

Week 2 - Monday

CS222

# Last time

- What did we talk about last time?
- C basics
- Data types
- Output with **printf()**
- Lab 1

# Questions?

# Project 1

# Quotes

*ANSI C retains the basic philosophy that programmers know what they are doing; it only requires that they state their intentions explicitly.*

Kernighan and Ritchie

from *The C Programming Language*, 2<sup>nd</sup> Edition

# C standards

- Most programming languages have multiple versions
  - C is no exception
- The original, unstandardized version of the language used at Bell Labs from 1969 onward is sometimes called K&R C
  - It's similar to what we use now, but allowed weird function definition syntax and didn't have function prototypes
- The version we'll be talking about is ANSI C89 which is virtually identical to ISO C90
- A newer standard C99 is available, but it is not fully supported by all major C compilers
  - You have to use a special flag when compiling with **gcc** to get it to use C99 mode

# Makefiles

- The order of compilation matters
- You have to compile all necessary files yourself to make your program work
- To make these issues easier to deal with, the **make** utility is used
- This utility uses makefiles
  - Each makefile has a list of targets
  - Each target is followed by a colon and a list of dependencies
  - After the list of dependencies, on a new line, preceded by a **tab**, is the command needed to create the target from the dependencies

# Sample makefile

- Makefiles are called **makefile** or **Makefile**

```
all:    hello

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

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



# Control flow

- You're already a better C programmer than you think you are
- For selection, C supports:
  - **if** statements
  - **switch** statements
- For repetition, C supports:
  - **for** loops
  - **while** loops
  - **do while** loops
- Try to implement code the way you would in Java and see what happens...

# Conditionals

- One significant gotcha is that C doesn't have a **boolean** type
  - Instead, it uses **int** for **boolean** purposes
  - 0 (zero) is false
  - Anything non-zero is true

```
if ( 6 )  
{  
    //yep!  
}
```

```
if ( 0 )  
{  
    //nope!  
}
```

```
if ( 3 < 4 )  
{  
    //yep!  
}
```

# Type safety

- Java is what is called a **strongly-typed** language
  - Types really mean something
- C is much looser

```
double a = 3.4;  
int b = 27;  
a = b;    //legal in Java and C  
b = a;    //illegal in Java, might  
          //give a warning in C
```

# Declaration syntax

- Another gotcha!
- Can't declare a variable in the header of a **for** loop
- Doesn't work:

