

Version 2.18

UCSD CSE 30 Section B

Computer Organization and Systems Programming

C Part 1

Keith Muller

DEC PDP 11/45 - 1973



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/97367536447>
 - Friday: 4:00 PM to 4:45 PM
 - These office hours can be individual or 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

240 pts total – Programming Assignments

190 pts - Midterm – In Person

380 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 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 google 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 20 minutes of lecture



If you have issues with this method,
please contact me

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

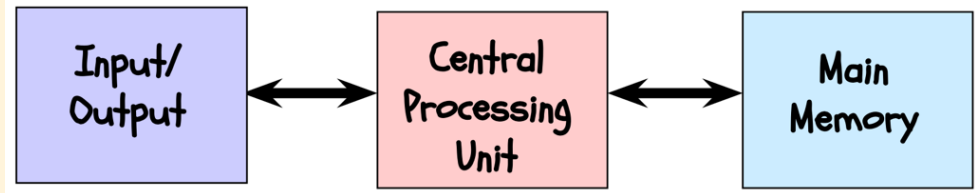
- Go to lecture
 - Before lecture go over the class slides
 - Lecture slides are posted the day before class (last minute updates that morning)
 - Keep your lecture slides up to date (I update them to fix errors and address questions)
- Go to Discussion Sessions
 - ask the TA's and Tutors for help
- 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

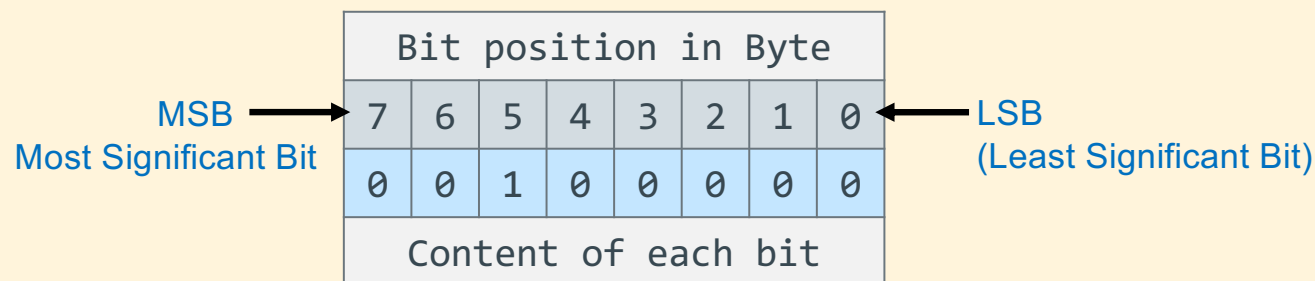
- Since the middle of the 20th century, many **architectural approaches** to the **general-purpose computer** have been tried
- The **architecture** which **nearly all modern computers** are based was proposed by John Von Neuman in the late 1940's
- The **major components** are:



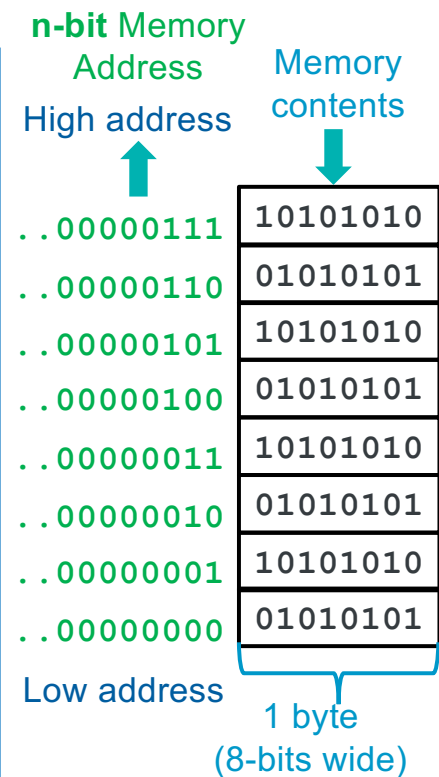
- **Central Processing Unit (CPU)**: a device which **fetches**, **interprets (decodes)**, and **executes** a **specified set of operations** called **instructions**
- **Memory**: **Storage** of **N words** of **W bits**, where **W** is a fixed architectural parameter, and **N** can be expanded to meet **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**

Memory is Organized 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** (*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**
- **Word size: is the number of bits in an address**



2^N Bytes of memory

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
 - Operations they perform
 - Instruction "format" (bit patterns) in memory
 - input/output model

Machine Organization

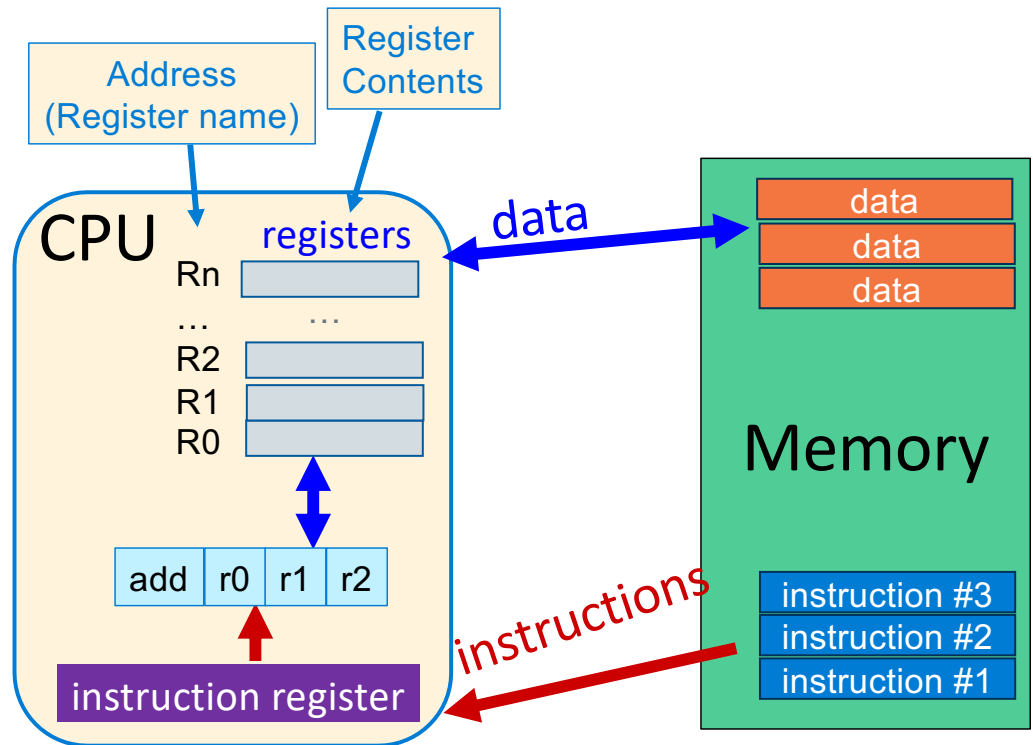
- Physical (design) realization of what is specified by the instruction set architecture
- It deals with how the hardware components are linked together to meet the requirements specified by instruction set architecture
 - The ISA allows variability in the physical design implementation to address different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

Von Neuman Architecture

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

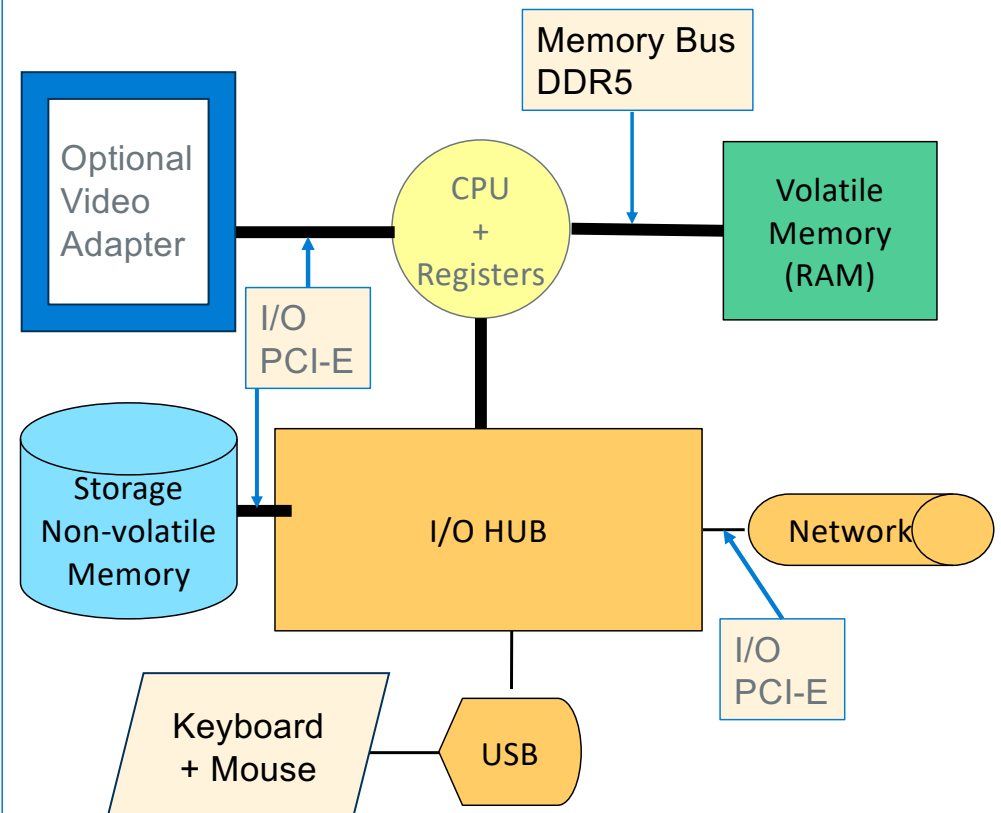
```
81 fe 89 32
81 54 22 af
81 22 10 9A
```

- **Instructions** operate on **data** that is stored in a **small capacity volatile (fast) memory** in the CPU
 - This memory is called **registers**
 - **ARM-32** has 32-bit registers
- CPU **reads/writes data** from **memory** from these **data registers** to **operate on the data**



Machine Organization – Von Neuman

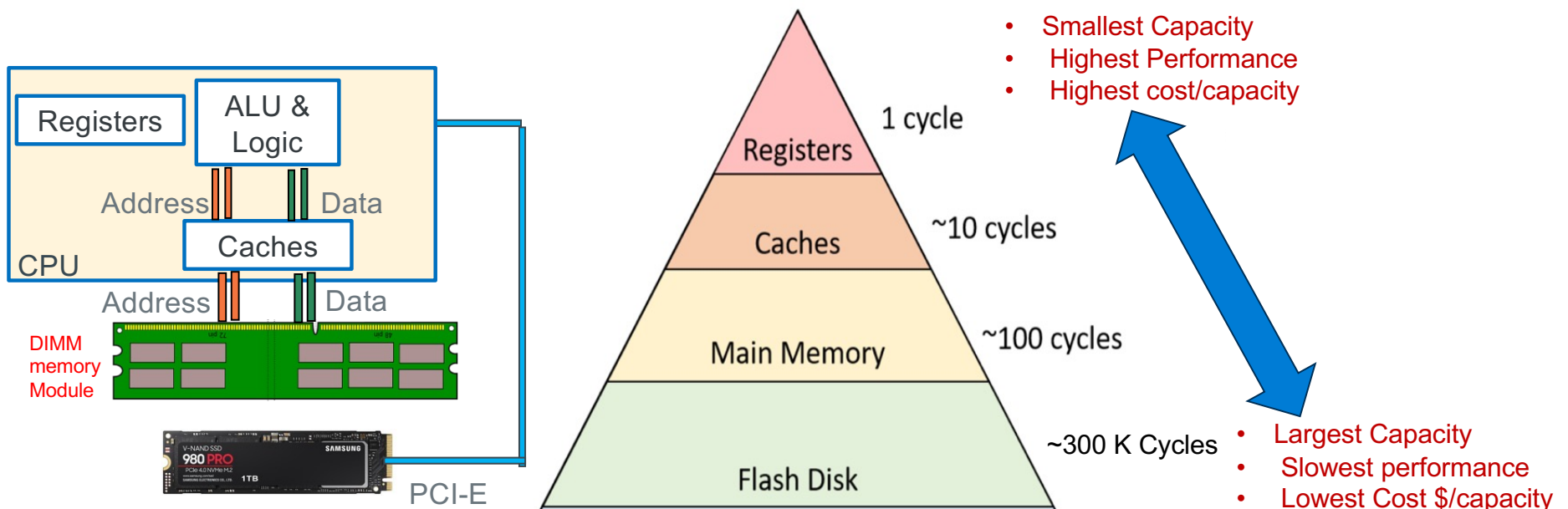
1. CPU executes a machine code program
 - Machine code is specific to a particular CPU Instruction set Architecture (ISA)
2. **Memory** contains **both data and programs**
3. **I/O (input/Output)**: Connects the CPU and memory to the external world
 - An I/O operation is where data (including machine 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 \approx time to access; larger is slower

