

JTSK-320112

Programming in C II

C-Lab II

Lecture 1 & 2

Dr. Kinga Lipskoch

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Who are We?

- ▶ Kinga Lipskoch - university lecturer of Computer Science
- ▶ Jürgen Schönwälder - professor of Computer Science
- ▶ Contact details Lipskoch:
 - ▶ Office: Research I, Room 94
 - ▶ Telephone: +49 421 200-3148
 - ▶ E-Mail: k.lipskoch@jacobs-university.de
 - ▶ Office hours: Mondays 10:00 - 12:00
- ▶ Contact details Schönwälder:
 - ▶ Office: Research I, Room 87
 - ▶ Telephone: +49 421 200-3587
 - ▶ E-Mail: j.schoenwaelder@jacobs-university.de
 - ▶ Office hours: Thursdays 10:00 - 12:00

Course Resources

- ▶ Grader:
<https://grader.eecs.jacobs-university.de/>
Slides and programming assignment sheets will be posted there after the lab
- ▶ Programming assignments will be received during the lab
- ▶ Offline questions: Office hours or you can make other appointments if necessary

Literature

Textbooks:

- ▶ B. W. Kernighan & D. M. Ritchie: The C Programming Language, Second edition, Prentice Hall, 1988
- ▶ Stephen Prata: C Primer Plus, Fifth edition, Sams Publishing, 2004
- ▶ Steve Oualline: Practical C Programming, Third edition, O'Reilly, 1997
- ▶ Other C books as well, but stick to a few resources

Course Goals

- ▶ Continuation of the “Programming in C I” course
- ▶ Deepens the basic programming skills
- ▶ Advanced topics of C programming such as
 - ▶ Data structures
 - ▶ Simple algorithms
 - ▶ File handling, libraries, and debugging techniques
- ▶ Develop (i.e., design, code, test, and debug) more complex programs

Grading

- ▶ Same as the grading of the course “Programming in C I”
- ▶ 35% - programming assignments
- ▶ 65% - final exam

Programming Assignments

- ▶ To be solved individually
 - ▶ Discussion between students is encouraged, cheating is not. Each student needs to submit her/his own solution to the assignments
- ▶ Assignments will be graded by the TAs
 - ▶ Percentages
 - ▶ Formulated by the TAs:
http://grader.eecs.jacobs-university.de/courses/320112/2017_1m1/Grading-Criteria-C2.pdf
- ▶ Every assignment has a deadline, no exceptions allowed after it expires
- ▶ Every student can use 6 extensions (i.e., 6 problems)

Structure of the Lectures

- ▶ Thursdays 14:15 - 16:15 Lecture
- ▶ Thursdays 16:15 - 18:30 Programming assignment
- ▶ Fridays 14:15 - 16:15 Lecture
- ▶ Fridays 16:15 - 18:30 Programming assignment
- ▶ Programming assignments are due on the next Tuesday and Wednesday at 10:00 in the morning, can be discussed at weekly tutorial offered by the TAs

Planned Syllabus

- ▶ **The C Preprocessor**
- ▶ **Bit Operations**
- ▶ **Pointers and Arrays (Dynamically Allocated Multi-Dimensional Arrays)**
- ▶ Pointers and Structures (Linked Lists)
- ▶ Compiling, Linking and the make Utility
- ▶ Pointers and Functions (Function Pointers)
- ▶ Stacks and Queues
- ▶ Modifiers and Other Keywords
- ▶ Binary I/O (File Handling)

Programming Environment

- ▶ We will use the Unix operating system and related GNU tools (gcc, gdb, codeblocks, geany, etc.)
 - ▶ You can use any Unix distribution or
 - ▶ If you use Windows you can try to install DevC++ or codeblocks
 - ▶ Your programs must compile without any warnings with gcc
 - ▶ Use `gcc -Wall -o program program.c`
- ▶ Once again: take the chance to learn some Unix
- ▶ Every problem has multiple associated testcases which are used to check your solution
- ▶ If testcases are not passed then the TAs will subtract points

The C Preprocessor (1)