```
for( int i = 0; i < 100; i++ )  
{  
    printf("%d ", i);  
}
```

- You have to declare **int i** before the loop

# Precision

- The C standard makes floating-point precision compiler dependent
- Even so, it will usually work just like in Java
- Just a reminder about the odd floating-point problems you can have:

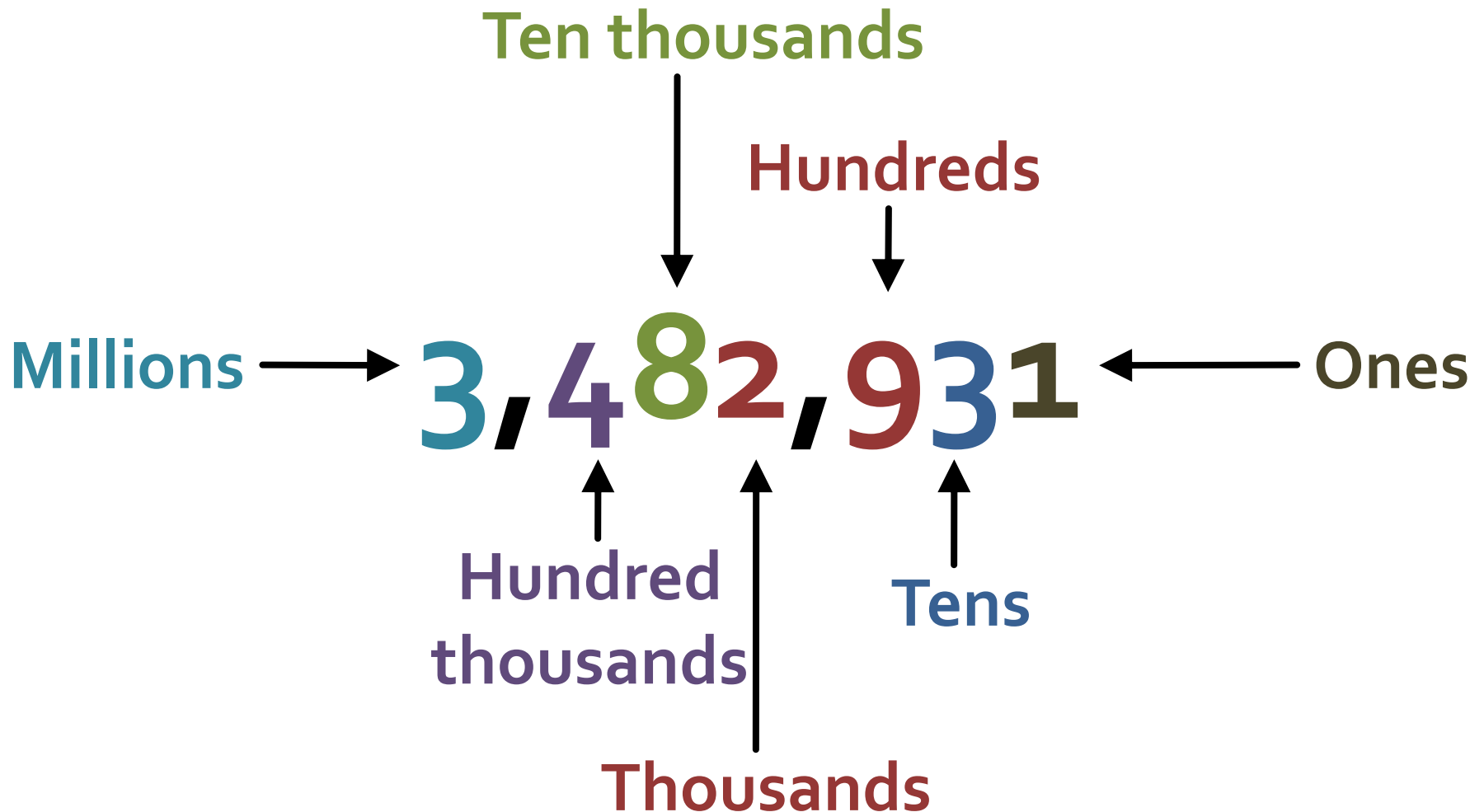
```
#include <stdio.h>

