## **Computer Architecture**

# Programming in C

Basic types and control structures

#### Schedule

- The basics of C
  - types, variables, expressions
  - loops and conditional statements
  - arrays and strings
  - functions

#### Advanced

- pointers
- memory allocation
- structures
- file operations
- data structures (e.g., linked lists, binary trees)

#### History

- C was created by Dennis Ritchie and Ken Thompson at Bell labs in 1970s.
- It was developed as a programming language that could be used to write the UNIX operating system.
- It is an efficient, portable, and flexible programming language, and it a foundational language in computer science and software engineering.
- Still being widely used today.



## Agenda

- Basic types
  - types
  - syntax
- Control structures
  - loops
  - conditionals

## Basic components of the language

A C program is often a combination of the following components:

variables:	access to the memory
operators:	+ - * < >
conditionals:	if() {} else {}
loops:	for() {} while() {} do {} while ()
Input / output:	<pre>printf () scanf ()</pre>

## My very first program

```
C my_first_program.c > ...
      #include <stdio.h>
      // my very first program
      int main(){
  5
           printf("Hello World!\n");
  6
  7
  8
           return 0;
  9
 10
```

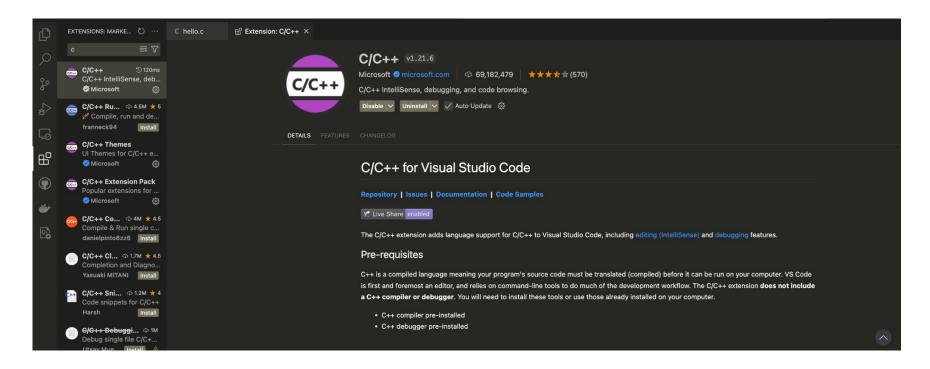
 We can use VS Code to write and run it.

Let's set up the environment first.

#### Set up your IDE

- We will use VS Code (<a href="https://code.visualstudio.com/">https://code.visualstudio.com/</a>)
- Two extensions are needed:
  - C/C++ by microsoft for debugging, code browsing, ...
  - code runner for running the code with VS Code
- We also need to install a C compiler
  - o macOS:
    - open a terminal, input clang --version to check if the compiler has been installed; if installed it will show you the version of it. Otherwise, there will be some errors, and you need to install clang.
    - To install clang, in the terminal, input xcode-select --install
  - Windows: you may follow this to install minGW-w64:
    - https://code.visualstudio.com/docs/cpp/config-mingw#\_prerequisites
      - For windows users, you may also use this IDE: CodeBlocks,
         <a href="https://www.codeblocks.org/">https://www.codeblocks.org/</a>; remember to install the mingw-setup

