

# 6.087 Lecture 1 – January 11, 2010

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- Introduction to C
- Writing C Programs
- Our First C Program

# What is C?

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- Dennis Ritchie – AT&T Bell Laboratories – 1972
  - 16-bit DEC PDP-11 computer (right)
- Widely used today
  - extends to newer system architectures
  - efficiency/performance
  - low-level access

# Features of C

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C features:

- Few keywords
- Structures, unions – compound data types
- Pointers – memory, arrays
- External standard library – I/O, other facilities
- Compiles to native code
- Macro preprocessor

# Versions of C

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Evolved over the years:

- 1972 – C invented
- 1978 – *The C Programming Language* published; first specification of language
- 1989 – C89 standard (known as ANSI C or Standard C)
- 1990 – ANSI C adopted by ISO, known as C90
- 1999 – C99 standard
  - mostly backward-compatible
  - not completely implemented in many compilers
- 2007 – work on new C standard C1X announced

In this course: ANSI/ISO C (C89/C90)

# What is C used for?

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Systems programming:

- OSes, like Linux
- microcontrollers: automobiles and airplanes
- embedded processors: phones, portable electronics, etc.
- DSP processors: digital audio and TV systems
- ...

# C vs. related languages

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- More recent derivatives: C++, Objective C, C#
- Influenced: Java, Perl, Python (quite different)
- C lacks:
  - exceptions
  - range-checking
  - garbage collection
  - object-oriented programming
  - polymorphism
  - ...
- Low-level language  $\Rightarrow$  faster code (usually)

# Warning: low-level language!

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Inherently unsafe:

- No range checking
- Limited type safety at compile time
- No type checking at runtime

Handle with care.

- Always run in a debugger like `gdb` (more later. . .)
- Never run as `root`
- Never test code on the Athena<sup>1</sup> servers

<sup>1</sup> Athena is MIT's UNIX-based computing environment. OCW does not provide access to it.

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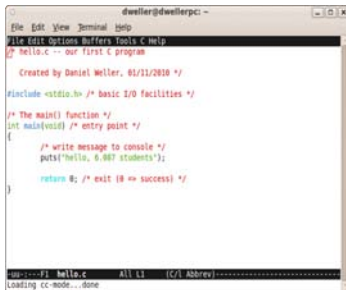
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- Introduction to C
- Writing C Programs
- Our First C Program



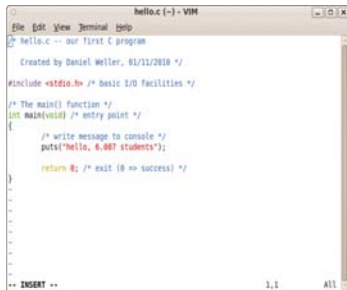
# Editing C code

- .c extension
- Editable directly



```
dweiler@dweilerpc: -
File Edit View Terminal Help
hello.c -- our first C program
Created by Daniel Weller, 01/11/2010 */
#include <stdio.h> /* basic I/O facilities */
/* The main() function */
int main(void) /* entry point */
{
    /* write message to console */
    puts("hello, 6.007 students");
    return 0; /* exit (0 => success) */
}
```

ou:---FI hello.c All 1,1 (C/) Abbrev)-----
Loading cc-mode...done




```
hello.c (-) - VIM
File Edit View Terminal Help
hello.c -- our first C program
Created by Daniel Weller, 01/11/2010 */
#include <stdio.h> /* basic I/O facilities */
/* The main() function */
int main(void) /* entry point */
{
    /* write message to console */
    puts("hello, 6.007 students");
    return 0; /* exit (0 => success) */
}
-- INSERT --
1,1 All
```

- More later...

