

CSE30 Section B Spring 2024

Instructor: Keith Muller

- I highly encourage feedback
 - Please bring any issues to my attention, I will promptly address them
- How to contact me directly:
 - kmuller@ucsd.edu
 - Please do not use canvas messages

- In Person Office Hours: CSE 2109
 - Tue, Thu: 2:00 PM to 3:00 PM
 - These office hours are group meetings
 - Ask questions, review material, or just come to listen
 - Students who attend office hours tend to do better in the course
- Zoom Office Hours

https://ucsd.zoom.us/j/94331007124

- Friday: 4:00 PM to 4:45 PM
- These office hours can be indivual of for a group if you like
- Additional office times By Appointment
- Send me email to schedule

CSE 30 Spring 2024 – Staff Covers Both Sections A & B

Section A (Cao) and B (Muller) share the same pool of TA's and Tutors

TA's

- Nitya Agarwal
- Mihir Kekkar
- Yuchen Jing
- Liam Fernandez

Tutors

Ali Alabiad

Bryan Cho

Charlotte Dong

Vivian Liu

Kate Romero

Kevin Shen

Charvi Sukla

Fong Vachirathanusorn

Joseph Edmonston

Thanh-Nhan Lam

Tutors

Christian Lee

Jessie Ouyang

Brandon Reponte

Adrian Rosing

Luffy Saito

Leica Shen

Shijie Wang

Alex Simonyan

Reese Whitlock

Overview of Grading - See Syllabus (Canvas) for More Details

70 pts – Attending Lecture in person

• 5 points per section B lecture

120 pts total - Canvas Quizzes

270 pts total – Programming Assignments

180 pts - Midterm - In Person

360 pts - Final - In Person

1000 pts total for graded assignments

- Special grading circumstances (e.g., extended absence, illness, other issues, etc.)
 - PROMPTLY Contact me directly (kmuller@ucsd.edu)

Lecture 1 QR Code

- Class attendance points: To encourage you to attend lecture
 - Over the years we have found that students that attend more lectures in CSE30 get better grades
- Section B has 20 lectures, attend 14 to get the 70 points
 - Attending more than 14 gets you up to 30 more points
- Attendance is taken at the start of class using google forms that is accessed with a lecture QR code in the slides
 - For the first lecture only, the form will be open until 9 PM
 - bring a device that can use QR codes to access goggle forms and allows you to sign into UCSD SSO
 - You will be required to supply a code word announced in class
 - You will eventually get an email acknowledgement from google that your attendance was recorded
- ONLY If you cannot access the google form, send me email (kmuller@ucsd.edu) with the code word in the subject line
 - The email must be timestamped within the first 15 minutes of lecture



If you have issues, see me after class

CSE30 Spring 2024 Section B Specific

- There are two sections: Section A (Cao) and Section B (Muller)
- What is the same in the two sections
 - **study topics** (roughly in-sync by the end of each week)
 - quizzes
 - Programming Assignments
- What is different between the two sections
 - lecture materials
 - midterm questions (from Sect B lecture)
 - final questions (from Sect B lecture)
- In-person lecture attendance is strongly encouraged (attendance points)
 - Lectures are podcast recorded
- Discussion section attendance is optional but strongly encouraged
 - You may attend either discussion section and still be enrolled in Sect B
 - · Section B sections are podcast recorded
- See the syllabus for grading details

CSE30 Class Resources

- Section B Lecture Slides: https://github.com/cse30-sp24/Muller-Slides
 - Located on class github in both pptx and pdf format
 - Slides are updated constantly to correct errors and to improve content
 - Version is at the upper left on the title slide
 - · Always check you have the current version the morning before lecture
- Class github: https://github.com/cse30-sp24
- Piazza: https://piazza.com/ucsd/spring2024/cse30_sp24_a0/home
 - First Place to go to for Q/A and important announcements
 - Public piazza posts are for: general questions on PA's and lectures
 - Do not post publicly any parts of an assignment, quiz or exam solution
 - Private posts are for: specific situation relating to just you or you are not sure
- Tutor Lab hour schedule: https://autograder.ucsd.edu
 - For getting help from the tutors
- Canvas: https://canvas.ucsd.edu/courses/54650
 - Links to quizzes, textbooks, programming assignments, exams
- Gradescope: https://www.gradescope.com
 - Quizzes and Submitting programming assignments

Surviving Section B Lectures (In-person)

- Make sure you bring your copy of lecture slides to class, it helps
- How to get my attention in class
 - I never intentionally ignore questions; I just may not see you
 - Raise your hand, or just call out if I appear to ignore you by accident
- You must SLOW ME DOWN: Otherwise, I tend to speed up
 - Please do not be shy, speak up and remind me to slow down
- If you have questions, or I went too fast, or the material is not clear, etc.
 - Please ask me to go over it again (do this right away, not 5 slides later)
 - Just don't sit there and waste your time
 - my responsibility: help you learn the material
 - your responsibility: ask questions (I love questions, they also slow me down!)

How to do well in CSE30 - 1

- Go to lecture
 - · Before lecture go over the class slides
 - Lecture slides are posted the day before class (last minute updates that morning)
 - Keep your lecture slides up to date (I update them to fix errors and address questions)
- · Go to Discussion Sessions
 - ask the TA's and Tutors for help
- Studying for exams
 - All the exam question topics are found in my slides and the PA writeups
 - Try to write the exam yourself, with practice you will be able to guess the questions
- Post to piazza when you have questions
- · Do the readings on time
- Review the material: watch the podcasts and occasional special topic videos

How to do well in CSE30 - 2

- Most important: Keep up, do not procrastinate as it is hard to catch up
 - The class material starts easy and gets much harder over the quarter
 - Do not expect you can do later programming assignments in less than 5 days
 - Do not expect to learn the material by binge watching podcasts, this never ends well
- Please be careful when using web resources for this class
 - a lot of the material you will find is either not correct or does not apply to our programming environment
 - this is especially true with assembly language programming topics
- Are you struggling?
 - Do not wait, ask for help as soon as possible do not fall behind
 - Best advice: Come to my office hours (or schedule a zoom meeting)
 - Give me a chance to help you
 - I will spend as much time as necessary to help you understand the material

A General-Purpose Computer – Von Neuman Architecture

• Since the middle of the 20th century, many architectural approaches to the **general-purpose computer** have been tried

• The architecture which nearly all modern computers are based was proposed by John Von

Neuman in the late 1940's

• The major components are:



- Central Processing Unit (CPU): a device which fetches, interprets, and executes a specified set of operations called instructions
- Memory: Storage of N words of W bits, where W is a fixed architectural parameter, and N can can be expanded to meet workload (the programs running on the CPU) and cost requirements
- I/O: Devices for communication with the outside world (including external persistent storage)
 - External connections (from CPU to memory and I/O) typically use industry "standards"
 - Standards enable technologies from different companies to interoperate

What is Computer Architecture?

Instruction Set Architecture (ISA)

- Functional behavior of a computer system as viewed by a programmer
 - describes how the CPU is controlled by software programs
 - specifies both what the processor can do as well as how it gets it done
- Architectural Characteristics (partial list):
 - supported data types (how data is encoded)
 - CPU registers (number, size, use, etc.)
 - how the hardware manages main memory
 - instructions a microprocessor can execute
 - What they "do"
 - What is the instruction "format" (bit patterns) in memory
 - input/output model

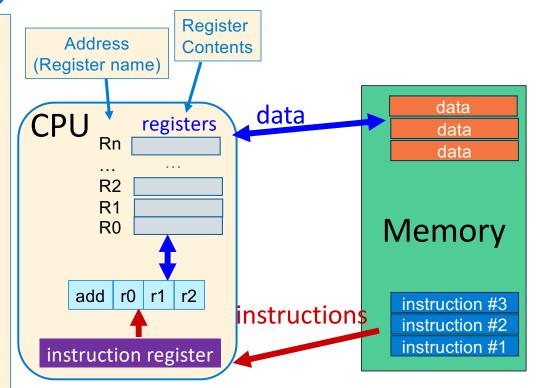
Machine Organization

- Physical (design) realization of what is specified by the instruction set architecture
- It deals with how the hardware components are linked together to meet the requirements specified by instruction set architecture
 - An ISA allows variability in the physical design implementations to match different workload needs (cost, scalability, etc.)
- Machine organizational characteristics (partial)
 - Hardware component choices
 - Expandability
 - Configurability
 - Physical layout
 - Number and type of peripherals (I/O devices)

Von Neuman Architecture

- Distinguishing feature: Memory contains both program instructions and data
- CPU Instructions are often called machine code and encoded in memory using patterns of ones and zeros (like binary numbers)
- **Example**: three 32-bit instructions (shown in hexadecimal format below)

- Instructions operate on data that is stored in a small capacity volatile memory in the CPU
 - these are called registers
- CPU reads/writes data from memory into these data registers to operate on them
- · An executable program contains
 - series of instructions (the program)
 - (maybe some) data to operate on