#### Extension



#### Extension

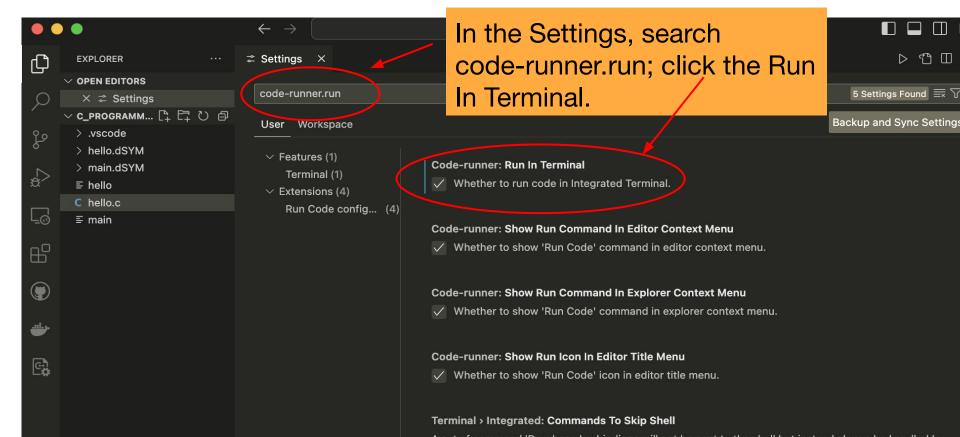


## Install clang

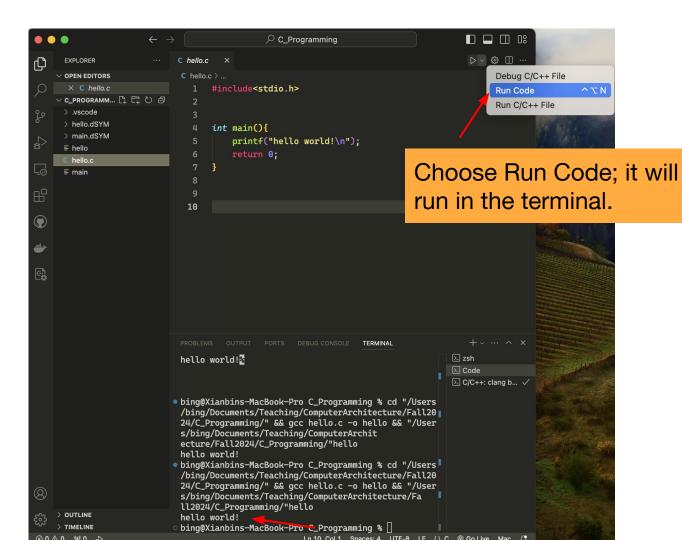
```
bing — -zsh — 80×24
Last login: Fri Aug 23 16:01:16 on ttys003
bing@Xianbins-MacBook-Pro ~ % clang --version
Apple clang version 15.0.0 (clang-1500.3.9.4)
Target: arm64-apple-darwin23.6.0
Thread model: posix
InstalledDir: /Applications/Xcode.app/Contents/Developer/Toolchains/XcodeDefault
.xctoolchain/usr/bin
bing@Xianbins-MacBook-Pro ~ % clang --version
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Thread model: posix
InstalledDir: /Applications/Xcode.app/Contents/Developer/Toolchains/XcodeDefault
.xctoolchain/usr/bin
bing@Xianbins-MacBook-Pro ~ % xcode-select --install
```