# Compiling a program

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- `gcc` (included with most Linux distributions): compiler
- `.o` extension
  - omitted for common programs like `gcc`



```
dweller@dwellerpc: ~  
File Edit View Terminal Help  
dweller@dwellerpc:~$ gcc -Wall hello.c -o hello.o  
dweller@dwellerpc:~$
```

# More about gcc

---

- Run gcc:

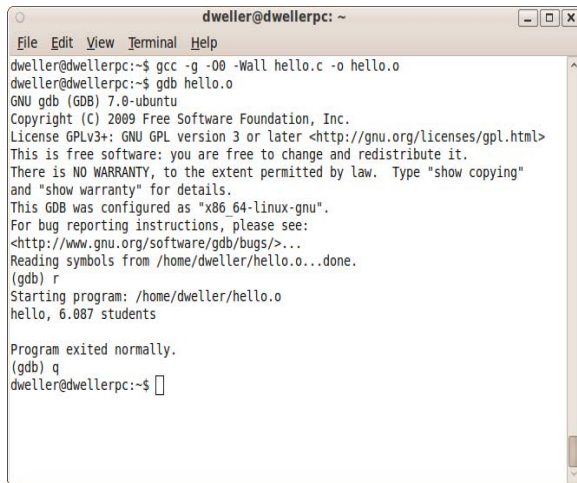
```
athena%1 gcc -Wall infilename.c -o  
outfilename.o
```

- `-Wall` enables most compiler warnings
- More complicated forms exist
  - multiple source files
  - auxiliary directories
  - optimization, linking
- Embed debugging info and disable optimization:

```
athena% gcc -g -O0 -Wall infilename.c -o  
outfilename.o
```

<sup>1</sup> Athena is MIT's UNIX-based computing environment. OCW does not provide access to it.

# Debugging



```
dweller@dwellerpc: ~  
File Edit View Terminal Help  
dweller@dwellerpc:~$ gcc -g -O0 -Wall hello.c -o hello.o  
dweller@dwellerpc:~$ gdb hello.o  
GNU gdb (GDB) 7.0-ubuntu  
Copyright (C) 2009 Free Software Foundation, Inc.  
License GPLv3+: GNU GPL version 3 or later <http://gnu.org/licenses/gpl.html>  
This is free software: you are free to change and redistribute it.  
There is NO WARRANTY, to the extent permitted by law. Type "show copying"  
and "show warranty" for details.  
This GDB was configured as "x86_64-linux-gnu".  
For bug reporting instructions, please see:  
<http://www.gnu.org/software/gdb/bugs/>...  
Reading symbols from /home/dweller/hello.o...done.  
(gdb) r  
Starting program: /home/dweller/hello.o  
hello, 6.087 students  
  
Program exited normally.  
(gdb) q  
dweller@dwellerpc:~$
```

Figure: `gdb`: command-line debugger

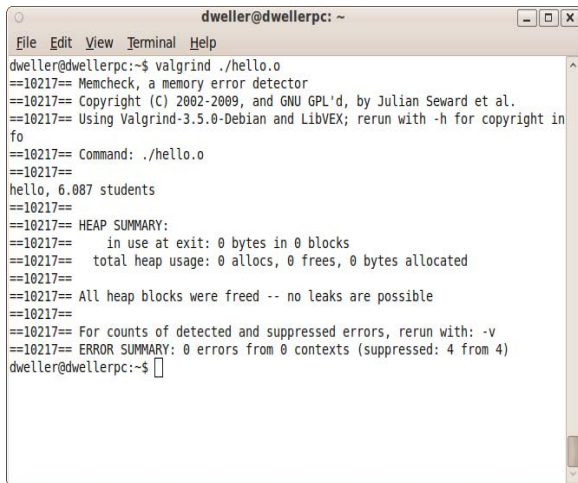
# Using gdb

---

Some useful commands:

- `break linenumber` – create breakpoint at specified line
- `break file:linenumber` – create breakpoint at line in file
- `run` – run program
- `c` – continue execution
- `next` – execute next line
- `step` – execute next line or step into function
- `quit` – quit gdb
- `print expression` – print current value of the specified expression
- `help command` – in-program help

