.txt` # multiple commands in com1

`$ sed -n -e '1p' f2.txt` # -n suppress the lines to be printed
(by default), **p** is an action

`$ sed '3d' file` # delete the 3rd line

`$ sed '$d' file` # delete the **last** line

`$ sed '/north/d' file` # delete all lines
that contains **north**

sed - Action (substitution) - Examples

Examples	Meaning
<code>sed 's/word1/aaa2/' f3.txt</code>	Looks for the first occurrence of word1 in each line of the file f3.txt and replaces it with aaa2
<code>sed 's/word1/aaa2/g' f3.txt</code>	g is the the global flag, which tells sed to replace all occurrences of word1 on each line, not just the first occurrence
<code>sed 's/\(Mar\)got/\1Liann/' f4.txt</code>	Substitutes Margot with MarLiann , where Mar comes from the first group (backreference \1), and Liann is directly added

Here **s** (substitution) is an action. By default, **sed** performs the substitution only on the first occurrence in each line

sed – Examples (read, append, transliterate)

Examples	Meaning
<code>sed '/Mar/r f1.txt' f4.txt</code>	Searches for lines in <code>f4.txt</code> that contain the string <code>Mar</code> . After each matching line, it inserts the entire content of <code>f1.txt</code>
<code>sed '/Tol/a <----->' f4.txt</code>	Searches for lines in <code>f4.txt</code> that contain the string <code>Tol</code> , and for every matching line, it appends the text <code><-----></code> on a new line immediately after the matching line
<code>sed '1,3y/abcdef/ABCDEF/' datafile</code>	Translates lowercase characters a, b, c, d, e, and f to uppercase A, B, C, D, E, and F, respectively, in lines 1 through 3 of the file

- The `r` command in `sed` is used to **read** and insert the contents of another file (`f1.txt`) after lines that match the pattern
- The `a` command stands for "**append**"
- the `y` command stands for "transliterate", it **translates or replaces** characters

Recap - Pattern Matching

- The character ***** matches any string of characters including an empty string
- **?:** matches a single character (preceding is optional, with **-E**) (**[abc]?**)
- **.** (dot) means any single character except a new line **\n**
- **[0-9]:** matches any digit
- **[a-z]:** matches any small case letter
- **[abc]:** **x[ab]y** matches **xay** and **xb y** and not **xaby**
- **\c:** matches **c** only
- **a|b:** matches **a** or **b** in case expression only

Outside of character classes, the hyphen **-** is treated as a literal character. You can match it directly in patterns

<https://www.linode.com/docs/guides/differences-between-grep-sed-awk/>

Pattern Matching - *

- For * to be useful, it must follow something that it can quantify. For example, preceding character:

: matches space

Outside of character classes, the space is treated as a literal character. You can match it directly in patterns

`[]*`: zero or more occurrence of space

`[abc]*`: zero or more occurrences of any of the characters a, b, or c

Start and End of Line

- `^name` means `name` starts at beginning of line
- `name$` means `name` at end of line

Zero (one) or more occurrence

- `\?`: Zero or one occurrence
- `\+`: One or more occurrences
- `*`: Zero or more occurrences
- `{m}` OR `\{3\}`: Exactly `m` numbers of occurrences

`$ sed -n '/0\{3\}/p' numbers` # find and print lines that contain exactly `three consecutive zeros (000)` from a file named `numbers`

- `{n,}` OR `\{n,\}`: At least `n` occurrences

`$ sed -n '/10\{3,\}/p' numbers` # print lines from the file `numbers` that contain the substring `10` repeated at least three times

- `\{m,n\}`: `m` to `n` occurrences

String Manipulations

- String length

```
$ echo ${#string}
```

- Length of matching substring (if no match returns 0, 1-based position)

```
$ expr match "$string" "$pattern"
```

```
$ expr match "$string" 'regex'
```

The **expr** command in UNIX/Linux is used to evaluate expressions and perform **basic string operations**, **arithmetic**, and **regular expression matching**

- Index (the first occurrence of any character in **\$substring** within **\$string**. If no match returns 0, 1-based position)

```
$ expr index "$string" "$substring"
```

- Substring extraction (extract a substring from a given string starting at a specified position, 0-based position)

```
$ echo "${string: position}"
```

Always quote variables ("**\$string**") in **expr** to avoid unintended behavior

String Manipulation - Examples

```
$ a=Catalogue
```

```
$ echo ${#a} → 9
```

```
$ echo ${a:2} → talogue
```

```
$ echo ${a:2:3} → tal
```