If no version information shown, please install clang

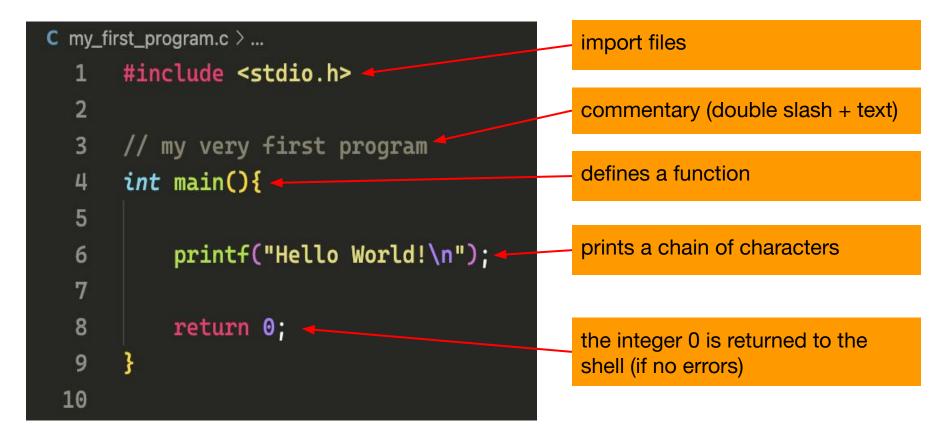
#### Run the code in terminal



## **Finally**



## My very first program



#### To run the program in a shell

```
basic_types_and_controls — -zsh — 80x24

[bing@Xianbins-MacBook-Pro basic_types_and_controls % gcc hello.c -o hello.out ]

[bing@Xianbins-MacBook-Pro basic_types_and_controls % ./hello.out ]

Hello World!

bing@Xianbins-MacBook-Pro basic_types_and_controls %
```

- gcc hello.c ⇒ compile hello.c with gcc
- gcc hello.c -o hello.out ⇒ compile hello.c with gcc and name the compiled file as hello.out
- ./hello.out ⇒ run hello.out

Briefly, it needs to steps to run a C program in your machine.

- 1. compiling: translate the code into machine code
- 2. run the machine code

## General structure of a C program

## A program is constructed as a sequence of functions

- In C, the body of the function should beginning and end of the block { ... }
- Each instruction ends with a semicolon;
- The principal function main is launched at the start of the program.
  - a C program should have a main function.

#### Example:

```
4 int main(){
5    printf("hello world!\n");
6    return 0;
7 }
```

## Declaring variables, computing and printing

```
#include<stdio.h>
                                                             To declare a variable, we
    int main() {
                                                             should specify the type.
        int x;
                   //new variable of integer type
        int y;
                   //new variable of integer type
5
        int z;
                   //new variable of integer type
                                                              type name of variable;
6
        x = 10;
                   //store 10 in the variable x
8
        y = 20;
                   //store 20 in the variable y
9
        z = x+y; //store in z the sum of x and y
10
11
        // print the sum of x, y, and z
12
        printf("the value computed is equal to %d", x+y+z);
13
14
        return 0;
15
```

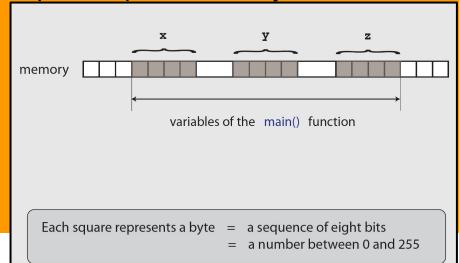
#### Declaring variables, computing and printing

- int x;
  - reverses (or allocates) some piece of the memory sufficiently large to store an integer (int).
  - $\circ$  calls this location x, i.e., the variable x will be then used to refer to this specific memory location.
- int is the type specifies the nature of the values stored at location x
  - many other types:
    - characters
    - floating point
    - array of integers, etc...
- To declare a variable in C, we have to specify the type

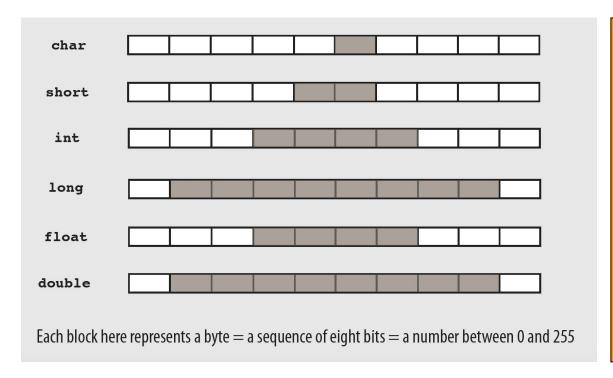
#### Variables allocated in memory

In a computer, everything is a binary storing in memory.

- The atom of memory is a bit.
- Usually, the smallest unit of memory is 8 bits, also called a byte.
- In the following figure, each square represents a byte.



