

Lab 2

C Programming on Linux, Mac OS X

Course: Operating Systems

October 14, 2020

Goal: The lab helps student to

- Review basic shell commands and practice with *vim* on Linux, Mac OS X.
- Review C programming with compiling and running a program on Linux, Mac OS X.

Content:

- Practice with *vim* - text editor.
- Programming with C language.
- Compile a program with Makefile.

Result:

- After doing the lab, student can type a program without GUI on Linux/Mac OS C by *vim*.
- Student can compile and run a program using Makefile.

1 INTRODUCTION

1.1 VIM

Vim is the editor of choice for many developers and power users. It's a "modal" text editor based on the vi editor written by Bill Joy in the 1970s for a version of UNIX. It inherits the key bindings of vi, but also adds a great deal of functionality and extensibility that are missing from the original vi.

Vim has two modes for users:

- Command mode: allows user to do functions such as find, undo, etc.
- Insert mode: allows user to edit the content of text.

To turn the *Insert* mode to *Command* mode, we type *ESC* key or *Ctrl-C*. Otherwise, to enter the *Insert* mode, type i or I, a, A, o, O. Some of basic commands in *Vim*:

- Save: enter :w
- Quit without Save and discard the change: enter :q!
- Save and Quit: enter :wq
- Move the cursor to the top of file: gg
- Move to the bottom: G
- Find a letter/string by going forward: enter /[letter/string] ~~<Enter>~~ n
- Find a letter/string by going backward: enter ?[letter/string] ~~<Enter>~~ N
- Repeat the previous finding: enter n
- Repeat the previous finding by going backward: enter N
- Delete a line: enter dd
- Undo: enter u
- Redo: enter Ctrl-R

Furthermore, *Vim* has a mode called "visual" that allows user to chose a paragraph for copying or, moving. To enter this mode, we need to turn the editor into *Command* mode and press "v". After that, user use "arrow" keys to chose the paragraph, and then use the following commands:

- Copy: enter y
- Cut: enter d
- Paste: enter p

1.2 C PROGRAMMING ON LINUX/MAC OS X

GNU C CODING STANDARDS

- **Keep the length of source lines to 79 characters or less, for maximum readability in the widest range of environments.**
- Put a comment on each function saying what the function does, what sorts of arguments it gets, and what the possible values of arguments mean and are used for.
- Please explicitly declare the types of all objects. For example, you should explicitly declare all arguments to functions, and you should declare functions to return int rather than omitting the int.

Reference: <http://www.gnu.org/prep/standards/standards.html>. Formatting your source code

COMPILING PROCESS: It is important to understand that while some computer languages (e.g. Scheme or Basic) are normally used with an interactive interpreter (where you type in commands that are immediately executed). C source codes are always compiled into binary code by a program called a "compiler" and then executed. This is actually a multi-step process which we describe in some detail here.

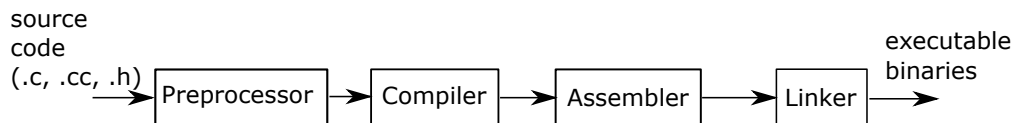


Figure 1.1: C Compiling scheme

STEPS IN COMPILING PROCESS:

- Preprocessor: takes the source code, the preprocessor directives and then expand the source code.
- Compiler: converts the expanded code into assembly code.
- Assembler: converts the assembly code into object code by using an assembler
- Linker: combines the object code of library files with the object code of our program.

COMPILERS AND LIBRARIES: Apple provides a customized/optimized GNU CC, with backends for C, C++, Objective-C and Objective-C++. Compilers for many other languages are available either precompiled (such as the XL Fortran Advanced Compiler from IBM), or can be compiled from source, which is not any harder in general than compiling the same source on, say, Linux or FreeBSD. The LLVM compiler is the next-generation compiler, introduced in Mac OS X. In Xcode of Mac OS X, the LLVM compiler uses the Clang front end to parse source code and turn it into an interim format.

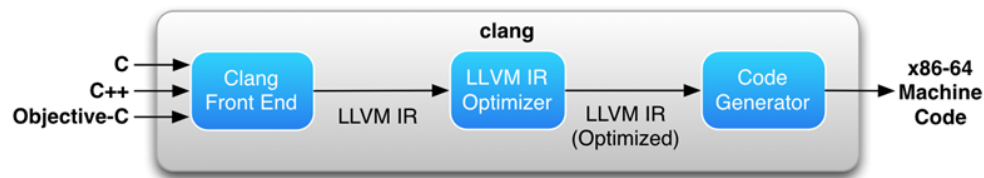


Figure 1.2: Clang in Mac OS X

Figure below shows a C program compiled in step by step.

```

1 % Preprocessed source file
2 $ gcc -E [-o hello.cpp] hello.c //output hello.i
3
4 % Assembly code
5 $ gcc -S [-o hello.S] hello.c //output hello.s
6
7 % Binary file
8 $ gcc -c [-o hello.o] hello.c //output hello.o
9
10 % Executable file
11 $ gcc [-o hello] hello.c

