C Bootcamp

CI Computer Girls

April 30, 2016

Hello World

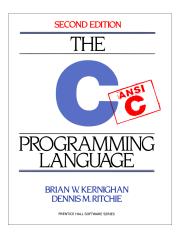


Figure 1: The bible.

- A C program consists of functions and variables.
- A function contains statements that specify the computing operations to be done.
- Variables store values to be used during computation.
- Normally you can name functions whatever you like, but every program must contain a function named main.

Hello World

```
#include <stdio.h>
main() {
   printf("Hello, world!\n");
}
```

- In this example printf is a function that takes a character string as its argument.
- Copy the code above into an empty file hello.c in your task1 directory (We'll help you find it.), and then from your terminal:

```
# cd ~/Desktop/bootcamp/task1
# gcc hello.c
# ./a.out
```

Prompts

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8 9 From your terminal,

```
|# cd ../task2
```

then open the file prompt.c in your text editor. You should see the following:

```
#include <stdio.h>

main() {
   char name[40];
   printf("Enter your name:\n");

   // YOUR TASK: Prompt the user for their name say hello.
}
```

```
#include <stdio.h>

main() {
   char name[40];
   printf("Enter your name:\n");

   // YOUR TASK: Prompt the user for their name say hello.
}
```

- For this task, we'll make use of a new function
 scanf(char* format, ...)
- scanf reads characters from your terminal, interprets them
 according to the format you provide (consult your
 cheatsheet), and stores the results in the remaining arguments.
- For example, to store a user-given string in name,
 scanf("%s", name);

```
#include <stdio.h>

main() {
   char name[40];
   printf("Enter your name:\n");

// YOUR TASK: Prompt the user for their name say hello.
}
```

- For example, to store a user-given string in name,
 scanf("%s", name);
- Similarly, printf can be given format specifiers in its first argument and will print the rest of its arguments accordingly. printf("Goodbye %s", name);
- Complete your task (Ask for your help if you're stuck!), and run your program.

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From your terminal,

```
# cd ../task3
```

then open the file arguments.c in your text editor. You should see the following:

```
#include <stdio.h>
#include <stdlib.h>
int main(int argc, char* argv[]) {
  if (argc < 3) {
    printf("Usage: %s <name> <integer>\n", argv[0]);
    return -1;
  // YOUR TASK: Read the user's name and an integer
  // from command line arguments, then say hello
  // to the user as many times as given by the integer.
```

```
int main(int argc, char* argv[]) {
   ...
}
```

- Note that our main has grown a little.
- The first int tells us that this function will return an integer.
- int argc and char* argv[] are parameters to main.
 - char* argv[] is an array of strings containing all the arguments we'll pass when we run our program. (More on that later.)
 - int argc is an integer indicating the length of argv or the number of strings contained within.

```
int main(int argc, char* argv[]) {
   ...
}
```

For example, if we invoke our program as follows:

```
# ./a.out CiComputerGirls 5
```

- Then argc contains the integer 3.
- argv[0] contains the string "a.out".
- argv[1] contains the string "CiComputerGirls".
- argv[2] contains the string "5".

```
int main(int argc, char* argv[]) {
   if (argc < 3) {
      printf("Usage: %s <name> <integer>\n", argv[0]);
      exit(-1);
   }
   ...
}
```

- In the given code, we examine argc in the condition of our if-statement to ensure our program was passed the correct number of arguments.
- And if not, we print a helpful message and exit with an error code.
- Note that our helpful message prints the value of argv[0].
 The first string in argv will always be the name of your program.

```
int main(int argc, char* argv[]) {
    ...

// YOUR TASK: Read the user's name and an integer
// from command line arguments, then say hello
// to the user as many times as given by the integer.

// Basin the same and an integer
// from command line arguments, then say hello
// to the user as many times as given by the integer.
```

To complete your task,

Use the function atoi to convert the value of argv[2] into an int.
 int atoi(char* s)

```
atoi converts the string s into an int . For example.
```

- atoi converts the string s into an int. For example,
 int five = atoi("5");
- Then use a for- or while-loop to print your message as many times as needed.

Functions

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From your terminal,

```
|# cd ../task4
```

and open the file $\mbox{ functions.c }$ in your text editor.

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

// YOUR TASK: Implement the function get_population.

int get_population(int generation);

main() {
    ...
}
```

Functions

Each function definition has the form

```
return-type function-name(argument declarations) {
   declarations and statements
}
```

Compare the above with our definition of the function power in functions.c.

```
int power(int base, int exp) {
   int result = 1;

int i;
   for (i = 0; i < exp; i++)
     result *= base;

return result;
}</pre>
```

Functions

```
int get_population(int generation);
```

- Your implementation of get_population should conform to
 the specifications in the above declaration.
 - I.e., it should accept a single int as an argument and return an int to its caller.
- The rate at which your population grows is left up to you, but note that to work with our program shell, get_population should only increase with respect to its argument.
 - \circ For a simple implementation consider that if each tribble can breed 2 more tribbles, then after 3 generations you have $2^3 = 8$ tribbles.
 - You can call power from within get_population to model this relationship.

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Now cd into the task5 directory and open pointers.c in your text editor.

```
#include <stdio.h>
main() {
  char *string1 = "This is the first string.";
  char *string2 = "This is the second string.";
  // YOUR TASK: Write a function `swap` that swaps the pointers
  // in its first and second arguments. Then invoke your function
  // with string1 and string2.
  printf("string1 = %s and string2 = %s\n", string1, string2);
```

```
1  | main() {
2      char *string1 = "This is the first string.";
3      ...
4  | }
```

- A pointer is a variable that contains the address in memory of another variable.
- C has two operators for dealing with pointers:
 - is the dereferencing operator. When applied to a pointer, it returns the value to which the pointer points.
 - & does the opposite of ★. When applied to a variable, it returns the address at which the variable is stored.

