

SC3260 / SC5260

Introduction to C

Lecture by: Ana Gainaru

Programming for High Performance

- ▶ Mainly because it produces code that runs nearly as fast as code written in assembly language
- ▶ There are many parallel programming languages build on top of C

Many slides of this lecture are adapted from Lewis Girod, CENS Systems Lab
<http://lecs.cs.ucla.edu/~girod/talks/c-tutorial.ppt> and Clark Barrett



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Learning a Programming Language

This is a crash course

- ▶ The best way to learn is to write programs
- ▶ Take the examples from the previous lectures
- ▶ All you need is the gcc compiler (you can also use a virtual environment)
- ▶ Examples are provided on the course website

https://github.com/vanderbilt-scl/SC3260_HPC

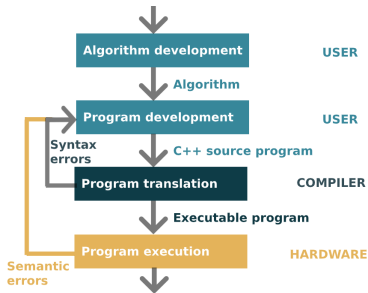
In the `C_code_examples` folder



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Writing and Running Programs

- ▶ Hardware independent
- ▶ Programs portable to most computers
- ▶ Case-sensitive
- ▶ Four stages
 - ▶ **Editing**: Writing the source code by using some IDE or editor
 - ▶ **Preprocessing or libraries**: Already available routines
 - ▶ **Compiling**: translates or converts source to object code for a specific platform (source code -> object)
 - ▶ **Linking**: resolves external references and produces the executable module



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Compilation occurs in two steps: Preprocessing and Compiling

In **Preprocessing**, the source code is expanded into a larger form that is simpler for the compiler to understand.

- ▶ Any line that starts with # is a line that is interpreted by the Preprocessor.
- ▶ Include files are pasted in (`#include`)
- ▶ Macros are "expanded" (`#define`)
- ▶ Comments are stripped out (`/* */`, `//`)
- ▶ Continued lines are joined (`\`)

During **Compilation** the resulting text is converted into binary code the CPU can run directly



Hello World

```
#include <stdio.h>

/* The simplest C Program */
int main(int argc, char **argv)
{
    printf("Hello_World\n");
    return 0;
}
```

- ▶ `#include` inserts another file. ".h" files are called "header" files. They contain stuff needed to interface to libraries and code in other ".c" files.
- ▶ The `main()` function is always where your program starts running.
- ▶ Blocks of code ("lexical scopes") are marked by `{ ... }`



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```
#include <stdio.h>

/* The simplest C Program */
int main(int argc, char **argv)
{
    printf("Hello_World\n");
    return 0;
}
```

- ▶ A Function is a series of instructions to run. You pass Arguments to a function and it returns a Value.
 - ▶ In our case the function returns an `int` (it can be `void` or a data type)
 - ▶ `Cprintf()` is just another function, like `main()`.
It's defined for you in a "library", a collection of functions you can call from your program (defined by `stdio.h`).
 - ▶ The signature of the function needs to be declared



- Imagine the memory like a big table of numbered slots where bytes can be stored.
 - A **Type** names a logical meaning to a span of memory. Some simple types are:

```
char          \\ a single character (1 slot)
char[10]      \\ an array of 10 characters
int           \\ signed 4 byte integer
float         \\ 4 byte floating point
int64_t       \\ signed 8 byte integer
```

Addr	Value
0	
1	
2	
3	
4	'H' (72)
5	'e' (101)
6	'l' (108)
7	'l' (108)
8	'o' (111)
9	'\n' (10)
10	'\0' (0)
11	
12	



- ▶ A **Variable** names a place in memory where you store a value of a certain **Type**
 - ▶ You first **Define** a variable by giving it a name and specifying the type, and optionally an initial value