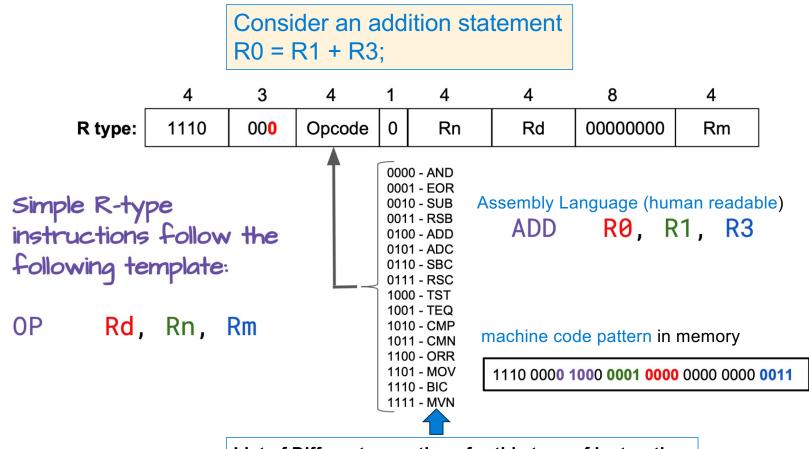


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C, Assembly and Machine Code

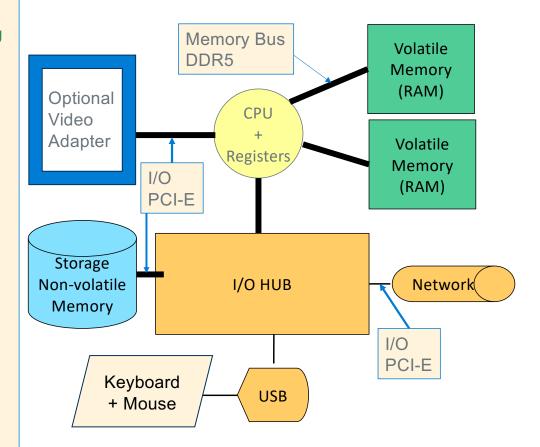
- Machine Language (or code)
 - Are encoded in memory using patterns of ones and zeros (like binary numbers)
 - **Example:** arm32 machine code stores just one instruction in 32 bits (4 bytes)
- Assembly language is a symbolic version of the machine language
 - Instructions describe operations the hardware can perform (e.g., =, +, -, *)
 - Unique to a specific ISA: e.g., ARM-32 versus IA-64
 - May be stored in a human readable text file
 - You can write in assembly language just like C or Java
 - Assembly is much easier to program than machine code
- A high-level language (like C) is compiled into an assembly language equivalent
 - A statement in C is represented by a sequence of one or more assembly language instructions (why a do you think it is a sequence?)
- Assembly language program
 - assembly language program is translated (assembled) into machine code

Assembly & Machine Code Example: ARM-32 (32-bits)



Machine Organization – Von Neuman

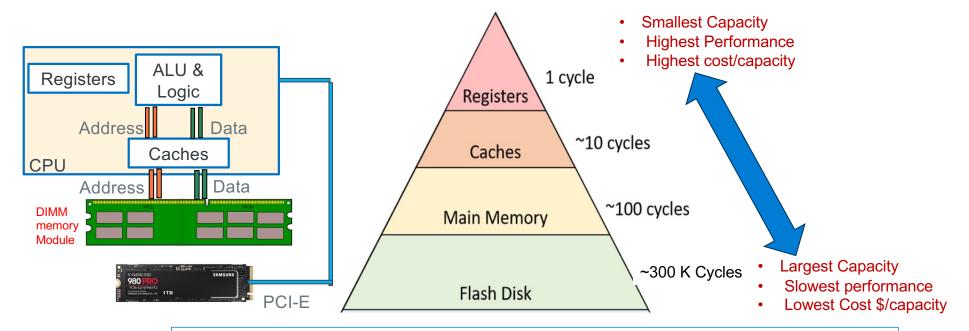
- 1. CPU executes a machine code program
 - Machine code is specific to a particular CPU Instruction set Architecture (ISA)
- 2. Memory contains both data and programs
- 3. I/O (input/Output): Connects the CPU and memory to the external world
 - An I/O operation is where data (including machine code) is copied between persistent storage (like an SSD) and ram memory
- Volatile (non-persistent) memory
 - · contents lost when power is removed
 - Memory dimms (memory bus)
 - CPU registers (memory inside the CPU)
- Non-volatile (persistent) memory
 - contents preserved when power is removed
 - SSD (I/O bus attached)
 - NVDIMM (memory bus attached)



Memory Triangle: Hardware Cost/Performance/Capacity Tiers

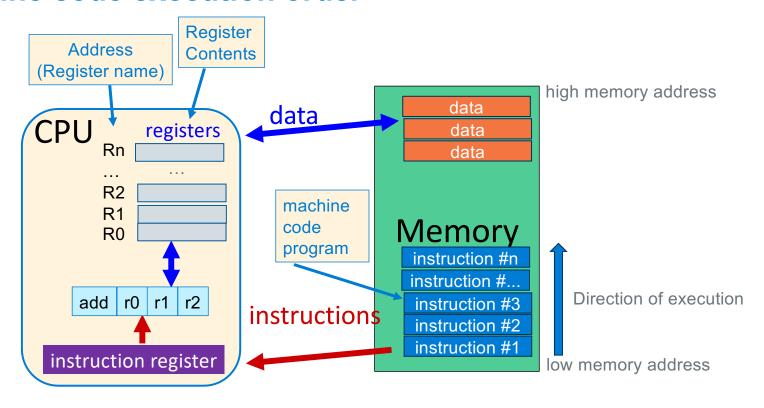
Assume each instruction takes 1 clock cycle

Clock cycle =~ time to access; larger is slower



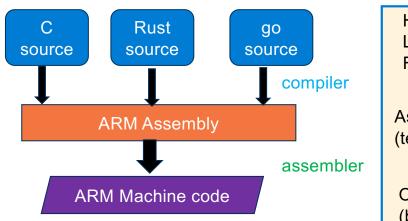
Design Goal: best performance at the lowest (or specific) cost **Other goals:** performance/energy (operating cost), expandability, high margin (price/cost)

Machine code execution order



 Execution order: Programs execute from instructions located in low address memory to high address memory stepping one machine instruction at a time (called execution order) unless there is a branch (example: loop, if statement etc.)

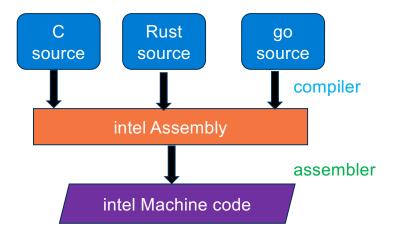
From Source to Machine code



High level
Language
File (text)

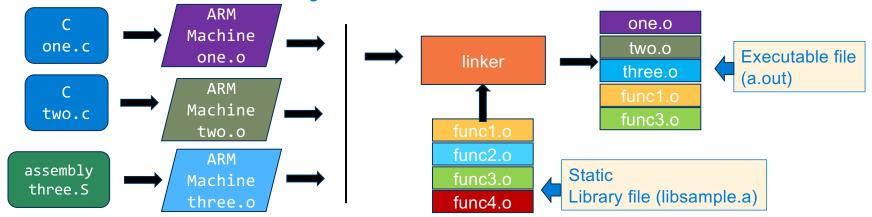
Assembly file
(text)

Object file
(binary)

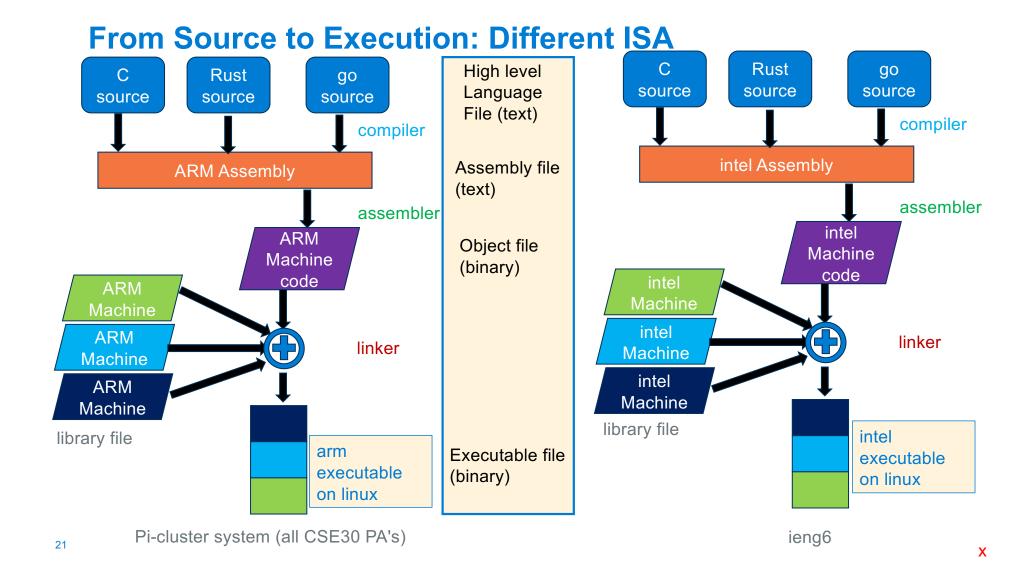


- The granularity of compilation and assembly is a single text file (called a translation unit)
 - .c file is a C source file (file.c)
 - .S file (upper case S) is a human written assembly source file (file.S)
 - .s file (lower case s) is a compiler generated assemble source file (file.s)
 - .o file is a machine code binary (object) file (file.o)
- Multiple .o files are combined (linked) into an executable file