- ▶ Before compilation, C source files are being preprocessed
- ▶ The preprocessor replaces tokens by an arbitrary number of characters
- ▶ Offers possibility of:
 - ▶ Use of named constants
 - ▶ Include files
 - ▶ Conditional compilation
 - ▶ Use of macros with arguments

The C Preprocessor (2)

- ▶ The preprocessor has a different syntax from C
- ▶ All preprocessor commands start with #
- ▶ A preprocessor directive terminates at the end-of-line
 - ▶ Do not put ; at the end of a directive
- ▶ It is a common programming practice to use all uppercase letters for macro names

The C Preprocessor: File Inclusion

- ▶ `#include <filename>`
 - ▶ includes file, follows implementation defined rule where to look for file, for Unix is typically `/usr/include`
 - ▶ Ex: `#include <stdio.h>`
- ▶ `#include "filename"`
 - ▶ looks in the directory of the source file
 - ▶ Ex: `#include "myheader.h"`
- ▶ Included files may include further files
- ▶ Typically used to include prototype declarations

The C Preprocessor: Motivation for Macros (1)

- ▶ Motivation for using named constants/macros
- ▶ What if the size of arrays has to be changed?

```
1 int data[10];
2 int twice[10];
3 int main()
4 {
5     int index;
6     for(index = 0; index < 10; ++index) {
7         data[index] = index;
8         twice[index] = index * 2;
9     }
10    return 0;
11 }
```

The C Preprocessor: Motivation for Macros (2)

More generic program if using named constants/macros

```
1 #define SIZE 20
2 int data[SIZE];
3 int twice[SIZE];
4 int main()
5 {
6     int index;
7     for(index = 0; index < SIZE; ++index) {
8         data[index] = index;
9         twice[index] = index * 2;
10    }
11    return 0;
12 }
```

The C Preprocessor: Macro Substitution (1)

- ▶ Definition of macro
 - ▶ `#define` NAME replacement_text
- ▶ Any name may be replaced with any replacement text
 - ▶ Ex: `#define` FOREVER `for` (`;;`) defines new word FOREVER to be an infinite loop

The C Preprocessor: Macro Substitution (2)

- ▶ Possible to define macros with arguments
 - ▶ `#define MAX(A, B) ((A) > (B) ? (A) : (B))`
- ▶ Each formal parameter (A or B) will be replaced by corresponding argument
 - ▶ `x = MAX(p+q, r+s);` will be replaced by
 - ▶ `x = ((p+q) > (r+s) ? (p+q) : (r+s));`
- ▶ It is type independent

The C Preprocessor: Macro Substitution (3)

- ▶ Why are the () around the variables important in the macro definition?
 - ▶ `#define SQR(A) (A)*(A)`
- ▶ Write a small program using this and see the effect without () in `(A)*(A)` by calling `SQR(5+1)`
- ▶ Try also `gcc -E program.c` sends the output of the preprocessor to the standard output
- ▶ What happens if you call `SQR(++i)`?

The C Preprocessor: Macro Substitution (4)

- ▶ Spacing in macro definition is very important
- ▶ See the preprocessor output of the following source code

```
1 #include <stdio.h>
2 #define MAX =10
3 int main()
4 {
5     int counter;
6     for(counter =MAX; counter > 0; --counter)
7         printf("Hi there!\n");
8     return 0;
9 }
```

The C Preprocessor: Macro Substitution (5)

- ▶ Defined names can be undefined using
 - ▶ `#undef NAME`
- ▶ Formal parameters are not replaced within quoted strings
- ▶ If parameter name is preceded by `#` in replacement text, the actual argument will be put inside quotes
 - ▶ `#define DPRINT(expr) printf(#expr " = %g\n", expr)`
 - ▶ `DPRINT(x/y)` will be expanded to
 - ▶ `printf("x/y" " = %g\n", x/y);`

The C Preprocessor: Conditional Inclusion (1)

- ▶ Preprocessing can be controlled by using conditional statements which will be evaluated while preprocessor runs
- ▶ Enables programmer to selectively include code, depending on conditions
- ▶ `#if`, `#endif`, `#elif` (i.e., else if), `#else`

```
1 #ifdef DEBUG
2     printf("x: %d\n", x);
3 #endif
```

The C Preprocessor: Conditional Inclusion (2)

