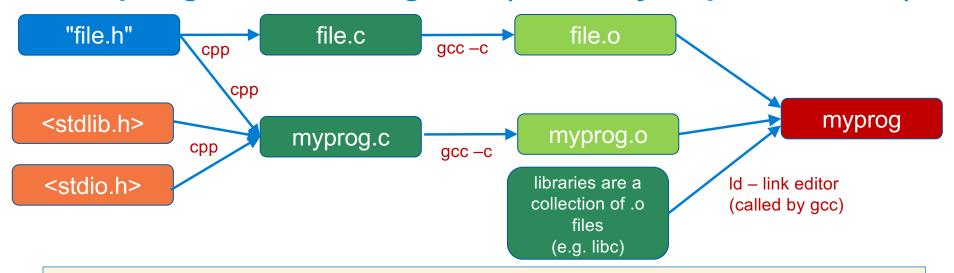




Compiling Multi-File Programs (assembly steps not shown)



1. compile each .c file independently to a .o object file this requires you use the –c flag to gcc to only compile and assemble and NOT to call the liner yet

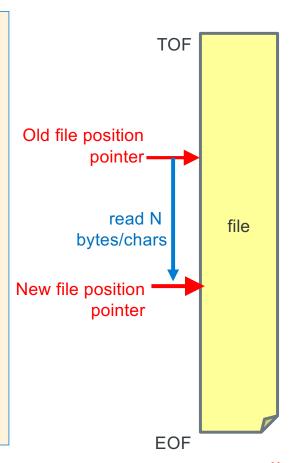
```
gcc -Wall -Wextra -Werror -c file.c # creates file.o
gcc -Wall -Wextra -Werror -c myprog.c # creates myprog.o
```

- 2. link all the .o objects files and libraries (aggregation of multiple .o files) to produce an executable file (gcc calls ld, the linker
 - The .o's in the libraries are automatically linked in as needed to produce an executable file

```
gcc -Wall -Wextra myprog.o file.o -o myprog
```

C standard I/O Library (stdio) File I/O File Position Pointer and EOF

- Read/write functions in the standard I/O library advances the file position
 pointer from the top of a file (before the 1st byte if any) towards the end of
 the file after each call to a read/write function
 - Side effect of call: file position pointer moves towards the end of file by number of bytes read/written
- standard I/O File position pointer indicates where in the file (byte distance from the top of the file) the next read/write I/O will occur
- Performing a sequence of read/write operations (without using any other stdio functions to move the file pointer between the read/write calls) performs what is called Sequential I/O (sequential read & sequential write)
- EOF condition state may be set after a read operation
 - After the last byte is read in a file, additional reads results in a function return value of EOF
 - EOF signals no more data is available to be read
 - EOF is **NOT** a character in the file, but a condition state on the stream
 - EOF is usually a #define EOF -1 macro located in the file stdio.h (later in course)



C Library Function API: Simple Character I/O – Used in PA3

Operation	Usage Examples	
Write a char	<pre>int status; int c; status = putchar(c);</pre>	/* Writes to screen stdout */
Read a char	<pre>int c; c = getchar();</pre>	/* Reads from keyboard stdin */

```
#include <stdio.h> // import the public interface
```

int putchar(int c);

- writes c (demoted to a char) to stdout
- returns either: c on success OR EOF (a macro often defined as -1) on failure
- see % man 3 putchar

int getchar(void);

- returns either: next input character promoted to an int read from stdin OR EOF
- see % man 3 getchar)
- Make sure you use int variables with putchar() and putchar()
- Both functions return an int because they must be able to return both valid chars and indicate the EOF condition (-1) which is outside the range of valid characters

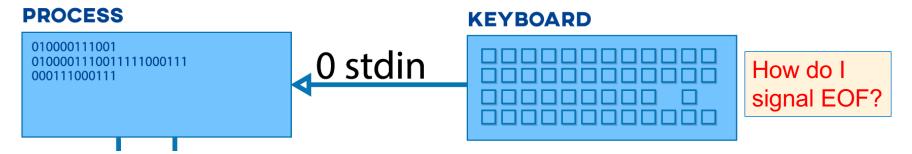
Character I/O (Also the Primary loop in PA3)

```
copy stdin to stdout one char at a time
                                                              % ./a.out
#include <stdio.h>
                                                                                   Typed on keyboard
                                                              thIS is a TeSt
#include <stdlib.h>
                                                                                   Printed by program
                                                              thIS is a TeSt
                            Always check return code to
int main(void)
                            handle EOF
                                                                                   Typed on keyboard
                            EOF is a macro integer in stdio.h
{
   int c;
                                                              %./a.out < a > b ← Copies file a to file b
   while ((c = getchar()) != EOF) {
       (void)putchar(c);
                            // ignore return value
                                  Always check return codes unless you do not need it
   return EXIT SUCCESS;
                                  Sometimes you may see a (void) cast which indicates
                                  ignoring the return value is deliberate this is often
                                  required by many coding standards (it is optional)
```

Make sure you use int variables with getchar() and putchar()!