# Memory debugging

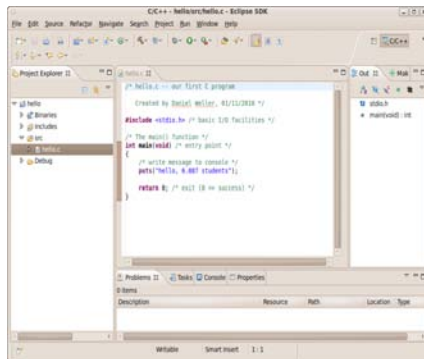
A screenshot of a terminal window titled "dweller@dwellerpc: ~". The window has a menu bar with "File", "Edit", "View", "Terminal", and "Help". The terminal shows the execution of the command "valgrind ./hello.o". The output includes version information for Valgrind 3.5.0, the command being run, the program's output "hello, 6.087 students", a "HEAP SUMMARY" section showing zero bytes in use and zero allocations/frees, and an "ERROR SUMMARY" section showing zero errors. The prompt "dweller@dwellerpc:~\$" is visible at the bottom.

```
dweller@dwellerpc:~  
File Edit View Terminal Help  
dweller@dwellerpc:~$ valgrind ./hello.o  
==10217== Memcheck, a memory error detector  
==10217== Copyright (C) 2002-2009, and GNU GPL'd, by Julian Seward et al.  
==10217== Using Valgrind-3.5.0-Debian and LibVEX; rerun with -h for copyright in  
fo  
==10217== Command: ./hello.o  
==10217==  
hello, 6.087 students  
==10217==  
==10217== HEAP SUMMARY:  
==10217==    in use at exit: 0 bytes in 0 blocks  
==10217==   total heap usage: 0 allocs, 0 frees, 0 bytes allocated  
==10217==  
==10217== All heap blocks were freed -- no leaks are possible  
==10217==  
==10217== For counts of detected and suppressed errors, rerun with: -v  
==10217== ERROR SUMMARY: 0 errors from 0 contexts (suppressed: 4 from 4)  
dweller@dwellerpc:~$
```

Figure: valgrind: diagnose memory-related problems

# The IDE – all-in-one solution

- Popular IDEs: Eclipse (CDT), Microsoft Visual C++ (Express Edition), KDevelop, Xcode, . . .
- Integrated editor with compiler, debugger
- Very convenient for larger programs



Courtesy of The Eclipse Foundation. Used with permission.

# Using Eclipse

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- Need Eclipse CDT for C programs (see <http://www.eclipse.org/cdt/>)
- Use New > C Project
  - choose “Hello World ANSI C Project” for simple project
  - “Linux GCC toolchain” sets up `gcc` and `gdb` (must be installed separately)
- Recommended for final project



# 6.087 Lecture 1 – January 11, 2010

---

- Introduction to C
- Writing C Programs
- Our First C Program

# Hello, 6.087 students

---

- In style of “Hello, world!”
- `.c` file structure
- Syntax: comments, macros, basic declarations
- The `main()` function and function structure
- Expressions, order-of-operations
- Basic console I/O (`puts()`, etc.)

# Structure of a .c file

---

*/\* Begin with comments about file contents \*/*

*Insert #include statements and preprocessor definitions*

*Function prototypes and variable declarations*

*Define main() function*

```
{  
    Function body  
}
```

*Define other function*

```
{  
    Function body  
}  
:
```

# Comments

---

- Comments: `/* this is a simple comment */`
- Can span multiple lines

```
/* This comment  
   spans  
   multiple lines */
```

- Completely ignored by compiler
- Can appear almost anywhere

```
/* hello.c — our first C program
```

```
   Created by Daniel Weller, 01/11/2010 */
```

# The `#include` macro

---

- Header files: constants, functions, other declarations
- `#include` `<stdio.h>` – read the contents of the *header file* `stdio.h`
- `stdio.h`: standard I/O functions for console, files

```
/* hello.c — our first C program
```

```
    Created by Daniel Weller, 01/11/2010 */
```

```
#include <stdio.h> /* basic I/O facilities */
```

# More about header files

---

- `stdio.h` – part of the C Standard Library
  - other important header files: `ctype.h`, `math.h`, `stdlib.h`, `string.h`, `time.h`
  - For the ugly details: visit [http://www.unix.org/single\\_unix\\_specification/](http://www.unix.org/single_unix_specification/) (registration required)
- Included files must be on *include path*
  - `-Idirectory` with `gcc`: specify additional include directories
  - standard include directories assumed by default
- **#include** `"stdio.h"` – searches `./` for `stdio.h` first

# Declaring variables

---

- Must declare variables before use
- Variable declaration:  
    **int** n;  
    **float** phi;
- `int` - integer data type
- `float` - floating-point data type
- Many other types (more next lecture...)