- ▶ `#ifdef`, `#ifndef` are special constructs that test whether name is (not) defined
- ▶ gcc allows to define names using the `-D` switch
- ▶ Ex: `gcc -DDEBUG -c program.c`
- ▶ Previous line is equivalent to
`#define DEBUG`

The C Preprocessor: Conditional Inclusion (3)

- ▶ Write a small program in which you illustrate the use of conditional inclusion for debugging purposes
- ▶ **Ex:** If the name `DEBUG` is defined then print on the screen the message "This is a test version of the program"
- ▶ If `DEBUG` is not defined then print on the screen the message "This is the production version of the program"
- ▶ Also experiment with `gcc -D`

Bit Operations

- ▶ The bit is the smallest unit of information
 - ▶ Represented by 0 or 1
- ▶ Eight bits form one byte
 - ▶ Which data type could be used for representation?
- ▶ Low-level coding like writing device drivers or graphic programming require bit operations
- ▶ Data representation
 - ▶ Octal (format %o), hexadecimal (format %x, representation prefix 0x)
- ▶ In C you can manipulate individual bits within a variable

Bitwise Operators (1)

Power	2^7	2^6	2^5	2^4	2^3	2^2	2^1	2^0
Decimal	128	64	32	16	8	4	2	1
Binary number	0	1	0	1	1	1	0	1

- ▶ Allow you to store and manipulate multiple states in one variable
- ▶ Allows to set and test individual bits in a variable

Bitwise Operators (2)

Operator	Function	Use
~	bitwise NOT	~expr
<<	left shift	expr1 << expr2
>>	right shift	expr1 >> expr2
&	bitwise AND	expr1 & expr2
^	bitwise XOR	expr1 ^ expr2
	bitwise OR	expr1 expr2
&=	bitwise AND assign	expr1 &= expr2
^=	bitwise XOR assign	expr1 ^= expr2
=	bitwise OR assign	expr1 = expr2

Bitwise and Logical AND

```
1 #include <stdio.h>
2 int main()
3 {
4     int i1, i2;
5     i1 = 6; // set to 4 and suddenly check 3 fails
6     i2 = 2;
7     if ((i1 != 0) && (i2 != 0))
8         printf("1: Both are not zero!\n");
9     if (i1 && i2)
10        printf("2: Both are not zero!\n");
11    // wrong check
12    if (i1 & i2)
13        printf("3: Both are not zero!\n");
14    return 0;
15 }
```

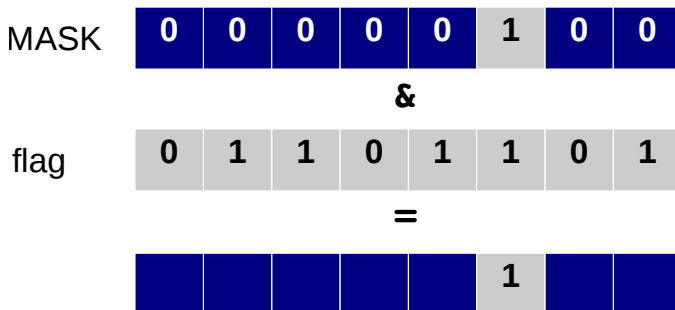
The Left-Shift Operator

- ▶ Moves the data to the left a specified number of bits
- ▶ Shifted out bits disappear
- ▶ New bits coming from the right are 0's
- ▶ Ex: `10101101 << 3` results in `01101000`

The Right-Shift Operator

- ▶ Moves the data to the right a specified number of bits
- ▶ Shifted out bits disappear
- ▶ New bits coming from the right are:
 - ▶ 0's if variable is unsigned
 - ▶ Value of the sign bit if variable is signed
- ▶ Ex:
 - ▶ `7 = 00000111 >> 2` results in `00000001`
 - ▶ `-7 = 11111001 >> 2` results in `11111110`

