

Global variables

- In general, you should avoid using global variables as much as possible!
 - they make a program harder to maintain, because they increase complexity
 - create potential for conflicts between modules
 - the only advantage of global variables is that they produce faster code
- There are two types of declarations, namely, definition and allusion.
- An **allusion** looks just like a definition, but instead of allocating memory for a variable, it informs the compiler that a variable of the specified type exists but is defined elsewhere.
 - `extern int j;`
 - The `extern` keyword tells the compiler that the variables are defined elsewhere.
- Whenever you want to use global variables defined in another file you need to declare them with allusions.

The *register* specifier

- The ***register*** keyword enables you to help the compiler by giving it suggestions about which variables should be kept in registers (so, on CPU).
 - it is only a hint, not a directive, so **compiler is free to ignore it!**
 - The behavior is implementation dependent.
- Since a variable declared with register might never be assigned a memory address, **it is illegal to take address of a register variable.**
- A typical case to use register is when you use a counter in a loop.

```
int strlen ( register char *p) {  
  
    register int len=0;  
    while(*p++) {  
        len++;  
    }  
    return len;  
}
```

Remember that: registers are not addressable! They are not on the memory, but on the CPU

Storage classes summary

- **There are 4 storage-class specifiers**
- **auto**
 - Redundant and rarely used.
- **static**
 - In declarations within a function, static causes variables to have fixed duration. For variables declared outside a function, the static keyword gives the variable file scope.
- **extern**
 - For variables declared within a function, it signifies a global allusion. For declarations outside of a function, extern denotes a global definition.
- **register**
 - It makes the variable automatic but also passes a hint to the compiler to store the variable in a register whenever possible.
- **There are 2 storage-class modifiers**
- **const**
 - The const specifier guarantees that you can NOT change the value of the variable.
- **volatile**
 - The volatile specifier causes the compiler to turn off certain optimizations. Useful for device registers and other data segments that can change without the compiler's knowledge.
 - A variable should be declared volatile whenever its value could change unexpectedly. In practice, only 3 types of variables could change:
 - 1. Memory-mapped peripheral registers
 - 2. Global variables modified by an interrupt service routine
 - 3. Global variables accessed by multiple tasks within a multi-threaded application
 - Volatile tells the compiler not to optimize anything that has to do with the volatile variable.
 - There is only one reason to use it: When you interface with hardware. (Memory-mapped peripheral registers)
 - Another use for volatile is signal handlers.



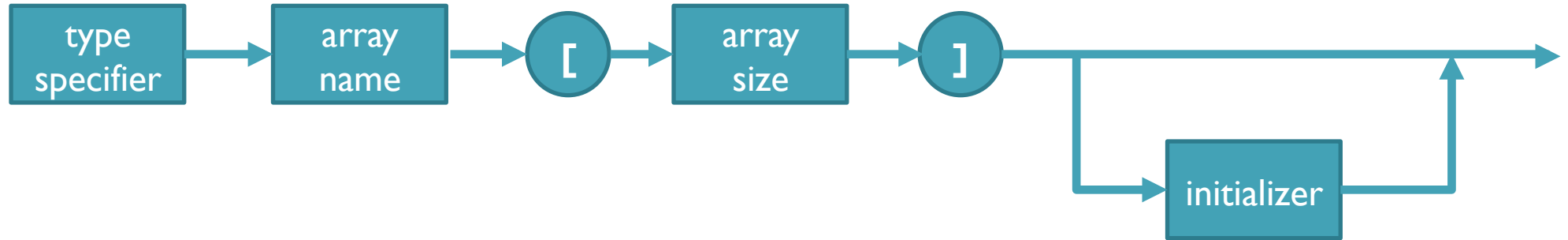
Pointers and arrays



outline

- Declaration
- How arrays stored in memory
- Initializing arrays
- Accessing array elements through pointers
- Examples
- Strings
- Multi-dimensional arrays

declaration



```
int dailyTemp[365];  
dailyTemp[0] = 38;  
dailyTemp[1] = 43;
```

...