# Initializing variables

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- Uninitialized, variable assumes a default value
- Variables initialized via assignment operator:  
`n = 3;`
- Can also initialize at declaration:  
`float phi = 1.6180339887;`
- Can declare/initialize multiple variables at once:  
`int a, b, c = 0, d = 4;`



# Arithmetic expressions

---

Suppose  $x$  and  $y$  are variables

- $x+y$ ,  $x-y$ ,  $x*y$ ,  $x/y$ ,  $x\%y$ : binary arithmetic
- A simple statement:  
 $y = x+3*x/(y-4);$
- Numeric literals like 3 or 4 valid in expressions
- Semicolon ends statement (not newline)
- $x += y$ ,  $x -= y$ ,  $x *= y$ ,  $x /= y$ ,  $x \% = y$ : arithmetic and assignment

# Order of operations

---

- Order of operations:

Operator	Evaluation direction
$+$ , $-$ (sign)	right-to-left
$*$ , $/$ , $\%$	left-to-right
$+$ , $-$	left-to-right
$=$ , $+=$ , $-=$ , $*=$ , $/=$ , $\%=$	right-to-left

- Use parentheses to override order of evaluation

# Order of operations

---

Assume  $x = 2.0$  and  $y = 6.0$ . Evaluate the statement

**float**  $z = x + 3 * x / (y - 4);$

1. Evaluate expression in parentheses

**float**  $z = x + 3 * x / (y - 4); \rightarrow$  **float**  $z = x + 3 * x / 2.0;$

# Order of operations

---

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2. Evaluate multiplies and divides, from left-to-right

**float**  $z = x + 3 * x / 2.0; \rightarrow$  **float**  $z = x + 6.0 / 2.0; \rightarrow$  **float**  $z = x + 3.0;$

# Order of operations

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**float**  $z = x + 3 * x / 2.0; \rightarrow$  **float**  $z = x + 6.0 / 2.0; \rightarrow$  **float**  $z = x + 3.0;$

3. Evaluate addition

**float**  $z = x + 3.0; \rightarrow$  **float**  $z = 5.0;$

# Order of operations

---

Assume  $x = 2.0$  and  $y = 6.0$ . Evaluate the statement

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3. Evaluate addition

**float**  $z = x + 3.0; \rightarrow$  **float**  $z = 5.0;$

4. Perform initialization with assignment

Now,  $z = 5.0$ .

# Order of operations

---

Assume  $x = 2.0$  and  $y = 6.0$ . Evaluate the statement

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3. Evaluate addition

**float**  $z = x + 3.0; \rightarrow$  **float**  $z = 5.0;$

4. Perform initialization with assignment

Now,  $z = 5.0$ .

How do I insert parentheses to get  $z = 4.0$ ?

# Order of operations

---

Assume  $x = 2.0$  and  $y = 6.0$ . Evaluate the statement

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3. Evaluate addition

**float**  $z = x + 3.0; \rightarrow$  **float**  $z = 5.0;$

4. Perform initialization with assignment

Now,  $z = 5.0$ .

How do I insert parentheses to get  $z = 4.0$ ?

**float**  $z = (x + 3 * x) / (y - 4);$



# Function prototypes

---

- Functions also must be declared before use
- Declaration called *function prototype*
- Function prototypes:  
`int factorial (int);`      or      `int factorial (int n);`
- Prototypes for many common functions in header files for C Standard Library

# Function prototypes

---

- General form:

*return\_type function\_name(arg1, arg2, ...);*

- Arguments: local variables, values passed from caller
- Return value: single value returned to caller when function exits
- `void` – signifies no return value/arguments  
`int` `rand(void)`;

# The `main()` function

---

- `main()`: entry point for C program
- Simplest version: no inputs, outputs 0 when successful, and nonzero to signal some error

```
int main(void);
```

- Two-argument form of `main()`: access command-line arguments

```
int main(int argc, char **argv);
```

- More on the `char **argv` notation later this week...