Linker: Combines object files to create an executable file

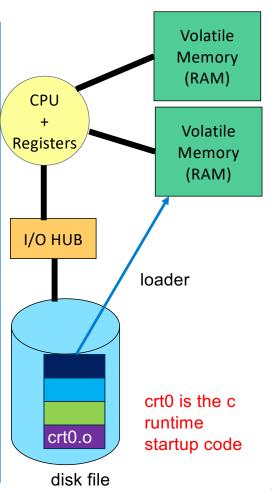


- Each source file (Translation unit) is compiled (or assembled) independently to an object file
 - When we modify a single file in a multi-source file program, we want to only **recompile** the **file** that changed and combine it with the other already compiled object files
- Library file (libXX.a where XX is the library name) is an aggregation of distinct object (.o) files
- Linker combines all the listed object files together plus just those object files in libraries whose contents are referenced
 - Example: one.c and two.c call functions contained in func1.o and func3.o (no calls to func2.o or func4.o)
- Important: Object files created from C and assembly source can be linked (call each other) into a
 working executable when certain rules are followed (we will be doing a lot of this later this quarter)



From Source code to Execution

```
$ cat test.c
                                      Source to Execution Steps
#include <stdlib.h>
                                     1. Compile (c source)
#include <stdio.h>
                                     2. Assemble (assembler
int main (void)
                                        source)
                                     3. Link
    printf("Hello!\n");
                                     4. Load
    return EXIT_SUCCESS;
                                     5. Execute
$ gcc -Wall -Wextra -Werror -c -S test.c
                                             compile
$ 1s -1s
total 8
4 -rw-r--r-- 1 kmuller kmuller 109 Mar 14 15:57 test.c
4 -rw-r--r-- 1 kmuller kmuller 725 Mar 14 15:58 test.s
$ gcc test.s
               assemble and link
$ 1s -1s
               gcc automatically calls the assembler with .S or .s files
total 16
8 -rwxr-xr-x 1 kmuller kmuller 7708 Mar 14 15:58 a.out
4 -rw-r--r-- 1 kmuller kmuller 109 Mar 14 15:57 test.c
4 -rw-r--r-- 1 kmuller kmuller 725 Mar 14 15:58 test.s
$ ./a.out
          load and then execute
Hello!
```



Equivalent Code: C -> Assembly -> Machine

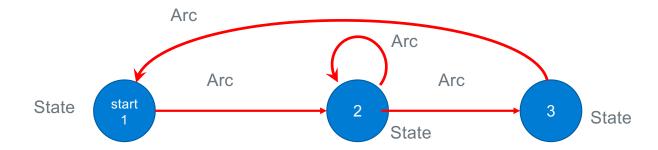
```
#include <stdlib.h>
                                                     memory high low bytes
 #include <stdio.h>
                      source
                                                     address
                                                               contents
 int main(void)
                                                                             corresponding assembly
                                                    00010408 <main>:
     printf("Hello!\n");
                                                       10408: e92d4800
                                                                              push {fp, lr}
                                         Code aka
    return EXIT SUCCESS;
                                                       1040c: e28db004
                                                                              add fp, sp, 4
                                         TEXT
                                                       10410: e59f0010
                                                                              ldr r0, [pc, 16]
                                                    //10428 <L1>
                                                                              bl 102e8 <printf@plt>
        .section .rodata
                                                       10414: ebffffb3
                                                                              mov r0, 0
        .string "Hello!\n"
                                                       10418: e3a00000
mesg:
                                                       1041c: e24bd004
                                                                              sub sp, fp, 4
        .text
                            ARM-32 assembly
        .global main
                                                       10420: e8bd4800
                                                                              pop {fp, lr}
                                                                              bx lr
        .type
                main, %function
                                                       10424: e12fff1e
        .equ
                FP OFF, 4
                                                                             Machine instructions
                EXIT SUCCESS,
                                                    00010428 <L1>:
        .equ
                {fp, lr}
                                                       10428: 0001049c 👡
main:
        push
                                                                              address of mesg
                fp, sp, FP OFF
        add
                r0, L1
                                                    0001049c <mesg>:
        ldr
        bl
                printf
                                                       1049c: 6c6c6548
                                                                             // 'l, 'l', 'e', 'h'
                                                 Data
                                                       104a0: 000a216f
                                                                             // '\0', '\n', '!', 'o'
            r0, EXIT SUCCESS
        mov
               sp, fp, FP_OFF
        sub
                {fp, lr}
        pop
        bx
                lr
                          address of mesg
L1:
        .word mesg_
```

PA2/PA3 Design: Using a Finite State Machine

- Finite state machine (or Finite State Automaton) is a way of representing (or detecting) a language
 - Example: set of string patterns (e.g., HA) accepted or rejected based on an input sequence

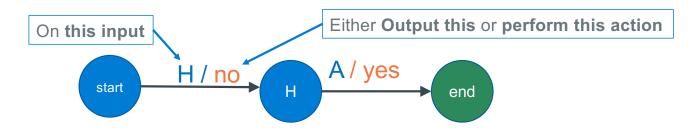
Circle (States) and Arc representation

- A circle (state) represents (remembers) what has already been seen in the input stream
- An arc represents a transition from one state to the next state for a specified input and may specify an optional output (or operation to be performed)
 - The next state can be the same state or a different state
- At any point in time, one of the states is the <u>current state</u> of the machine
 - Current state "remembers" the input sequence seen so far by the machine



Machine States and Transitions

- Two Special states
 - start state (machine starts "powers up" in this state) required
 - end state (done or final state) not required designed to run forever
- Each arc has a label(s) that uses the notation: input1, ..., input n / output or action taken
 - When the input to the machine matches one of the input labels, it selects that arc to be taken
 - The arc taken also specifies the output produced or action taken
 - it is ok to have no output, or no operation associated with an arc
- Example: FSA machine below recognizes the sequence HA on an input stream, then stops
 - Question: what is missing here? What do we do for inputs NOT specified?



Arc labeling

- **output**(c) indicates c is to be output (printed for example)
- An action of means no action (or output)

a / -

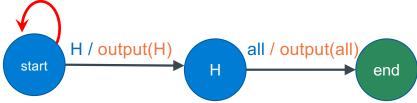
- The labels all and other have special meanings
- When an arch is labeled with an input of other, this represents all other character inputs that are not specified by other arcs
 - If you need to output the actual input character, you will label the arch as:

other / output(other)

- When an arch is labeled with an input of **all**, then this arc is taken for all inputs.
 - If you need to output the actual input character, you will label the arch as:

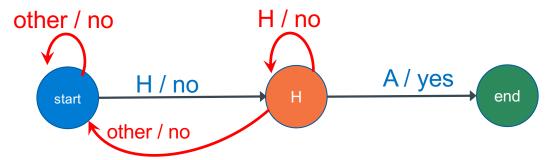
all / output(all)

other / output(other)



Designing a Deterministic Finite State Automaton

- Deterministic Finite State Automaton (or deterministic finite state machine)
 - For any given state, then for all possible inputs, there is always one next state
- Step 1: Define the states (using the recognizer example from the previous slide)
 - Start (initial or power up) state: input has not seen an H (or no input so far)
 - H state: input has seen at least one H (or more than one H
 - end state: input has seen an H immediately followed by an A
- Step 2: Define the arcs
 - Specify arcs at each state for all possible inputs (an arc can be taken on more than on input)
 - · Specify output or action (if any) on each arc
 - Check: each state transition (arc) is *unambiguous* (unique a specific input selects just one arc)



Special input labels:

- other specifies that this arc is taken for all inputs that are not specified by the other arcs out of that state
- all specifies that this arc is taken for all inputs

DFA counting the instances of a pattern

- The state machine on the previous slide would stop after seeing the first HA, and does not take any more input, missing later occurrences of HA in the input
- Say you want to process the entire contents of a text file to find and count all HA's
 - from the top (top of file)
 - to the bottom (end of file)

This is a text file with a lot of HHAA in it.
There is a HA here and a HA there and a HA everywhere.
There is also HAHA HA.