Pattern Removal

- Allows to remove substrings from the start or end of a string based on a pattern
- Shortest substring match (delete)
 - `${string#pattern}` strips shortest match of `$pattern` from front of `$string`
 - `${string%pattern}` strips shortest match of `$pattern` from back of `$string`
- Longest substring match (delete)
 - `${string##pattern}` strips longest match of `$pattern` from front of `$string`
 - `${string%%pattern}` strips longest match of `$pattern` from back of `$string`

Pattern Removal - Examples

```
$ a=abcdefabc
```

```
$ echo ${a#abc} → defabc
```

```
$ echo ${a%abc} → abcdef
```

```
$ a=abcdefghda1
```

```
$ echo ${a###a*d} → a1
```

Find and replace

- 'Find and replace' operations can be performed on strings using parameter expansion
 - `${string/pattern/replacement}` # replaces first match
 - `${string//pattern/replacement}` # replaces all matches
- Examples

```
$ a=abcdefabkljab
```

```
$ echo ${a/ab/XX} → XXcdefabkljab
```

```
$ echo ${a//ab/XX} → XXcdefXXkljXX
```

Programming with C

Introduction to C

- C was originally designed for and implemented on the UNIX operating system by Dennis Ritchie
- C is a general-purpose programming language, which features:
 - Economy of expression
 - Modern flow control and data structures
 - A rich set of operators
- C is considered a low-level language compared to modern high-level languages like Python or Java
- C is of minimalistic nature—it provides just enough abstraction to make programming easier while still allowing control over hardware

Introduction to C

- **C** is **permissive** - it assumes that the programmer knows what they are doing, offering flexibility but without much safety
 - For example, it doesn't automatically check for buffer overflows or memory leaks
- **C** is efficient, portable, powerful, and flexible
- **C** is more prone to errors because of its **permissiveness and low-level nature**
 - Errors examples: pointer issues, memory leaks etc.
- Beginners may find **C**'s syntax and concepts harder to grasp, especially compared to higher-level languages (next slide)

Obfuscated C

- Refers to C code that has been deliberately written to be difficult to read and understand

```
int v,i,j,k,l,s,a[99];

main(){

for(scanf("%d",&s);*a-s;v=a[j*=v]-
a[i],k=i<s,j+=(v=j<s&&(!k&&!!printf(2+"\n\n%c"-
(!l<<!j)," #Q"[l^v?(l^j)&1:2])&&++l ||
a[i]<s&&v&&v-i+j&&v+i-j))&&!( l%=s),v||
(i==j?a[i+=k]=0:++a[i])>=s*k&&++a[--i]));

}
```

What could be the Reasons?