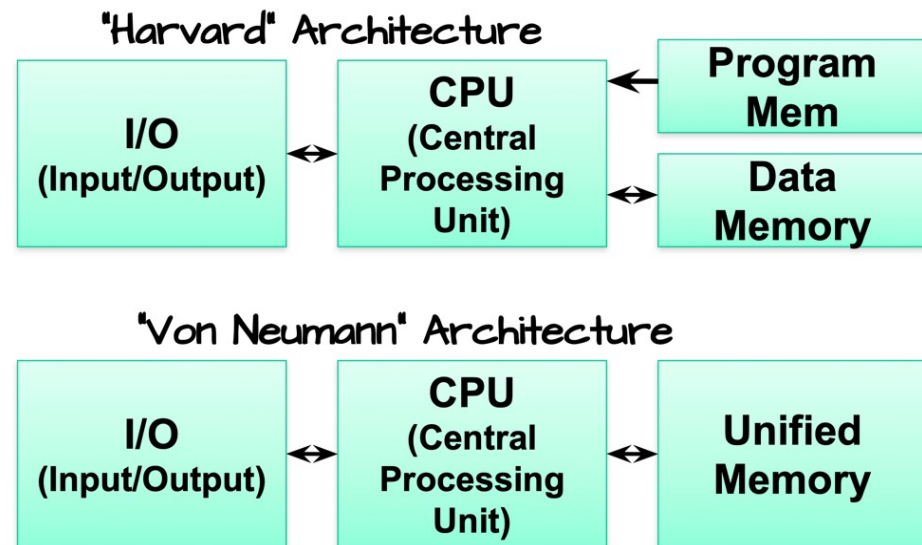


Design Goal: best performance at the lowest (or specific) cost

Other goals: performance/energy (operating cost), expandability, high margin (price/cost)

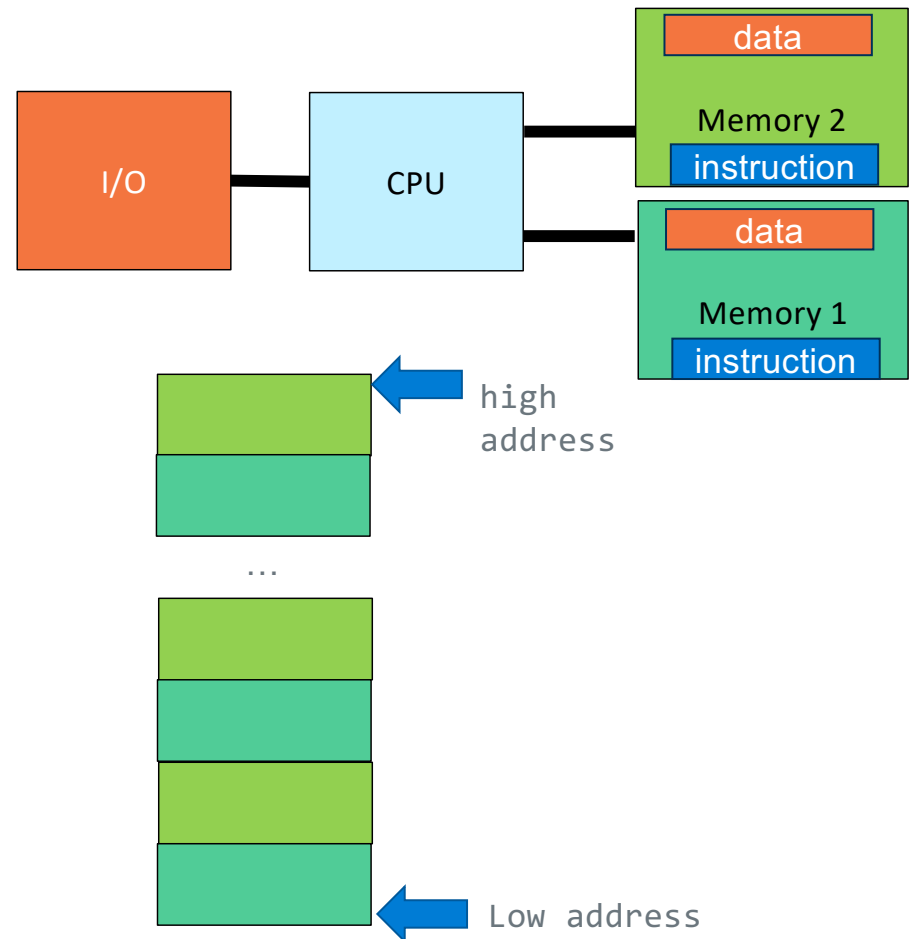
An Alternative that was not successful: Harvard Architecture

- **Harvard architecture premise:**
Instructions and data should not interact (claim is higher performance), and they can have different word sizes
 - **Observation:** Two memory subsystems (using similar state of the art technologies) can be accessed concurrently for higher throughput
- **Distinguishing feature:** Independent instruction and data memories
- Do you agree and why?



Machine Organization Example – Which Architecture is it?

- A good exam question
- Answer: Either you must be told where the Instructions and data are placed
- How can this be a Harvard architecture?
- Harvard Architecture: Use physical **memory interleaving** to achieve the performance increase with having to scale and size two different memory subsystems
- The size of the interleave is some multiple of bytes (like 1024)

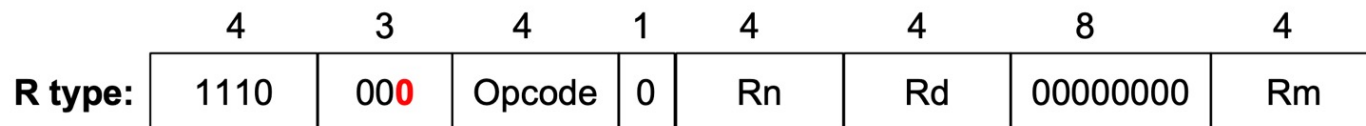


C, Assembly and Executable Programs

- **Assembly language** is a **symbolic version** of the **machine code (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 do you think it is a sequence?)
- **Assembly language program**
 - assembly language program is **translated (assembled)** into **machine code**
- An **executable program** contains
 - **series of instructions in machine code** (the program)
 - (maybe some) **data** to operate on

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

Consider an addition statement
R0 = R1 + R3;



Simple R-type instructions follow the following template:

OP Rd, Rn, Rm

Observe there are only enough bits to specify 16 registers

0000 - AND
0001 - EOR
0010 - SUB
0011 - RSB
0100 - ADD
0101 - ADC
0110 - SBC
0111 - RSC
1000 - TST
1001 - TEQ
1010 - CMP
1011 - CMN
1100 - ORR
1101 - MOV
1110 - BIC
1111 - MVN

Assembly Language (human readable)
ADD R0, R1, R3

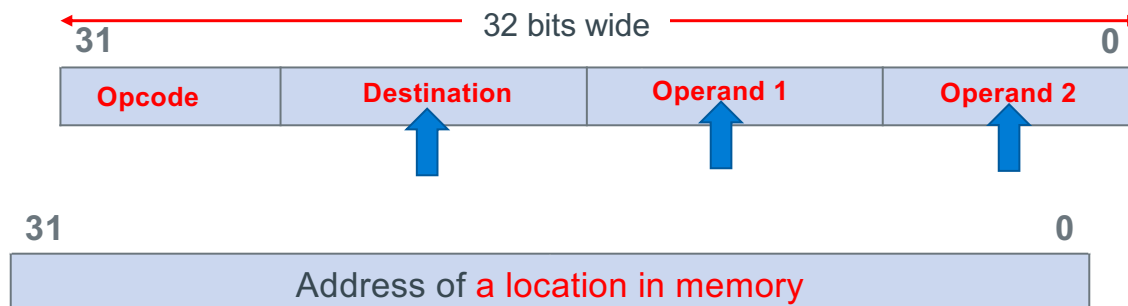
machine code pattern in memory

1110 0000 1000 0001 0000 0000 0011

List of Different operations for this type of instruction

Why only 16 Registers & how to access all of memory

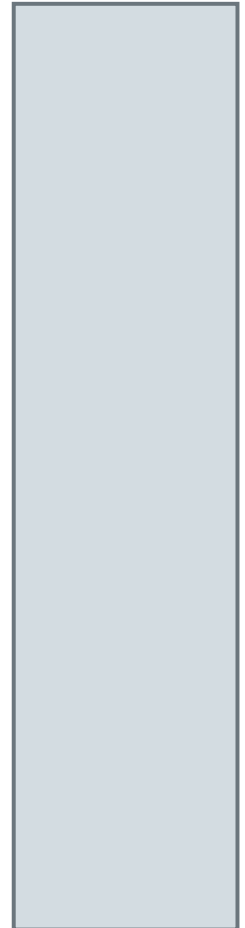
- Consider $a = b + c$ are operands are in memory
 - Operation code: add Destination: a
 - Operand 1: b Operand 2: c
- Aarch32 Instructions were designed to always be: 32 bits wide
 - Some bits must be used to specify the operation code
 - Some bits must be used to specify the destination
 - Some bits must be used to specify the operands
- To address all of memory you must store an **address in a register**
 - ARM-32 registers (the contents) are 32-bits (can contain data or an address)



0xFF...FF

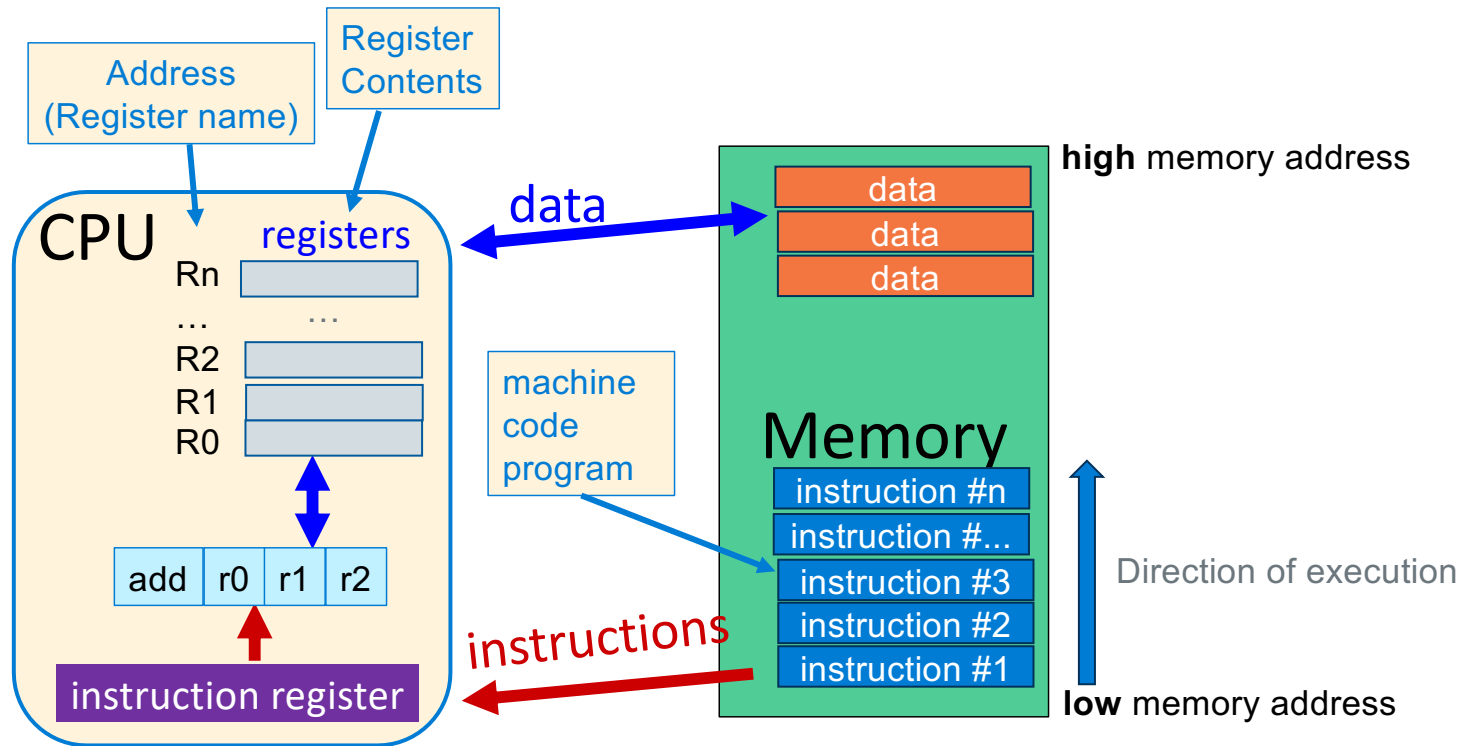
32-bit
Address
space

0x00...00



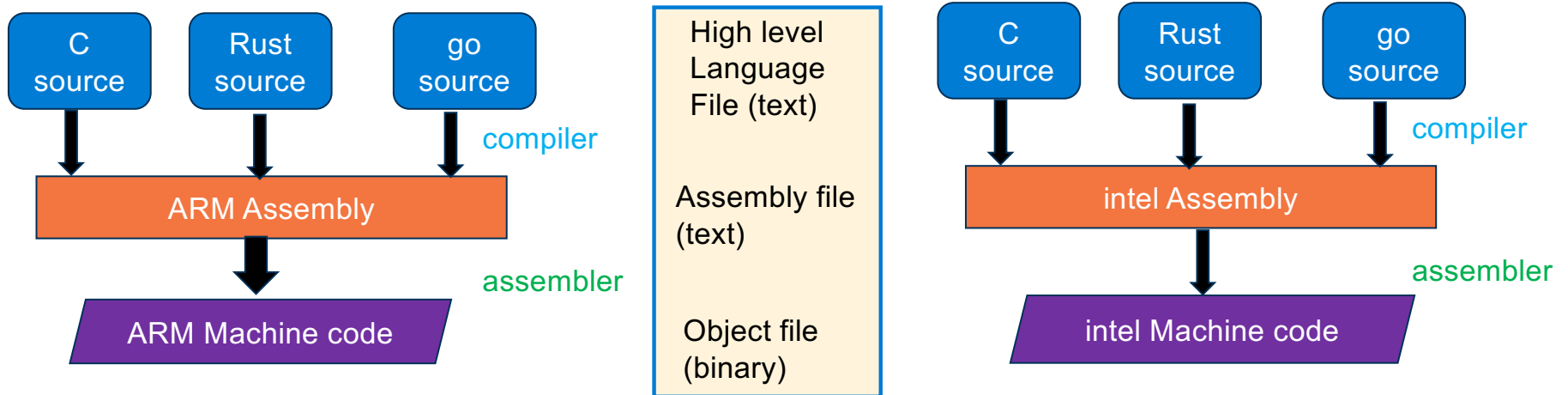
NOT ENOUGH BITS for FULL Addresses to be stored in the instruction