Using Masks to Identify Bits



Using Masks

- ▶ Bitwise AND often used with a mask
- ▶ A mask is a bit pattern with one (or possibly more) bit(s) set
- ▶ Think of 0's as opaque and the 1's being transparent, only the mask 1's are visible
- ▶ If `result > 0` then at least one bit of mask is set
- ▶ If `result == MASK` then the bits of the mask are set

binary.c

```
1 #include <stdio.h>
2 char str[sizeof(int) * 8 + 1];
3 const int maxbit = sizeof(int) * 8 - 1;
4 char* itobin(int n, char* binstr) {
5     int i;
6     for (i = 0; i <= maxbit; i++) {
7         if (n & 1 << i) {
8             binstr[maxbit - i] = '1';
9         }
10        else {
11            binstr[maxbit - i] = '0';
12        }
13    }
14    binstr[maxbit + 1] = '\\0';
15    return binstr;
16 }
17 int main()
18 {
19     int n;
20     while (1) {
21         scanf("%i", &n);
22         if (n < 0) break;
23         printf("%6d: %s\\n", n, itobin(n, str));
24     }
25     return 0;
26 }
```


How to Turn on a Particular Bit

- ▶ To turn on bit 1 (second bit from the right), why does `flags += 2` not work?
 - ▶ If `flags = 2 = 000000010(2)`
 - ▶ Then `flags += 2` will result in
 - ▶ `flags = 4 = 00000100(2)` which "unsets" bit 1
- ▶ Correct usage:
 - ▶ `flags = flags | 2` is equivalent to
 - ▶ `flags |= 2` and turns on bit 1

How to Toggle a Particular Bit

- ▶ To toggle bit 1
 - ▶ `flags = flags ^ 2;`
 - ▶ `flags ^= 2;` toggles on bit 1
- ▶ General form
 - ▶ `flags ^= MASK;`

How to Test a Particular Bit

- ▶ To test bit 1, why does `flags == 2` not work?
- ▶ Testing whether any bit of MASK are set:
 - ▶ `if (flags & MASK) ...`
- ▶ Testing whether all bits of MASK are set:
 - ▶ `if ((flags & MASK) == MASK) ...`

Using Bits Operations: A Problem

- ▶ Think of a low-level communication program
- ▶ Characters are stored in some buffer
- ▶ Each character has a set of status flags
 - ▶ `ERROR` true if any error is set
 - ▶ `FRAMING_ERROR` framing error occurred
 - ▶ `PARITY_ERROR` wrong parity
 - ▶ `CARRIER_LOST` carrier signal went down
 - ▶ `CHANNEL_DOWN` power was lost on device

Size Considerations

- ▶ Suppose each status is stored in additional byte
 - ▶ 8k buffer (real data)
 - ▶ But 40k status flags (admin data)
- ▶ Need to pack data

A Communication System

- ▶ 0 - ERROR
- ▶ 1 - FRAMING_ERROR
- ▶ 2 - PARITY_ERROR
- ▶ 3 - CARRIER_LOST
- ▶ 4 - CHANNEL_DOWN

How to Initialize Bits

- ▶ `const int ERROR = 0x01;`
 - ▶ `const int FRAMING_ERROR = 0x02;`
 - ▶ `const int PARITY_ERROR = 0x04;`
 - ▶ `const int CARRIER_LOST = 0x08;`
-
- ▶ If more states needed: 0x10, 0x20, 0x40, 0x80
 - ▶ It is not intuitive to know which hexadecimal-value has which bit set

How to "Nicely" Set Bits

- ▶ `const int ERROR = (1 << 0);`
- ▶ `const int FRAMING_ERROR = (1 << 1);`
- ▶ `const int PARITY_ERROR = (1 << 2);`
- ▶ `const int CARRIER_LOST = (1 << 3);`
- ▶ `const int CHANNEL_DOWN = (1 << 4);`

Everyone will directly understand encoding of the bits, additional documentation can be greatly reduced

Review: Pointers, Arrays, Values

```
1 #include <stdio.h>
2 #include <stdlib.h>
3
4 int length[2] = {7, 9};
5 int *ptr1, *ptr2;
6 int n1, n2;
7
8 int main() {
9     ptr1 = &length[0]; // &length[0] is pointer to first elem
10    ptr2 = length;      // length is pointer to first elem
11                        // therefore same as above
12
13    n1 = length[0];     // length[0] is value
14    n2 = *ptr2;         // *ptr2 is value
15                        // therefore same as above
16
17    printf("ptr1: %p ptr2: %p\n", ptr1, ptr2);
18    printf("n1: %d, n2: %d\n", n1, n2);
19 }
```