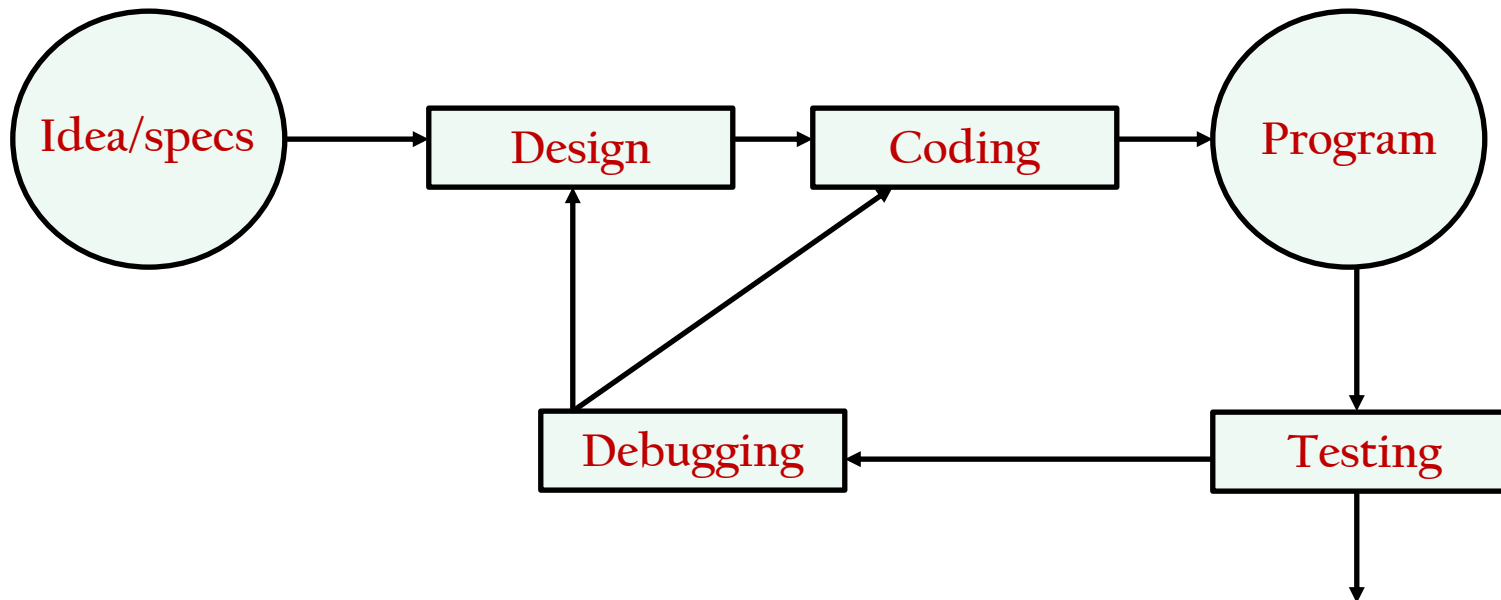
Tips

- Use tools to make programs more reliable
 - Use existing code library
 - For example, use standard library for functions like file handling, math operations, etc.
 - Adopt a sensible set of coding conventions
 - Indentation and braces
 - Naming conventions
 - Comments
 - Error handling
 - Avoid tricks and overly complex code
 - Code should be easy to maintain and extend by others in the future (Not like the one, we have seen in the previous slide)

Languages based on C

Programming Language	Key differences with C
C++	C with object-oriented features
Java	<ul style="list-style-type: none">▪ C like syntax but much more restrictive<ul style="list-style-type: none">– In Java, every variable and object must be declared with a specific type (cannot bypass these type restrictions), whereas C allows more flexibility with type conversions using pointers– C gives more control over memory using pointers, which is not the case in Java▪ Java uses automatic garbage collection, whereas C allows manual memory management using malloc() and free()
C#	Described as "built over C", which alludes to its evolution from C and C++ with additional modern features and managed memory
Perl	Initially a scripting language, but "over time adopted many features of C", implying its growth in complexity and structure

Software Development Cycle



Idea:

Understand and define the problem to solve

Design:

Create the blueprint of the software

Coding:

Implement the design using programming languages

Testing:

Ensure the software works as expected

Debugging:

Identify and fix defects in the software

Software Specifications, Testing, and Debugging

- Specifications = LAW
 - The software must be developed strictly according to the specifications - the agreed upon requirements and constraints
- No Changes without Approval
 - Any improvement or change in functionality must go through a formal approval process
 - Ensures that every feature added or modified aligns with the original objectives
- If in Doubt, Ask
- First create test cases, then code – test driven development
- **Test**, if error, debug, repeat - cyclic testing and debugging
 - Testing is the process of looking for errors, debugging if found

Why Testing?

- Testing can show the presence of faults, not their absence — Dijkstra
 - The absence of errors during testing does not mean the system is completely free of faults
 - Testing alone cannot prove the software is perfect, only that it's functioning as expected under tested conditions
- Testing is very costly, in large commercial software, 1-3 bugs per 100 lines of code
 - Even with thorough testing, commercial software often contains some residual bugs
 - Some well-known examples on the next slide

Why Testing?

- 1990 AT&T long distance calls fail for 9 hours
 - Wrong location for **C break** statement
- 1996 Ariane rocket explodes on launch
 - Overflow converting 64-bit float to 16-bit integer
- 1999 Mars Climate Orbiter crashes on Mars
 - Missing conversion of English units to metric units
- **Therac**: A radiation therapy machine that delivered a massive amount of radiations killing at least 5 people
 - Among many others, the reuse of software written for a machine with hardware interlock. **Therac** did not have hardware interlock

Types of Errors – 1. Syntax Errors

- Occur when the rules of the programming language are violated
 - Missing semicolons
 - Incorrect use of brackets or parentheses
 - Misspelled keywords
- Syntax errors are detected **before execution** during the compilation or interpretation phase
 - Modern Integrated Development Environments (IDEs) often highlight syntax errors in real-time
- Fix: Correct the structure or code to follow the correct syntax

1. Syntax Errors

```
#include <stdio.h>
int main ( ) {
    printf("Hello World");
    /* Next line will output
       a name! */
    printf(" Total is %d \n",total);
    printf("Final result is \n,result);
}
```

```
#include <stdio.h>
int main()
{
    printf("Hello World");
    /*next line will output
    a name */
    printf("Total is %d
    \n",total);
    printf("Final result
    is \n",result);
}
```

2. Run-time Errors

- Occur during program execution due to unexpected conditions
 - Division by zero (**x = 5/0;**)
 - Accessing invalid memory locations
 - File not found errors when attempting to open a file (error message help to locate)
- Encountered when the program is executed with specific input or under specific conditions
- Fix: Identify the conditions that cause them and modify the program logic to handle those conditions