Machine code execution order



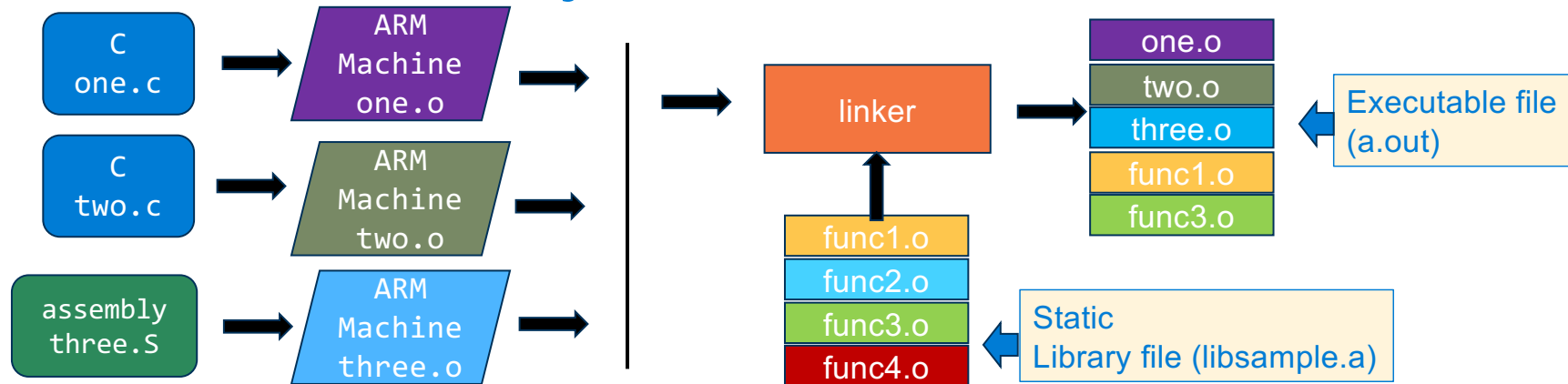
- **Execution order:** Programs execute from instructions located in **low address** memory to **high address** memory stepping **one machine instruction at a time** (called **execution order**) **unless there is a branch** (example: loop, if statement etc.)

From Source to Machine code



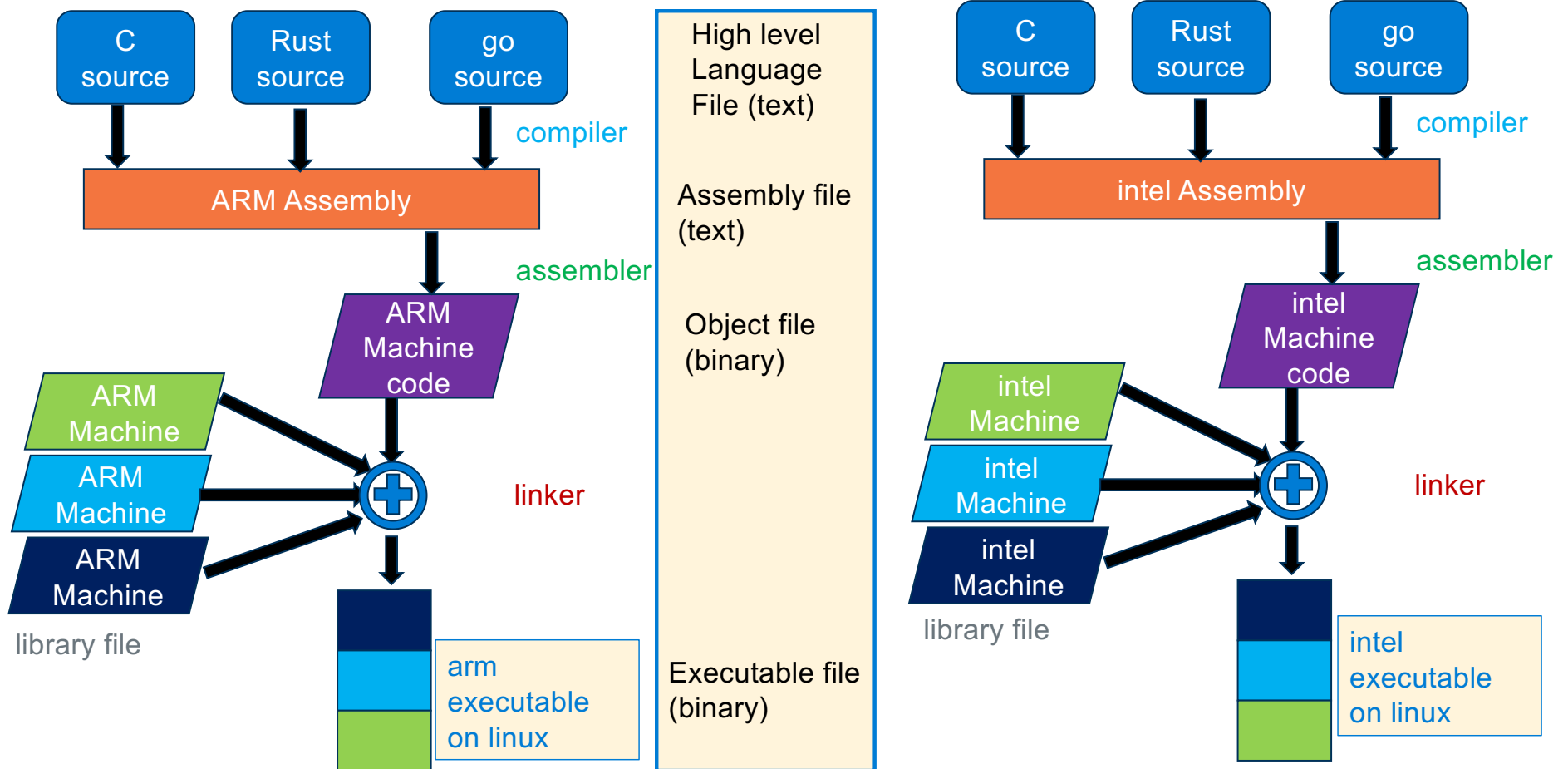
- The **granularity** of **compilation and assembly** is a **single text file** (called a **translation unit**)
 - **.c file** is a C **source** file (file.c)
 - **.S file** (upper case S) is a **human written assembly source** file (file.S)
 - **.s file** (lower case s) is a **compiler generated assemble 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 to Execution: Different ISA



Pi-cluster system (all CSE30 PA's)

ieng6

x

From Source code to Execution

```
$ cat test.c
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <stdio.h>
int main (void)
{
    printf("Hello!\n");
    return EXIT_SUCCESS;
}
```

```
$ gcc -Wall -Wextra -Werror -c -S test.c
```

```
$ ls -ls
```

```
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
```

```
$ ls -ls
```

```
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
```

```
Hello!
```

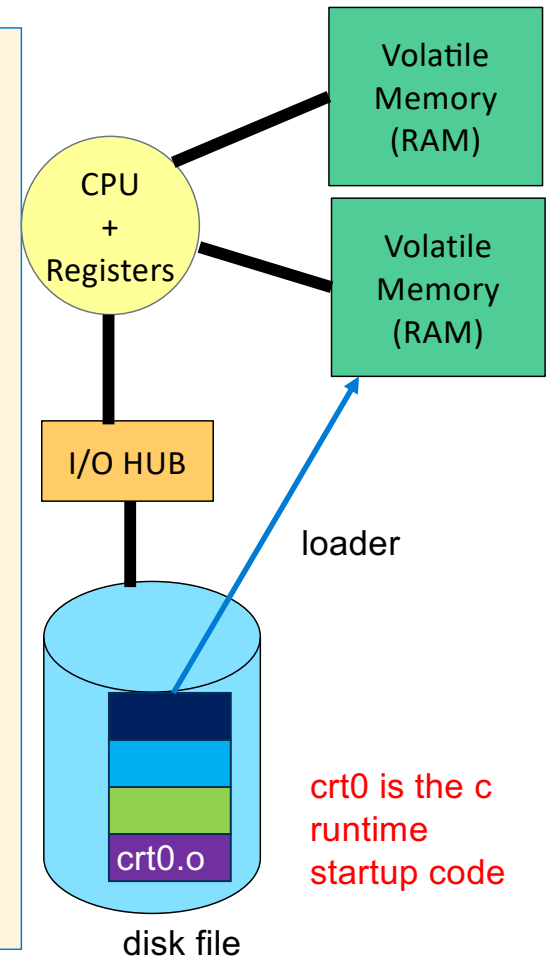
Source to Execution Steps

1. Compile (c source to assembler)
2. Assemble (assembler source to object)
3. Link (Combine object files to executable)
4. Load (Copy executable from into memory)
5. Execute (OS runs the code)

compile: -S -c tells the compiler to only compile to the assembly file
without -S -c compiles + assembles + links in one step
then the next step is not needed

assemble and link the
gcc automatically calls the assembler with .S or .s files

load and then execute



Equivalent Code: C -> Assembly -> Machine

```
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <stdio.h>
int main(void)
{
    printf("Hello!\n");
    return EXIT_SUCCESS;
}
```

C
source

Code aka
TEXT

```
.section .rodata
mesg: .string "Hello!\n"
.text
.global main
.type   main, %function
.equ    FP_OFF, 4
.equ    EXIT_SUCCESS, 0
main:   push    {fp, lr}
        add     fp, sp, FP_OFF
        ldr     r0, L1
        bl      printf
        mov     r0, EXIT_SUCCESS
        sub     sp, fp, FP_OFF
        pop     {fp, lr}
        bx      lr
L1:     .word    mesg
```

ARM-32 assembly

address of mesg

memory address high low bytes
 contents corresponding assembly

```
00010408 <main>:
10408: e92d4800      push {fp, lr}
1040c: e28db004      add fp, sp, 4
10410: e59f0010      ldr r0, [pc, 16] //10428 <L1>
10414: ebffffb3      bl 102e8 <printf@plt>
10418: e3a00000      mov r0, 0
1041c: e24bd004      sub sp, fp, 4
10420: e8bd4800      pop {fp, lr}
10424: e12fff1e      bx lr
```

Machine code (instructions)

```
00010428 <L1>:
10428: 0001049c
```

address of mesg

```
0001049c <mesg>:
1049c: 6c6c6548      // 'l', 'l', 'e', 'h'
104a0: 000a216f      // '\0', '\n', '!', 'o'
```

Data

Introduction: C Program Structure (Single file)

```
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <stdio.h>
/*
 * This is a block comment
 */
// this is a line comment

int main(int argc, char *argv[]) // or int main() or int main(void)
{
    char x = '\n';
    printf("Hello World!%c", x);
    return EXIT_SUCCESS;
}
```

directives to the preprocessor

main() is the first function to run
Every executable program must have one function called main()

char literal '\n'

library function for writing to stdout

string literal "Hello World!%c"

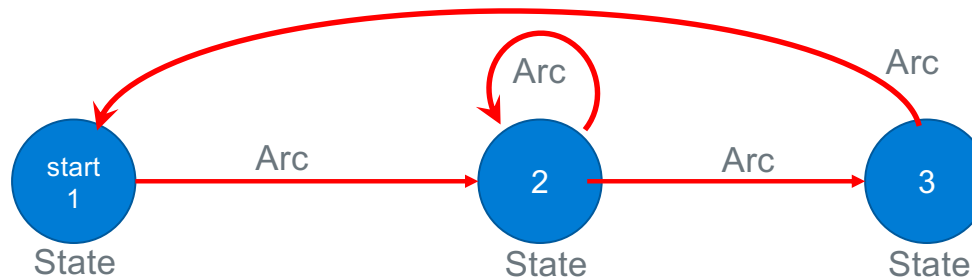
// "Hello World!\n"
// main always returns either
// EXIT_SUCCESS or EXIT_FAILURE

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 – a "path"*) **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 **current state** of the machine
 - **Current state** "*remembers*" the **input sequence seen so far** by the machine
- **Whenever a state is entered**, it "**reads**" to get the next input (except the **end** state – next slide)



Machine States and Transitions

- Two Special states

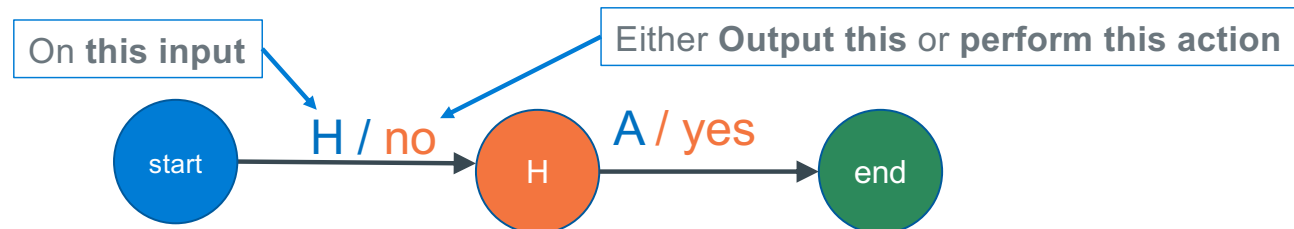
-  **start** state (machine starts "powers up" in this state) **required**
-  **end** state (done or final state) **not required** – if not present **DFA** runs forever