6 X

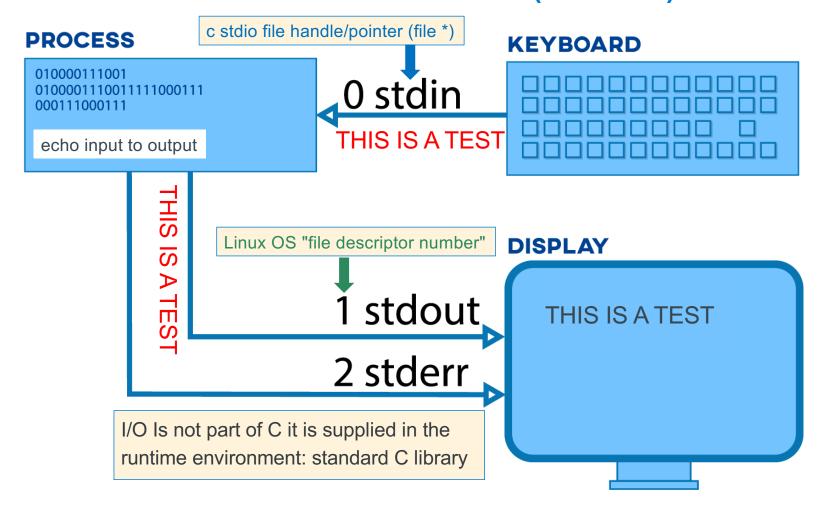
stdio File I/O - Working with a Keyboard



- How can you have an EOF when reading from a keyboard?
- stdio I/O library functions designed to work primarily on files
 - With keyboard devices the semantics of *file operations* needs to be "simulated"
- Example: when a program (or a shell) is reading the keyboard and is blocked waiting for input it is waiting for you to type a line
 - This is NOT an EOF condition
- To set an EOF condition from the keyboard, type on an input line all by itself:

two key combination (ctrl key and the d key at same time), followed by a return/enter ctrl-d often shown in slides etc. as ^d

Linux/Unix Process and Standard I/O (CSE 15L)



C Library Function: Simple Formatted Printing

Task	Example Function Calls
Write formatted data	<pre>int status; status = fprintf(stderr, "%d\n", i); status = printf("%d\n", i);</pre>

Some Formatted Output Conversion Examples

- Conversion specifications example
 - %d conversion specifier for int variables
 - %c conversion specifier for **char** variables
 - many more conversion specifiers (online manual: % man printf and the textbooks)

```
int i = 10;
char z = 'i';
char a[] = " Hello\n";

printf("%c = %d,%s", z, i, a); // write to stdout
fprintf(stderr, "This is an error message to stderr\n");
```

Output

```
i = 10, Hello
This is an error message to stderr
```

Conditional Statements (if, while, do...while, for)

- C conditional test expressions: 0 (NULL) is FALSE, any non-0 value is TRUE
- C comparison operators (==, !=, >, etc.) evaluate to either 0 (false) or 1 (true)
- Legal in Java and in C:

```
i = 0;
if (i == 5)
    statement1;
else
    statement2;
```

Which statement is executed after the if statement test?

• Illegal in Java, but legal in C (often a typo!):

```
i = 0;
if (i = 5)
    statement1;
else
    statement2;
```

Assignment operators evaluate to the value that is assigned, so.... Which statement is executed after the if statement test?