3. Logic Errors

Difficult to Find

- Occur when the program does not behave as expected, even though it runs without crashing
 - Using the wrong formula to compute a value
 - Incorrectly implemented algorithms (e.g., a search algorithm returning the wrong index)
 - Off-by-one errors in loops
- Discovered through testing and verification of the program's output
- Fix: Debugging logic errors requires careful review of the program's intended behavior

Getting Started

- The first program to write is the same for all languages

```
#include <stdio.h>

void main()
{
    printf("hello, world\n");
}
```

To Compile: gcc progname.c

To Execute: a.out

Compiling C files with gcc – step by step

```
#include <stdio.h>

void main()
{
    printf("hello, world\n");
    printf("Welcome to \"EECS2032\"\n");
}
```

Some Explanations about the Program

- A C program, whatever its size, consists of functions and variables
 - A function contains statements that specify the computing operations to be done
 - Variables store values used during the computation
- Our example is a function named `main`
- Normally you are at liberty to give functions whatever names you like, but “`main`” is special - your program begins executing at the beginning of `main`
- This means that every program must have a `main` somewhere

Some Explanations about the Program

- **main** will usually call other functions to help perform its job:
 - Some of the functions you write
 - Others from libraries that are provided for you
- The first line of the program,
#include <stdio.h>
tells the compiler to include information about the standard input/output library;
- One method of communicating data between functions is for the calling function to provide a list of values, called arguments, to the function it calls
- In this example, **main** is defined to be a function that expects no arguments, which is indicated by the empty list ()

Some Explanations about the Program

- The statements of a function are enclosed in braces `{ }`
- The function `main` contains only one statement:
`printf("hello, world\n");`
- A function is called by naming it, followed by a parenthesized list of arguments, so this calls the function `printf` with the argument `"hello, world\n"`
- `printf` is a library function that prints output, in this case the string of characters between the quotes
- The sequence `\n` in the string is C notation for the newline character

Special Characters and Escape Sequences

<code>\n</code>	New line
<code>\t</code>	Tab
<code>\"</code>	Double quote
<code>\\</code>	The <code>\</code> character
<code>\0</code>	The null character
<code>'</code>	Single quote

Special Characters - Examples

```
printf("This is \t my answer %f in total \"%d\"\n",x,y)
```

Output: This is my answer 1.200000 in total "4"

```
printf("C:\\Program Files\\MyApp\n");
```

Output: C:\Program Files\MyApp

```
char str[6] = {'H', 'e', 'l', 'l', 'o', '\0'};
```

```
printf("%s\n", str); // '\0' is the null terminator for the string
```

Output: Hello

Reading user Input + Commenting

`scanf` is used to read from the standard input

&: Memory address

```
scanf("%d\n",&i);  
scanf("%d%d\n",&i,&j);  
scanf("%d,%d\n",&i,&j);  
scanf("%d, %d\n"),&i,&j);
```

Two forward slashes (`//`) for single line comment

Multiline comment begin with `/*` and end with `*/`

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

```
int main() {
```

```
    int number;
```

```
    printf("Enter an integer: ");
```

```
    // reads and stores input
```

```
    scanf("%d", &number);
```

```
    /* displays
```

```
       output */
```

```
    printf("You entered: %d \n", number);
```

```
    return 0;
```

```
}
```

Reading user Input

`scanf` is used to read from the standard input

```
scanf(“%d\n”,&i);
```

```
scanf(“%d%d\n”,&i,&j);
```

```
scanf(“%d,%d\n”,&i,&j);
```

```
scanf(“%d, %d\n”),&i,&j);
```

`&`: Memory address

Commenting

Two forward slashes
(*//*) for single line
comment

Multiline comment
begin with */** and
end with **/*

```
#include <stdio.h>
int main() {
    int number;
    printf("Enter an integer: ");
    // reads and stores input
    scanf("%d", &number);
    /* displays
       output */
    printf("You entered: %d \n", number);
    return 0;
}
```

Input/ Output - Standard

- Every program has a standard input and output (**stdin**, **stdout**, and **stderr**)
 - Standard Input (**stdin**):
 - Functions like **scanf()** or **getchar()** read input from the keyboard by default

```
int x;  
printf("Enter a number: ");  
scanf("%d", &x); // Takes input from stdin (keyboard)
```

```
char c;  
printf("Enter a character: ");  
c = getchar(); // Read a single character from stdin  
printf("You entered: %c\n", c); // Print the character
```

The **&** operator is used to pass the address of the variables **x** and **y**, so that **scanf** can store the input values at those memory locations

The **getchar** waits for the user to press **Enter**, so if you input multiple characters, **getchar()** will read them one by one on each subsequent call