Arrays in C

- ▶ See "Programming in C I" for introduction
- ▶ In C you declare an array by specifying the size between square brackets
- ▶ `int my_array[50];`
- ▶ The former is an array of 50 elements
- ▶ The first element is at position 0, the last one is at position 49

Accessing an Array in C

- ▶ To write an element, you specify its position
`my_array[2] = 34;`
`my_array[0] = my_array[2];`
- ▶ Pay attention: if you specify a position outside the limit, you will have unpredictable results
 - ▶ Segmentation fault, bus error, etc
 - ▶ And obviously wrong
- ▶ Note the different meaning of brackets
- ▶ Brackets in declaration describe dimension, while in program they are index operator

Initialization of Arrays

- ▶ C allows also the following declarations

```
int first_array[] = {12, 45, 7, 34};
int second_array[4] = {1, 4, 16, 64};
int third_array[4] = {0, 0};
```
- ▶ It is not possible to specify more values than the declared size of the array
 - ▶ The following is not possible:
 - ▶ `int wrong[3] = {1, 2, 3, 4};`

Finding the Maximum Value in an Array

```
1  /* Returns the biggest element in v
2     v[]      array of ints
3     dim      number of elements in v
4  */
5  int findmax(int v[], int dim) {
6     int i, max;
7     max = v[0];
8     for (i = 1; i < dim; i++) {
9         if (v[i] > max)
10            max = v[i];
11     }
12     return max;
13 }
```

Looking for an Element

```
1 /* v[]      array of integers
2    dim      number of elements in v
3    t        element to find
4    Returns   1 if t is not present in v or
5             its position in v
6 */
7 int find_element(int v[], int dim, int t) {
8     int i;
9     for (i = 0; i < dim; i++) {
10         if (v[i] == t)
11             return i;
12     }
13     return -1;
14 }
```

Pointers and Arrays

- ▶ Ex: `char array[5];`
`char *array_ptr1 = &array[0];`
`char *array_ptr2 = array;`
`// the same as above`
- ▶ C allows pointer arithmetic:
 - ▶ Addition
 - ▶ Subtraction
- ▶ `*array_ptr` equivalent to `array[0]`
- ▶ `*(array_ptr+1)` equivalent to `array[1]`
- ▶ `*(array_ptr+2)` equivalent to `array[2]`
- ▶ What is `(*array_ptr)+1`?

Multidimensional Arrays in C

- ▶ It is necessary to specify the size of each dimension
 - ▶ Dimensions must be constants
 - ▶ In each dimension the first element is at position 0

```
int matrix[10][20]; /* 10 rows, 20 columns */  
float cube[5][5][5]; /* 125 elements */
```

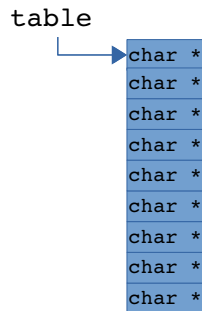
- ▶ Every index is specified between brackets
`matrix[0][0] = 5; /* which element is 5? */`

Variably Sized Multidimensional Arrays

- ▶ Unidimensional arrays can be allocated "on the fly" using the `malloc()` function
- ▶ Possible also for multidimensional arrays, but more tricky
- ▶ Underlying idea: a pointer can point to the first element of a sequence
- ▶ A pointer to a pointer can then point to the first element of a sequence of pointers
 - ▶ And each of those pointers can point to first element of a sequence

Pointers to Pointers for Multidimensional Arrays (1)

- ▶ Consider the following
`char **table;`
- ▶ We can make table to point to an array of pointers to `char`
`table = (char **) malloc(sizeof(char *) * N);`
- ▶ Every element in the array of N rows is a `char*`



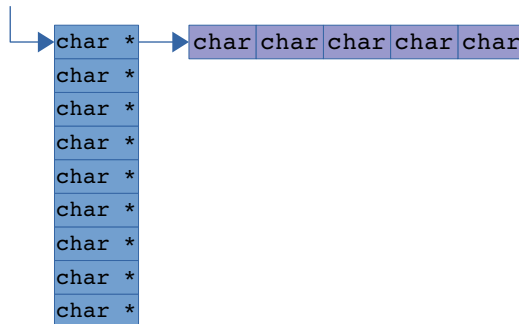
Pointers to Pointers for Multidimensional Arrays (2)