- **subscripts begin at 0, not 1 !**

```
#include <stdio.h>
#define DAYS_IN_YEAR 365
int main () {
    int j, sum = 0;
    int daily_temp[DAYS_IN_YEAR];

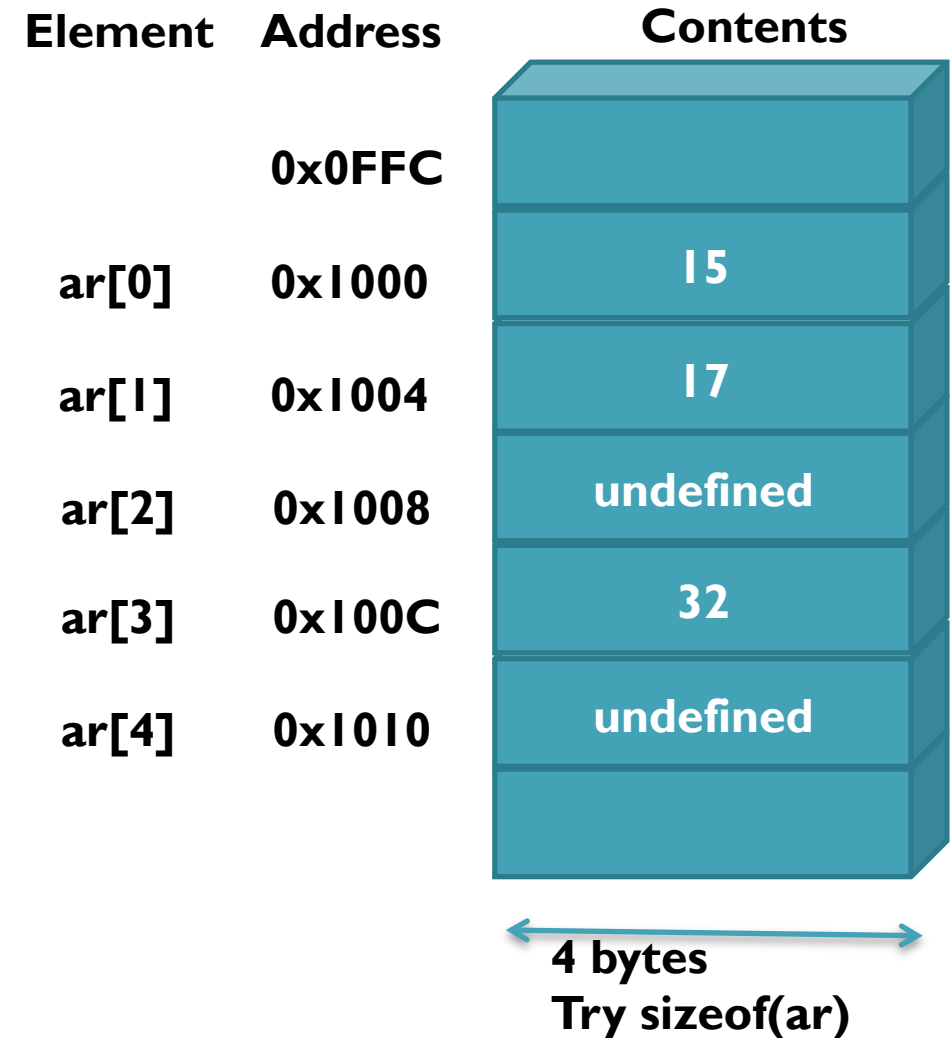
    /* Assign some values to the daily_temp array here. */

    for(j=0; j<DAYS_IN_YEAR; j++)
        sum += daily_temp[j];
    printf("The average temperature for this year is: %d.\n", sum/DAYS_IN_YEAR);
    return 0;
}
```

How arrays stored in memory

```
int ar[5]; /* declaration */  
ar[0] = 15;  
ar[1] = 17;  
ar[3] = ar[0] + ar[1];
```

- **Note that ar[2] and ar[4] have undefined values!**
 - the contents of these memory locations are whatever left over from the previous program execution



Initializing arrays

- It is incorrect to enter more initialization values than the number of elements in the array
- If you enter fewer initialization values than elements, the remaining elements initialized to zero.
- **Note that 3.5 is converted to the integer value 3!**
- When you enter initial values, you may omit the array size
 - the compiler automatically figures out how many elements are in the array...

```
int a_ar[5];  
int b_ar[5] = {1, 2, 3.5, 4, 5};  
int c_ar[5] = {1, 2, 3};
```

```
char d_ar[] = {'a', 'b', 'c', 'd'};
```

Examples - Bubble sort

Example:

First Pass:

(5 1 4 2 8) \rightarrow (1 5 4 2 8), Here, algorithm compares the first two elements, and swaps since $5 > 1$.

(1 5 4 2 8) \rightarrow (1 4 5 2 8), Swap since $5 > 4$

(1 4 5 2 8) \rightarrow (1 4 2 5 8), Swap since $5 > 2$

(1 4 2 5 8) \rightarrow (1 4 2 5 8), Now, since these elements are already in order ($8 > 5$), algorithm does not swap them.