```
1  | main() {
2     char *string1 = "This is the first string.";
3     ...
4  | }
```

- Note that the above code declares string1 to be a pointer. It states that string1 points to the location in memory of the beginning of the assigned string.
- Now note that *string1 is a char. The * applies the dereferencing operator to string1, returning the first value at the location to which pointer points. In this case, 'T'.

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4 5 To write your swap function, you must be aware of one more caveat:

- As in most languages, C passes arguments to functions by value, so there is no way for a called function to alter a variable in the calling function.
- Consider this function swap for swapping two integers:

```
// WRONG!
void swap(int x, int y) {
  int temp;

  temp = x;
  x = y;
  y = temp;
}
```

- Just like Java, this function will not work as intended.
- x and y are swapped within the scope of our function swap, but since they were passed only by value to the function, they will not be swapped in any code that calls our swap.

To obtain the desired effect, instead of writing a function that takes the values of the variables to be swapped, we write a function that takes the pointers to their values in memory:

```
void swap(int *px, int *py) {
  int temp;

temp = *px;  // temp gets the value to which px points.

*px = *py;  // The value at px gets the value at py.

*py = temp;  // The value to which py points gets temp.
}
```

We can invoke this swap like so:

```
1  int a = 5;
2  int b = 10;
3  swap(&a, &b);
4  // Now a == 10, and b == 5.
```

```
void swap(int *px, int *py) {
2
       int temp:
3
4
       temp = *px; // temp gets the value to which px points.
5
       *px = *py; // The value at px gets the value at py.
6
       *py = temp; // The value to which py points gets temp.
8
9
     int a = 5:
10
     int b = 10;
11
     swap(&a, &b);
12
     // Now a == 10, and b == 5.
```

- Note that to swap two int our function accepts two int*.
- We use & to access the address at which our values are stored.
 In other words, to access pointers to our variables a and b.

```
main() {
  char* string1 = "This is the first string.";
  char* string2 = "This is the second string.";

// YOUR TASK: Write a function `swap` that swaps the pointers
  // in its first and second arguments. Then invoke your function
  // with string1 and string2.

printf("string1 = %s and string2 = %s\n", string1, string2);
}
```

- Since a string is already a pointer to a char (or a char*), your swap should take two pointers to char pointers (or two char**).
- Implement swap and test your program. (And ask for help if you're stuck!)

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Now cd into the task6 directory and open structs.c in your text editor.

```
typedef struct {
  char* name;
 int health:
 int* weapon_statuses; // An array whose elements indicate the
                        // status of each weapon.
                        // A value >= 100 indicates the weapon is
                        // readv to fire.
  int num weapons:
} Spaceship;
// YOUR TASK: Implement charge_weapons and attack_ship.
void charge_weapons(Spaceship* ship);
void attack_ship(Spaceship* from, Spaceship* to);
```

```
typedef struct {
  char* name;
  int health;
  int* weapon_statuses;
  int num_weapons;
} Spaceship;
```

- A struct is simply a collection of one or more variables, grouped together under a single name.
- As defined, our Spaceship struct contains the variables name, health, weapon_statuses, and num_weapons.

C defines two operators for dealing with structs. A member of a struct is referred to with the . operator, as shown below:

```
Spaceship starship = ...
printf("The name of our ship is %s", starship.name);
```

However as you can see from the function declarations in structs.c, dealing with a pointer to a struct instead of structs themselves is quite common. To refer to a member of a struct from a pointer, use the -> operator.

```
Spaceship *ship = ...
printf("The name of our ship is %s", ship->name);
```

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```
typedef struct {
  char* name;
  int health;
  int* weapon_statuses; // An array whose elements indicate the
                        // value of each weapon.
                        // A value >= 100 indicates the weapon is
                        // ready to fire.
  int num_weapons;
} Spaceship;
// YOUR TASK: Implement charge_weapons and attack_ship.
void charge_weapons(Spaceship* ship);
void attack_ship(Spaceship* from, Spaceship* to);
```

- Implement the two functions and test your program.
- Note that to weapon_statuses is an array, so to access an element you apply an index like so:

```
\verb| ship-> we apon_statuses[0]|.
```

Headers

Now cd into the task7 directory and open headers.c in your text editor.

You'll find an incomplete implementation of a linked-list struct.

```
// headers.c
2
3
     // YOUR TASK: Write a header file for the linked-list
4
     // implementation below, exposing list_append(), list_prepend(),
5
     // and the struct itself.
6
7
     #include "headers.h"
8
9
     struct List {
10
       void* data;
11
       struct List* next;
12
     };
13
14
```

Headers

- Think of header files as the public documentation of any program or library you write.
- I.e., declarations for any functions we would consider "public" in an OOP language go in our header file. Declarations of functions we would consider "private" can remain in our source file.
- Anyone using the provided linked-list library would probably want the ability to declare instances of struct List and append and prepend to it, so we declare those in the header.

Further Work

If you'd like to continue your studies, please consider:

- Procuring a copy of The C Programming Language by Kernighan and Ritchie.
- Visiting the C tutorials on Lynda.com, free to all students at CSUCI.
- Familiarizing yourself with the command line through online courses such as those at Codecademy.com.