#### Each data type corresponds to a different amount of memory



Different data type needs different amount of memory.

## Test yourself the size of your data types!

```
#include <stdio.h>
 2
     int main(){
         printf("size of char = %zu\n", sizeof(char));
 6
         printf("size of short = %zu\n", sizeof(short));
         printf("size of int = %zu\n", sizeof(int));
         printf("size of unsigned int = %zu\n", sizeof(unsigned int));
 8
         printf("size of long = %zu\n", sizeof(long));
 9
10
         printf("size of unsigned long = %zu\n", sizeof(unsigned long));
11
         printf("size of float = %zu\n", sizeof(float));
12
         printf("size of double = %zu\n", sizeof(double));
13
         return 0:
14
```

Now, create a file named size.c, and input the code.

## Test yourself the size of your data types!

If everything goes well, you will have the following printed in the terminal.

```
size of char = 1
size of short = 2
size of int = 4
size of unsigned int = 4
size of long = 8
size of unsigned long = 8
size of float = 4
size of double = 8
```

#### Note:

• the unit of the size is byte (i.e., 8 bits)

Q: How many bits does a float type variable take?

#### printf format identifiers

%d %i	Decimal signed integer
%0	Octal integer
%x %X	Hex integer
%u	Unsigned integer
%ld	Long decimal signed integer
%lu	Long unsigned integer
%C	Character
%S	String
%f	Double
%p	Pointer
%zu	Size of a type

In the printf, we should specify the type of the variable we want to print.

 Identifiers are the symbols for the types.

printf("x is %d", x) //print the value of x in the format of the decimal signed integer

#### Example: printf format identifiers

Try different identifiers for sizeof (char), what do you get?

```
int main(){
4
        printf("size of char = /%zu\n", sizeof(char));
5
        printf("size of char = %d\n", sizeof(char));
6
        printf("size of char = %f\n", sizeof(char));
        printf("size of char = %c\h", sizeof(char));
8
        return 0;
```

- Variable declaration
  - o In C, the variable should be declared before being used.
  - To declare a variable, it always needs to indicate its type.
- It is possible to declare several variables of the same type:

```
int x, y, z;
```

 In practice, the variable declarations of a function are done at the very beginning, followed by the instructions.

Variable declaration and immediate initialization:

```
int x = 10; //declare a variable x of int and initialize it with 10.
```

We can mix declarations and initializations:

```
int x=10; y=20; z=x+y; //the declarations and initializations are performed sequentially. So, we will have x=10, y=20, and z=30.
```

Note: variables that have not been initialized may contain any value!

```
1 #include <stdio.h>
2
3 int main(){
4    int x;
5    printf("the value in x is %d\n", x);
6    return 0;
7 }
```

Print an uninitialized variable, what will you get?

The assignment operator: = (it is like a copy, but it is not retroactive)

```
int x; //x undefined
int y; //y undefined
x = 10; //x is equal to 10
y = x; //value of x read and stored in y, so, x and y have the
same value 10
x=20; //x has value 20, but y has still value 10
```

#### Increment a variable: two ways

#### Option 1:

```
int x; //x is undefined

x = 1; //x is equal to 1

x = x+1; //x is incremented to 2
```

#### Option 2:

```
int x; //x is undefined

x = 1; //x is equal to 1

x++; //x is incremented to 2
```

Can you make a guess on the ways to decrement a variable?

## Computing and printing

```
printf("the value computed is equal to %d", x+y+z);
```

- Computes the sum of the current values of x, y, and z
- Prints the chain in quotation marks where %d is replaced by the result. (Please try it, the expected output is 60)
- printf also can print several integers:

```
printf("the sum of %d and % is equal to %d",x,y,x+y);
```

• It will print the sum of 10 and 20 is equal to 30

## Reading on the keyboard

scanf: built-in function for getting input from the keyboard

```
#include <stdio.h>
     int main(){
        int n;
        int m;
 5
 6
        printf("enter a first number: \n");
        scanf("%d", &n); //reading n on the keyboard
 8
        printf("enter a second number: \n");
10
        scanf("%d", &m);//reading m on the keyboard
11
12
        printf("their sum is equal to %d", n+m);
13
        return 0;
```

Note: &n and &m are the memory addresses of n and m.