Program Flow – Short Circuit or Minimal Evaluation

 In evaluation of conditional guard expressions, C uses what is called short circuit or minimal evaluation

if
$$((x == 5) \mid | (y > 3))$$
 // if $x == 5$ then $y > 3$ is not evaluated

- Each expression argument is evaluated in sequence from left to right including any side effects (modified using parenthesis), before (optionally) evaluating the next expression argument
- If after evaluating an argument, the value of the entire expression can be determined, then the remaining arguments are NOT evaluated (for performance)

Program Flow – Short Circuit or Minimal Evaluation

```
if ((a != 0) && func(b)) // if a is 0, func(b) is not called
  do_something();
```

```
// if (((x > 0) && (c == 'Q')) evaluates to non zero (true)
// then (b == 3) is not tested

while (((x > 0) && (c == 'Q')) || (b == 3)) { // c short circuit
    x = x / 2;
    if (x == 0) {
        return 0;
    }
}
```

Be Careful with the comma, sequence operator

Sequence Operator,

• Evaluates *expr1* first and then *expr2* evaluates to or returns *expr2*

```
for (i = 0, j = 0; i < 10; i++, j++)
...
```

Unexpected results with, operator (some compilers will warn)

Review: Binary Numbering

- Binary is base 2
 - adjective: being in a state of one of two **mutually exclusive** conditions such as **on** or off, true or false, molten or frozen, presence or absence of a signal
 - From Late Latin bīnārius ("consisting of two")
- Two symbols:

0 1

- Numbers in C that start with 0b are binary
- Example: What is 0b110 in base 10?

•
$$0b110 = 110_2 = (1 \times 2^2) + (1 \times 2^1) + (0 \times 2^0) = 6_{10}$$

• A bit is a single binary digit

powers of two



• A byte is an 8-bit value

Unsigned binary Number = $\sum_{i=0}^{i=n-1} b_i x 2^i = b_{n-1} 2^{N-1} + b_{n-2} 2^{N-2} + ... + b_1 2^1 + b_0 2^0$

Review: Hexadecimal Numbering

- hexadecimal is base 16
 - From "hexa" (Ancient Greek ἑξα-) ⇒ six
 - and from "decem" (Latin) ⇒ ten
- Sixteen symbols

0123456789abcdef



- Numbers in C that start with 0x are hexadecimal numbers
 - $16_{10} = 0 \times 10_{16}$
- Example: What is 0xa5 in base 10?
 - $0xa5 = a5_{16} = (10 \times 16^{1}) + (5 \times 16^{0}) = 165_{10}$
- Hexadecimal numbers are very commonly used in programming to express binary values
 - Imagine the difficulty in correctly expressing a 64-bit binary value in your code

Unsigned Hex Number = $\sum_{i=0}^{i=n-1} b_i \times 16^i = b_{n-1} 16^{N-1} + b_{n-2} 16^{N-2} + ... + b_1 16^1 + b_0 16^0$

Binary <---> Hexadecimal Equivalences

- Hex \rightarrow Binary: $16^1 = 2^4$ 1 digit hex = 4 digits binary
 - 1. Replace hex digits with binary digits
 - 2. Drop leading zeros
 - Example: 0x2d to binary
 - 0x2 is 0b0010, 0xd is 0b1101
 - Drop two leading zeros, answer is 0b101101
- Binary \rightarrow Hex: $2^4 = 16^1$
 - 1. Pad with enough leading zeros until number of digits is a multiple of 4
 - 2. Replace each group of 4 with the HEX equivalent
 - <u>Example</u>: 0b101101
 - Pad on the left to: 0b 0010 1101
 - Replace to get: 0x2d

Number Base Overview (as written in C)

- Decimal is base 10 and Hexadecimal is base 16,
- Hex digits have 16 values 0 9 a f (written in C as 0x0 0xf)
- No standard prefix in C for binary (most use hex)
 - gcc (compiler) allows 0b prefix others might not

Hex digit	0x0	0x1	0x2	0x3	0x4	0x5	0x6	0x7
Decimal value	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Binary value	0b0000	0b0001	<mark>0</mark> b0010	0b0011	<mark>0</mark> b0100	0b0101	0b0110	0b0111

Hex digit	0x8	0x9	0xa	0xb	0хс	0xd	0xe	0xf
Decimal value	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
Binary value	0b1000	0b1001	0b1010	0b1011	<mark>0</mark> b1100	0b1101	0b1110	0b1111

Hex to Binary (group 4 bits per digit from the right)