Input/ Output - Standard

- Standard Output (`stdout`):
 - Functions like `printf` write output to the screen

```
int x = 5;  
printf("Value of x: %d\n", x); // Prints to stdout (monitor)
```

- Standard Error (`stderr`):
 - Error messages are sent to `stderr`, allowing normal output and error output to be handled separately

```
fprintf(stderr, "This is an error message.\n");
```

Input/ Output - Redirection

- Input and output redirection is not a feature of the C language itself but is instead managed by the operating system or shell in which a C program is executed
- You can use redirection in the terminal/command-line when running your C programs to redirect input or output to files
- For Example:

```
./my_program > output.txt
```

This command runs the program `my_program` and redirects the output that would normally appear on the screen to the file `output.txt`

```
./my_program < output.txt
```

This command runs `my_program` and uses the contents of `input.txt` as input instead of requiring the user to type the input manually via the keyboard

Variables

- In **C**, all variables must be declared before they are used:
 - Usually at the beginning of the function before any executable statements
- A declaration announces the properties of variables; it consists of a name and a list of variables, such as

```
int fahr, celsius;  
float fr_num;
```

- The range of both **int** and **float** depends on the machine you are using

Data Types – 4 Basic

Representation	Data Type	Size/ Range	Declaration
char	Characters, can hold a single character (integer value based on their ASCII value) or a small integer	1 byte	<code>char letter = 'A';</code> <code>char num=10;</code> Format specifier: %c, %d
int	Integers	Usually 4 bytes	<code>int fahr, celsius;</code> Format specifier: %d
float	Single precision floating point numbers	Usually 4 bytes	<code>float fr_num;</code> Format specifier: %f
double	Double precision floating point numbers	Usually 8 bytes	<code>double pi = 3.141592653589793;</code> Format specifier: %lf

Modifiers/ **sizeof()**

- **unsigned**: Only stores positive numbers (0 and above) (default is **signed**, can omit `int(signed/ unsigned)`)
- **long**: Increases the size of the integer (often 8 bytes on some systems)

Also, `long long`

- **short**: Reduces the size of the integer (usually 2 bytes)
- **sizeof()**: used to determine the size, in bytes, of a data type or variable, **Format specifier: %zu** `sizeof(type)/sizeof(variable)`
- `printf("%zu", sizeof(int));`

```
int a=2;  
printf("%zu", sizeof(int)); OR printf("%zu", sizeof(a))
```

// outputs 4

Characters

Dec	Hx	Oct	Char	Dec	Hx	Oct	Html	Chr	Dec	Hx	Oct	Html	Chr	Dec	Hx	Oct	Html	Chr
0	0	000	NUL (null)	32	20	040	 	Space	64	40	100	@	@	96	60	140	`	`
1	1	001	SOH (start of heading)	33	21	041	!	!	65	41	101	A	A	97	61	141	a	a
2	2	002	STX (start of text)	34	22	042	"	"	66	42	102	B	B	98	62	142	b	b
3	3	003	ETX (end of text)	35	23	043	#	#	67	43	103	C	C	99	63	143	c	c
4	4	004	EOT (end of transmission)	36	24	044	$	\$	68	44	104	D	D	100	64	144	d	d
5	5	005	ENQ (enquiry)	37	25	045	%	%	69	45	105	E	E	101	65	145	e	e
6	6	006	ACK (acknowledge)	38	26	046	&	&	70	46	106	F	F	102	66	146	f	f
7	7	007	BEL (bell)	39	27	047	'	'	71	47	107	G	G	103	67	147	g	g
8	8	010	BS (backspace)	40	28	050	((72	48	110	H	H	104	68	150	h	h
9	9	011	TAB (horizontal tab)	41	29	051))	73	49	111	I	I	105	69	151	i	i
10	A	012	LF (NL line feed, new line)	42	2A	052	*	*	74	4A	112	J	J	106	6A	152	j	j
11	B	013	VT (vertical tab)	43	2B	053	+	+	75	4B	113	K	K	107	6B	153	k	k
12	C	014	FF (NP form feed, new page)	44	2C	054	,	,	76	4C	114	L	L	108	6C	154	l	l
13	D	015	CR (carriage return)	45	2D	055	-	-	77	4D	115	M	M	109	6D	155	m	m
14	E	016	SO (shift out)	46	2E	056	.	.	78	4E	116	N	N	110	6E	156	n	n
15	F	017	SI (shift in)	47	2F	057	/	/	79	4F	117	O	O	111	6F	157	o	o
16	10	020	DLE (data link escape)	48	30	060	0	0	80	50	120	P	P	112	70	160	p	p
17	11	021	DC1 (device control 1)	49	31	061	1	1	81	51	121	Q	Q	113	71	161	q	q
18	12	022	DC2 (device control 2)	50	32	062	2	2	82	52	122	R	R	114	72	162	r	r
19	13	023	DC3 (device control 3)	51	33	063	3	3	83	53	123	S	S	115	73	163	s	s
20	14	024	DC4 (device control 4)	52	34	064	4	4	84	54	124	T	T	116	74	164	t	t
21	15	025	NAK (negative acknowledge)	53	35	065	5	5	85	55	125	U	U	117	75	165	u	u
22	16	026	SYN (synchronous idle)	54	36	066	6	6	86	56	126	V	V	118	76	166	v	v
23	17	027	ETB (end of trans. block)	55	37	067	7	7	87	57	127	W	W	119	77	167	w	w
24	18	030	CAN (cancel)	56	38	070	8	8	88	58	130	X	X	120	78	170	x	x
25	19	031	EM (end of medium)	57	39	071	9	9	89	59	131	Y	Y	121	79	171	y	y
26	1A	032	SUB (substitute)	58	3A	072	:	:	90	5A	132	Z	Z	122	7A	172	z	z
27	1B	033	ESC (escape)	59	3B	073	;	;	91	5B	133	[[123	7B	173	{	{
28	1C	034	FS (file separator)	60	3C	074	<	<	92	5C	134	\	\	124	7C	174	|	
29	1D	035	GS (group separator)	61	3D	075	=	=	93	5D	135]]	125	7D	175	}	}
30	1E	036	RS (record separator)	62	3E	076	>	>	94	5E	136	^	^	126	7E	176	~	~
31	1F	037	US (unit separator)	63	3F	077	?	?	95	5F	137	_	_	127	7F	177		DEL