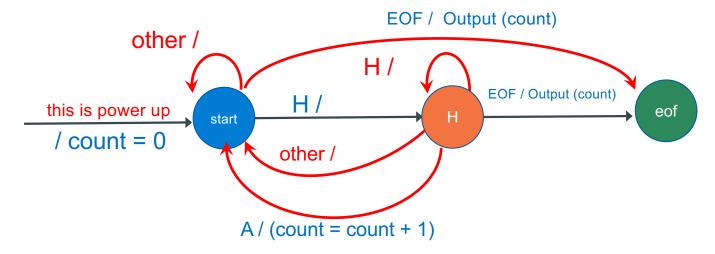
 Action: Alter the machine to process input from a text file until the end of the file (EOF) is reached

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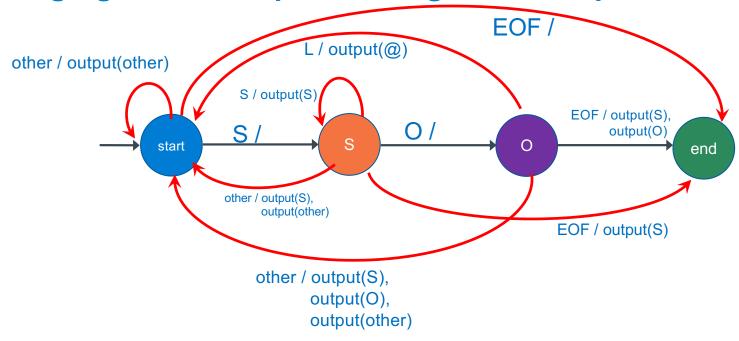
DFA counting the instances of a pattern - 2

To adjust the DFA to act on continuous input (multiple instances of the pattern)

- 1. "redirect" the arc(s) that pointed at the end state to point to the start state
- 2. Convert output to counting actions
- 3. Add arcs from each state when EOF on input is detected to the eof state

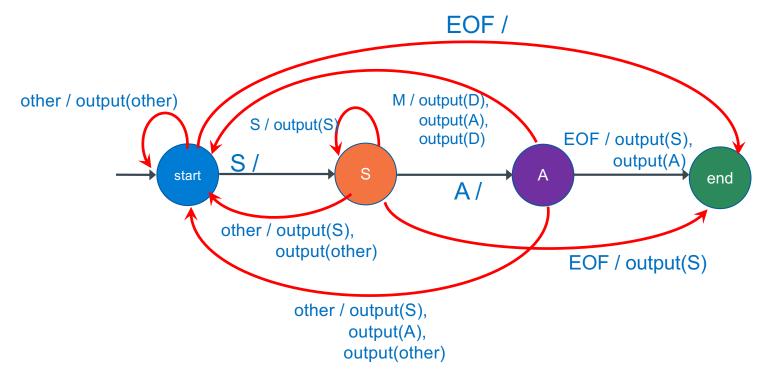


Merging DFA's: Step one design each sequence



This DFA replaces SOL with a @

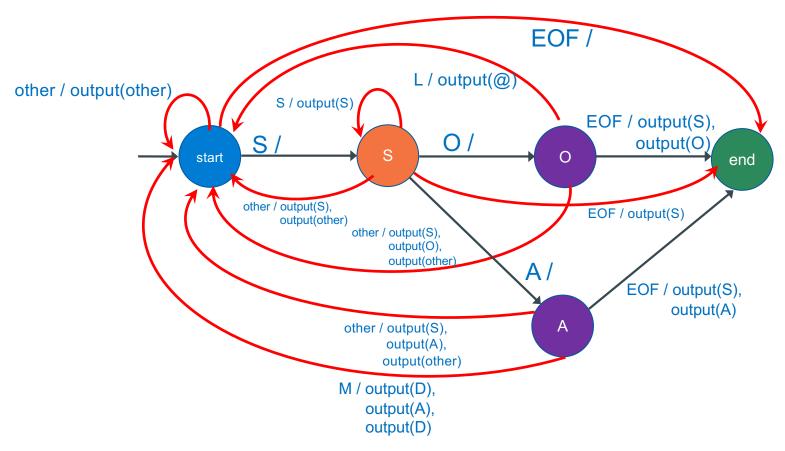
Merging DFA's: Step one design each sequence



This DFA replaces SAM with DAD

Merging DFA's – 3 (Finished)

This DFA replaces SOL with a @ and This DFA replaces SAM with DAD

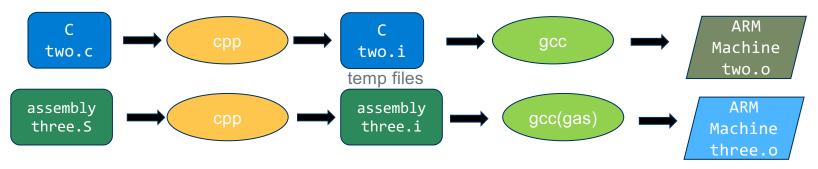


Introduction: C Program Structure (Single file)

```
#include <stdlib.h>
                            directives to the
#include <stdio.h>
                            preprocessor
 * This is a block comment
// this is a line comment
               main() is the first function to run
               Every executable program must have one function called main()
int main(int argc, char *argv[]) // or int main() or int main(void)
{
                         char literal '\n'
    char x = ' n';
                                     library function for writing to stdout
    printf("Hello World!%c", x); // "Hello World!\n"
    return EXIT_SUCCESS;
                                        // main always returns either
                                        // EXIT SUCCESS or EXIT FAILURE
                            string literal "Hello World!%c"
```

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What is the preprocessor (cpp)?



- Preprocessing is the first phase in the compilation (.c files) or assembly (.S files only) process
- The preprocessor (cpp) transforms your source code, then passes it to the compiler (on .c files) or the assembler (on .S files only, not .s files)
 - · cpp is automatically invoked by gcc
- Usually, the input to **cpp** is a C source file (.c) or an assembly source file (.S only) and output from **cpp** is still a C file or assembly file
 - output from cpp is in a temporary .i file (deleted after use)
 - cpp does not modify the input source file
- Common use: When a program is divided across multiple source files (including library files), cpp helps you keep consistency among the files (one version of the truth)
 - Examples: Consistent values for a constants, correct function definitions, etc.

Common Preprocessor (cpp) Operations

- Comments are replaced with a single space /* */ , //
 - You will do a design for this in PA2 and program it in PA3
- Continued lines: where the last character in a line is a \ causes the line to be joined with the next line
- A preprocessor directive: commands to cpp to perform an operation (these start with a #)
 - #include <stdio.h> contents of the include file is to be *inserted* at that spot in the source file
 - #define MAX 8
 - Does two things: Defines MAX to be a macro name and assigns it the value 8
 - #define MINE just defines MINE to be a macro name with no value
 - Convention: MACRO names are in CAPITAL letters
 - Macros with values cpp replaces MAX with 8 everywhere in the source file

```
#define MAX 8
int main(void)
{
    int x[MAX]; // histogram array
    for (int i = 0; i < MAX; i++) {
        ...
    }
    ...
}</pre>
cpp input
```

First Look at Header Files (also called .h or "include" files)

- Header file: a file whose only purpose is to be #include'd by the preprocessor
 - Contains: Exported (public) Interface declarations
 - Examples: function prototypes, user defined types, global variable, macros, etc.
 - To import the public interface of another C source file
 - #include its header (interface) file
- NEVER EVER use cpp to #include a .c file, a .S or a .s file
- Convention (strongly enforced): header files use a .h filename extension (example: filename.h)
 - Example: Source file src.c exported (public) interface is located in the header file src.h
- How to specify the file to be #include'd
 - <system-defined> are system header files (typically located under /usr/include/...)
 #include <stdio.h> // located in /usr/include/stdio.h
 - "programmer-defined" header files usually in a relative Linux path (see —I flag to gcc)

 #include "else.h" // looks in the current directory first
- Convention: #include directives are usually placed at the top of a source file

 x

Compilation Process Operations

```
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <stdio.h>
// A simple C Program
int
main(void)
{
    printf("Hello World!\n");
    return EXIT SUCCESS;
cpp: replaces EXIT SUCCESS with 0
on linux
```

preprocessor: inserts and processes the contents of files here.

Inserts: Function protype for printf (later in course)

macro value for EXIT_SUCCESS

File locations: /usr/include/stdio.h & /usr/include/stdlib.h

preprocessor: removes the Comment, replaces with one blank

compiler generates assembly code to call the library function printf() and pass the string "Hello World!"

compile: gcc -Wall -Wextra -Werror prog.c -o prog

- 1. cpp first processes the file (cpp is called by gcc)
- 2. Compiler (gcc) compiles main to assembly
- Assembler (gas called by gcc) translates the assembly to machine code
- Linker (Id) merges the machine code for printf() (from a library) with your programs machine code to create the executable file prog (machine code)
 - -o specifies the name of the executable (default: a.out)

cpp conditional (and macro) only operations

```
    You can use conditional preprocessor tests (like if-else statements) around blocks of code
        #ifdef MACRO, #ifndef MACRO, #else, #endif
    In this use, the MACRO is called the guard MACRO ("guards" entry to the following block)
    #ifdef MACRO if MACRO is defined the block is included otherwise #else block (if any) is included
    #ifndef MACRO if MACRO is NOT defined the block is included otherwise #else block (if any) is included
    #endif is the end of a block
    #define MACRO  // defines MACRO -- #define MACRO 8 defines macro and assigns a value of 8
    #undef MACRO  // undefines MACRO
```

```
#define VERS1
#define MAX 8
// file ex.c
void func(void)
{
  #ifdef VERS1
        int x[MAX];
#else
        short x[MAX];
#endif
        ...
        return;
}
```

```
after the preprocessor runs
```

```
void func(void)
{
    int x[8];
    ....
    return;
}
```

```
// #define VERS1
#define MAX 8
// file ex.c
void func(void)
{
  #ifdef VERS1
        int x[MAX];
#else
        short x[MAX];
#endif
        ...
        return;
}
```

```
after the
preprocessor runs

void func(void)
{
    short x[8];
    ....
    return;
}
```