- 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

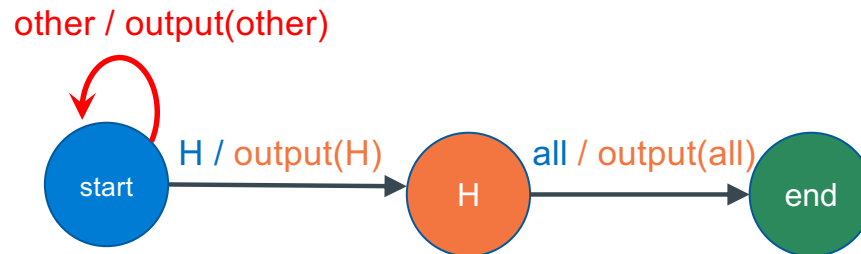
- Example: FSA machine below** recognizes the sequence **HA** on an input stream, then stops

- Question:** what is missing here? – **What do we do for inputs NOT specified?**



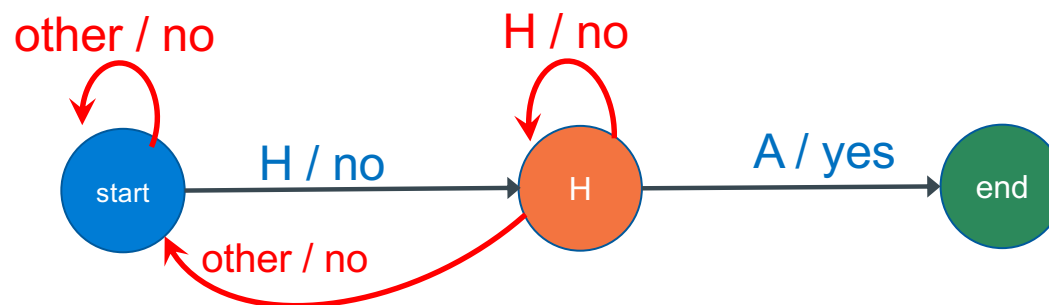
Arc labeling

- **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
 - this **must be the only arc out of the state**
 - **Question:** Is the **all** label really needed?
 - If you need to output the actual input character, you will label the arch as:
all / output(all)

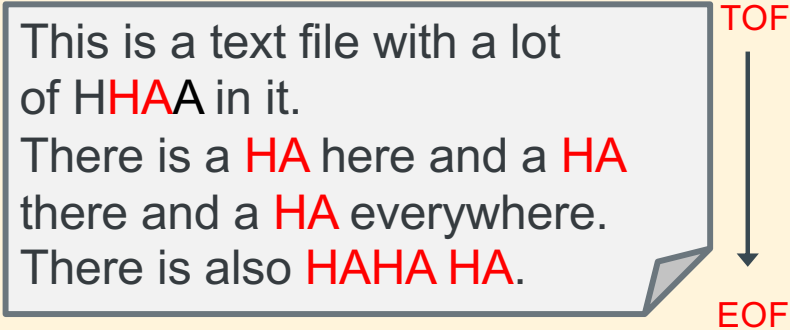


Designing a Deterministic Finite State Automaton

- **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 one 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)



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.

TOF

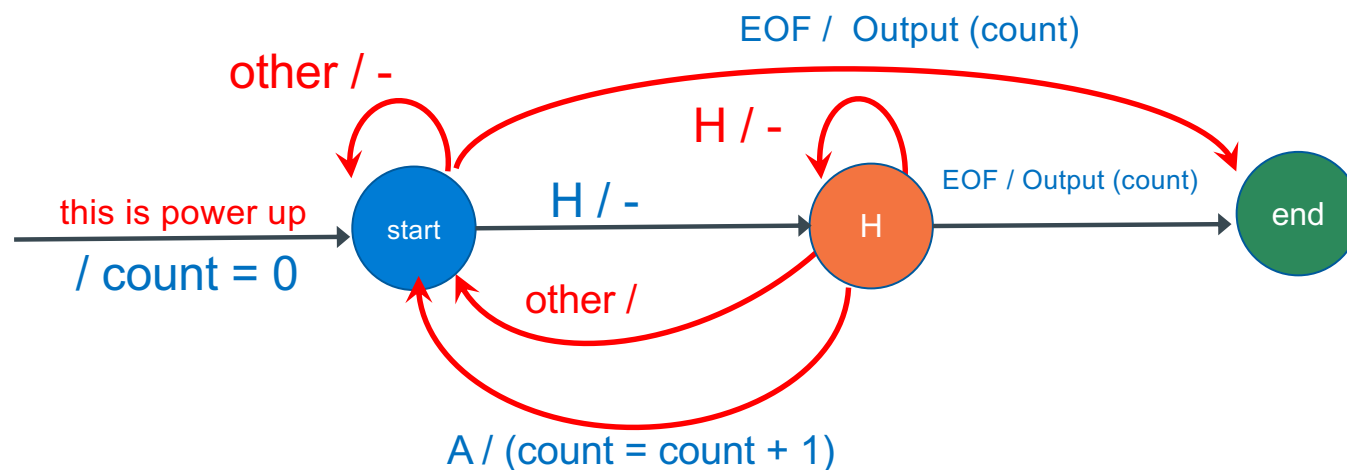
↓

EOF

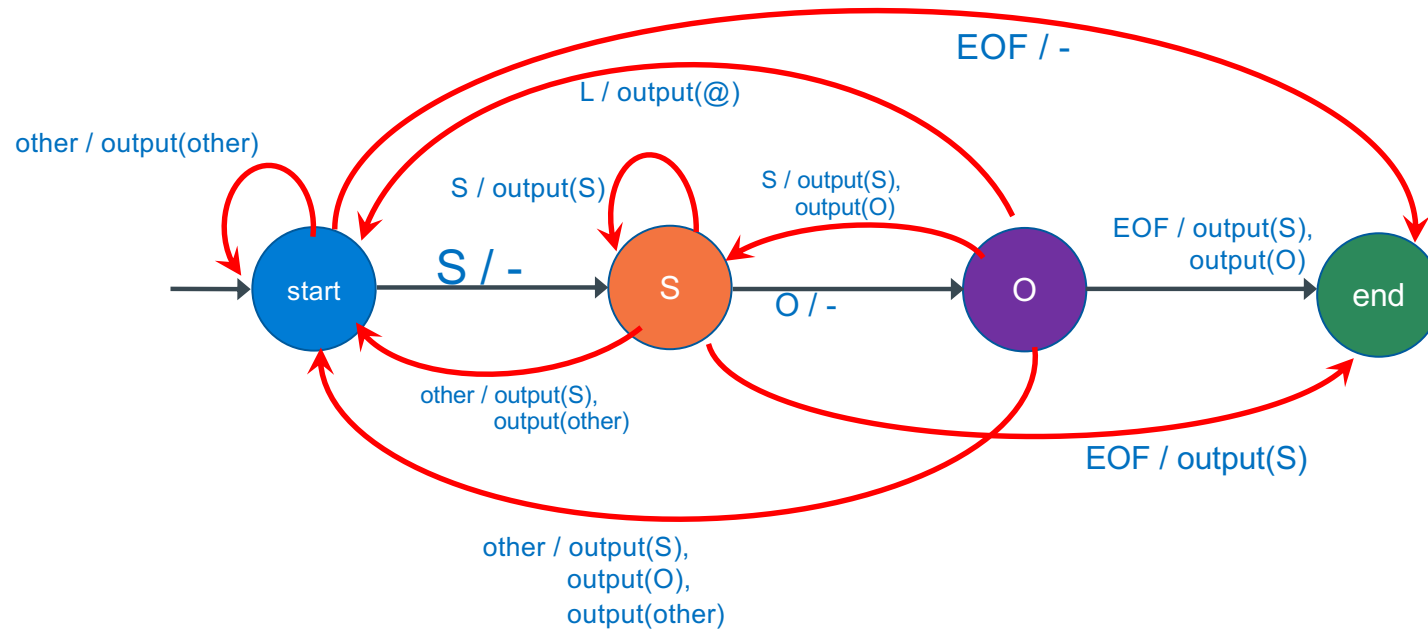
The diagram shows a light gray rectangular box representing a text file. Inside the box, there is text with several instances of the pattern 'HA' highlighted in red. To the right of the box, a vertical arrow points downwards from the top of the box to the bottom. The top of the arrow is labeled 'TOF' and the bottom is labeled 'EOF'.
- **Action:** Alter the machine to process input from the file in sequential order until the end of the file (EOF) is reached

DFA counting the instances of a pattern - 2

- We will adjust the DFA to **act on continuous input** (multiple instances of the pattern)
 - And to count the number of HA patterns
- 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**

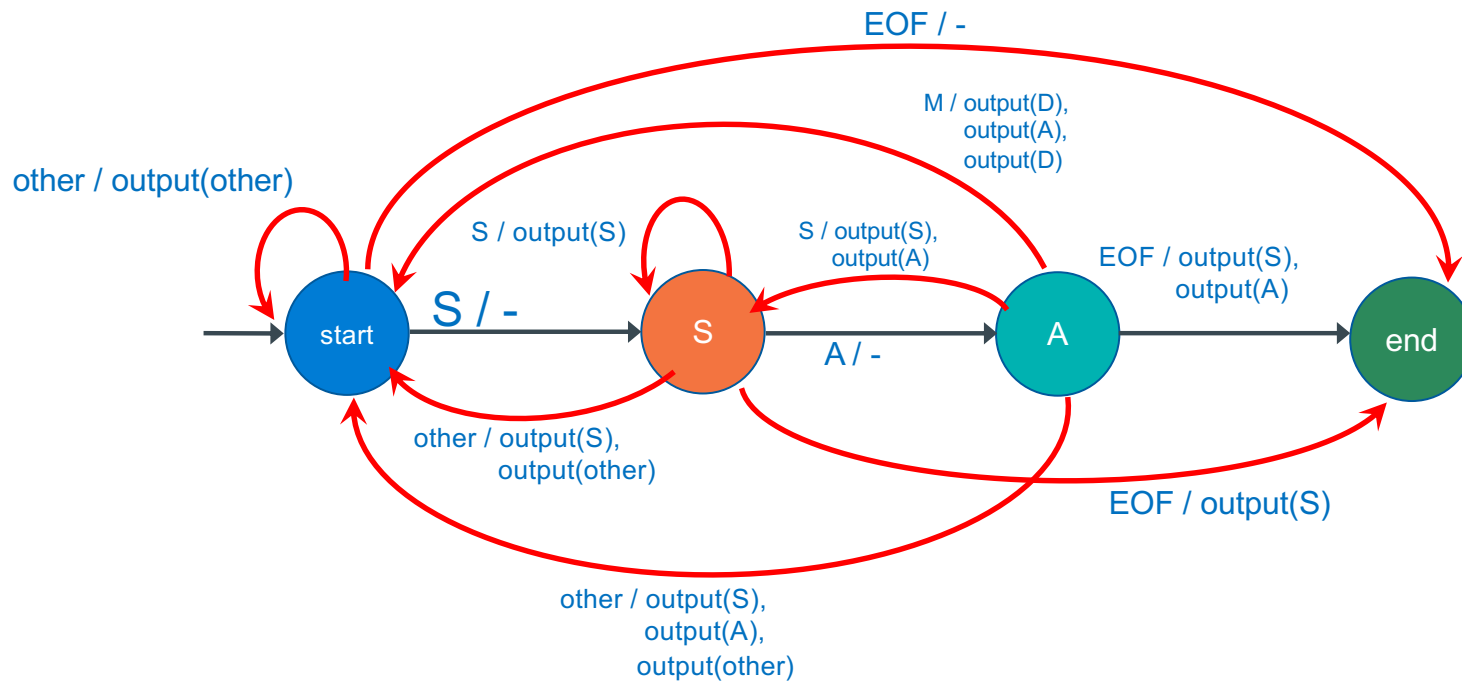


Merging DFA's: Step one design each sequence -1



This DFA replaces SOL with a @

Merging DFA's: Step one design each sequence - 2



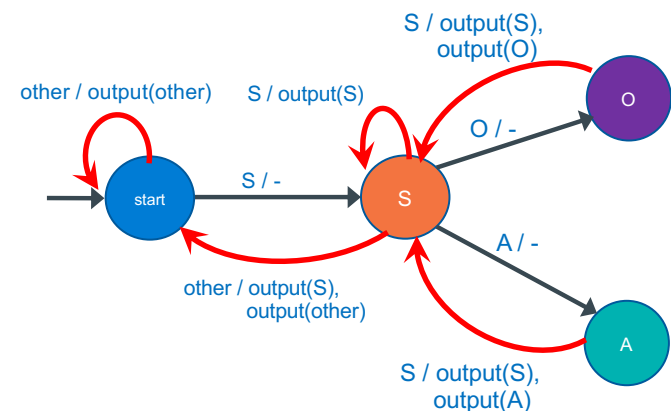
This DFA replaces SAM with DAD

Merging DFA's: Step one design each sequence - 3

- To merge two DFA's
 - **combine common states**
 - make sure all the arcs out of the combined states represent the arcs in the two DFA's