```

2 PRACTICE

2.1 COMPILE AND RUN A PROGRAM

STEPS FOR CREATING A PROGRAM

In general, the compiling progress includes these steps:

1. Create source code file hello.c

```
1 #include <stdlib.h>
2 #include <stdio.h>
3
4 int main(int argc, char ** argv) {
5     printf("Hello, _World!\n");
6     return 0;
7 }
```

2. Create object file:

```
$ gcc -c souce_code_file.c
# Example:
$ gcc -c hello.c
# or
$ gcc -c -o hello.o hello.c
```

3. Create executable file:

```
$ gcc -o executable_file object1.o object2.o ...
# Example:
$ gcc -o hello hello.o
```

We can compile the program directly from the source code file without the step of creating object file. However, this way can cause the difficulty when identifying errors.

4. Create executable file:

```
$ gcc -o executable_file src1.c src2.c ...
# Example:
$ gcc -o hello hello.c
```

5. Run the program:

```
$ ./executable_file
# Example: to list the crated executable binary file
$ ls
```

```
hello    hello.c        hello.o
# To execute the binary file
$ ./hello
```

- During compiling a program, the source code can make some errors. The compiler provides debuggers that show the information of errors. The structure of showing errors: `<file>:<row>:<column_letter>:<type>:<detail>`
- For example, error 1:

```
$ gcc -o hello.o -c hello.c
hello.c:1:18: fatal error: stdo.h: No such file ...
compilation terminated.
```

- From the example of error 1:
 - Error file: hello.c
 - Error line: 1
 - The column of error letter: 18
 - Type of error: error
 - Detail info: stdo.h not found

2.2 MAKEFILE

A makefile is a file containing a set of directives used with the make build automation tool. Most often, the makefile directs make on how to compile and link a program. Using C/C++ as an example, when a C/C++ source file is changed, it must be recompiled. If a header file has changed, each C/C++ source file that includes the header file must be recompiled to be safe. Each compilation produces an object file corresponding to the source file. Finally, if any source file has been recompiled, all the object files, whether newly made or saved from previous compilations, must be linked together to produce the new executable program.[1] These instructions with their dependencies are specified in a makefile. **If none of the files that are prerequisites have been changed since the last time the program was compiled, no actions take place. For large software projects, using Makefiles can substantially reduce build times if only a few source files have changed.** A makefile consists of “rules” in the following form:

```
# comment
# (note: the <tab> in the command line
# is necessary for make to work)

target:  dependency1 dependency2 ...
    <tab> command
```

Where,

- target: a target is usually the name of a file that is generated by a program; examples of targets are executable or object files. A target can also be the name of an action to carry out, such as "clean".
- dependency1, dependency2,...: a dependency (also called prerequisite) is a file that is used as input to create the target. A target often depends on several files. However, the rule that specifies a recipe for the target need not have any prerequisites. For example, the rule containing the delete command associated with the target "clean" does not have prerequisites.
- command: Needed commands is used for performing rules.

For example, we have three source code files including main.c, hello.h, hello.c.

```
// File: main.c
#include "hello.h"

int main() {
    helloworld();
    return 0;
}
```

```
// File: hello.h

void helloworld(void);
```

```
// File: hello.c
#include "hello.h"
#include <stdio.h>

void helloworld(void) {
    printf("Hello ,_world\n");
}
```

In this example, we compile .c files into object files .o, and then link all of object files into a single binary. Firstly, that is the process of compiling source code files into object files.

- main.o: main function in main.c calls helloworld() which is declared in hello.h. Thereby, to compile main.c, we need the information declared from hello.h. To create main.o, we need hello.h and main.c. Therefore, the rule for creating main.o is:

```
main.o: main.c hello.h
    gcc -c main.c
```

- hello.o: similar to the rule of main.o, we need two files named hello.c and hello.h to create hello.o. Note that hello.c using printf() in the library stdio.h to print the output on screen. However, this is the library integrated with GCC, so we do not need to fill in the dependency of the rule.

```
hello.o: hello.c hello.h
        gcc -c hello.o
```

- hello: Because helloworld is declared in hello.h, but it is defined in hello.c and compiled into the binary in hello.o, therefore, if the main function calls this function, we need to link hello.o with main.o to create the final binary. This file depends on hello.o and main.o.

```
all: main.o hello.o
        gcc main.o hello.o -o hello
```

- Finally, we can add the rule of clean to remove all of object files and binaries in case of compiling an entire program.

```
clean:
        rm -f *.o hello
```

The final result of Makefile:

```
# File: Makefile
all: main.o hello.o
        gcc main.o hello.o -o hello

main.o: main.c hello.h
        gcc -c main.c

hello.o: hello.c hello.h
        gcc -c hello.c

clean:
        rm -f *.o hello
```

With this Makefile, to re-compile the whole program, we call:

```
$ make all
```

To remove all of object files and binaries, we call

```
$ make clean
```

If we need to create an object file - main.o, we call

```
$ make main.o
```

If we only call “make”, the default rule of Makefile is executed - “make all”.