Source: www.LookupTables.com

Extended ASCII: Extended versions of ASCII use values from 128 to 255 to include additional characters (like symbols and characters from other languages)

Integer Suffixes

1. Long Integer (%ld)

- You can explicitly declare a long integer by appending **L** or **l** to the number

```
long int long_num = 7L;
```

2. Unsigned Integer (%u)

- To declare an unsigned integer, append **U** or **u** to the number

```
unsigned int unsigned_num = 8U;
```

Floating Point Representation

1. Normal Decimal Representation

- Standard Decimal Values
- Example: 24, 23.45, 123.45e-8 (scientific notation).

2. Suffixes for float (%f, %.2f, etc.) and double (%lf, %.10lf)

- To specify a float explicitly, append **F** or **f** to the value

```
float float_num = 3.4F; double scientific_num = 123.45e-8;
```

- To declare a long double (%.2Lf), append **L** or **l** to the value

```
long double long_double_num = 2.15L;
```

Formatting Output - **int**

```
int i=40;  
printf(" |%d|%5d|%-5d|%5.3d\n",i,i,i,i);
```

The diagram illustrates the output of the `printf` statement. Four green boxes labeled 1, 2, 3, and 4 are positioned above the output string. Arrows point from each box to its corresponding part of the output: Box 1 points to `|40|`, Box 2 points to `40|`, Box 3 points to `40`, and Box 4 points to `040`. The full output string is `|40|40|40|040`.

1. Normal integer
2. Right-aligned, 5-character wide field
3. Left-aligned, 5-character wide field
4. Right-aligned, at least 5 characters wide, with 3 digits (padded with leading zeros if necessary)

Formatting Output - **float**

```
printf(" |%10.3f|%-10.3f|%f|%g|%e\n", x, x, x, x, x);
```

Diagram illustrating the output of the `printf` statement for a float value `x = 8.1`. The output is shown with annotations 1 through 5 pointing to specific formatting details:

```
|      8.100|8.100      |8.100000|8.1|8.100000e+00
```

- 1: Points to the right-aligned field `%10.3f` in the format string.
- 2: Points to the left-aligned field `%-10.3f` in the format string.
- 3: Points to the default floating-point field `%f` in the format string.
- 4: Points to the shorter field `%g` in the format string.
- 5: Points to the scientific notation field `%e` in the format string.

1. Right-aligned, 10-character wide field, with 3 decimal places
2. Left-aligned, 10-character wide field, with 3 decimal places
3. Default floating-point, 6 decimal places
4. Shorter of `%f` or `%e`, with no trailing zeros
5. Scientific notation

Fixed-width Integer Types (<stdint.h>)

- Particularly useful in embedded systems programming or when writing portable code, where the exact size of an integer is crucial

Representation	Data Type	Range
int8_t	Signed 8-bit integer	-128 to 127
uint8_t	Unsigned 8-bit integer	0 to 255
int16_t	Signed 16-bit integer	-32,768 to 32,767
uint16_t	Unsigned 16-bit integer	0 to 65,535
int32_t	Signed 32-bit integer	-2,147,483,648 to 2,147,483,647
uint32_t	Unsigned 32-bit integer	0 to 4,294,967,295
int64_t	Signed 64-bit integer	very large, typically used for large numbers
uint64_t	Unsigned 64-bit integer	-do-