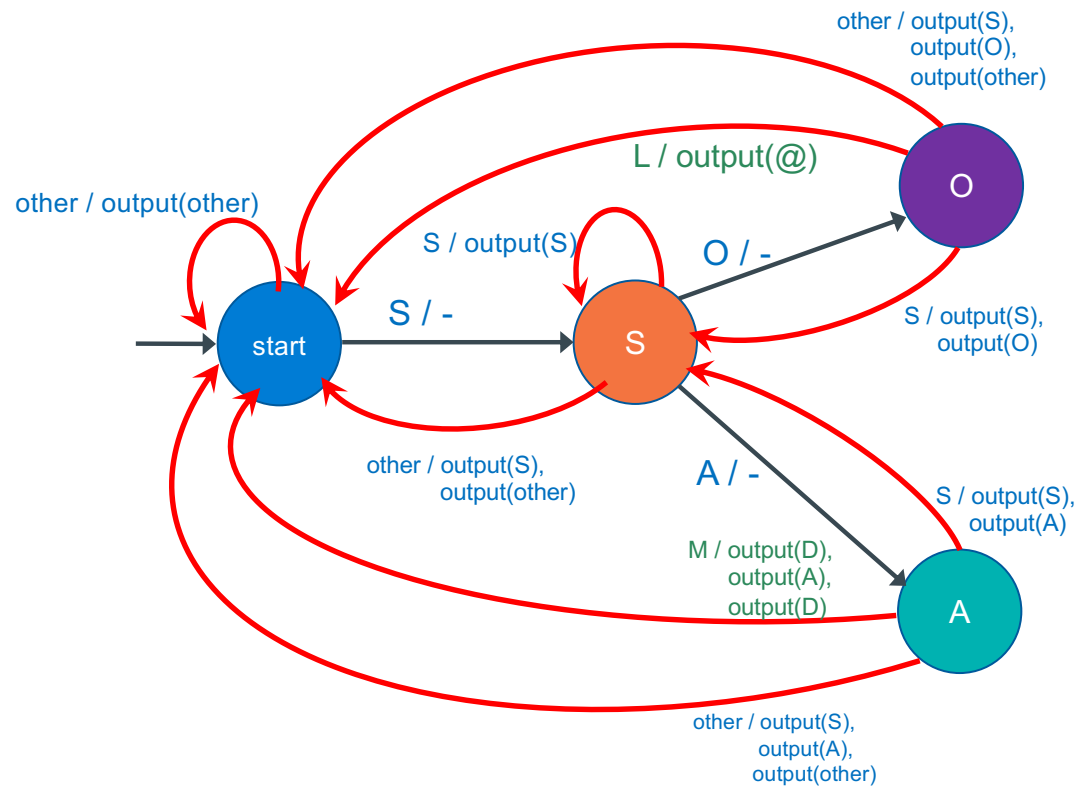
Example:

- The prior two DFAs both have the same initial state sequence (**start** and **S**) which will be in the merged DFA
- Next add all the unique arcs out of state S from both the separate DFAs and adjust the labels if necessary
- **Add the remaining states and arcs** that are unique to each DFA
- We are going to **simplify the combination** process by assuming the **input is infinite in length**
 - So, both EOF processing and the end state is not shown
 - **You will use this same assumption in PA2**



Merging DFA's – 3 (Finished)

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



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"

```
char x = 'a';           // 'a' is a character literal  
  
printf("Hello World!"); // "Hello World!" is a string literal  
  
char a1[] = "xyz";      // char array initialized with contents of a string literal
```

- 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

1. Line continuation sequence a \ followed by zero or more whitespace ending in a **newline** at the end of a **source line**

Use only when no other choice

```
char a[] = "string: Hello \
World";
```

Poor style use a block comment

```
// line comment \
rest of line comment
```

Not needed do not do this

```
x = x + \
5;
```

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

- You use an **escape character** \ which escapes the special meaning (if any) of the next character inside a character or a string literal

```
char a = '\\'; // char: '
```

```
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
```

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

There are three different uses for \ in C - continued

3. You can 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	B	98	b
3	End of text	35	#	67	C	99	c
4	End of transmit	36	\$	68	D	100	d
5	Enquiry	37	%	69	E	101	e
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	l
13	Carriage return	45	-	77	M	109	m
14	Shift in	46	.	78	N	110	n
15	Shift out	47	/	79	O	111	o
16	Data link escape	48	0	80	P	112	p
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	y
26	Substitution	58	:	90	Z	122	z
27	Escape	59	;	91	[123	{
28	File separator	60	<	92	\	124	
29	Group separator	61	=	93]	125	}
30	Record separator	62	>	94	^	126	~
31	Unit separator	63	?	95	_	127	Forward del.

X

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 (preserving all newlines)
- **IMPORTANT:** the preprocessor **does NOT** perform any **syntax checking**

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

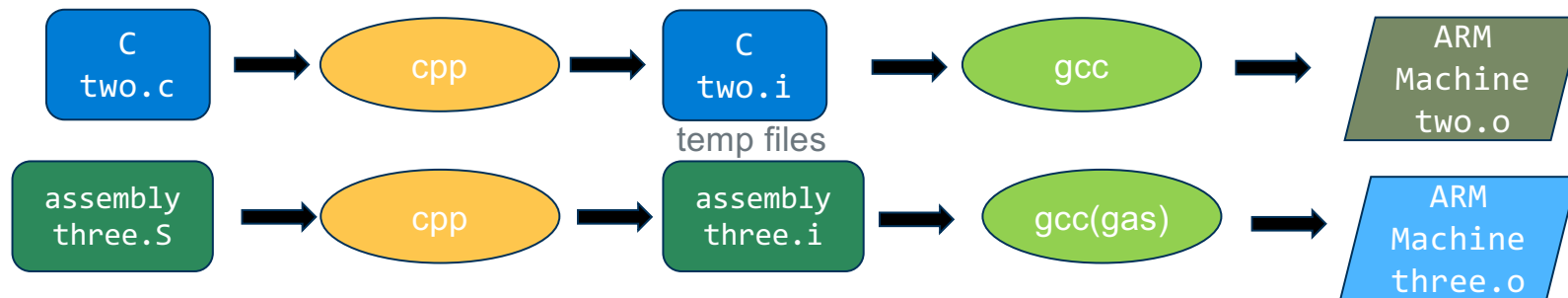
```
// this is // one line comment  
text outside comment
```

```
/* 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 */
```

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* `/* */` , `//` and all newlines are preserved
 - 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 `stdio.h` 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 (for conditional tests - later)
 - **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++) {
        ...
    }
    ...
}
```

cpp input



```
int main(void)
{
    int x[8];
    for (int i = 0; i < 8; i++) {
        ...
    }
    ...
}
```

cpp out (only showing
macro substitution)

file ex.i

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 (not legal, but that is the compilers  
job) whose contents looks like a block comment
```

```
'// text' not a comment but a character literal (not legal, but that is the compilers  
job) whose contents looks like a line comment
```

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, **MACRO** is called the **guard MACRO** ("guards" entry to the following block)

`#ifdef MACRO` if MACRO is defined, then the block is included, otherwise the `#else` block (if any) is included

`#ifndef MACRO` if MACRO is NOT defined, then the block is included, otherwise the `#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;
}
```

x

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.
 - Used 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 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 near the top of a source file above any code

Compilation Process Operations

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

// A simple C Program
int
main(void)
{
    printf("Hello World!\n");
    return EXIT_SUCCESS;
}
```

preprocessor: inserts and processes the contents of files here.
Inserts: Function prototype for `printf` (later in course)
macro value for `EXIT_SUCCESS`
File locations: `/usr/include/stdio.h` & `/usr/include/stdlib.h`

preprocessor: replaces the line `Comment` with one blank

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

cpp: replaces `EXIT_SUCCESS` with 0 on Linux

compile: **`gcc -Wall -Wextra prog.c -o prog`**

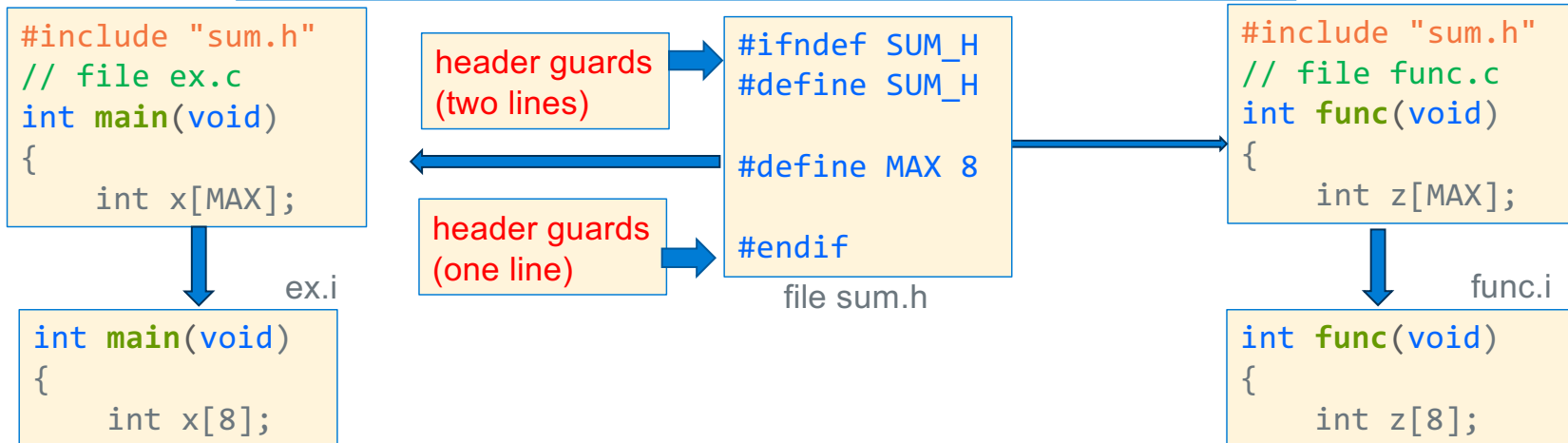
1. cpp first processes the file (cpp is called by gcc)
2. Compiler (gcc) compiles main to assembly
3. Assembler (gas – called by gcc) translates the assembly to machine code
4. Linker (ld) merges the machine code for `printf()` (from a library) with your programs machine code to create the executable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

cpp conditional tests: header guards

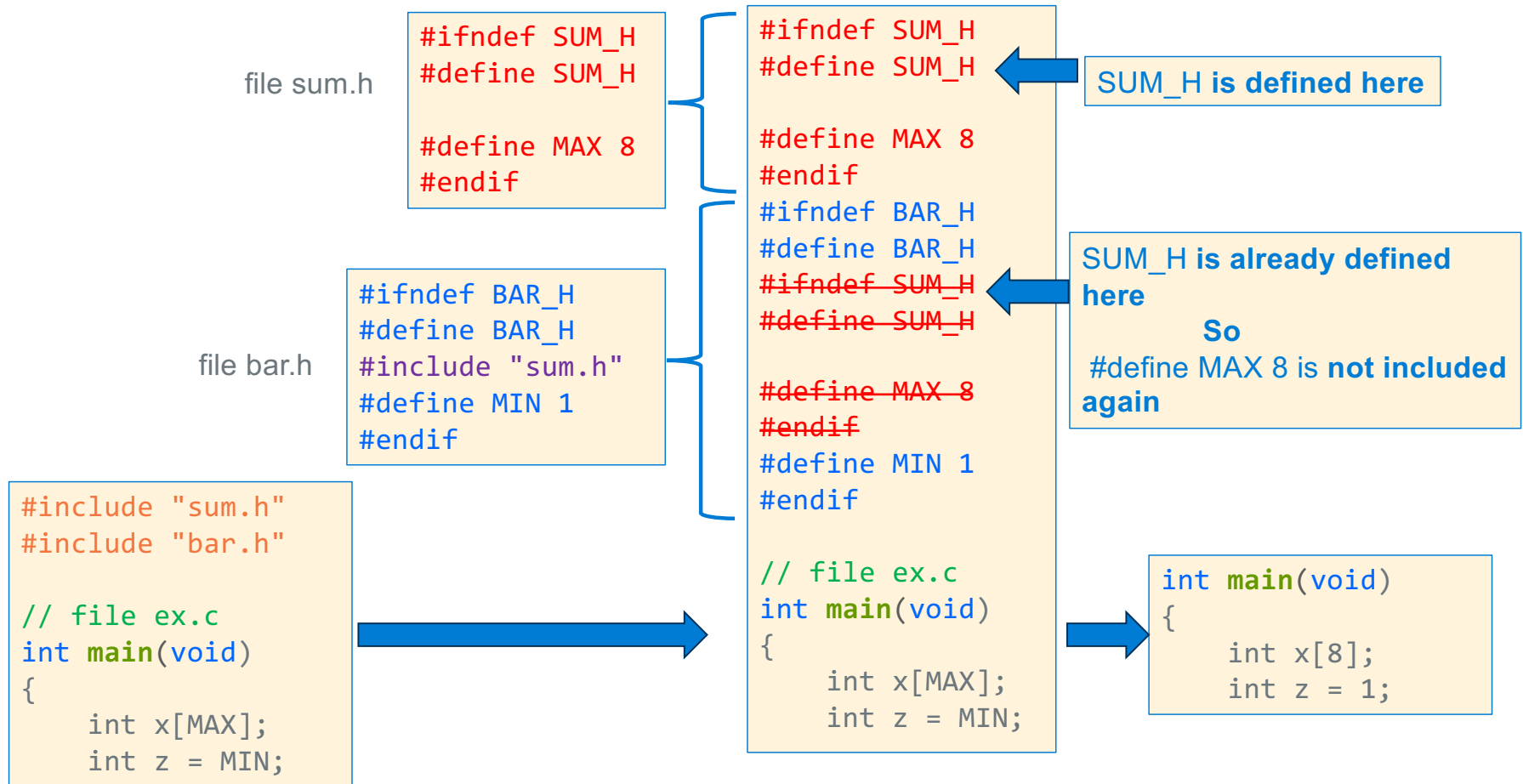
- **Header guards** ensure that only **one copy of a .h file** is included in a source file
- **A Convention:** header guard (macro) **NAME** (all capital letters) is created as follows:
 - use the **filename of header file** but in all caps
 - **replace the period** in header file **name** with an **_**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



Why header guards are needed



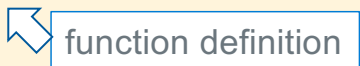
Background: What is a Definition?