• Each Hex digit is 4 bits in base 2 $16^1 = 2^4$

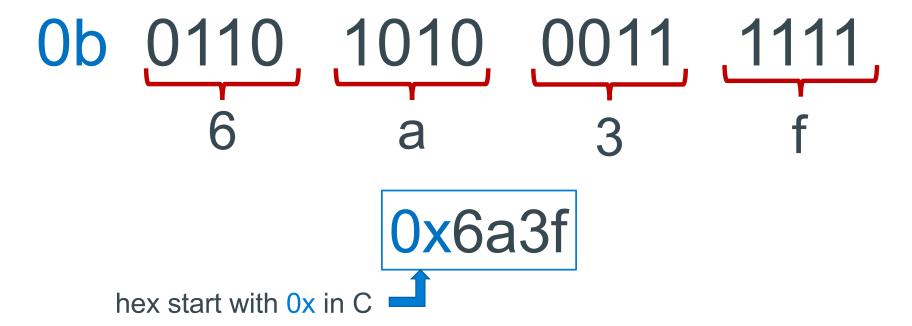


0b1111101001010011

binary start with a 0b in C

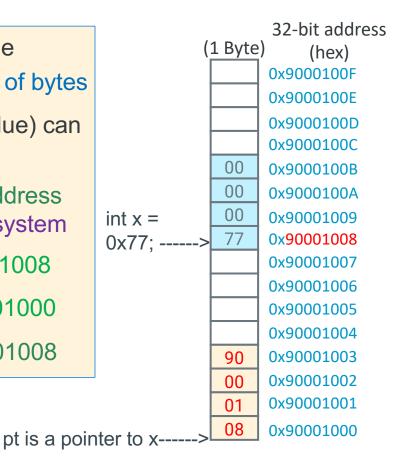
Binary to Hex (group 4 bits per digit from the right)

• 4 binary bits is one Hex digit $2^4 = 16^1$



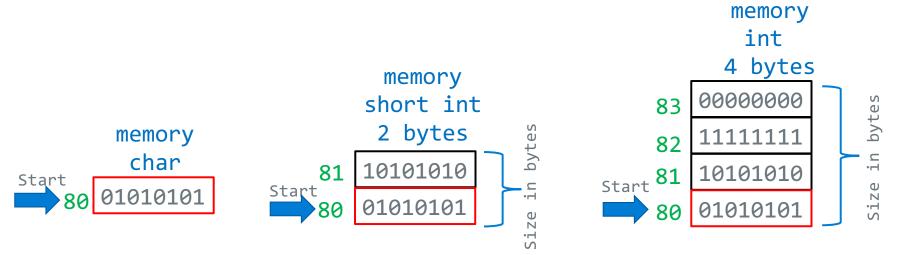
Address and Pointers

- An address refers to a location in memory, the lowest or first byte in a contiguous sequence of bytes
- A pointer is a variable whose contents (or value) can be properly used as an address
 - The value in a pointer *should* be a valid address allocated to the process by the operating system
- The variable x is at memory address 0x90001008
- The variable pt is at memory location 0x90001000
- The contents of pt is the address of x 0x90001008



Variables in Memory: Size and Address

- The number of contiguous bytes a variable uses is based on the type of the variable
 - Different variable types require different numbers of contiguous bytes
- Variable names map to a <u>starting address in memory</u>
- Example Below: Variables all starting at address 0x80, each box is a byte



Variables: Size

•	In	te	q	er	tv	pes

• char, int

Floating Point

• float, double

Modifiers for each base type

• short [int]

• long [int, double]

• signed [char, int]

unsigned [char, int]

const: variable read only

char type

• One byte in a byte addressable memory

Signed vs Unsigned Char implementations

Be careful char is unsigned on arm and signed on other HW like intel

C Data Type	AArch-32 contiguous Bytes	AArch-64 contiguous Bytes	printf specification
char (arm unsigned)	1	1	%с
short int	2	2	%hd
unsigned short int	2	2	%hu
int	4	4	%d / %i
unsigned int	4	4	%u
long int	4	8	%ld
long long int	8	8	%11d
float	4	4	%f
double	8	8	%lf
long double	8	16	%Lf
pointer *	4	8	%р

size of a pointer is the word size

sizeof(): Variable Size (number of bytes) *Operator*

```
#include <stddef.h>
/* size_t type may vary by system but is always unsigned */
```

```
sizeof() operator returns a value of type size_t:
```

the number of bytes used to store a variable or variable type

• The argument to sizeof() is often an expression:

```
size = sizeof(int * 10);
```

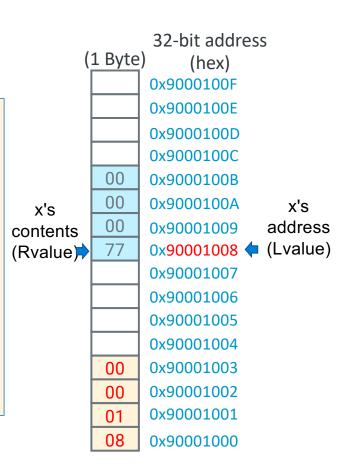
- reads as:
 - number of bytes required to store 10 integers (an array of [10])