No String Data Type

- In C, a string is not a distinct data type as it is in many other programming languages
- Instead, a string is represented as **an array of characters** terminated by a null character (**\0**)
- This **null character** signals the end of the string
- Here's a breakdown of how strings are used in C:

```
char greetings[]="hello"
```

'h'	'e'	'l'	'l'	'o'	'\0'
-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	------

- Format Specifier: **%s**

More on strings later

No Boolean Data Type

- In **C**, there is no built-in Boolean data type as found in many other programming languages
- Boolean values can be represented as:
 - 0 for False
 - 1 (or any non-zero value) for True
- You can represent Boolean values using other data types:

1. Typically, using **int**:

```
int isTrue = 1; // Represents true
```

```
int isFalse = 0; // Represents false
```

2. By including specific headers (since C99 **<stdbool.h>**) that define a Boolean type

```
bool isTrue = true; // Represents true
```

```
bool isFalse = false; // Represents false
```

Naming Variables

- Combination of letters, numbers, and underscore character _
- Can not start with a number and cannot be a keyword
 - Like `int`, `return`, `if`, etc.
- Valid Examples:
 - `Abc` `abc5` `aA3_`
- Invalid Examples:
 - `5sda`

Symbolic Constants

- `define` preprocessor directive (used to create macros in C):
 - `#define N 5`
 - This specific `#define` directive assigns the value **5** to the identifier **N**
 - Everywhere **N** appears in the code, it will be replaced with **5** throughout the code

Number Systems in C

Number System	Base	Example
Decimal (%d)	10	123487 (normal integer representation)
Octal (%o)	8	0654 (number start with 0, 0 to 7) – equivalent to $6 \cdot 8^2 + 5 \cdot 8^1 + 4 \cdot 8^0 = 428$ in decimal
Hexadecimal (%x)	16	0x4Ab2 (number start with 0x or 0X, 0 to 9 and letters A to F) – equivalent to $4 \cdot 16^3 + A \cdot 16^2 + b \cdot 16^1 + 2 \cdot 16^0 = 19122$ in decimal

Number Systems in C

- Different number systems are useful for different reasons
 - **Decimal:** General-purpose calculation, Human-readable form
 - **Octal:** To manipulate file permissions directly in **UNIX/Linux OS**, using system calls like **chmod()**
 - **Hexadecimal:** Ideal for memory addresses, bitwise operations, and compact representation of large binary numbers
 - Often hardware documentation specifies register values and memory addresses in hexadecimal, so knowing how to use hexadecimal makes interfacing with hardware easier

Basic Arithmetic Operations

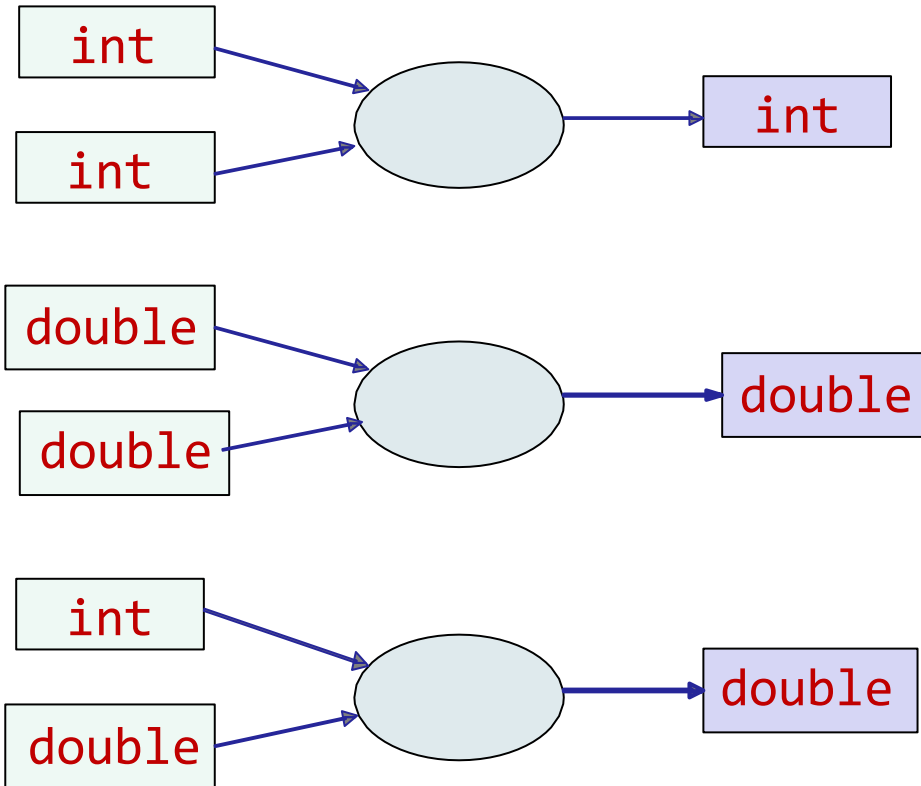
Operation	Operator	Example
Addition: Adds two operands	+	$a+b$
Subtraction: Subtracts the second operand from the first	-	$a-b$
Multiplication: Multiplies two operands	*	$a*b$
Division: Divides the numerator by the denominator. If both the operands are integers, it performs integer division (the fractional part is discarded)	/	a/b
Modulus: Returns the remainder of division between two integers	%	$a\%b$