References

- Coding style by GNU: <http://www.gnu.org/prep/standards/standards.html>.
- C programming
 - Brian Kernighan, and Dennis Ritchie, *"The C Programming Language"*, Second Edition
 - Randal E. Bryant and David R. O'Hallaron, *"Computer systems: A Programmer's Perspective"*, Second Edition
- More information about Vim: http://vim.wikia.com/wiki/Vim_Tips_Wiki
- Makefile:
 - A simple Makefile tutorial <http://www.cs.colby.edu/maxwell/courses/tutorials/maketutor/>
 - GNU Make Manual <https://www.gnu.org/software/make/manual/make.html>

3 EXERCISES

3.1 QUESTIONS

1. What are the advantages of Makefile? Give examples?
2. Is there any other automatic compilation tool besides Makefile? Give some names? What are the reasons for creating new compilation tools?
3. In case of source code files located in different places, how can we write a Makefile?

3.2 PROGRAMMING EXERCISES

Two header files named factorial.h and readline.h have the following contents:

```
// factorial.h
#ifndef FACTORIAL_H
#define FACTORIAL_H

char* factorial(const int aNumber);

#endif
```

```
// readline.h
#ifndef READ_LINE_H
#define READ_LINE_H

int read_line(char *str);

#endif
```

1. Write factorial.c to implement function factorial(): the function get an integer and return an array of char containing digits of the result. For example factorial(10) returns char[10]={3 6 2 8 8 0 0}
2. Write readline.c to implement read_line(): read_line() gets data from stdin (keyboard), line-by-line. The content from stdin will be recorded on the parameter of this function named str. The result of read_line() indicates that whether the line is an integer or not. For example, with the input string below:

```
Hello , world
Operating system
Computer Science and Engineering
123
```

After calling the function, `read_line()` writes “Hello,world” into `str` and returns 0. The second calling will write “Operating system” into `str` and return 0. The third calling will write “Computer Science and Engineering” into `str` and return 0. The last call will write “123” into `str` and return 1.

3. Write `main.c` to create an executable file named **myfactorial** that reads input from `stdin` line by line and compute factorial if the line is an integer (each line does not exceed 50 letters). Then print factorial if the line is an integer else print -1. Write a Makefile to compile the program at least two targets:

- all: create **myfactorial** from other files.
- clean: remove all of object files, binaries.

```
// main.c
#include <stdio.h>
#include "readline.h"
#include "factorial.h"

int main(int argc, char * argv[]) {
    // Implement myfactorial
}

#endif
```

NOTE: As these exercises are graded automatically, thereby, student need to implement the program by the requirements mentioned above. Student compress all of files `.txt` (*answers of \$3.1*), `.c`, `.h`, Makefile in a zip file named: `lab2-<studentID>.zip`.

Makefile example

```
1 FC=gfortran
2 CC=gcc
3 CP=cp
4
5 .PHONY: all clean
6
7 OBJS = mylib.o mylib_c.o
8
9 # Compiler flags
10 FFLAGS = -g -traceback -heap-arrays 10 \
11         -I. -L/usr/lib64 -lGL -lGLU -lX11 -lXext
12
13 CFLAGS = -g -traceback -heap-arrays 10 \
14         -I. -lGL -lGLU -lX11 -lXext
15
16 MAKEFLAGS = -W -w
17
18 PRJ_BINS=hello
19 PRJ_OBJS = $(addsuffix .o,$(PRJ_BINS))
20
21 objects := $(PRJ_OBJS) $(OBJS)
22
23 all: myapp
24
25 %.o: %.f90
26     $(FC) -D_MACHTYPE_LINUX $< -c -o $$@
27
28 %.o: %.F
29     $(FC) -D_MACHTYPE_LINUX $< -c -o $$@
30
31 %.o: %.c
32     $(CC) -D_MACHTYPE_LINUX $< -c -o $$@
33
34 myapp: objects
35     $(CC) $(CFLAGS) $^ $(objects) -o $$@
36
37 clean:
38     @echo "Cleaning up.."
39     rm -f *.o
40     rm -f $(PRJ_BINS)
```

REVISION HISTORY

Revision	Date	Author(s)	Description
1.0	11.03.15	PD Nguyen	created
1.1	11.09.15	PD Nguyen	add introduction and exercise section
2.0	25.02.16	PD Nguyen	Restructure the content to form an tutorial
2.1	20.08.16	DH Nguyen	Update C and Vim to Appendix
3.0	12.02.19	TK Pham	Change Exercises, edit Makefile explain
3.0	13.10.20	TV Le	Update compiling process