```
char x;  
char y = 'e';  
  
int z = 0x01020304;
```

Different types consume different amounts of memory. Most architectures store data on "word boundaries", or even multiples of the size of a primitive data type (int, char)

- ▶ Example: z will take 4 bytes in the memory

Symbol	Addr	Value
	0	
	1	
	2	
	3	
x	4	?
y	5	'e' (101)
	6	
	7	
	8	
	9	
	10	
	11	
	12	

The compiler puts them somewhere in memory.



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Every **Variable** is defined within some scope.

A variable cannot be referenced by name from outside of that scope

Lexical scopes are defined with curly braces { }

- ▶ The scope of Function Arguments is the complete body of the function
- ▶ The scope of Variables defined inside a function starts at the definition and ends at the closing brace of the containing block
- ▶ The scope of Variables defined outside a function starts at the definition and ends at the end of the file (**Global variables**)

```
void p(char x)
{
    /* p, x */
    char y;
    /* p, x, y */
    char z;
    /* p, x, y, z */
}
/* p */
char z;
/* p, z */

void q(char a)
{
    char b;
    /* p, z, q, a, b */
    while(1)
    {
        char c;
        /* p, z, q, a, b, c */
    }
    char d;
    /* p, z, q, a, b, d (not c) */
}
/* p, z, q */
```

Expressions and Evaluation

Expressions combine Values using Operators, according to precedence

```
1 + 2 * 2    →    1 + 4    →    5  
(1 + 2) * 2  →    3 * 2    →    6
```

- ▶ Comparison operators are used to compare values.
 - ▶ In C, 0 means "false", and any other value means "true".

```
int x=4;  
(x < 5) →      (4 < 5) →      <true>  
(x < 4) →      (4 < 4) →      0  
  
((x < 5) || (x < 4)) →      (<true> || (x < 4)) →      <true>
```

Note that `x < 4` will not be evaluated



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Expressions and Evaluation

Highest to lowest precedence

- ▶ `()`
 - ▶ `*`, `/`, `%`
 - ▶ `+`, `-`
- ▶ The rules of precedence are clearly defined but often difficult to remember or non-intuitive. When in doubt, add parentheses to make it explicit.

Note: Do not confuse `&` and `&&`

`1 & 2 -> 0` whereas `1 && 2 -> <true>`



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Comparison and Mathematical Operators

Similar to every other programming language. A few differences:

Note the difference between `++x` and `x++`

```
int x=5;
int y;
y = ++x;
/* x == 6, y == 6 */
```

```
int x=5;
int y;
y = x++;
/* x == 6, y == 5 */
```



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Comparison and Mathematical Operators

Similar to every other programming language. A few differences:

Note the difference between `++x` and `x++`

```
int x=5;
int y;
y = ++x;
/* x == 6, y == 6 */
```

```
int x=5;
int y;
y = x++;
/* x == 6, y == 5 */
```

Don't confuse `=` and `==`

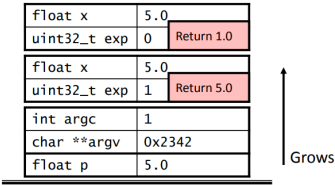
```
int x=5;
if (x==6) /* false */
{
    /* ... */
}
/* x is still 5 */
```

```
int x=5;
if (x=6) /* always true */
{
    /* x is now 6 */
}
/* ... */
```

Recall lexical scoping

- ▶ If a variable is valid "within the scope of a function", what happens when you call that function recursively?
- ▶ Is there more than one "exp"?

Yes. Each function call allocates a "stack frame" where Variables within that function's scope will reside.



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

float pow(float x, uint32_t exp)
{
    /* base case */
    if (exp == 0) {
        return 1.0;
    }

    /* "recursive" case */
    return x*pow(x, exp - 1);
}

int main(int argc, char **argv)
{
    float p;
    p = pow(5.0, 1);
    printf("p = %f\n", p);
    return 0;
}
```



Iterative vs recursive

```
float pow(float x, uint32_t exp)
{
    /* base case */
    if (exp == 0) {
        return 1.0;
    }

    /* recursive case */
    return x * pow(x, exp - 1);
}
```

Iterative using loops (while, for)

```
float pow(float x, uint exp)
{
    int i=0;
    float result = 1.0;
    while (i < exp) {
        result = result * x;
        i++;
    }
    return result;
}
```

Recursion eats stack space (in C). Each loop must allocate space for arguments and local variables, because each new call creates a new "scope"



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