Memory Addresses & Memory Content

Variable names in a C statement evaluation

```
x = x + 1; // Lvalue = Rvalue
```

- Lvalue: when on the left side (Lside or Left value) of the = sign
 - address where it is stored in memory a constant
 - · Address assigned to a variable cannot be changed at runtime
 - Does not require a memory read
 - Lside Must evaluate to an address
- Rvalue: when on the right side (Rside or Right value) of an = sign
 - contents or value stored in the variable (at its memory address)
 - requires a memory read to obtain contents



Memory Addresses & Memory Content

```
One memory write required

X = y;

// Lvalue = Rvalue

y 42

x 42

copy
```

- x on left side (Lside) of the assignment operator = evaluates to:
 - Address of the memory assigned to the x this is x's Lvalue
- y on right side (Rside) of the assignment operator = evaluates to:
 - Contents of the memory assigned to the variable y (type determines length number of bytes) this is y's Rvalue
- So, x = y; is:

Read memory at y (Rvalue); write it to memory at x's address (Lvalue)

Introduction: Address Operator: &

 Unary address operator (&) produces the address of where an identifier is in memory

Print g's assigned address

• Example this might print:

```
value of g is: 42
address of g is: 0x71a0a0
(the address will vary)
```

```
int main(void)
{
   int g = 42;

   printf("value of g is: %d\n", g);
   printf("address of g is: %p\n", &g);
   return EXIT_SUCCESS;
}
```

• Tip: printf() format specifier to display an address/pointer (in hex) is "%p"

Introduction: Address Operator: &

- Requirement: identifier must have a Lvalue
 - Cannot be used with constants (e.g., 12) or expressions (e.g., x + y)
 - Example: **&12** does not have an *Lvalue*,
 - so, &12 is <u>not</u> a legal expression
- How can I get an address for use on the Rside?
 - &var (any variable identifier or name)
 - function_name (name of a function, not func());
 - &funct_name is equivalent
 - array_name (name of the array like array_name[5]);
 - &array_name is equivalent

Pointer Variables

- In C, there is a *variable type* for storing an address: a *pointer*
 - Contents of a pointer is an <u>unsigned</u> (positive numbers) <u>memory address</u>

```
type *name; // defines a pointer; name contains address of a variable of type
```

- A pointer is defined by placing a **star** (or **asterisk**) (*) **before** the identifier (name)
- You also must specify the type of variable to which the pointer points
- Pointers are typed! Why?
 - The compiler needs to know the size (sizeof()) of the data you are pointing at (number of consecutive bytes to access) to use (dereference) the pointer
- When the Rside of a variable contains a memory address, (it evaluates to an address) the variable is called a pointer variable

Pointer Variables - 2

A pointer <u>cannot</u> point at itself, why?

```
int *p = &p; /* is not legal - type mismatch */
```

- p is defined as (int *), a pointer to an int, but
- the type of &p is (int **), a pointer to a pointer to an int
- Pointer variables all use the same amount of memory no matter what they point at

```
int *iptr;
char *cptr;

printf("iptr(%u) cptr(%u)\n", sizeof(iptr), sizeof(cptr));
```

• Above prints on a 32-raspberry pi

```
% ./example
iptr(4) cptr(4)
```

Defining Pointer Variables

Assigning a value to a pointer:

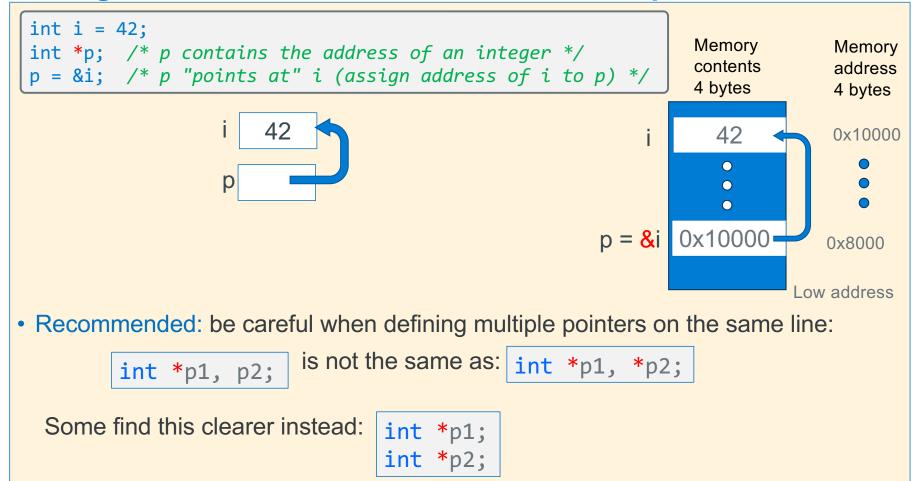
```
int *p = &i; /* p points at i (assign address i to p) */
```