# Function definitions

---

```
Function declaration  
{  
  declare variables;  
  program statements;  
}
```

- Must match prototype (if there is one)
  - variable names don't have to match
  - no semicolon at end
- Curly braces define a *block* – region of code
  - Variables declared in a block exist only in that block
- Variable declarations before any other statements

# Our `main()` function

---

```
/* The main() function */
int main(void) /* entry point */
{
    /* write message to console */
    puts("hello, 6.087 students");

    return 0; /* exit (0 => success) */
}
```

- `puts()`: output text to console window (stdout) and end the line
- String literal: written surrounded by double quotes
- `return 0;`  
exits the function, returning value 0 to caller

## Alternative `main()` function

---

- Alternatively, store the string in a variable first:

```
int main(void) /* entry point */
{
    const char msg[] = "hello, 6.087 students";

    /* write message to console */
    puts(msg);
}
```

- `const` keyword: qualifies variable as constant
- `char`: data type representing a single character; written in quotes: `'a'`, `'3'`, `'n'`
- `const char msg[]`: a constant array of characters

# More about strings

---

- Strings stored as character array
- Null-terminated (last character in array is `'\0'` null)
  - Not written explicitly in string literals
- Special characters specified using `\` (escape character):
  - `\\` – backslash, `\'` – apostrophe, `\"` – quotation mark
  - `\b`, `\t`, `\r`, `\n` – backspace, tab, carriage return, linefeed
  - `\ooo`, `\xhh` – octal and hexadecimal ASCII character codes, *e.g.* `\x41` – `'A'`, `\060` – `'0'`

- `stdout`, `stdin`: console output and input streams
- `puts(string)`: print string to `stdout`
- `putchar(char)`: print character to `stdout`
- `char = getchar()`: return character from `stdin`
- `string = gets(string)`: read line from `stdin` into `string`
- Many others - later this week



# Preprocessor macros

---

- Preprocessor macros begin with # character  
`#include <stdio.h>`
- `#define` msg "hello, 6.087 students"  
defines *msg* as "hello, 6.087 students" throughout source file
- many constants specified this way

# Defining expression macros

---

- **#define** can take arguments and be treated like a function  
**#define** add3(x,y,z) ((x)+(y)+(z))
- parentheses ensure order of operations
- compiler performs inline replacement; not suitable for recursion

# Conditional preprocessor macros

---

- `#if`, `#ifdef`, `#ifndef`, `#else`, `#elif`, `#endif`  
conditional preprocessor macros, can control which lines are compiled
  - evaluated before code itself is compiled, so conditions must be preprocessor defines or literals
  - the `gcc` option `-Dname=value` sets a preprocessor define that can be used
  - Used in header files to ensure declarations happen only once

# Conditional preprocessor macros

---

- **#pragma**  
preprocessor directive
- **#error**, **#warning**  
trigger a custom compiler error/warning
- **#undef** msg  
remove the definition of `msg` at compile time

# Compiling our code

---

After we save our code, we run `gcc`:

```
athena%1 gcc -g -O0 -Wall hello.c -o  
hello.o
```

Assuming that we have made no errors, our compiling is complete.

<sup>1</sup>Athena is MIT's UNIX-based computing environment. OCW does not provide access to it.

# Running our code

---

Or, in gdb,

```
athena%1 gdb hello.o
:
Reading symbols from hello.o...done.
(gdb) run
Starting program:  hello.o
hello, 6.087 students

Program exited normally.
(gdb) quit
athena%
```

---

<sup>1</sup>Athena is MIT's UNIX-based computing environment. OCW does not provide access to it.

# Summary

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Topics covered:

- How to edit, compile, and debug C programs
- C programming fundamentals:
  - comments
  - preprocessor macros, including `#include`
  - the `main()` function
  - declaring and initializing variables, scope
  - using `puts()` – calling a function and passing an argument
  - returning from a function

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## 6.087 Lecture 2 – January 12, 2010

---

- Review
- Variables and data types
- Operators
- Epilogue

# Review: C Programming language

---

- C is a fast, small, general-purpose, platform independent programming language.
- C is used for systems programming (*e.g.*, compilers and interpreters, operating systems, database systems, microcontrollers *etc.*)
- C is static (compiled), typed, structured and imperative.
- "C is quirky, flawed, and an enormous success."—Ritchie

# Review: Basics

---

- Variable declarations: `int i; float f;`
- Initialization: `char c='A'; int x=y=10;`
- Operators: `+, -, *, /, %`
- Expressions: `int x,y,z; x=y*2+z*3;`
- Function: `int factorial (int n); /*function takes int, returns int*/`

## 6.087 Lecture 2 – January 12, 2010

---

- Review
- Variables and data types
- Operators
- Epilogue

# Definitions

---

## Datatypes:

- The **datatype** of an object in memory determines the set of values it can have and what operations that can be performed on it.
- C is a *weakly* typed language. It allows implicit conversions as well as forced (potentially dangerous) casting.