- **Definition:** creates an instance of a *thing*
- There **must be exactly one** definition of each *function or variable* (no duplicates)
- In C you must **define** a *variable* or a *function* **before first use** in your code
 - Why?
- **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

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(int argc, char **argv)`
- `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)
{
    // statements
    return value;
}
```

 function definition

```
// returns: sum of integers from 1 to max
int
sum(int max) // function definition
{
    int i, sum = 0; // variable definition

    for (i = 1; i <= max; i++) {
        sum += i;
    }

    return sum;
}
```

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;
}
```

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**, **always** 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;
```


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;
}
```

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:

1. **Restricted** to the file (**translation unit**) where they are located **and**
2. **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
int sumit(int max)
{
    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;
}
```

i, sum, are defined and declared here

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**
- **Declares 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;
}
```

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                                         // function foo with file scope
foo(int parm)                             // parameter parm block scope begins
{                                           // function body (block) begins
    int i, j = 5;                          // variables with block scope
    for (int k = 0; k < 10; i++) {         // inner block scope
        // some code
    }
}                                           // function body ends
```

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

```
void funcA(int n)           // scope of the function parameter 'n' begins
{                           // the body of the function begins
    ++n;                   // 'n' is in scope and refers to the function parameter
    // int n = 2;          // error: cannot redeclare identifier in the same scope

    for(int n = 0; n < 10; ++n) { // scope of loop-local 'n' begins
        printf("%d\n", n);        // prints 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
    }                             // scope of the loop-local 'n' ends

    printf("%d\n", n);          // the function parameter 'n' is back in scope
                                // prints the value of the parameter

}                               // scope of function parameter 'n' ends
```

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 and **made available for reuse** on exiting 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)

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

```
int global;           // global with static storage duration
int foo(void)
{
    static int s = 0; // "local" with static storage duration
    int x;           // "local" with automatic storage duration
}
```


Example: Block scope (local) static storage duration variables

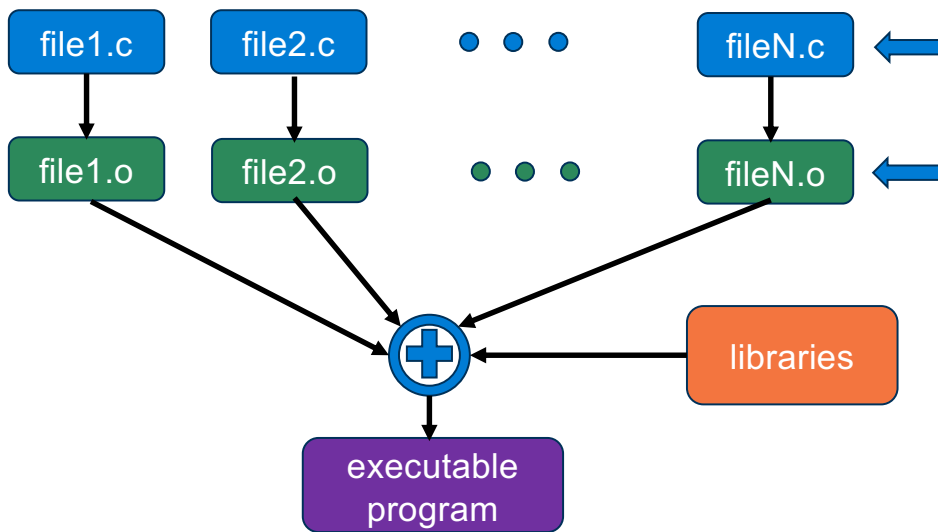
```
#include <stdio.h>
#include <stdlib.h>
#define MAX 5

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
%
```

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

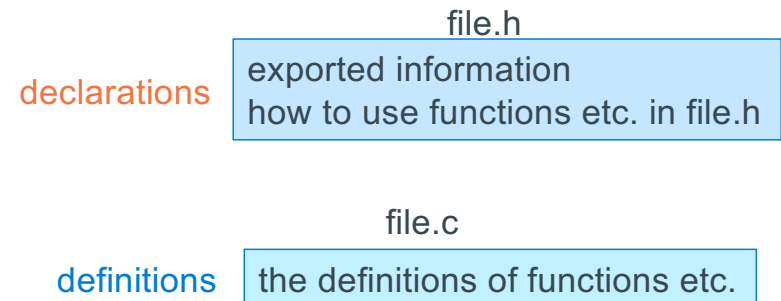
- **Internal Linkage (private):** function and global variables with internal linkage can **only be referenced** in the **same source file**
 - Global variables and functions can be **changed to internal linkage** by using the keyword **static** in front of the definition (confusingly another use of 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

```
int global0 = 1;           // external linkage
static int global2;       // internal linkage restricted to this file
int funcA(int x)          // funcA has external linkage; x has no linkage
{
    int y;                // no linkage
}
static int funcB(void)    // internal linkage restricted to this file
{ }
```

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



- **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 definition statements** 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

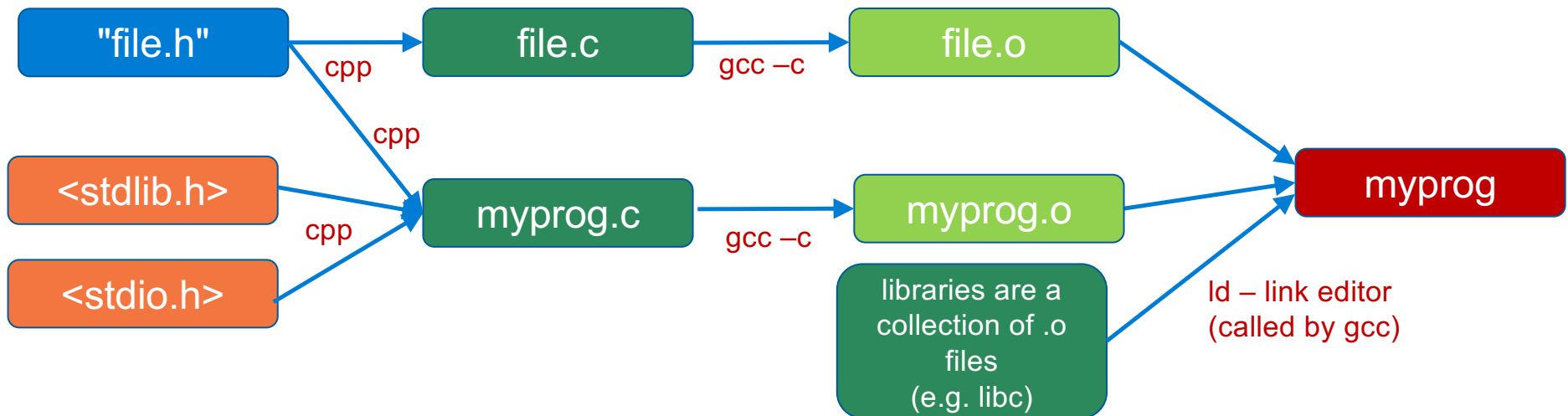
int global;           // initial value is 0
static int private = 1; // private global

int A(int c)
{
    // body not shown
}

char B(int x, int y)
{
    // body not shown
}

static int P(char z)
{
    // body not shown
}
```

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 linker 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`

PA3: Programming a Deterministic Finite Automaton

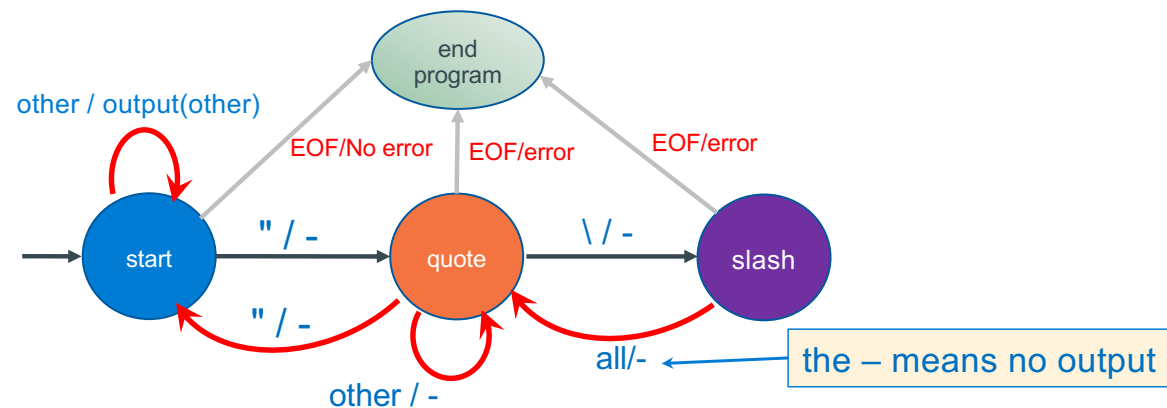
Rules for this DFA example

Copy input to output while removing everything in "strings" from output

input: *ab*"foo"*cd*
output: *abcd*

Special Case: If Inside a string, a \ is an escape sequence, ignore the next char
Allows you to put an " in a string

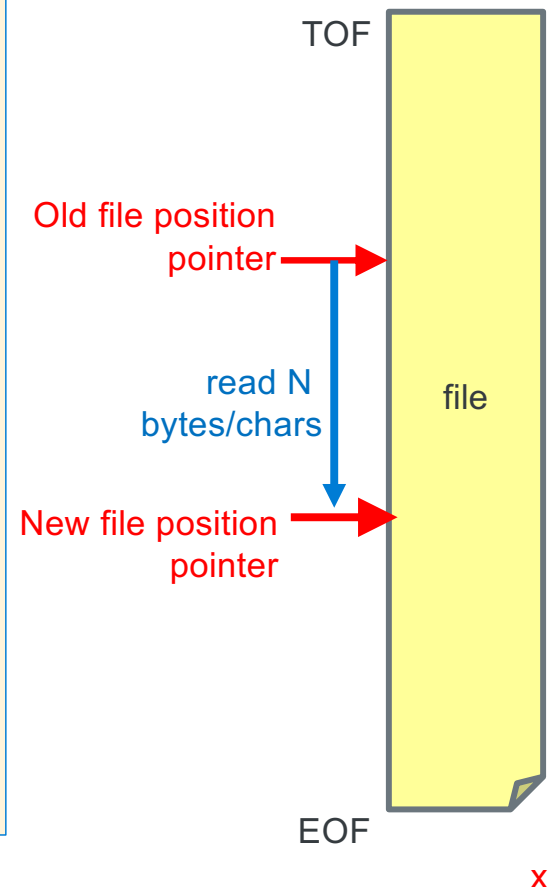
input: *ab*"foo\"bar"*cd*
output: *abcd*



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> <i>/* Writes to screen stdout */</i>
Read a char	<pre>int c; c = getchar();</pre> <i>/* Reads from keyboard stdin */</i>

```
#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** 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 **getchar()**
- **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
```

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

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

```
int main(void)
```

```
{
```

```
    int c;
```

```
    while ((c = getchar()) != EOF) {  
        (void)putchar(c);    // ignore return value
```

```
    }
```

```
    return EXIT_SUCCESS;
```

```
}
```

Always check return code to
handle EOF
EOF is a macro integer in stdio.h

Always check return codes *unless you do not need it*

Sometimes you may see a (void) cast which indicates
ignoring the return value is deliberate this is often
required by many coding standards

```
% ./a.out
```

```
thIS is a TeSt
```

```
thIS is a TeSt
```

```
^d
```

```
%
```

```
%. /a.out < a > b
```

← Typed on keyboard

← Printed by program

← Typed on keyboard

← Copies file a to file b

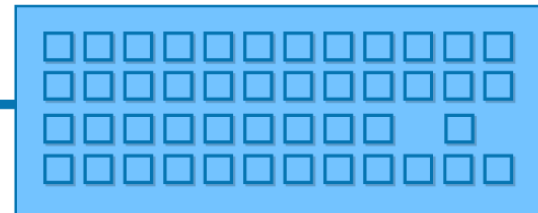
Make sure you use int variable with getchar() and putchar()!

stdio File I/O – Working with a Keyboard

PROCESS

```
010000111001
0100001110011111000111
000111000111
```

KEYBOARD



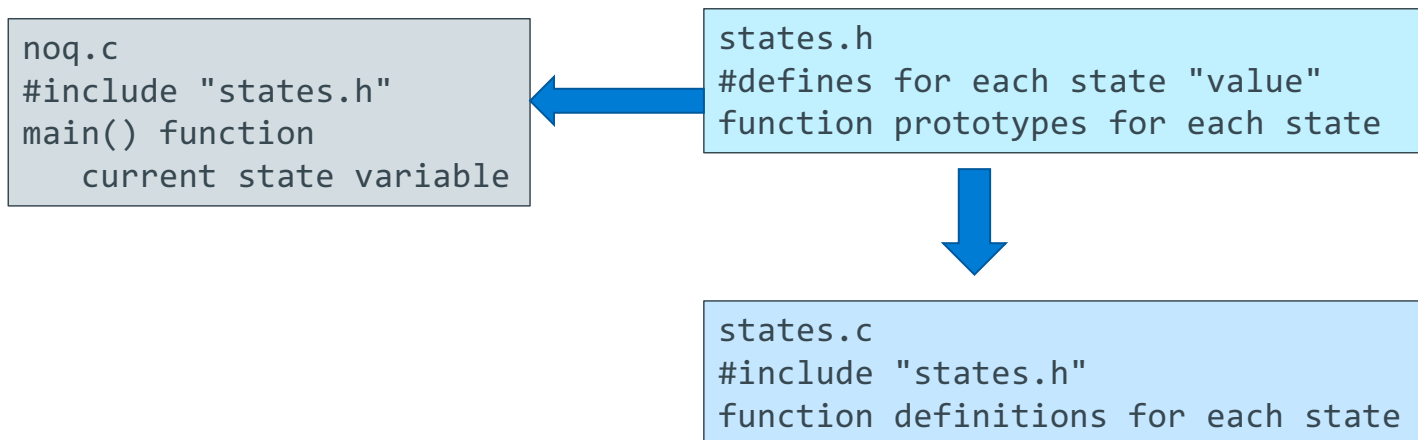
← 0 stdin

How do I
signal EOF?