Is the same as writing the following definition and assignment statements

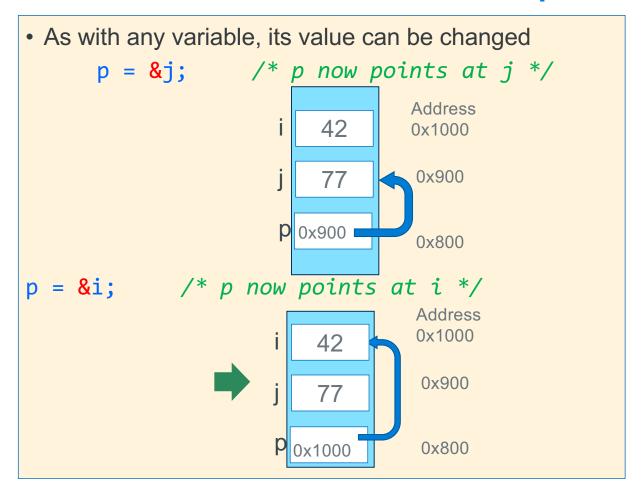
```
int *p;  /* p is defined (not initialized) */
p = &i;  /* p points at i (assign address of i to p */
```

- The * is part of the definition of p and is not part of the variable name
 - The name of the variable is simply p, not *p
- C mostly ignores whitespace, so these three definitions are equivalent

Using Pointer Variables and the Address Operator & - 1



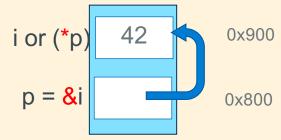
Using Pointer Variables and the Address Operator & - 2



Indirection (or dereference) Operator: *

- The *indirection operator* (*) or the *dereference operator to a variable* is the **inverse** of the *address operator* (&)
- address operator (&) can be thought of as:

"get the address of this box"



indirection operator (*) can be thought of as:

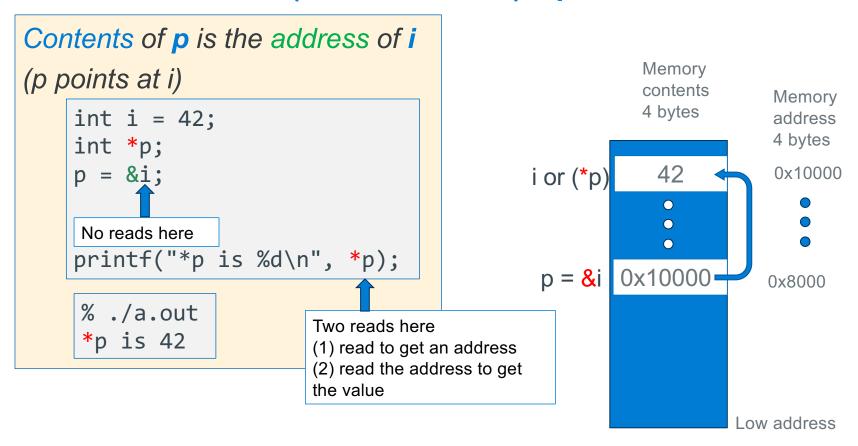
"follow the arrow to the next box and get its contents""

 Indirection operator causes an additional read to occur, when on either the Rside or Lside of a statement

Rside Indirection (or dereference) Operator: *

 Performs the following steps when the * is on the Rside: 1. read the contents of the variable to get an address 2. read and return the contents at that address (requires two reads of memory on the Rside) z = *x; // copy the contents of memory pointed at by x to z read (address) read 0x0c Rside x 0x0c Two reads here (1) read to get an address (2) read the address to get the value

Rside Indirection (or dereference) Operator: *



36 X

Lside Indirection Operator

Performs the following steps when the * is on the Lside:

- 1. read the contents of the variable to get an address
- 2. write the evaluation of the Rside expression to that address
 - (requires one read of memory and one write of memory on the Lside)

```
*p = x; // copy the value of x to the memory pointed at by p
```