## Operators:

- **Operators** specify how an object can be manipulated (*e.g.*, numeric vs. string operations).
- operators can be unary (*e.g.*, -, ++), binary (*e.g.*, +, -, \*, /), ternary (?:)

# Definitions (contd.)

---

Expressions:

- An expression in a programming language is a combination of values, variables, operators, and functions

Variables:

- A variable is as named link/reference to a value stored in the system's memory or an expression that can be evaluated.

Consider: `int x=0,y=0; y=x+2;.`

- $x, y$  are variables
- $y = x + 2$  is an expression
- $+$  is an operator.

# Variable names

---

Naming rules:

- Variable names can contain letters,digits and \_
- Variable names should start with letters.
- Keywords (*e.g.*, for,while *etc.*) cannot be used as variable names
- Variable names are case sensitive. `int x`; `int X` declares two different variables.

Pop quiz (correct/incorrect):

- `int money$owed`; (incorrect: cannot contain \$)
- `int total_count` (correct)
- `int score2` (correct)
- `int 2ndscore` (incorrect: must start with a letter)
- `int long` (incorrect: cannot use keyword)

# Data types and sizes

---

C has a small family of datatypes.

- Numeric (int,float,double)
- Character (char)
- User defined (struct,union)



# Numeric data types

Depending on the precision and range required, you can use one of the following datatypes.

	signed	unsigned
short	<b>short int</b> x; <b>short</b> y;	<b>unsigned short</b> x; <b>unsigned short int</b> y;
default	<b>int</b> x;	<b>unsigned int</b> x;
long	<b>long</b> x;	<b>unsigned long</b> x;
float	<b>float</b> x;	N/A
double	<b>double</b> x;	N/A
char	<b>char</b> x; <b>signed char</b> x;	<b>unsigned char</b> x;

- The unsigned version has roughly double the range of its signed counterparts.
- Signed and unsigned characters differ only when used in arithmetic expressions.
- Titbit: Flickr changed from unsigned long ( $2^{32} - 1$ ) to string two years ago.

# Big endian vs. little endian

---

The individual sizes are machine/compiler dependent.

However, the following is guaranteed:

`sizeof(char) < sizeof(short) <= sizeof(int) <= sizeof(long)` and

`sizeof(char) < sizeof(short) <= sizeof(float) <= sizeof(double)`

"NIXI" problem: For numeric data types that span multiple bytes, the order of arrangement of the individual bytes is important. Depending on the device architecture, we have "big endian" and "little endian" formats.

## Big endian vs. little endian (cont.)

- Big endian: the **most** significant bits (MSBs) occupy the lower address. This representation is used in the powerpc processor. Networks generally use big-endian order, and thus it is called **network order**.
- Little endian : the **least** significant bits (LSBs) occupy the lower address. This representation is used on all x86 compatible processors.

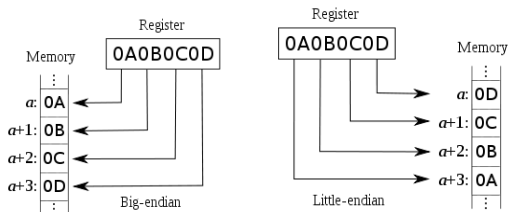


Figure: (from [http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Little\\_endian](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Little_endian))

# Constants

---

Constants are literal/fixed values assigned to variables or used directly in expressions.