- ▶ Every pointer in the array can in turn point to an array
- ▶ In this way a two-dimensional array with N rows and M columns has been allocated

```
1 for (i = 0; i < N; i++)  
2   table[i] = (char *) malloc(sizeof(char) * M);
```

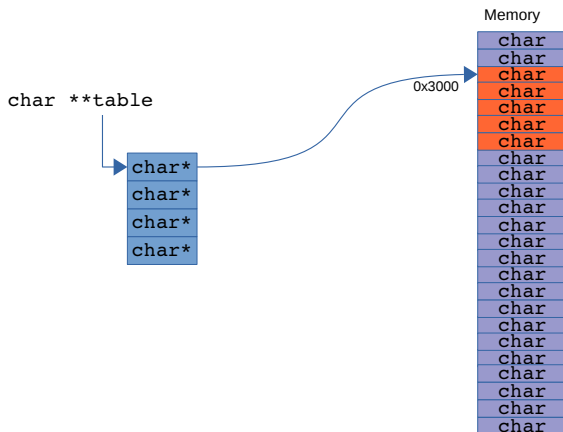
Pointers to Pointers for Multidimensional Arrays (3)

```
char **table
```



To access a generic element in the dynamically allocated matrix a matrix-like syntax can be used. Let us see why ...

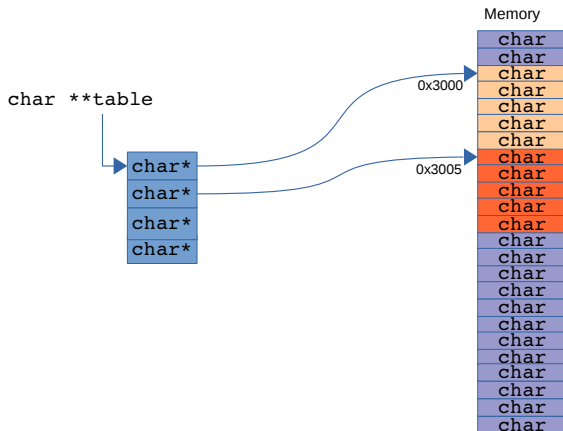
Allocating Space for a Multidimensional Array (1)



Case `i=0`

```
1 for (i = 0; i < 4; i++)
2   table[i] = (char *) malloc(sizeof(char) * 5);
```

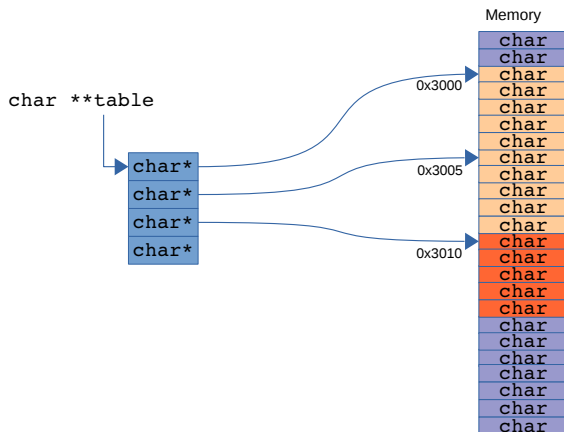
Allocating Space for a Multidimensional Array (2)



Case `i=1`

```
1 for (i = 0; i < 4; i++)
2   table[i] = (char *) malloc(sizeof(char) * 5);
```

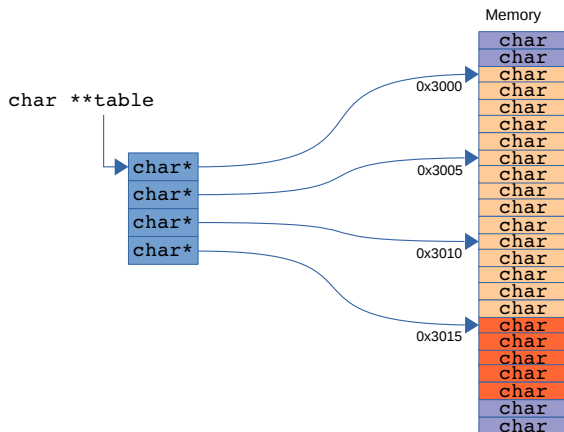
Allocating Space for a Multidimensional Array (3)