Second Pass:

(1 4 2 5 8) \rightarrow (1 4 2 5 8)

(1 4 2 5 8) \rightarrow (1 2 4 5 8), Swap since $4 > 2$

(1 2 4 5 8) \rightarrow (1 2 4 5 8)

(1 2 4 5 8) \rightarrow (1 2 4 5 8)

Now, the array is already sorted, but our algorithm does not know if it is completed. The algorithm needs one **whole** pass without **any** swap to know it is sorted.

Third Pass:

(1 2 4 5 8) \rightarrow (1 2 4 5 8)

(1 2 4 5 8) \rightarrow (1 2 4 5 8)

(1 2 4 5 8) \rightarrow (1 2 4 5 8)

(1 2 4 5 8) \rightarrow (1 2 4 5 8)

Examples - Bubble sort

- `#include <stdio.h>`
- `// A function to implement bubble sort`
- `void bubbleSort(int arr[], int n)`
- `{`
- `int i, j, temp;`
- `for (i = 0; i < n-1; i++)`
- `{`
- `// Last i elements are already in place`
- `for (j = 0; j < n-i-1; j++)`
- `if (arr[j] > arr[j+1]) {`
- `temp=arr[j];`
- `arr[j]=arr[j+1];`
- `arr[j+1]=temp;`
- `}`
- `}`

Examples - Selection sort

```
arr[] = 64 25 12 22 11
```

```
// Find the minimum element in arr[0...4]
// and place it at beginning
```

```
11 25 12 22 64
```

```
// Find the minimum element in arr[1...4]
// and place it at beginning of arr[1...4]
```

```
11 12 25 22 64
```

```
// Find the minimum element in arr[2...4]
// and place it at beginning of arr[2...4]
```

```
11 12 22 25 64
```

```
// Find the minimum element in arr[3...4]
// and place it at beginning of arr[3...4]
```

```
11 12 22 25 64
```

- `#include <stdio.h>`
- `// A function to implement selection sort`
- `void selectionSort(int arr[], int n)`
- `{`
- `int i, j, min_idx, temp;`
- `// 1-by-1 move boundary of unsorted subarray`
- `for (i = 0; i < n-1; i++)`
- `{`
- `// Find the minimum element in unsorted array`
- `min_idx = i;`
- `for (j = i+1; j < n; j++)`
- `if (arr[j] < arr[min_idx])`
- `min_idx = j;`
-
- `// Swap the found min element with the 1st element`
- `temp=arr[min_idx];`
- `arr[min_idx]=arr[i];`
- `arr[i]=temp;`
- `}`
- `}`

Accessing array elements through pointers

```
short ar[4];  
short *p;
```

`p = & ar[0];` // assigns the address of element 0 to p. (same with `p=ar`)

- `p = ar;` **is same as above assignment!**
- `*(p+3)` refers to the same memory content as `ar[3]`

```
float ar[5], *p;
```

```
-----  
-----
```

<code>p = ar ;</code>	// legal
<code>ar = p;</code>	// illegal
<code>&p = ar;</code>	// illegal
<code>ar++;</code>	// illegal
<code>ar[1] = *(p+3);</code>	// legal
<code>p++;</code>	// legal

Pointer arithmetic

- C allows you to add and subtract integers to and from pointers:
 - `p+3` // means: 3 objects after the object that `p` points to. This operation generates a new address value. But compiler does not simply add `p` with “3”, it multiplies the 3 with the size of the object that `p` points to
- Suppose `p` points to a float var, located at the address 1000. So, `p+3` would be the address $1000 + 3 \text{object} * 4 \text{byte} = 1012$.
- What would be `p+3`, if `p` pointed to a char?
- Subtraction: `&a[3]-&a[0]` is 3 but `&a[0]-&a[3]` is -3.
- Examples:
 - `long *p1, *p2; int j; char *p3;`
 - `p2=p1+4;` //legal
 - `j=p2-p1;` // legal, j will be 4
 - `j=p1-p2;` // legal, j will be -4
 - `p1=p2-2;` // legal, since both of them points the same data type
 - `p3=p1-1;` // ILLEGAL, they point different data types.
 - `j=p1-p3;` // ILLEGAL, they point different data types.

Null pointer

- A null pointer is guaranteed not to point a valid object.
- A null pointer is assigned to integer value 0:
 - `char *p;`
 - `p = 0;` // makes p a null pointer. There is no need to cast the int to the pointer type, since it is 0.
- Null pointer is useful in while statements:
 - `while (p){`
 - ...
 - // iterate until p is a null pointer (0-valued pointer will cause to get a FALSE value and break the loop, otherwise it'll be TRUE and go on iteration
 - ...
 - `}`
- The use of null pointers is mainly in applications using arrays of pointers.