## Reading on the keyboard

If you need to input two values for two variables, you may use the following way:

```
#include<stdio.h>

int main() {

char c, d;

printf("Please input two chars: \n");

scanf("%c %c", &c, &d);

printf("The chars you input are %c and %c\n", c, d);

}
```

A space is needed.

#### The most usual types of C: double

The type double for floating point numbers:

```
double x = 3.14;
```

Note: the computations on floating point numbers are necessarily imprecise.

```
printf("enter a number: ");
scanf("%lf", &x);
printf("The input value is %lf", x);
```

 In order to print and read these numbers, one uses %1 f

#### The most usual types of C: double

• It is possible to store an int in a variable of type double but **not** the inverse without rounding up, or even an undefined result:

```
int n=1;
double pi=1;  //pi is equal to 1.0
pi = pi + 2.14;  //pi becomes 3.14
n = pi;  //compiles but n becomes 3
```

**Note:** the value of n would be undefined if the pi were larger.

#### The most usual types of C: char

- The type char is the type used to represent characters.
- The characters are represented in memory by **numbers** but the variables of type char can also be written as 'a', 'b', ...
  - The number associated to a character is its **ASCII code** (<u>ASCII table</u>).
  - It is possible to do arithmetic calculations on these characters

```
char c = 'a';  //in memory: 97
int n = c;  //n becomes equal to 97
c = c+1  //c becomes 98, that is 'b'
```

#### The most usual types of C: char

- For reading and printing values of char as characters, one uses %c.
- Using %d for printing characters as numbers.

```
char c;
scanf(" %c", &c); // input
printf("the integer associated to %c is %d", c, c);

the integer associated to a is 96
```

## Typing of expressions and rules of conversion

• In simple words, small size types are coerced into larger size types without loss of information whenever it is necessary.

We can force the conversion in some cases:

```
\begin{array}{ccc}
n & \longrightarrow & \text{int} \\
(\text{double})n & \longrightarrow & \text{double}
\end{array}
```

#### Control structures

#### What we are going to see:

- The structure if-else
  - The conditional evaluation
- The loops for, while, do-while
- The structure switch
- The control instructions break and continue

#### The if-else control structure

```
int main() {
 4
         int n, m, max;
 6
         printf("enter two numbers: \n");
 7
         scanf("%d%d", &n, &m);
 8
         if (n>m) {
 9
10
             max=n;
11
12
         else{
13
             max=m;
14
15
         printf("the larger one is %d\n", max);
16
         return 0;
```

```
if-else general form:
if (boolean condition) {
     Body of the if
else {
    Body of the else
Note: a block reduced to a single
instruction may be written without any
{ . . . }
```

#### More details of if-else

- The contents of two bodies of the if-else are arbitrary and can be freely interchanged.
- One can write an if without any else (but not the contrary!)
- An else is always associated to the last if of the same depth and not yet associated to any previous else.

# Question: what is the else associated with the first if?

```
if (expression)
    statement
else if (expression)
    statement
else if (expression)
    statement
else
    statement
```

# (Python users:) Be careful when nesting if

- The intention is to print an error message when n is negative, but the else is associated to a improper if.
- This kind of bugs is very difficult to detect...
- It is thus a good practice to put braces { . . . } when there are nested ifs!!!