Case `i=2`

```
1 for (i = 0; i < 4; i++)
2   table[i] = (char *) malloc(sizeof(char) * 5);
```

Allocating Space for a Multidimensional Array (4)

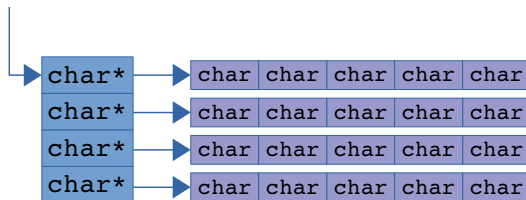


Case `i=3`

```
1 for (i = 0; i < 4; i++)
2   table[i] = (char *) malloc(sizeof(char) * 5);
```


Drawing Memory in a Different Way: The Result is a Table

`char **table`



```
1 for (i = 0; i < 4; i++)  
2   table[i] = (char *) malloc(sizeof(char) * 5);
```

Pointers to Pointers vs. Bidimensional Arrays

- ▶ Bidimensional arrays occupy less memory
- ▶ Pointers to pointers allow tables where every row can have its own dimension
- ▶ Pointers to pointers need a more involved initialization
- ▶ One can have pointers to pointers to pointers (e.g., `int ***`) to have 3D data structures

De-allocating a Pointer to Pointer Structure

- ▶ Everything you have allocated via `malloc()` must be de-allocated via `free()`
- ▶ **Ex:** De-allocation of a 2D array with `N` elements

```
1 int i;  
2 for (i = 0; i < N; i++)  
3     free(table[i]);  
4 free(table);
```

Working with 2D Dynamic Arrays

```
1 #include <stdio.h>
2 #include <stdlib.h>
3 void set_all_elements(int **arr, int numrow, int numcol) {
4     int r, c;
5     for (r = 0; r < numrow; r++)
6         for (c = 0; c < numcol; c++)
7             arr[r][c] = r * c; // some value ...
8 }
9 int main() {
10     int **table, row;
11     table = (int **) malloc(sizeof(int *) * 3);
12     if (table == NULL)
13         exit(1);
14     for (row = 0; row < 3; row++) {
15         table[row] = (int *) malloc(sizeof(int) * 4);
16         if (table[row] == NULL)
17             exit(1);
18     }
19     set_all_elements(table, 3, 4);
20 }
```

Locating a Matrix Element in the Memory

- ▶ Consider the following
`int table[ROW][COL];`
where ROW and COL are constants
- ▶ `table` holds the address of the pointer to the first element
- ▶ `*table` holds the address of the first element
- ▶ What is the address of `table[i][j]`?
 $*(table + (i * COL + j))$
- ▶ Find out the formula for an arbitrary multidimensional array

Pointer Arithmetic with Arrays

```
1 #include <stdio.h>
2 #define ROW 2
3 #define COL 3
4 int main() {
5     int arr[ROW][COL] = { {1, 2, 3}, {11, 12, 13} };
6     int i = 1;
7     int j = 2;
8     int* p = (int*) arr;           // needs explicit cast
9     printf("Address of [1][2]: %p\n", &arr[1][2]);
10    printf("Address of [1][2]: %p\n", p + (i * COL + j));
11    printf("Value of [1][2]: %d\n", arr[1][2]);
12    printf("Value of [1][2]: %d\n", *(p + (i * COL + j)));
13    printf("\n");
14    printf("Address of [0][0]: %p\n", p + (0 * COL + 0));
15    printf("Address of [0][1]: %p\n", p + (0 * COL + 1));
16    printf("Address of [0][2]: %p\n", p + (0 * COL + 2));
17    printf("Address of [1][0]: %p\n", p + (1 * COL + 0));
18    printf("Address of [1][1]: %p\n", p + (1 * COL + 1));
19    printf("Address of [1][2]: %p\n", p + (1 * COL + 2));
20    return 0;
21 }
```