- 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*

Programming a Deterministic Finite Automaton – The Files

- Break the program into three files
- `noq.c` is where main loop is, imports declarations in `states.h`
- `states.h` is the public interface to the state handlers in `states.c`
- `states.c` definition of the state handler functions, imports declarations in `states.h`
- Observe there is no `.h` file for `noq.c`, as it does not have any exports



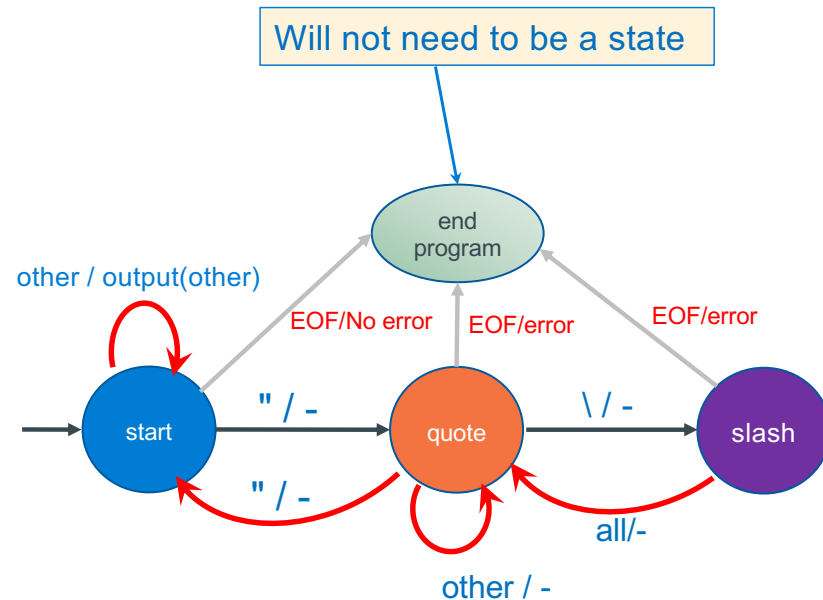
Programming a Deterministic Finite Automaton - states.h

```
// public interface file states.h
#ifndef STATES_H
#define STATES_H

// Assign a value for each state
#define START 0
#define QUOTE 1
#define SLASH 2

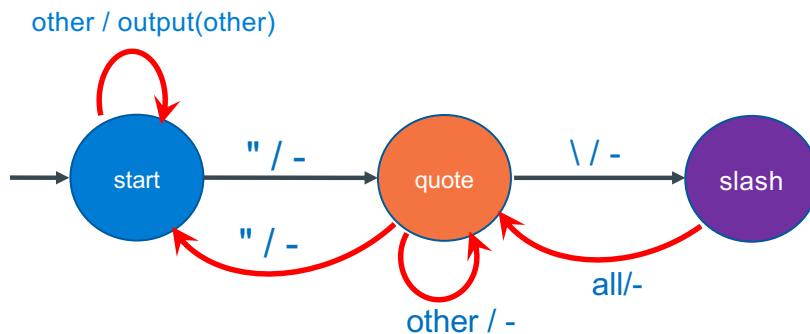
// Function prototypes
// for each state handler
int STARTstate(int);
int QUOTEstate(int);
int SLASHstate(int);

#endif
```



- Each function implements the **arcs** out of that state
 - returns the next state based on the input
 - performs any actions associated with arc taken

Programming a Deterministic Finite Automaton – states.c



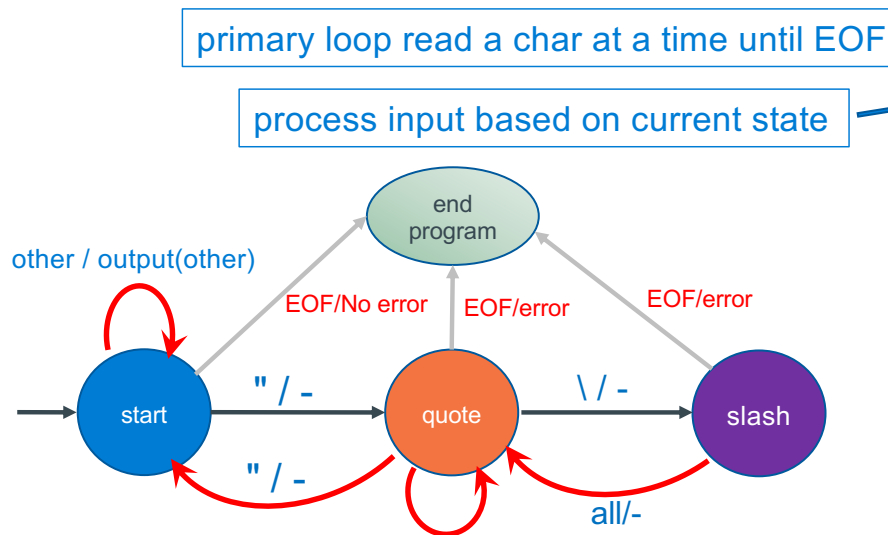
```
#include <stdio.h>
#include "states.h"
int STARTstate(int c)
{
    if (c == '\\')
        return QUOTE;           // saw a double quote
    putchar(c);                 // echo input
    return START;               // stay in START
}

int QUOTEstate(int c)
{
    if (c == '\\')
        return SLASH;           // backslash ignore next char
    else if (c == '"')
        return START;           // closing " go to START
    return QUOTE;
}

int SLASHstate()
{
    return QUOTE;
}
```

states.c

Programming a Deterministic Finite Automaton – noq.c



```

int main(void)
{
    int c;           // input char
    int state = START; // initial state of DFA

    while ((c = getchar()) != EOF) {
        switch (state) {
            case START:
                state = STARTstate(c);
                break;
            case QUOTE:
                state = QUOTEstate(c);
                break;
            case SLASH:
                state = SLASHstate();
                break;
            default:
                fprintf(stderr, "Error: Invalid state (%d)\n");
                return EXIT_FAILURE;
        } // end switch
    } // end while
}

/*
 * All done. No explicit end state used here.
 * if not in start state, we have an error
 */
if (state == START)
    return EXIT_SUCCESS;
// ok we had an error
fprintf(stderr, "noq error: Missing end quote \"\n");
return EXIT_FAILURE;
}
  
```

call state handlers based on current state
state handlers return next state

check ending "state"

Aside: Remember make from CSE15L?

```
# CSE30SP24 DFA Example

# if you type 'make' without arguments, this is the default
PROG      = noq
all:      $(PROG)

# header files and the associated object files
HEAD      = states.h
SRC       = noq.c states.c
OBJ       = ${SRC:%.c=%.o}

# special libraries
LIB        =
LIBFLAGS   = -L ./ $(LIB)

# select the compiler and flags you can over-ride on command line
# e.g., make DEBUG=
CC         = gcc
DEBUG      = -ggdb
CSTD       =
WARN       = -Wall -Wextra
CDEFS      =
CFLAGS     = -I. $(DEBUG) $(WARN) $(CSTD) $(CDEFS)

$(OBJ):    $(HEAD)

# specify how to compile/assemble the target
$(PROG):   $(OBJ)
           $(CC) $(CFLAGS) $(OBJ) $(LIB) -o $@

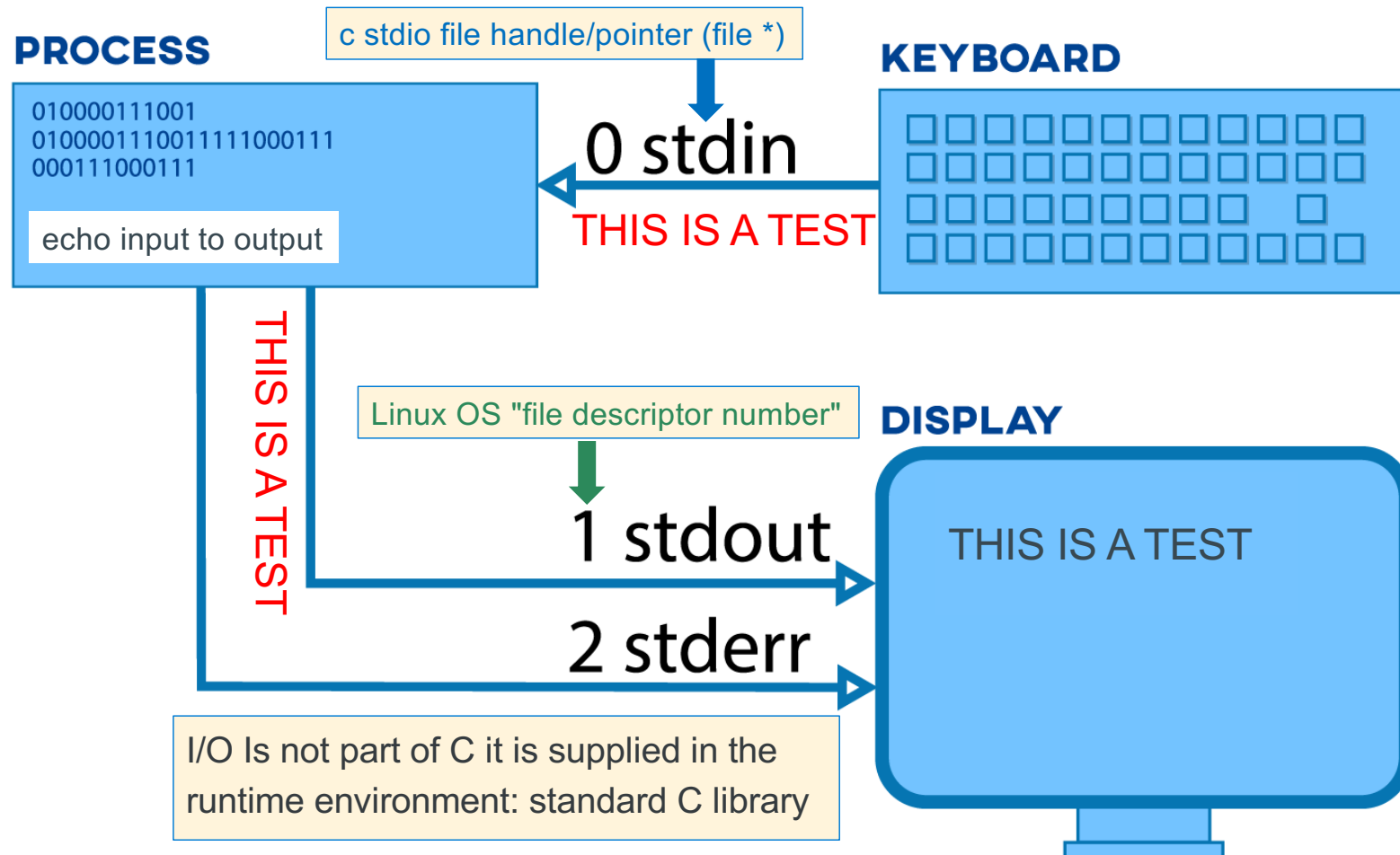
# remove binaries
.PHONY: clean clobber
clean:
  rm -f $(OBJ) $(PROG)
```

Programming a Deterministic Finite Automaton - testing

```
$ make
gcc -I. -ggdb -Wall -Wextra -c -o noq.o noq.c
gcc -I. -ggdb -Wall -Wextra -c -o states.o states.c
gcc -I. -ggdb -Wall -Wextra noq.o states.o -o noq
$ ./noq
123"456"789
123789
"123"45"67"
45
"123
456
78"9
9
"test
^d
noq error: Missing end quote "
$ cat in
line1"34"
"line2"line2
line3"
line4
$ ./noq < in > out
noq error: missing end quote "
$ cat out
line1
line2
line3$
```

typed input in red
output in blue

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); /* Writes to stdout */</pre>

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

```
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
```

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) || (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 ,
expr1, expr2
- 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)

```
i = 64, 323;           // i = 64 (assigns first)  
i = (64, 323);        // i = 323 (value of expression)
```

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 starting 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
- A **byte** is an 8-bit value



powers of two

$$\text{Unsigned binary Number} = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} b_i \times 2^i = b_{n-1}2^{N-1} + b_{n-2}2^{N-2} + \dots + b_12^1 + b_02^0$$

Review: Hexadecimal Numbering

- hexadecimal is base 16
 - From “hexa” (Ancient Greek ἑξά-) \Rightarrow six
 - and from “decem” (Latin) \Rightarrow ten