Passing pointers as function arguments

- `void clear(int *p){`
- `*p=0; // store a 0 at address p.`
- `}`
- `main(){`
- `int s[3]={1,2,3};`
- `clear(&s[1]);`
- `return 0;`
- `}`

- `// s=> 1,0,3`

- `void clear(long *p){`
- `*p=0; // store a 0 at address p.`
- `}`
- `main(){`
- `short s[3]={1,2,3};`
- `clear(&s[1]);`
- `return 0;`
- `}`

- `// s=> 1,0,0 => why?`

Passing arrays as function arguments

- `main () {`
- `extern float f();`
- `float x, farray[5];`
- `...`
- `x=func(farray); // same as func(&farray[0])`
- `...`
- `}`
- **Send the array with its size information:**
- `void foo(float farray[], int farray_size) {`
- `...`
- `}`
- **Call the function from the main function:**
- `foo(farray, sizeof(farray)/sizeof(farray[0]));`

- `float func(float *ar){`
- `...`
- `}`
- **Or:**
- `float func(float ar[]){`
- `...`
- `}`
- **Or:**
- `float func(float ar[6]){`
- `...`
- `}`

Strings - declaring and initializing strings

- A string is an array of characters terminated by a null character.
 - null character is a character with a numeric value of 0
 - it is represented in C by the escape sequence '\0'
 - A string constant is any series of characters enclosed in double quotes
 - it has datatype of array of char and each character in the string takes up one byte!
 - compiler automatically **appends a null character** to designate the end of the string.
- `char str[] = "some text";`
 - `char str[10] = "yes";`
 - **`char str[3] = "four"`**
 - **`char str[4] = "four"`**
- // some compilers do not include the null character within the string size, some of them include it. Both are OK for the ANSI standard.**
- `char *ptr = "more text" ;`

string assignments

```
main () {  
    char array[10];  
    char *ptr1="10 spaces";  
    char *ptr2;  
    array = "not OK"; // can NOT assign to an address !  
    array[5] = 'A';    // OK  
    ptr1[5] = 'B';      // OK in old compilers BUT, ptr1 is a string literal and  
                        // we can't change its value, so, this will kill the program.  
                        you can't modify a string literal. You're going to have to return a new string.  
    ptr1="OK";          // same with above explanation  
    ptr1[5]='C';        // questionable due to the prior assignment  
    *ptr2 = "not OK";   // type mismatch ERROR  
    ptr2="OK";  
}
```

strings vs. chars

```
char ch = 'a';    // one byte is  
                  allocated for 'a'  
  
*p = 'a';        // OK  
  
p = 'a';         // Illegal, p is a  
                  pointer, not a char
```

```
char *p = "a";    // two bytes  
                  allocated for "a" (the 2nd one is '/0')  
  
*p = "a";        // INCORRECT  
  
p = "a";         // OK  
  
*p = "string";   // INCORRECT  
  
p = "string";    // OK
```

reading & writing strings

```
#include <stdio.h>

#define MAX_CHAR 80

int main ( void ) {

    char str[MAX_CHAR];
    int i;

    printf("Enter a string :");
    scanf("%s", str);

    for(i=0;i<10;i++) {
        printf("%s\n", str);
    }
    return 0;
}
```

- You can read strings with scanf() function.
 - the data argument should be a pointer to an array of characters **that is long enough to store** the input string.
 - after reading input characters scanf() automatically appends a null character to make it a proper string
- You can write strings with printf() function.
 - the data argument should be a pointer to a null terminated array of characters

string length function

- We test each element of array, one by one, until we reach the null character.
 - null char has a value of zero, making the while condition **false**
 - any other value of `str[i]` makes the while condition **true**
 - once the null character is reached, we exit the while loop and return `i`, which is the last subscript value

```
int strlen ( char *str) {  
  
    int i=0;  
  
    while(str[i]) {  
        i++;  
    }  
  
    return i;  
}
```

string copy function

```
void strcpy ( char s1[], char s2[]) {  
    int i;  
    for(i=0; s1[i]; ++i)  
        s2[i] = s1[i];  
    s2[++i] = '\0';  
}
```

```
void strcpy ( char *s1, char *s2) {  
    int i;  
    for(i=0; *(s1+i); ++i)  
        *(s2+i) = *(s1+i);  
    s2[++i] = '\0';  
}
```

```
void strcpy ( char *s1, char *s2) {  
    while(*s2++ = *s1++);  
}
```