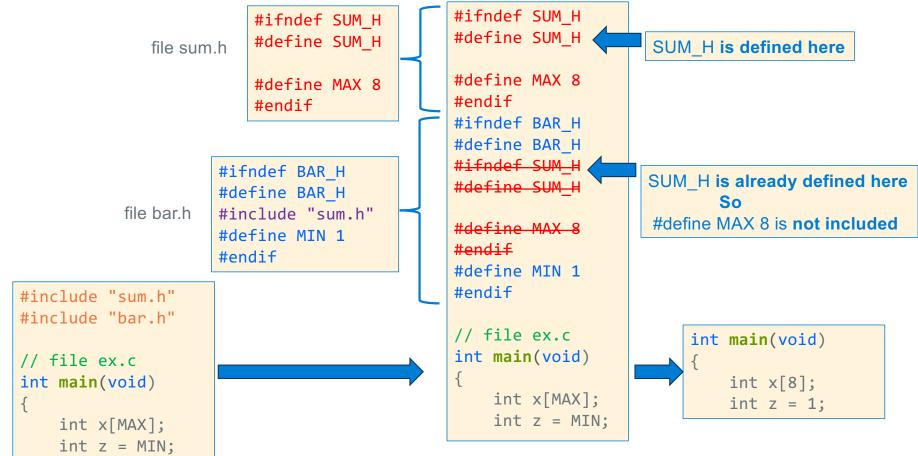
cpp conditional tests: header guards

- · Header guards ensure that only one copy of a .h file is included in a source file
- A Convention: header guard (macro) NAME (all capital letters) is created as follows:
 - use the filename of header file but in all caps
 - replace the period in header file name with an _
 - Example: file sum.h header guard macro name is SUM H

```
 How do you use "header guards" in your code?

                   #ifndef NAME_H
                                            // first line in the file
                   #define NAME H
                   #endif
                                             // last line in the file
                                                                       #include "sum.h"
#include "sum.h"
                                         #ifndef SUM H
                        header guards
                                                                       // file func.c
// file ex.c
                                         #define SUM H
                        (two lines)
                                                                       int func(void)
int main(void)
                                         #define MAX 8
                                                                           int z[MAX];
    int x[MAX];
                       header guards
                                         #endif
                        (one line)
                                                                                    func.i
               ex.i
                                            file sum.h
                                                                       int func(void)
int main(void)
{
     int x[8];
                                                                           int z[8];
```

Why header guards are needed



Quick Look: Character and String Literals (more later)

- Usually used to store characters thus things like file names
- char literals: a single (1) character inside a set of single quotes 'a'
- string literals: 0 or more characters inside a set of **double quotes** "string"

- Problem: How do you place a non-printable character like a newline in a literal?
 - The following are not legal in C as a newline in a source file represents a statement delimiter (white space) in C

```
char x = 'a
';
printf("Hello World!
");
```

Solution: C has a special line continuation character \

There are three different uses for \ in C

Line continuation sequence a \ followed by zero or more whitespace ending in a newline at the

end of a source line char a[] = "string: Hello \ World";

Poor style use a block comment // line comment \ rest of line comment

X = X +5;

Not needed do not do this

How do you put a single 'as a character literal or a single "inside a string literal?

Use only when no other choice

• You use an escape character \: which escapes the special meaning of the next character inside a character or a string literal char a = '\''; // char: '

```
Description
char sequence
'\\' or "\\"
                     \ char
'\'' or "\'"
                  single quote
'\"' or "\""
                  double quote
```

```
char b = '\\'; // char: '
char c = '"'; // char: "
char d[] = "ab\""; // string: ab"
char e[] = "ab\\"; // string: ab\
char f[] = "ab'"; // string: ab'
char a[] = "a "string""; // syntax error; expected
```

char a[] = "a \"string\""; // ok

There are three different uses for \ in C - continued

3. Embed characters with a special meaning inside a (char or string) **literal** using a two-character sequence starting with a \ followed by a single character

This is typically used for characters that are "non-printable". Here are some

examples:

char sequence	Description		
'\n' or "\n"	newline char		
'\r' or "\r"	carriage return		
'\t' or "\t"	tab char		
'\b' or "\b"	backspace		
'\0' or "\0"	null char		

```
printf("\n\nHello World!\n\n");
```

```
printf("\n\nHello\tWorld!\n\n");
```

Characters In C

\0 in c encodes a null

\b in c encodes a backspace

\t in c encodes a horizontal tab

\n in c encodes a linefeed

Ascii column: decimal integers

ASCII Chars are 0-127 (stored in 8 bits) Many of the values are not "printable"

Ascii	Char	Ascii	Char	Ascii	Char	Ascii	Char
-0	Null	32	Space	64	@	96	
1	Start of heading	33	!	65	A	97	a
2	Start of text	34	"	66	В	98	b
3	End of text	35	#	67	С	99	С
4	End of transmit	36	\$	68	D	100	d
5	Enquiry	37	8	69	E	101	е
6	Acknowledge	38	&	70	F	102	f
7	Audible bell	39		71	G	103	g
8	Backspace	40	(72	H	104	h
9	Horizontal tab	41)	73	I	105	i
10	Line feed	42	*	74	J	106	j
11	Vertical tab	43	+	75	K	107	k
12	Form feed	44	,	76	L	108	1
13	Carriage return	45	-	77	M	109	m
14	Shift in	46		78	N	110	n
15	Shift out	47	/	79	0	111	0
16	Data link escape	48	0	80	P	112	Р
17	Device control 1	49	1	81	Q	113	q
18	Device control 2	50	2	82	R	114	r
19	Device control 3	51	3	83	S	115	s
20	Device control 4	52	4	84	T	116	t
21	Neg. acknowledge	53	5	85	U	117	u
22	Synchronous idle	54	6	86	V	118	v
23	End trans. block	55	7	87	W	119	W
24	Cancel	56	8	88	X	120	x
25	End of medium	57	9	89	Y	121	У
26	Substitution	58	:	90	Z	122	z
27	Escape	59	;	91	[123	{
28	File separator	60	<	92	\	124	1
29	Group separator	61	=	93]	125	}
30	Record separator	62	>	94	^	126	~
31	Unit separator	63	?	95	_	127	Forward del.

Understanding Comments in C (Prep for PA2 and PA3)

- In PA2 (design) and PA3 (program in C), you are going to write equivalent
 preprocessor code to replace each comment in an input file with a single space
 character (a blank space) while writing the rest of the input to output unaltered
- IMPORTANT: the preprocessor does NOT perform any syntax checking

```
/* this is /* one block comment */ text outside comment

// this is // one line comment
text outside comment

/* block comment

// part of block comment not a line comment
yet more block comment
*/ text outside comment

// line comment /* part of line comment not a block comment */

// line comment /* part of line comment not the start of a block comment
oops! text outside of comment, this is not a comment anymore */
```

Complexity for programming a preprocessor: Literals may contain what appears to be comments, but are not

```
char x = 'a';  // 'a' is a character literal
printf("Hello World!");  // "Hello World!" is a string literal
```

"/* text */" not a comment but a string literal whose contents looks like a block comment

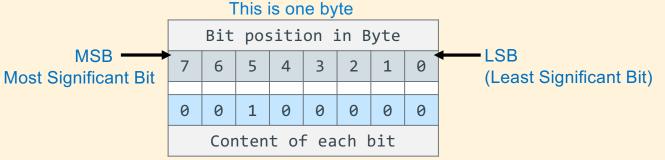
"// text" not a comment but a string literal whose contents looks like a line comment

'/* text */' not a comment but a character literal whose contents looks like a block comment

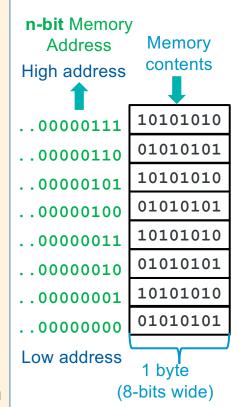
'// text' not a comment but a character literal whose contents looks like a line comment

Memory Organization is in Units of Bytes

- One bit (digit) of storage (in memory) has two possible states: 0 or 1
- Memory is organized into a fixed unit of 8 bits, called a byte

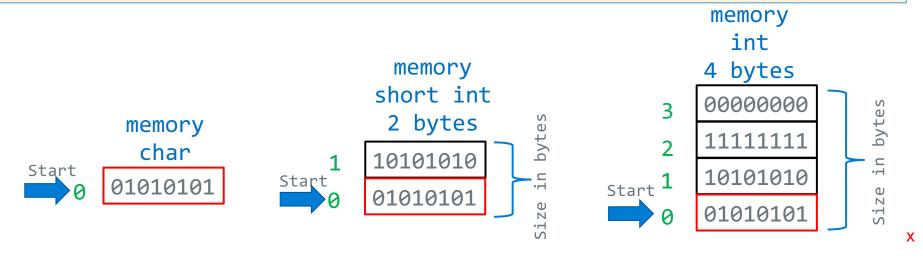


- Conceptually, memory is a single, large array of bytes, where each
 byte has a unique address (this is a: byte addressable memory)
- An address is an unsigned (positive #) fixed-length n-bit binary value
 - Range (domain) of possible addresses = address space
- Each byte in memory can be individually accessed and operated on given its unique address