int main()
{
    float a = 4.0 / 3.0;
    float b = a - 1;
    float c = b + b + b;
    float d = c - 1;
    printf("%e\n", d);
}
```

# Base 10 (decimal) numbers

- Our normal number system is base 10
- This means that our digits are: 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, and 9
- Base 10 means that you need 2 digits to represent ten, namely 1 and 0
- Each place in the number as you move left corresponds to an increase by a factor of 10

# Base 10 Example

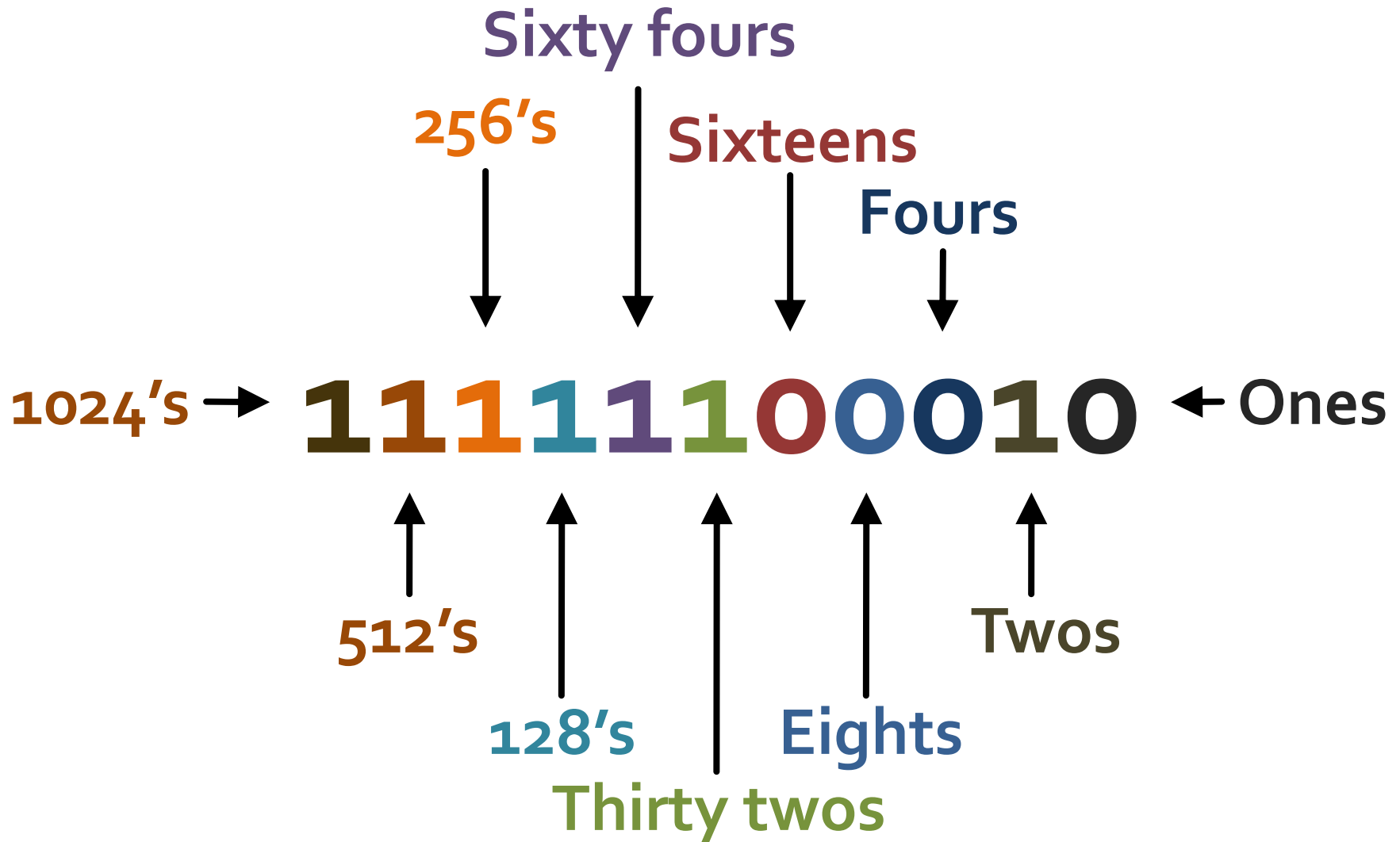


# Base 2 (binary) numbers

- The binary number system is base 2
- This means that its digits are: **0** and **1**
- Base 2 means that you need 2 digits to represent two, namely 1 and 0
- Each place in the number as you move left corresponds to an increase by a factor of **2** instead of **10**



# Base 2 Example



# C Literals

# Literals

- By default, every integer is assumed to be a signed **int**
- If you want to mark a literal as **long**, put an **L** or an **l** at the end
  - **long value = 2L;**
  - Don't use **l**, it looks too much like **1**
  - There's no way to mark a literal as a **short**
- If you want to mark it unsigned, you can use a **U** or a **u**
  - **unsigned int x = 500u;**
- Every value with a decimal point is assumed to be double
- If you want to mark it as a **float**, put an **f** or an **F** at the end
  - **float z = 1.0f;**

# Integers in other bases

- You can also write a literal in hexadecimal or octal
- A hexadecimal literal begins with **0x**
  - **int a = 0xDEADBEEF;**
  - Hexadecimal digits are **0 – 9** and **A – F** (upper or lower case)
- An octal literal begins with **0**
  - **int b = 0765;**
  - Octal digits are **0 – 7**
  - Be careful not to prepend other numbers with **0**, because they will be in octal!
- Remember, this changes only how you write the literal, not how it is stored in the computer
- Can't write binary literals

# Printing in other bases

- The **printf()** function provides flags for printing out integers in:
  - **%d**      Decimal
  - **%x**      Hexadecimal (**%X** will print **A-F** in uppercase)
  - **%o**      Octal