<i>strcpy()</i>	Copies a string to an array.	<i>strerror()</i>	Maps an error number with a textual error message.
<i>strncpy()</i>	Copies a portion of a string to an array.	<i>strlen()</i>	Computes the length of a string.
<i>strcat()</i>	Appends one string to another.	<i>strpbrk()</i>	Finds the first occurrence of any specified characters in a string.
<i>strncat()</i>	Copies a portion of one string to another.	<i>strrchr()</i>	Finds the last occurrence of any specified characters in a string.
<i>strcmp()</i>	Compares two strings.	<i>strspn()</i>	Computes the length of a string that contains only specified characters.
<i>strncmp()</i>	Compares two strings up to a specified number of characters.	<i>strstr()</i>	Finds the first occurrence of one string embedded in another.
<i>strchr()</i>	Finds the first occurrence of a specified character in a string.	<i>strtok()</i>	Breaks a string into a sequence of tokens.
<i>strcoll()</i>	Compares two strings based on an implementation-defined collating sequence.	<i>strxfrm()</i>	Transforms a string so that it is a suitable as an argument to <i>strcmp()</i> .
<i>strcspn()</i>	Computes the length of a string that does not contain specified characters.		

Table 6-1. String Functions in the Standard Library. See Appendix A for a more complete description of these routines.

other string functions

Pattern matching example

- Write a program that
 - gets two strings from the user
 - search the first string for an occurrence of the second string
 - if it is successful
 - return byte position of the occurrence
 - otherwise
 - return -1

- Return the position of str2 in str1; if not found then return -1.

```
#include <stdio.h>

/* Return the position of str2 in str1; -1 if not
 * found.
 */
int pat_match( str1, str2 )
char str1[], str2[];
{
    int j, k;

    for (j=0; j < strlen(str1); ++j)
    {
        /* test str1[j] with each character in str2[]. If
         * equal, get next char in str1[]. Exit loop if we
         * get to end of str1[], or if chars are equal.
         */
        for (k=0; (k < strlen(str2) && (str2[k] ==
            str1[k+j])); k++);

        /* Check to see if loop ended because we arrived at
         * end of str2. If so, strings must be equal.
         */
        if (k == strlen( str2 ))
            return j;
    }
    return -1;
}
```

multi-dimensional arrays

- In the following, ar is a 3-element array of 5-element arrays

```
int ar[3][5];
```

- In the following, x is a 3-element array of 4-element arrays of 5-element arrays

```
char x[3][4][5];
```

- the array reference
ar[1][2]
- is interpreted as
*(ar[1]+2)
- which is further expanded to
((ar+1)+2)

initialization of multi-dimensional arrays

```
int exap[5][3] = { { 1, 2, 3 },  
                  { 4 },  
                  { 5, 6, 7 } };
```

1	2	3
4	0	0
5	6	7
0	0	0
0	0	0

```
int exap[5][3] = { 1, 2, 3,  
                  4,  
                  5, 6, 7 };
```

1	2	3
4	5	6
7	0	0
0	0	0
0	0	0

array of pointers

```
char *ar_of_p[5];
```

```
char c0 = 'a';
```

```
char c1 = 'b';
```

```
ar_of_p[0] = &c0;
```

```
ar_of_p[1] = &c1;
```

Element Address

0x0FFC

ar_of_p[0] 0x1000

ar_of_p[1] 0x1004

ar_of_p[2] 0x1008

ar_of_p[3] 0x100C

ar_of_p[4] 0x1010



Element Address

0x1FFF

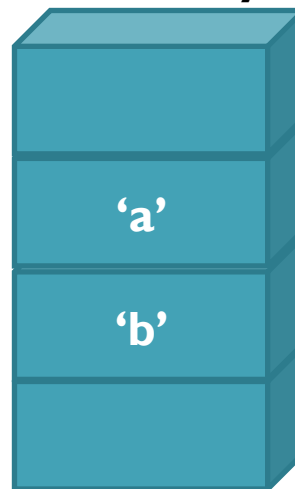
c0

0x2000

c1

0x2001

Memory



pointers to pointers

<code>int r = 5;</code>	declares <i>r</i> to be an int
<code>int *q = &r;</code>	declares <i>q</i> to be a pointer to an int
<code>int **p = &q;</code>	declares <i>p</i> to be a pointer to a pointer to an int
<code>r = 10;</code>	Direct assignment
<code>*q = 10;</code>	Assignment with one indirection
<code>**p = 10;</code>	Assignment with two indirections