Variables in Memory: Size and Address

- Variable name is associated with a starting address in memory
- The number of **contiguous bytes** required to store a variable is based on the *type* of the variable
 - Different variable types require different amount of contiguous bytes
 - ARM 32 has fixed length (32-bit) instructions (stored in 4 contiguous bytes)
- Example Below: Variables all starting at address 0, each box is a byte
- Aside: we will see later that the starting addresses for a specific data type or instruction has restrictions on what the starting address may be (this is called memory alignment)



Variables in C

- Integer types
 - char, int
- Floating Point
 - float, double
- Modifiers for each base type
 - short [int]
 - long [int, double]
 - signed [char, int]
 - unsigned [char, int]
 - const: read only
- char type
 - One byte in a byte addressable memory

word size is the size of the address (pointer)

- Signed vs Unsigned implementation dependent
- 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
char (arm unsigned)	1	1
short int	2	2
unsigned short int	2	2
int	4	4
unsigned int	4	4
long int	4	8
long long int	8	8
float	4	4
double	8	8
long double	8	16
pointer *	4	8

Data types: C Versus Java

Data Types	Java	C		
Character	char // 16-bit unicode	char // 8 bits (varies by hardware)		
integers	byte // 8 bits short // 16 bits int // 32 bits long // 64 bits	<pre>(unsigned, signed) char // see row above (unsigned, signed) short // unspecified (unsigned, signed) int // unspecified (unsigned, signed) long // unspecified</pre>		
Floating Point	float // 32 bits double // 64 bits	<pre>float // unspecified double // unspecified</pre>		
Logical type	boolean	<pre>#include <stdbool.h> bool conditional tests that evaluate to 0 are false, true for all other values</stdbool.h></pre>		
Constants	final int MAX = 1000;	<pre>// two alternatives to do this #define MAX 1000 // C preprocessor const int MAX = 1000;</pre>		

Caution: Char type can be either signed or unsigned

- unsigned char: 8 bits positive values only 0 to 255
- signed char: 8 bits negative & positive values (-128 to +127)
- char (with no modifier): 8-bit (signed or unsigned: implementation dependent)

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

int
main(void)
{
    char c = 255;
    printf("%d\n", (int)c);
    return EXIT_SUCCESS;
}
```

- variable c is being cast promoted to an int
- So, what is printed?
 - Depends on the hardware
- On arm (pi-cluster)
 - char default is unsigned
 255
- On Intel 64-bit (ieng6)
 - char default is signed

-1

Fixed size types in C (later addition to C)

- Sometimes programs need to be written for a particular range of integers or for a particular size of storage, regardless of what machine the program runs on
- In the file <stdint.h> the following fixed size types are defined for use in these situations:

Signed Data types	Unsigned Data types	Exact Size
int8_t	uint8_t	8 bits (1 byte)
int16_t	uint16_t	16 bits (2 bytes)
int32_t	uint32_t	32 bits (4 bytes)
int64_t	uint64_t	64 bits (8 bytes)

C vs Java: Expression Type Promotions, Demotions, Casts

- Java: demotions are <u>not</u> automatic
 C: demotions are automatic
- Cast: a unary operator (variable_type) explicitly converts the type the value of an expression to variable_type
- To explicitly get the floating-point equivalent of the integer variable a you would use a cast and write (float)a

Java versus C: Mostly Similar Syntax

```
int x = 42 + (7 * -5);
double pi = 3.14159;
char c = 'Q';
```

```
for (int i = 0; i < end; i++) { // variable i is a loop guard
    if (i % 2 == 0) {
        x += i;
    }
}</pre>
```

```
int i; // i initial value is undefined
...
if (i)    /* is the same as (i != 0) */
    statement1;
else
    statement2;
```

Which statement is executed after the if statement test?

Depends on what value of i, is i zero or non-zero

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();
```

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)

C Function Definitions - 1

- C Functions are not methods
 - no classes, no objects
- C function definition
 - returns a value of returnType
 - zero or more *typed* parameters
- Every program must have initial (start) function: int main()
- main() is the first function in your code to run/execute
 - main() is not the first function to run in a Linux process, it is the C runtime startup code
 - later in course
 - You should never make a call to main() from your code

```
returnType fname(type param1, ..., type paramN)
{
    function definition
    // statements
    return value;
}
```

 x

C Function Definitions - 2

remember this is a pre-processor (cpp) macro it is not a variable, it is a "substitution"

- A function of type void does not return a value
- A void parameter or an empty parameter list specifies this is a function with no parameters
 - A common practice is to use the keyword void to specify an empty or an ignored parameter list
- At runtime, function arguments are evaluated, then the resulting value is COPIED to a memory location allocated for the argument (like a local variable)
 - So, functions are **free to change** parameter values in their body without side effect to the calling function
 - C Parameter passing is called: call by value

```
// prints sum of integers 1 to MAX
#define MAX 8

int
sum(void) // or sum()
{
  int i, total = 0;

  for (i = 1; i <= MAX; i++) {
    total += i;
  }

  return total;
}</pre>
```

C Function Definitions - 3

• In standard C, functions cannot be nested (defined) inside of another function (called *local functions in other languages*)

```
int outer(int i)
{
    int inner(int j) // do not do this, not in standard c
    {
      }
}
```

Assignment inside conditional test with a function call (this is very common!)

```
if ((i = SomeFunction()) != 0) 
    statement1;
else
    statement2;
```

assignment returns the value that is placed into the variable to the **left of the = sign**, then the test is made

Textbook Over-ride: Linux Return Value Convention

- In your code, main() is the first function to start to execute and usually the last
- Linux uses a convention on signaling errors at process termination to the "shell"
 - Remember checking return values in CSE15L scripts?
 - It is the value often associated with the return statement from main()
- In this class, <u>always</u> use the Linux standard return codes as defined in <stdlib.h> when returning from main() or exiting your program

```
EXIT_SUCCESS // program completed ok; usually 0
EXIT_FAILURE // program completed with error; non-zero value
return EXIT_SUCCESS;
```

 c

Setting program termination return (status) values

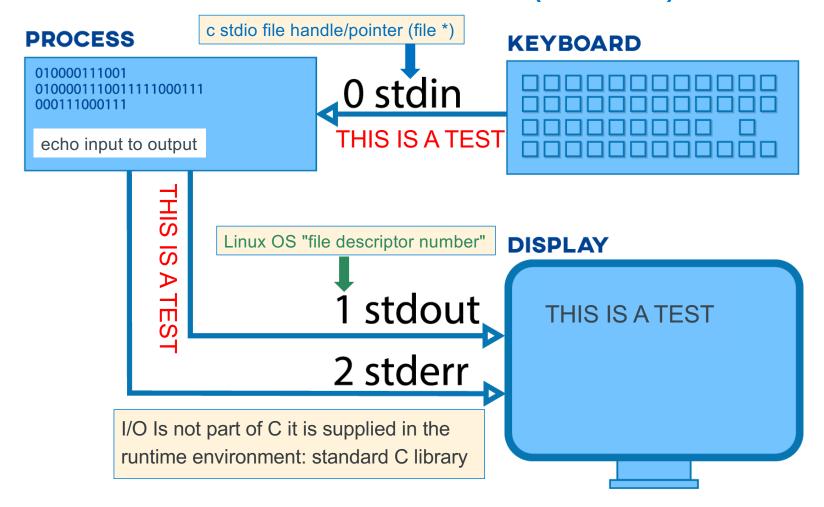
Indicating your program operated correctly

```
#include <stdio.h>
#include <stdlib.h>
int
main(void) {
    /* Your code here */
    /* code was successful */
    return EXIT_SUCCESS;
}
```

Indicating your program operated incorrectly/errors

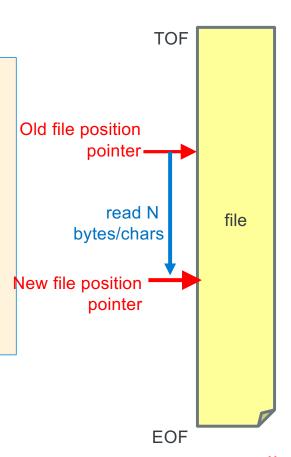
```
#include <stdio.h>
#include <stdlib.h>
int
main(void) {
    /* Your code here */
    /* a failure occurred */
    return EXIT_FAILURE;
}
```

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

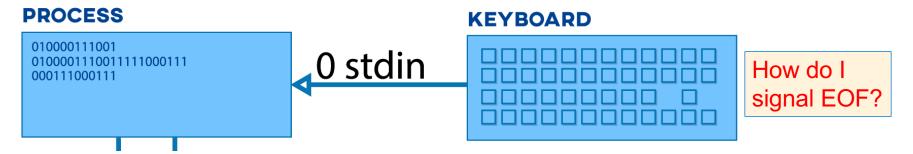


stdio File I/O – File Position Pointer

- Read/write functions advance the file position pointer from TOF towards EOF after each call to a read/write function
 - position pointer moves towards EOF by number of bytes read/written
 - This is called Sequential I/O (sequential read & sequential write)
- EOF condition during a read operation
 - After the last byte is read in a file, additional reads results in a function return value of EOF
 - EOF is NOT a character in the file, but a condition on the stream
 - EOF signals no more data is available to be read
 - EOF is usually a #define EOF -1 macro located in the file stdio.h



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

C Library Function: Simple Formatted Printing

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

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

```
int fprintf(FILE *file, const char *format, ...);
Write chars to the file identified by file (stdout, stderr are already open)
Convert values to chars, as directed by format
Return count of chars successfully written
Format is the output specifications enclosed in a "string"
Returns a negative value if an error occurs
int printf(const char *format, ...); // *format - Later in course
Equivalent to fprintf(stdout, format, ...);
Type % man 3 printf for more information on format
```

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
```

 c^{c}

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

vint 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 the next input character (if present) promoted to an int read from stdin
- 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

Why is character I/O using an int?

Answer: Needs to indicate an EOF (-1) condition that is not a valid char

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
```

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

70 X

Background: What is a Definition?