Datatype	example	meaning
	<code>int i=3;</code>	integer
	<code>long l=3;</code>	long integer
integer	<code>unsigned long ul= 3UL;</code>	unsigned long
	<code>int i=0xA;</code>	hexadecimal
	<code>int i=012;</code>	octal number
	<code>float pi=3.14159</code>	float
floating point	<code>float pi=3.141F</code>	float
	<code>double pi=3.1415926535897932384L</code>	double

## Constants (contd.)

---

Datatype	example	meaning
character	'A' '\x41' '\0101'	character specified in hex specified in octal
string	"hello world" "hello" "world"	string literal same as "hello world"
enumeration	<b>enum</b> BOOL {NO,YES} <b>enum</b> COLOR {R=1,G,B,Y=10}	NO=0,YES=1 G=2,B=3

# Declarations

---

The general format for a declaration is  
*type variable-name [=value]*

Examples:

- **char** x; /\* uninitialized \*/
- **char** x=' A' ; /\* intialized to ' A' \*/
- **char** x=' A' ,y=' B' ; /\*multiple variables initialized \*/
- **char** x=y=' Z' ; /\*multiple initializations \*/

# Pop quiz II

---

- `int x=017;int y=12; /*is x>y?*/`
- `short int s=0xFFFF12; /*correct?*/`
- `char c=-1;unsigned char uc=-1; /*correct?*/`
- `puts("hel"+"lo");puts("hel " "lo");/*which is correct?*/`
- `enum sz{S=0,L=3,XL}; /*what is the value of XL?*/`
- `enum sz{S=0,L=-3,XL}; /*what is the value of XL?*/`

## 6.087 Lecture 2 – January 12, 2010

---

- Review
- Variables and data types
- Operators
- Epilogue



# Arithmetic operators

---

operator	meaning	examples
+	addition	<code>x=3+2; /*constants*/</code> <code>y+z; /*variables*/</code> <code>x+y+2; /*both*/</code>
-	subtraction	<code>3-2; /*constants*/</code> <code>int x=y-z; /*variables*/</code> <code>y-2-z; /*both*/</code>
*	multiplication	<code>int x=3*2; /*constants*/</code> <code>int x=y*z; /*variables*/</code> <code>x*y*2; /*both*/</code>

## Arithmetic operators (contd.)

---

operator	meaning	examples
/	division	<code>float x=3/2; /*produces x=1 (int /) */</code> <code>float x=3.0/2 /*produces x=1.5 (float /) */</code> <code>int x=3.0/2; /*produces x=1 (int conversion)*/</code>
%	modulus (remainder)	<code>int x=3%2; /*produces x=1*/</code> <code>int y=7;int x=y%4; /*produces 3*/</code> <code>int y=7;int x=y%10; /*produces 7*/</code>

# Relational Operators

---

Relational operators compare two operands to produce a 'boolean' result. In C any non-zero value (1 by convention) is considered to be 'true' and 0 is considered to be false.

operator	meaning	examples
>	greater than	3>2; /*evaluates to 1 */ 2.99>3 /*evaluates to 0 */
>=	greater than or equal to	3>=3; /*evaluates to 1 */ 2.99>=3 /*evaluates to 0 */
<	lesser than	3<3; /*evaluates to 0 */ 'A' < 'B' /*evaluates to 1*/
<=	lesser than or equal to	3<=3; /*evaluates to 1 */ 3.99<3 /*evaluates to 0 */

# Relational Operators

---

Testing equality is one of the most commonly used relational

operator.	operator	meaning	examples
	==	equal to	3==3; /*evaluates to 1 */ 'A' == 'a' /*evaluates to 0 */
	!=	not equal to	3!=3; /*evaluates to 0 */ 2.99!=3 /*evaluates to 1 */

Gotchas:

- Note that the "==" equality operator is different from the "=", assignment operator.
- Note that the "==" operator on float variables is tricky because of finite precision.

# Logical operators

operator	meaning	examples
&&	AND	<code>((9/3)==3) &amp;&amp; (2*3==6); /*evaluates to 1 */</code> <code>('A'=='a') &amp;&amp; (3==3) /*evaluates to 0 */</code>
	OR	<code>2==3    'A'=='A'; /*evaluates to 1 */</code> <code>2.99&gt;=3    0 /*evaluates to 0 */</code>
!	NOT	<code>!(3==3); /*evaluates to 0 */</code> <code>!(2.99&gt;=3) /*evaluates to 1 */</code>

Short circuit: The evaluation of an expression is discontinued if the value of a conditional expression can be determined early. Be careful of any side effects in the code.

Examples:

- `(3==3) || ((c=getchar())=='y')`. The second expression is not evaluated.
- `(0) && ((x=x+1)>0)`. The second expression is not evaluated.