# The syntax of conditions

- Comparison operators
  - The usual form: comparison of two expressions

expression op expression

- The op is one of the comparison operators as below:
  - o <, <=, >=, >, ==, !=
  - The comparison operators are valid for all numerical types

# The syntax of conditions

It is also possible to compare expressions with different types:

```
char c; int n; double d;
// ... initialization of the variables ...
if (c <= n*2) {...} // c promoted into int
if (n+1 \le d) \{...\} // n+1 promoted into double
if (n != c+d) {...} // n promoted into double
                     // c promoted into double
```

# Combining comparison combinators

- Two conditions can be combined into a single one using:
  - & & the logical conjunction (i.e., and), true when it two components are true
  - o | | the logical disjunction (i.e., or), true when one of its components is true

```
if (n <= 1 || x > 3) {...}
```

- The inverse of a condition can be constructed using:
  - ! the logical negation, true when its unique component is false

```
if (!(x==0)) {...} is the same as if (x!=0) {...}
```

# No boolean type in C

- There is **no** boolean type in C.
- The type int is thus used to represent the truth values...
- The conditions are values of type int like any other integer value.

#### So, a comparison evaluates as:

- 1 when it is satisfied
- 0 otherwise

```
Illustration:

1 > 2 evaluates to 0
2 > 0 evaluates to 1
```

For the expression v = n > 2; to ask that v receives the value 0 or 1 depending on the value of n.

#### The evaluation of conditions

From the point of view of an if (of a for, of a while, etc...)

- all the expressions of non zero value are considered true
- all the expressions of zero value are considered false

```
if (x + y)\{\dots\} is the same as if (x + y != 0) \{\dots\}
if (!(x + y))\{\dots\} is the same as if (x + y == 0) \{\dots\}
```

Probably useless but does compile properly:

- if (42) ... the condition is always satisfied
- if (0) ... the condition is never satisfied

#### Beware: a common mistake!

A typical bug in C is the following one: (may not only be in C)

```
if (n = 0){ /* instead of n == 0 */
    ...
}
```

#### Be warned of its dangers:

- This code will compile well and will produce an executable code
- It will force the value of n to be zero
- It will never branch in the block if whatever the original value of n tested by the condition.

# Assignment instructions have values!

- $\bullet$  n = 0
  - o an instruction which give value 0 to n
  - used here as an expression
  - the value of the expression is the value received by n
- Every assignment instruction can be used in that way:
  - $\circ$  x = y = 42 can be read as x = (y = 42)
    - the variable y receives the value 42
    - this determines the value 42 of the expression (y=42)
    - the variable x receives the value 42

# Assignment instructions have values!!!

```
if (n = 0) { ... }
```

- the variable n receives the value 0
- the expression (n=0) has thus value 0
- as such, it is considered false
- the conditional thus branches on the else block

```
if (n = 42) { ... }
```

- the variable n receives the value 42
- the expression (n=42) has thus value 42
- as such, it is considered true (because not zero)
- the conditional thus branches on the if block

#### Assignment instructions have values!!!

Q: What is the point of treating assignments as expressions?

A: This enables one to write more concise and clearer code in many situations of interest, especially in file operations, like the following one:

```
int c;

if ((c=getchar()) != EOF){
  /* case when the character c has been read */
  /* from the standard input */
}
else {
  /* case when the program has reached the end */
  /* of the standard input */
}
```

#### Note:

- EOF is a signal End-Of-File emitted by the system when the end of the standard input has been reached.
- getchar() is a built-in function that reads the next character of the input.
- Press Ctrl + d to input an EOF.

# Assignment instructions have values!!!

• Difference between x = x+1 and x++:

```
int main(){
 5
        int x=0;
         printf("x = %d\n", x);
 8
         printf("increment x by x+=1: %d n", x += 1);
 9
         printfprintf("increment x by x++: %d n", x ++);
10
11
        //x += 1 (or x=x+1) directly updates x and returns the new value.
12
         //x++ updates x but returns the original value of x before the increment.
13
        return 0;
```

#### Conditional evaluation

```
int n, m;
printf("enter two numbers :\n");
scanf("%d%d",&n,&m);
printf("the largest one is %d", (n > m) ? n : m);
```

**Ternary operator**: a variant of the construction if-else: select an expression among two possibilities depending on the boolean condition.