```
printf("%d", 1050); //prints 1050
printf("%x", 1050); //prints 41a
printf("%o", 1050); //prints 2032
```

# Binary representation

- This system works fine for unsigned integer values
  - However many bits you've got, take the pattern of 1's and 0's and convert to decimal
- What about signed integers that are negative?
  - Most modern hardware (and consequently C and Java) use **two's complement** representation

# Two's complement

- Two's complement only makes sense for a representation with a fixed number of bits
  - But we can use it for **any** fixed number
- If the **most significant bit (MSB)** is a 1, the number is negative
  - Otherwise, it's positive
- Unfortunately, it's not as simple as flipping the MSB to change signs

# Negative integer in two's complement

- Let's say you have a positive number  $n$  and want the representation of  $-n$  in two's complement with  $k$  bits
  1. Figure out the pattern of  $k$  0's and 1's for  $n$
  2. Flip every single bit in that pattern (changing all 0's to 1's and all 1's to 0's)
    - This is called one's complement
  3. Then, add 1 to the final representation as if it were positive, carrying the value if needed



# Example

- For simplicity, let's use 4-bit, two's complement

- Find -6

1. 6 is **0110**
2. Flipped is **1001**
3. Adding 1 gives **1010**

# Two's complement to negative integer

- Let's say you have a  $k$  bits representation of a negative number and want to know what it is
  1. Subtract 1 from the representation, borrowing if needed
  2. Flip every single bit that pattern (changing all 0's to 1's and all 1's to 0's)
  3. Determine the final integer value

# Example

- For simplicity, let's use 4-bit, two's complement
- Given **1110**
  1. Subtracting 1      **1101**
  2. Flipped is          **0010**
  3. Which is 2, meaning that the value is -2

# All four bit numbers

Binary	Decimal	Binary	Decimal
0000	0	1000	-8
0001	1	1001	-7
0010	2	1010	-6
0011	3	1011	-5
0100	4	1100	-4
0101	5	1101	-3
0110	6	1110	-2
0111	7	1111	-1

# But why?!

- Using the flipping system makes it so that adding negative and positive numbers can be done without any conversion
  - Example  $5 + -3 = 0101 + 1101 = 0010 = 2$
  - Overflow doesn't matter
- Two's complement (adding the 1 to the representation) is needed for this to work
  - It preserves parity for negative numbers
  - It keeps us with a single representation for zero
  - We end up with one extra negative number than positive number

# Floating point representation

- Okay, how do we represent floating point numbers?
- A completely different system!
  - IEEE-754 standard
  - One bit is the sign bit
  - Then some bits are for the exponent (8 bits for float, 11 bits for double)
  - Then some bits are for the mantissa (23 bits for float, 52 bits for double)



# More complexity

- They want floating point values to be unique
- So, the mantissa leaves off the first 1
- To allow for positive and negative exponents, you subtract 127 (for **float**, or 1023 for **double**) from the written exponent
- The final number is:
  - $(-1)^{\text{sign bit}} \times 2^{(\text{exponent} - 127)} \times 1.\text{mantissa}$

# Except even that isn't enough!

- How would you represent zero?
  - If all the bits are zero, the number is 0.0
- There are other special cases
  - If every bit of the exponent is set (but all of the mantissa is zeroes), the value is positive or negative infinity
  - If every bit of the exponent is set (and some of the mantissa bits are set), the value is positive or negative NaN (not a number)

Number	Representation
0.0	0x00000000
1.0	0x3F800000
0.5	0x3F000000
3.0	0x40400000
+Infinity	0x7F800000
-Infinity	0xFF800000
+NaN	0x7FC00000 and others



# One little endian

- For both integers and floating-point values, the **most significant bit** determines the sign
  - But is that bit on the rightmost side or the leftmost side?
  - What does left or right even mean inside a computer?
- The property is the **endianness** of a computer
- Some computers store the most significant bit first in the representation of a number
  - These are called **big-endian** machines
- Others store the least significant bit first
  - These are called **little-endian** machines

# Why does it matter?

- Usually, it doesn't!
- It's all internally consistent
  - C uses the appropriate endianness of the machine
- With pointers, you can look at each byte inside of an `int` (or other type) in order
  - When doing that, endianness affects the byte ordering
- The term is also applied to things outside of memory addresses
- Mixed-endian is rare for memory, but possible in other cases:

`http://users.etown.edu/`



More specific

`w/wittmanb/cs222/`



More specific

# Upcoming

# Next time...

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- Math library
- More on types

# Reminders

- Read K&R Chapter 2
- Attend Dr. Teli's talk today!
  - 3:30pm in E270
  - Introduction to Machine Intelligence
  - Please come so that you can give feedback about our faculty candidate