- **Definition**: creates an <u>instance</u> of a *thing*
- There **must be exactly <u>one</u>** definition of each *function or variable* (no duplicates)
- In C you must define a variable or a function before first use in your code
- Function definition (compiler actions)
 - 1. creates code you wrote in the functions body
 - 2. allocates memory to store the code
 - 3. binds the function name to the allocated memory
- Variable definitions (compiler actions)
 - 1. allocates memory: generate code to allocate space for local variables
 - 2. initialize memory: generate code to initialize the memory for local variables
 - 3. binds (or associates) the variable name to the allocated memory

Background: What is a Declaration?

Declaration: describes a *thing* – specifies types, does not create an instance

- Each declaration has an associated *identifier* (the name)
- 1. Function prototype describes how to write the code to call a function defined elsewhere
 - Identifier is the function name
 - 1. Describes the type of the function return value
 - 2. Describes the types of each of the parameters
- 2. Variable declaration describes how to write the code to use a variable in a statement
 - Identifier is the variable name
 - Describes the type of a variable that is defined elsewhere
- 3. Derived and defined type description
 - Identifier describes the derived/defined type
 - struct, arrays, plus others (covered later)
- An identifier may be declared multiple times, but only defined once
- A definition is also a declaration in C

Definitions and Declarations Use in C

You must declare a function or variable before you use it

• Warning: Use before declaration will implicitly default to int

sumit() is defined and declared here

Independent Translation Unit: the granularity (unit) of source which is compiled or assembled

Default Definition and declaration validity:

- Restricted to the file (translation unit) where they are located and
- Start at the point of definition or declaration in the file to the end of the source file (translation unit)

Restrictions that we need to relax

- (1) sum() must be defined in the same source files
- (2) sum() appear before it is used by main()

```
#include <stdio.h>
#include <stdlib.h>
#define MAX 8
                   i, sum, are defined
int sumit(int max)
                   and declared here
  int i, sum = 0;
  for (i = 1; i <= max; i++) {
    sum += i;
  return sum;
int main(void)
  printf("sum: %d\n", sumit(MAX));
  return EXIT SUCCESS;
```

sumit() is used here

Function Prototypes: Creating a Function Declaration

Function prototype is a function declaration in C

```
returnType fname(type_1, ..., type_n); // function prototype
```

- Function prototype is function definition header followed by a single semicolon (;) NO code block
- Describes the function from that point in the source file
- C requires the function declaration to be seen in the source file before use
- A function prototype for sum() enables:
- 1. body of sum() to be either after main() in the same source file **or**
- 2. body of sum() to be in a different source file

Common practice: Function prototypes in a .C file are usually placed at the top the file

this is the code block

```
#include <stdlib.h>
#define NUM 100
int sum(int);  // function declaration starts here
int main(void)
{
    sum(NUM);  // rest of code not shown
    return EXIT_SUCCESS;
}
int sum(int max) // function definition is here
{
    int i, sum = 0;
    for (i = 1; i <= max; i++) {
        sum += i;
    }
    return sum;
}</pre>
```

C Variable Storage Lifetime

- 1. Static Storage Lifetime: valid while program is executing
 - Storage allocated and initialized prior to runtime (implicit default = 0)
- 2. Automatic Storage Lifetime: valid while enclosing block is activated
 - Storage allocated and is not implicitly initialized (value = garbage) by executing code when entering scope
- 3. Allocated Storage Lifetime: valid from point of allocation until freed or program termination
 - Storage allocated by call to an allocator function (malloc() etc.) at runtime and is not implicitly initialized (value = garbage) - one allocator does initialize to zero at runtime calloc() – later in course
- 4. Thread Storage Lifetime: valid while thread is executing (not CSE 30)

C and Scope

- Scope: Range (or the extent) of instructions over which a name/identifier is allowed be referenced by C instructions/statements
 - 1. File Scope: Range is within a single source file (also called a translation unit)
 - 2. Block Scope: Range is within an enclosing block (for variables only)

```
int global;

// global variable with file scope

void
foo(int parm)

{
    int i, j = 5;
    for (int k = 0; k < 10; i++) {
        // some code
    }
}

// global variable with file scope

// parameter parm block scope begins
// function body (block) begins
// variables with block scope
// inner block scope
// inner block scope
// function body ends</pre>
```

Nested Scope

• **Nested Scope:** When two different variables have the same name are in scope at the same time, the declaration (remember definitions are also declarations) that appears in the inner scope hides the declaration that appears in the outer scope

Variables in C

- Global variables
 - Defined at file scope (outside of a block)
 - · have static storage duration
 - global variables defined without an initial value default to 0 (set prior to program execution start)
 - global variables defined with an initial value are set at program start
- Local (block scope) variables (including function parameter variables)
 - Defined at block scope (inside of a block)
 - have automatic storage duration
 - block scope variables defined without an initial value have an undefined initial value
 - block scope variables defined with an initial are set each time the block is entered
 - All block scope variables become undefined at block exit
- Variable definitions preceded by the keyword static have static storage duration including variables defined with block scope

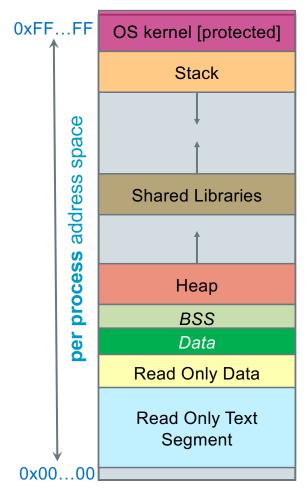
Example: Block scope (local) static storage duration variables

```
#include <stdio.h>
#include <stdlib.h>
#define MAX 5
int foo(void)
    static int s = 0; //static storage duration, set to 0 at program start
    return s += 1;
int main(void)
   for (int i = 0; i < MAX; i++)
        printf("%d ", foo());
    return EXIT_SUCCESS;
                                                          % ./a.out
                                                          1 2 3 4 5
                                                          %
```

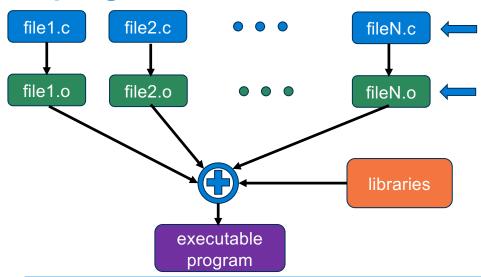
Where things are in Memory

- When your program is running it has been loaded into memory and is called a process (under the control of the OS)
- Stack segment: Local variables: defined in functions
 - Allocated/freed at function call entry & exit
- Data segment + BSS: Global and static variables
 - Allocated/freed when the entire process starts/exits
 - · BSS Static variables with an implicit initial value
 - · Static Data Initialized with an explicit initial value
- Heap segment: dynamically-allocated (during runtime) variables
 - Allocated with a function call to a library routine
 - Managed by the library routines linked to your code
- · Read Only Data: immutable Literals
- Text: Your code in machine language + non-shared libraries

Process memory during execution



Real programs are distributed across multiple files



Example: fixing a bug in a existing program

- 1. You fix bug in just fileN.c
- 2. Only need to recompile fileN.c to FileN.o (all the other .o files are fine)
- 3. Relink all .o files and libraries
- 4. Test the executable

- Large programs in one source file can be very difficult to manage
 - Consider a program with many millions of lines of code
 - And there are 100's developers working on it, changing source parts of the code
 - The program is being rebuilt (compiled/linked) and tested several times a day
- Approach: Break a program into individual translation units (source files)
 - Compile them individually and then link them together
 - Only need to recompile those source files that have changed

Controlling Linkage Across Files in Multi-File C Programs

- Linkage determines whether an object (like a variable or a function) can be referenced outside the source file it is defined in
- External Linkage: function and variables with external linkage can be referenced anywhere in the entire program
 - Global variables and all functions have external linkage by default
 - Unless explicitly declared, the default type is int for both functions and global variables
 - **However**, the compiler must know the correct types before the use of a function or a variable, so it is able to generate the correct code
 - NEVER DEPEND implicit default typing
 - Use function prototypes to declare functions before use
 - Use the keyword extern to "extend the visibility", e.g., declare a global variable before use

```
// example here is at file scope
extern int x; // declaration
int x = 10; // definition
```

Controlling Linkage Across Files in Multi-File C Programs

- Internal Linkage (private): function and global variables with internal linkage can only be referenced in the same source file
 - Global variables and functions can be changed to internal linkage by using the keyword static in front of the definition (confusingly another use of the word static)
 - Use of the keyword static in front of a global variable definition or function definition
 changes it to internal linkage and effectively makes it private to the file they are defined in
 (It cannot be referenced by another file
 - Function definitions in different files (translation units) can re-use the same name if at most one has external linkage (all others must be internal linkage)
- No Linkage: function parameters, variables defined inside a block (including a functions body)
 - Remember: the keyword static in front of a block scope variable changes the variable to static storage duration (it does not change the linkage)

Linkage Examples

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Creating Public Interface files (header files)

- To enable a source file to use any of the functions, global variables, and MACROS defined in another file (separate translation unit)
 - You must create a file that exports all permitted accesses so the compiler can generate the correct code
- Convention: For each source file, file.c, the public interface file is file.h
- If a file has no external interfaces, then it does not need a
 .h file

declarations

file.h
exported information
how to use functions etc. in file.h

file.c

definitions

the definitions of functions etc.