# The for loop example

```
// computing the first ten square numbers
int i, square;
for (i = 1; i \le 10; i=i+1){
    square = i * i;
    printf("The square of %d is equal to %d\n",i,square);
```

# for loop: general form

```
for (i = 1; i <= 10 ; i=i+1){ body of the loop };
```

where the variable i is called the counter of the loop

- $i = 1 \Rightarrow$  initialization instruction; the initial value of the counter is 1.
- i <= 10 ⇒ boolean condition; the loop is performed as long as this condition is true.
- $i = i + 1 \Rightarrow$  incrementation instruction; the counter is incremented each time the body of the loop is executed.

# for loop: general form

The method of using a counter in a loop is well-know, general and safe.

```
for (i = 1; i \le 10; i = i + 1) \{ body of the loop \};
for (i = 1; i < 10; i = i + 1) \{ body of the loop \};
for (i = 1; i < 12; i = i + 2) \{ body of the loop \};
for (i = 10; i \ge 0; i = i - 1) \{ body of the loop \};
```

# The for loop

The interval of the counter is not necessary known before execution:

```
// computing the sum of the n first numbers
int i,n,sum;
printf("enter a positive number : ");
scanf("%d", &n);
sum = 0;
for (i = 1 ; i \le n ; i = i + 1){
    sum = sum + i;
printf("The sum of the %d first numbers is %d\n",n,sum);
```

Question: What happens when the integer n is negative?

# The for loop

Advice: avoid to alter the counter inside the body of the for loop.

The following program is absurd, but it does compile!

```
for (i = 1; i < 2; i = i + 1){
    i = i - 1;
}</pre>
```

**Note:** You can press ctrl-c to stop it.

# The for loop

The following program is even more absurd, but it does compile!

```
for ( ; 1 ; );
```

Note: You can press ctrl-c to stop it.

- The initialization instruction is empty
- The condition test is always successful
- The incrementation instruction is empty
- Only the ctrl-c from the shell can stop it.

# The while loop example

Computation of the first power of 2 greater than 10000

```
int power, n;
power = 1;
while (power < 10000) {
     power = power * 2;
     n = n + 1;
printf("Two to the power %d = %d is the first
power of two greater than 10000\n", n, power);
```

The number of loops is not known at the beginning.

Note: there is a bug in the code, can you find it?

# while loop: general form

```
while (boolean condition) { body of the while };
```

- The condition is evaluated. If it is true (i.e., non zero) then,
  - The body of the while is executed
  - One goes back to the condition evaluation
  - o if the condition is false, the while loop stops, and one carries on.
- It is possible that the body of the while is never executed when the condition is immediately false (equal to zero).
- Nothing guarantees that the while loop will stop -- as such, it a bit more risky than a for loop.

#### **Exercise**

• It is easy to encode a for loop using a while loop. How can you do this?

```
5
        int power, n;
6
        power = 1;
        n = 0;
        while (power<10000){</pre>
8
                                                               Can you use a for
             power = power*2;
                                                               loop for that?
10
            n = n+1;
11
12
        printf("2^%d = %d is the first power of two \
13
        greater than 10000\n", n, power);
        return 0;
```

It is even easier to implement an infinite while loop. How can you do it?

# The do-while loop

```
int n;

do {
    printf("Enter a positive number : ");
    scanf("%d",&n);
    if (n < 0) {printf("Sorry, I have said positive...\n")
} while (n < 0);</pre>
```

```
do { body of while } while (boolean condition);
```

- The body of the while is executed at least once. Then, the condition is evaluated.
  - If it is true then one goes back to execute the body
  - Otherwise, one carries on and goes to the next instruction.