- **Sixteen** symbols

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 a b c d e f



- Numbers in C starting with **0x** are hexadecimal
 - $16_{10} = \mathbf{0x}10_{16}$
- Example: What is **0xa5** in base 10?
 - $\mathbf{0xa5} = \mathbf{a5}_{16} = (10 \times 16^1) + (5 \times 16^0) = 165_{10}$
- **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

$$\text{Unsigned Hex Number} = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} b_i \times 16^i = b_{n-1}16^{N-1} + b_{n-2}16^{N-2} + \dots + b_116^1 + b_016^0$$

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	0b0010	0b0011	0b0100	0b0101	0b0110	0b0111

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

Binary <---> Hexadecimal Equivalences

- Hex → 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 → 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**

- Example: 0b101101

- **Pad on the left** to: 0b 0010 1101
- Replace to get: 0x2d

Base 10	Base 2	Base 16
0	0000	0
1	0001	1
2	0010	2
3	0011	3
4	0100	4
5	0101	5
6	0110	6
7	0111	7
8	1000	8
9	1001	9
10	1010	a
11	1011	b
12	1100	c
13	1101	d
14	1110	e
15	1111	f

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

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

0x f a 5 3

1111 1010 0101 0011

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 $2^4 = 16^1$

0b 0110 1010 0011 1111
 └─┬─┘ └─┬─┘ └─┬─┘ └─┬─┘
 6 a 3 f

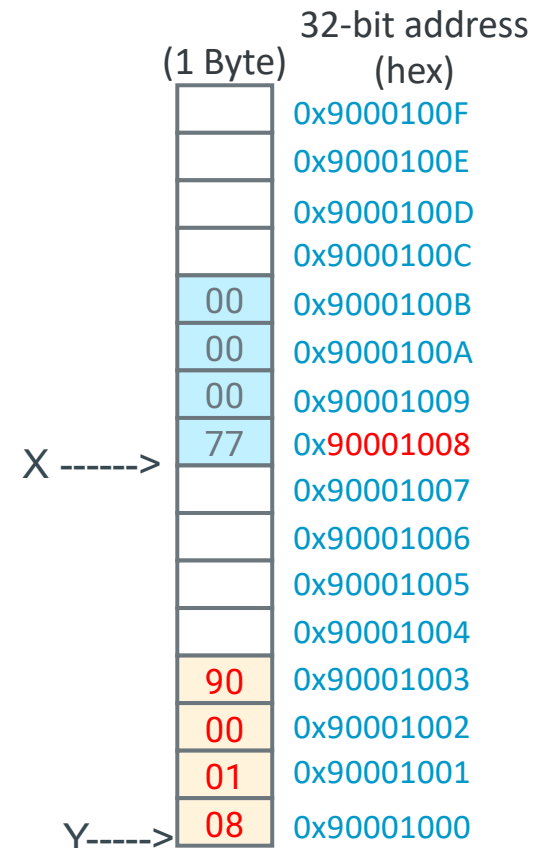
0x6a3f

hex start with 0x in C



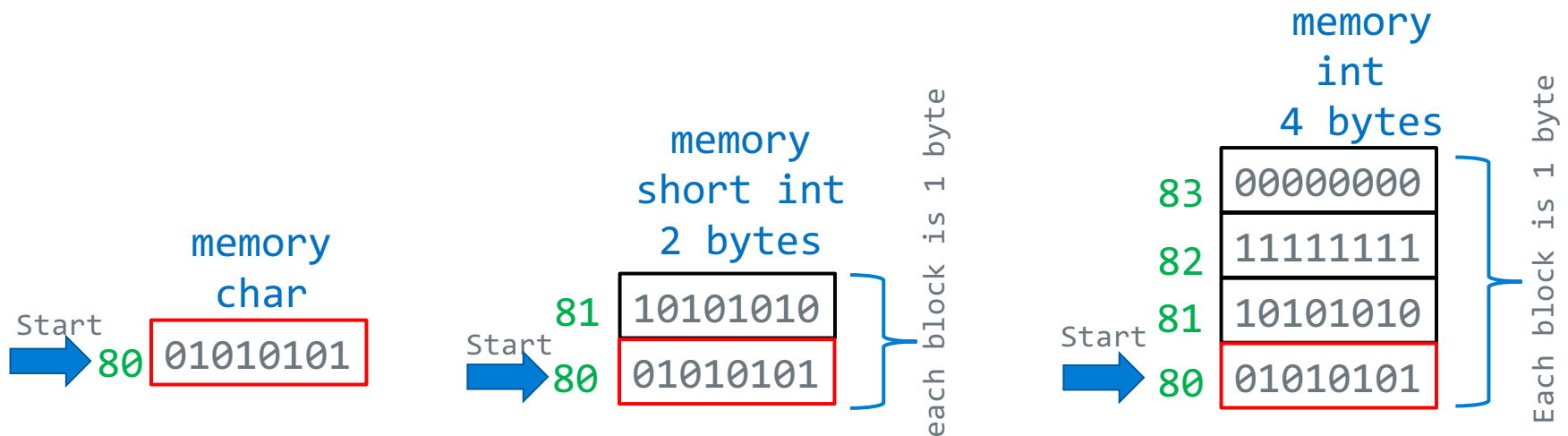
Memory and Variables

- An **address** refers to a location in memory, the **lowest** or **first byte** in a **contiguous sequence of bytes**
- Consider the following situation
 - The **variable x** is at **memory address 0x90001008**
 - The **variable y** is at **memory location 0x90001000**
 - and the statement
$$x = x + y$$
- The **name** of a variable is on the **right side** of the = evaluates to a **memory address**
- The **name** of a variable is on the **left side** of the = evaluates to the **contents of memory at that address**



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 starting address in memory
- **Example Below:** Variables all starting at address 0x80, each box is a byte



Variables in C

- Integer types
 - **char** [default: unspecified!]
 - **int** [default: signed]
- Floating Point
 - **float**, **double** [always signed]
- Optional 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
 - 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

word size is the size of the address (pointer)

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

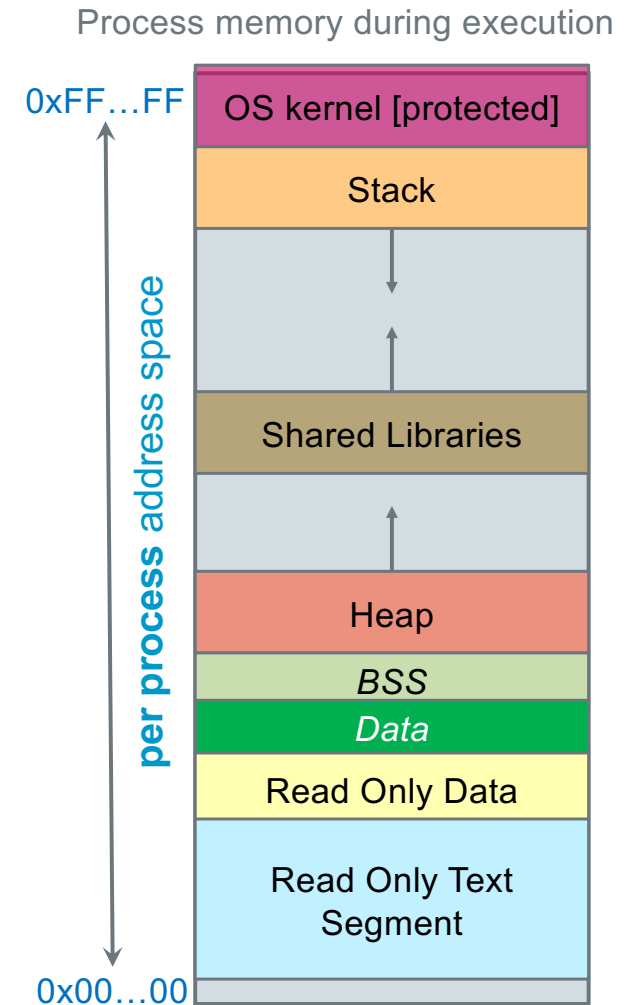
Fixed size types in C (later addition to C)

- 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
<code>int8_t</code>	<code>uint8_t</code>	8 bits (1 byte)
<code>int16_t</code>	<code>uint16_t</code>	16 bits (2 bytes)
<code>int32_t</code>	<code>uint32_t</code>	32 bits (4 bytes)
<code>int64_t</code>	<code>uint64_t</code>	64 bits (8 bytes)

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



Reference Slides

- Slides in this section are not used in class but contain material that you will find useful

C vs Java: Expression Type Promotions, Demotions, Casts

- Java: demotions are not 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**

```
int i;
char c;
i = c;          /* Implicit promotion */
                /* OK in Java and C */
c = i;          /* Implicit demotion */
                /* Java: Compile time error */
                /* C: OK; truncation */
c = (char)i;    /* Explicit demotion using a cast */
                /* Java: OK; truncation */
                /* C: OK; truncation */
```


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;  
    }  
}
```

```
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

Compiler Warning and unused variable and parameters

- C programming language has many features that when used improperly can lead to runtime issues due to focus on creating code that optimizes performance
 - Example: runtime checks on array boundaries
- gcc besides checking proper language syntax, has the option to include **include heuristic warnings** about potential issues that some consider potential issues in your code
- In CSE30 we require compiling with heuristic checking enabled so you learn to be careful when writing your code, these flags do the checking and requires you to fix them
`gcc -Wall -Wextra`
- As an example, lets look at a couple of warning messages and how to deal with them

Compiler warnings on fall throughs

- When **writing switch statements** in C it is not uncommon to see a case use a **fall through** to the next case below it (this is legal to do in C)
 - **Why do this:** First state does extra steps and then the same steps as the "fall through" state
 - But compilers often (with extra checking flags, using heuristics) decide to flag this as a potential error
 - **The Fix:** use the comment `/* FALL THROUGH */` (a bit of a "hack" 😊)

```
int a = 2;
switch (a) {
case 1:
    printf("1\n");
    break;
case 2:
    printf("2\n");
default:
    printf("default\n");
    break;
}
```

```
int a = 2;
switch (a) {
case 1:
    printf("1\n");
    break;
case 2:
    printf("2\n");
    /* FALL THROUGH */
default:
    printf("default\n");
    break;
}
```

```
% gcc -ggdb -Wall -Wextra switch.c
switch.c: In function 'main':
switch.c:11:9: error: this statement may fall through [-Werror=implicit-fallthrough=]
   11 |         printf("2\n");
      |         ^~~~~~
switch.c:12:5: note: here
   12 |     default:
      |     ^~~~~~
```

```
% gcc -ggdb -Wall -Wextra switch.c
% ./a.out
2
default
%
```

Compiler warnings on unused variables and parameter

- While you are developing a program, you may have functions that you are writing but have not completed the body of the code, but you are compiling it while working on other code
- TEMPORARILY** suppress warning statement use the following for a used variable or parameter: var
`(void) var; // do not submit code to gradescope with this, it will cost you points....`

```
...  
int c = 0;  
...  
state = nextstate(c);  
...
```

```
int nextstate(int c)  
{  
    int j;  
  
    return 0;  
}
```

```
int nextstate(int c)  
{  
    int j;  
  
    (void) c;  
    (void) j;  
    return 0;  
}
```

```
% gcc -c sample.c  
% ls -l  
total 4  
-rw-r--r-- 1 cs30sp24 ieng6_cs30sp24 45 Mar 28 13:14 sample.c  
-rw-r--r-- 1 cs30sp24 ieng6_cs30sp24 840 Mar 28 13:17 sample.o  
%  
% gcc -c -Wall -Wextra sample.c  
sample.c: In function 'nextstate':  
sample.c:3:6: error: unused variable 'j' [-Werror=unused-variable]  
    int j;  
      ^  
sample.c:1:19: error: unused parameter 'c' [-Werror=unused-parameter]  
int nextstate(int c)  
                ~~~~^
```

```
% gcc -c -Wall -Wextra sample.c  
% ls -l  
total 4  
-rw-r--r-- 1 cs30sp24 ieng6_cs30sp24 45 Mar 28 13:18 sample.c  
-rw-r--r-- 1 cs30sp24 ieng6_cs30sp24 840 Mar 28 13:19 sample.o
```

Data types: C Versus Java

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

C Versus Java

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

C Versus Java

	Java	C
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	<pre>// run time checking</pre>	<pre>// no run time checks - speed optimized</pre>
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>

C Versus Java

	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	f(x, y, z); someObject.f(x, y, z); SomeClass.f(x, y, z);	f(x, y, z); // other differences, later...

C Versus Java

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

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

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 **ld** (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 **ld** (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 **ld** 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**
 - upper case **S**, not normally used
 - Compiles to assembly text file and stops
 - creates a **.s** file
- Producing an executable file
 - **gcc -Wall -Wextra mysrc.c**
 - creates an executable file **a.out**
- To use a specific version of C use of one the std= option
 - **gcc -Wall -Wextra -std=c11 mysrc.c**
- Producing an object file with gdb debug support add **-ggdb**
 - **gcc -Wall -Wextra -c -ggdb mysrc.c**
 - creates an object file **mysrc.o**
 - **gcc -Wall -Wextra -c -ggdb mymain.c**
 - creates an object file **mymain.o**
- Linkage step
 - combining a program spread across multiple files
 - **gcc -Wall -Wextra -o myprog mymain.o mysrc.o**
 - creates executable file **myprog**
- Compile and linkage of file(s) in one step
 - **gcc -Wall -Wextra -o myprog mysrc.c mymain.c**
- run the program (refer to cse15l notes)
 - **% ./myprog**