Basic Arithmetic Operations

Important Notes:

- **Integer Division:** If you divide two integers, the result will also be an integer. To get a decimal result, at least one operand must be a floating-point number (e.g., use `float` or `double`)
- **Modulus Operator:** This operator is **only applicable for integers**. Using it with floating-point numbers will result in a compilation error
- **Operator Precedence:** C follows operator precedence rules. For example, multiplication and division have higher precedence than addition and subtraction

Mixed Type Arithmetic



```
int x=5, y=2, w; double z, q = 2;
```

```
z = x/y; // z = 2.0
```

```
w = x/y; // w = 2
```

```
z = x/q; // 5/2.0 // z = 2.5
```

```
w = x/q; // w = 2
```

Mixed Type Arithmetic

$$17 / 5 = 3$$

$$17.0 / 5 = 3.4$$

$$9 / 2 / 3.0 / 4 = ?$$

$$9 / 2$$

$$4 / 3.0$$

$$1.333 / 4$$

$$=4$$

$$=1.333$$

$$=0.333$$

Mixed Type Arithmetic

- How do you **cast** variables?
- For example:

```
int varA = 9, varB = 2; double varC;
```

```
varC = varA/varB; /* varC is 4.0. varA/varB gives 4  
as both are of type int. The result is assigned to  
varC, which is of type double*/
```

```
varC = varA/((double)varB); // varC is 4.5
```

Doesn't change the **value** of varB,
just changes the **type** to **double**

Pre- & Post- Operators

- ++ (incrementing) or -- (decrementing)
- If placed in front of the variable, incrementing or decrementing occurs **BEFORE** the value is assigned

```
i = 2, k = 1;
```

```
k = ++i;
```

```
// i = i + 1; 3
```

```
// k = i; 3
```

```
k = --i;
```

```
// i = i - 1; 1
```

```
// k = i; 1
```

- If placed at the back of the variable, incrementing or decrementing occurs **AFTER** the value is assigned

```
i = 2, k = 1;
```

```
k = i++;
```

```
// k = i; 2
```

```
// i = i+1; 3
```

```
k = i--;
```

```
// k = i; 2
```

```
// i = i - 1; 1
```

Boolean Expressions

■ Relational Operators

- Used to compare two values or expressions
- They return either 1 (true) or 0 (false) based on the result of the comparison

Operator	Function	Example
==	Checks if two values are equal	a == b
!=	Checks if two values are not equal	a != b
<	Checks if the left operand is less than the right operand	a < b
<=	Checks if the left operand is less than or equal to the right operand	a <= b
>	Checks if the left operand is greater than the right operand	a > b
>=	Checks if the left operand is greater than or equal to the right operand	a >= b

Boolean Expressions

■ Logical Operators

- Used to combine two or more conditions or to negate a condition
- Often used in control structures like **if**, **while**, and **for**

Operator	Function	Example
&&	True only if both conditions are true (1)	<code>if (a > 0 && b > 0)</code> is true (1) if both <code>a</code> and <code>b</code> are greater than 0
	True if either of the conditions is true (1)	<code>if (a > 0 b > 0)</code> is true (1) if either <code>a</code> or <code>b</code> is greater than 0 (or both)
!	Inverts the value of a condition (true (1) becomes false (0), and false (0) becomes true (1))	<code>if (!(a > 0))</code> is true (1) if <code>a</code> is not greater than 0 (i.e., <code>a <= 0</code>)

Introducing **while** loop (for the lab4 only)

```
while (expression)  
    statement
```

- The *expression* is evaluated. If it is non-zero, *statement* is executed, and *expression* is reevaluated
- This cycle continues until *expression* becomes zero, at which point execution resumes after statement

More details: we
will cover later

Thank You!

Happy Learning