#### The switch structure

```
int main(){
        int n, m; char choice;
        printf("Enter two numbers : ");
 6
        scanf("%d %d", &n, &m);
        printf("What do you want to do with them ?\n");
 8
        printf("Add them (+) ?\n");
        printf("Multiply them (*) ?\n");
10
        scanf(" %c", &choice);
11
12
        switch (choice) {
13
             case '+': printf("Their sum is equal to : %d\n", n+m);
14
                       break;
15
             case '*': printf("Their product is equal to : %d\n", n*m);
16
                       break;
17
             default : printf("Unknown operation\n");
18
                       break;
19
20
        return 0;
```

#### The switch structure

- 1. the expression is evaluated (i.e., computed).
- 2. The first sequence of the instructions whose constant is equal to the value just computed is executed.
- 3. the break instruction at the end of the sequence causes an immediate exit from the switch.
- 4. The sequence of instructions at default is executed when the computed value is different from all the constants.

#### The switch structure

- The **break** instruction is **not** necessary **at the end** of the instruction. ⇒ In that case, the next instruction of the switch is performed.
- Similarly, it is **not** necessary to end the switch with a default case.

```
int n=2;
  switch (n) {
                                                    is switched ON at 2
  case 0: printf("is switched ON at 0\n");
                                                    is switched ON at 3
  case 1: printf("is switched ON at 1\n");
                                                    is switched ON at 4
  case 2: printf("is switched ON at 2\n");
                                                    end of the switch
  case 3: printf("is switched ON at 3\n");
  case 4: printf("is switched ON at 4\n");
printf("end of the switch");
```

# Try it:

```
#include <stdio.h>
int main() { /* count digits, white spaces, others */
 int c, i, nwhite, nother, ndigit[10];
 nwhite = nother = 0:
 for (i=0; i < 10; i=i+1)
    {ndigit[i] = 0;} /* initialization of the array of numbers */
 while ((c=qetchar()) != EOF)
    {switch (c) {
      case '0': case '1': case '2': case '3': case '4':
      case '5': case '6': case '7': case '8': case '9':
        ndigit[c-'0'] = ndigit[c-'0']+1;
       break;
      case ' ': case '\n': case '\t':
                                         Note:
        nwhite=nwhite+1;
       break;
                                             when you finish your input, press
      default:
                                               the Enter, and then, press ctrl-d
        nother=nother+1;
        break;
                                               and press Enter.

    ctrl-d is the EOF.

  printf("digits =");
 for (i = 0; i<10; i=i+1)
    {printf(" %d", ndigit[i]);}
  printf(", white space = %d, other = %d\n", nwhite, nother);
  return 0;
```

#### The break instruction

More generally, the break instruction causes immediate exit from:

- The body of a switch
- The body of a for loop
- The body of a while loop
- The body of a do-while loop

It is not possible to exit with one single break instruction from several nested bodies: one needs a break instruction for each level of nesting.

#### The continue instruction

#### The continue instruction enables one

- in the body of a for loop: to jump directly to the increment instruction
- in the body of a while loop or of a do-while loop: to jump directly to the evaluation of the condition

In other words, the continue instruction jumps immediately to the end of the body of the loop.

Very often, the continue instruction can be simulated by an if.

#### **Exercise**

Write a program that will calculate the result for the first **N**-th terms of the following series. [In that series sum, dot sign (.) means multiplication]

$$1^2 \times 2 + 2^2 \times 3 + 3^2 \times 4 + 4^2 \times 5 + \dots$$

Input	Output
2	14
3	50
4	130
7	924

#### **Exercise**

Write a program that will print Fibonacci series up to N-th terms.

1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 13, 21, 34, 55, 89,......

Input	Output
1	1
2	1 1
4	1123
7	1 1 2 3 5 8 13

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Paul is a visiting professor at NYU Shanghai. He teaches functional programming and computer architecture in spring semesters.