- file.h contains any
 - public preprocessor macros
 - function prototypes for the functions defined in the source file, file.c that you want visible (exported) for use (called) by functions defined in other source files
 - global variable declarations (external linkage)
 - Do not put any <u>definition statements</u> in a header file

- file.c contains
 - All function and global variable definitions (internal and external linkage)
 - Any private preprocessor macros
 - Any private (internal linkage) function prototypes

Creating Public Interface files (header files)

- Always #include your own declaration files BEFORE any definitions
 - compiler will then check that the definition and declarations are consistent

using the public interface

```
// myprog.c
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <stdio.h>
#include "file.h"

// code not shown
int main(void)
{
// body not shown
}
```

public interface for file.c

```
// file.h
#ifndef FILE_H
#define FILE_H

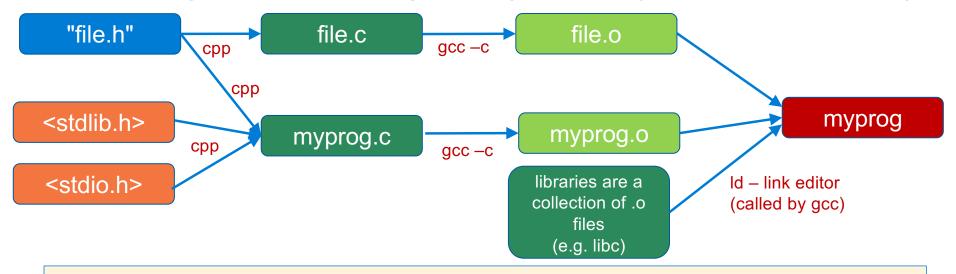
#define MAX 5

extern int global;
int A(int);
char B(int, int);
#endif
```

```
// file.c
#include <stdlib.h>
#include "file.h"
static int P(char );
        // above: private function prototype
int global;  // initial value is 0
static int private = 1; // private global
int A(int c)
// body not shown
char B(int x, int y)
// body not shown
static int P(char z)
// body not shown
```

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Compiling Multi-File Programs (assembly steps not shown)



1. compile each .c file independently to a .o object file (incomplete machine code)

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

2. link all the .o objects files and library's (aggregation of multiple .o files) to produce an executable file (complete machine code) (gcc calls ld, the linker)

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

Reference Slides

- Slides in this section are not used in class but contain material that you will find useful
- You are NOT responsible for their contents

Note: Sorry for the "poor" code indentation; adjusted to fit into the table

	Java	C
Overall Program Structure	<pre>public class Hello { public static void main (String[] args) { System.out.println(</pre>	<pre>source file: hello.c #include <stdio.h> #include <stdlib.h> int main(void) { printf("hello world!\n"); return EXIT_SUCCESS; }</stdlib.h></stdio.h></pre>
Access a library	import java.io.File;	<pre>#include <stdio.h> // may need to specify library at compile time with -llibname</stdio.h></pre>
Building	% javac Hello.java	% gcc -Wall -Wextra -Werror hello.c -o hello
Running (execution)	% java Hello hello world!	% ./hello hello world!

	Java	С
Strings	String s1 = "Hello";	<pre>char *s1 = "Hello"; // pointer version char s1[] = "Hello"; // array version</pre>
String Concatenation	s1 + s2 s1 += s2;	<pre>#include <string.h> strcat(s1, s2);</string.h></pre>
Logical ops	&&, , !	&&, , !
Relational ops	==, !=, <, >, <=, >=	==, !=, <, >, <=, >=
Arithmetic ops	+, -, *, /, %, unary -	+, -, *, /, %, unary -
Bitwise ops	<<, >>, <mark>>>>, &, ^, , ~</mark>	<<, >>, &, ^, , ~
Assignment ops	=, +=, -=, *=, /=, %=, <<=, >>=, >>>=, &=, ^=, =	=, +=, -=, *=, /=, %=, <<=, >>=, &=, ^=, =

	Java	С
Arrays	<pre>int [] a = new int [10]; float [][] b = new float [5][20];</pre>	<pre>int a[10]; float b[5][20];</pre>
Array bounds checking	// run time checking	// no run time checks - speed optimized
Pointer type	<pre>// Object reference is an // implicit pointer</pre>	<pre>int *p; char *p;</pre>
Record type	<pre>class Mine { int x; float y; }</pre>	<pre>struct Mine { int x; float y; };</pre>

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	Java	C
if, switch, for, do-while, while, continue, break, return	// equivalent	// equivalent
exceptions	throw, try-catch-finally	// no equivalent
labeled break	break somelabel;	// no equivalent
labeled continue	continue somelabel;	// no equivalent
calls: Java method C function	<pre>f(x, y, z); someObject.f(x, y, z); SomeClass.f(x, y, z);</pre>	f(x, y, z); // other differences, later

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C Programming Toolchain - Basic Tools

• gcc

 Is a front end for all the tools and by default will turn C source or assembly source into executable programs

preprocessor

 Insertion into source files during compilation or assembly of files containing macros (expanded), declarations etc.

compiler

• Translates C programs into hardware dependent assembly language text files

assembler

· Converts hardware dependent assembly language source files into machine code object files

Linker (or link editor)

- · Combines (links) one or more object files and libraries into executable program files
- this may include modification of the code to resolve uses with definitions and relocate addresses

C Programming Toolchain: The Source files

- The C development toolchain uses several different file types (indicated by .suffix in the filename)
- filename.h public interface "header or include files" often used as <filename.h> or "filename.h"
 - common contents: public (exported) function and variable declarations, and constants and language macros
 - Processed by **cpp** (the C pre-processor) to do inline expansion of the include file contents and insert it into a source file before the compilation starts, enables consistency
- filename.c
 - a source text file in C language source
 - Processed by gcc
- filename.S
 - a source text file in hardware specific assembly language (programmer created)
 - processed by gcc which calls gas (assembler)
- filename.s
 - machine generated by the compiler from a .c file
 - processed by gcc which calls gas (assembler)

C Programming Toolchain: The Generated files

- filename.o "relocatable object file"
 - Compiled from a single source file in a .c file or assembled from a single .s file into machine code
 - A .o file is an incomplete program (not all references to functions or variables are defined) this code will not execute
 - The .o and .c, .s, or .S files share the same root name by convention
 - created by gcc calling ld (linkage editor)
- library.a "static library file"
 - aggregation of individual .o files where each can be extracted independently
 - during the process of combining .o files into an executable by the linkage editor, the files are extracted as needed to resolve missing definitions
 - created by ar, processed by Id (usually invoked via gcc)
- a.out "executable program"
 - Executable program (may be a combination of one or more .o files and .a files) that was compiled or assembled into machine code and all variables and functions are defined
 - processed by Id (usually invoked via gcc)

Basic gcc toolchain usage

- · Run gcc with flags
 - -Wall -Wextra
 - required flag for c programs in cse30
 - output all warning messages
 - -C
 - Optional flag (lower case)
 - Compile or assemble to object file only do not call Id to link
 - creates a .o file
 - · -ggdb
 - Optional flag
 - Compile with debug support (gdb)
 - · generates code that is easier to debug
 - removes many optimizations
 - **-o** <*filename*>
 - specifies *filename* of executable file
 - a.out is the default
 - -S
 - Optional flag (upper case S)
 - · Compiles to assembly text file and stops
 - creates a .s file

- · Producing an executable file
 - gcc –Wall –Wextra -Werror mysrc.c
 - creates an executable file a.out
- To use a specific version of C use of one the std= option
 - gcc -Wall -Wextra -Werror -std=c11 mysrc.c
- Producing an object file with gdb debug support add -ggdb
 - gcc –Wall -Wextra –Werror –c –ggdb mysrc.c
 - · creates an object file mysrc.o
 - gcc –Wall –Wextra -Werror –c –ggdb mymain.c
 - · creates an object file mymain.o
- · Linkage step
 - · combining a program spread across multiple files
 - gcc -Wall -Wextra -Werror -o myprog mymain.o mysrc.o
 - creates executable file myprog
- Compile and linkage of file(s) in one step
 - gcc –Wall –Wextra -Werror -o myprog mysrc.c mymain.c
- run the program (refer to cse15l notes)
 - % ./myprog