# Increment and decrement operators

---

Increment and decrement are common arithmetic operation. C provides two short cuts for the same.

## Postfix

- $x++$  is a short cut for  $x=x+1$
- $x--$  is a short cut for  $x=x-1$
- $y=x++$  is a short cut for  $y=x; x=x+1$ .  $x$  is evaluated **before** it is incremented.
- $y=x--$  is a short cut for  $y=x; x=x-1$ .  $x$  is evaluated **before** it is decremented.

# Increment and decrement operators

---

Prefix:

- $++x$  is a short cut for  $x=x+1$
- $--x$  is a short cut for  $x=x-1$
- $y=++x$  is a short cut for  $x=x+1; y=x;$ .  $x$  is evaluate **after** it is incremented.
- $y=--x$  is a short cut for  $x=x-1; y=x;$ .  $x$  is evaluate **after** it is decremented.

# Bitwise Operators

operator	meaning	examples
&	AND	0x77 & 0x3; /*evaluates to 0x3 */ 0x77 & 0x0; /*evaluates to 0 */
	OR	0x700   0x33; /*evaluates to 0x733 */ 0x070   0 /*evaluates to 0x070 */
^	XOR	0x770 ^ 0x773; /*evaluates to 0x3 */ 0x33 ^ 0x33; /*evaluates to 0 */
«	left shift	0x01<<4; /*evaluates to 0x10 */ 1<<2; /*evaluates to 4 */
»	right shift	0x010>>4; /*evaluates to 0x01 */ 4>>1 /*evaluates to 2 */

Notes:

- AND is true only if **both** operands are true.
- OR is true if **any** operand is true.
- XOR is true if **only one** of the operand is true.



# Assignment Operators

---

Another common expression type found while programming in C is of the type `var = var (op) expr`

- `x=x+1`
- `x=x*10`
- `x=x/2`

C provides compact assignment operators that can be used instead.

- `x+=1` /\*is the same as `x=x+1`\*/
- `x-=1` /\*is the same as `x=x-1`\*/
- `x*=10` /\*is the same as `x=x*10`\*/
- `x/=2` /\*is the same as `x=x/2`\*/
- `x%=2` /\*is the same as `x=x%2`\*/

# Conditional Expression

---

A common pattern in C (and in most programming) languages is the following:

```
if (cond)
    x=<expra >;
else
    x=<exprb >;
```

C provides *syntactic sugar* to express the same using the ternary operator '?:'

sign=x>0?1:-1;	isodd=x%2==1?1:0;
if (x>0)	if (x%2==1)
sign=1	isodd=1
else	else
sign=-1	isodd=0

Notice how the ternary operator makes the code shorter and easier to understand (syntactic sugar).

## 6.087 Lecture 2 – January 12, 2010

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- Review
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# Type Conversions

---

When variables are promoted to higher precision, data is preserved. This is automatically done by the compiler for mixed data type expressions.

```
int i;  
float f;  
f=i+3.14159; /* i is promoted to float, f=(float)i+3.14159 */
```

Another conversion done automatically by the compiler is 'char' → 'int'. This allows comparisons as well as manipulations of character variables.

```
isupper=(c>='A' && c<='Z')?1:0; /* c and literal constants  
                                are converted to int */  
if (!isupper)  
    c=c-'a'+'A'; /* subtraction is possible  
                because of integer conversion */
```

As a rule (with exceptions), the compiler promotes each term in an binary expression to the highest precision operand.

# Precedence and Order of Evaluation

---

- ++,--, (cast), sizeof have the highest priority
- \*,/, % have higher priority than +, -
- ==, != have higher priority than &&, ||
- assignment operators have very low priority

Use () generously to avoid ambiguities or side effects associated with precedence of operators.

- `y=x*3+2` /\*same as `y=(x*3)+2`\*/
- `x!=0 && y==0` /\*same as `(x!=0) && (y==0)`\*/
- `d= c>='0' && c<='9'` /\*same as `d=(c>='0') && (c<='9')`\*/

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- Review
- Blocks and Compound Statements
- Control Flow
  - Conditional Statements
  - Loops
- Functions
- Modular Programming
- Variable Scope
  - Static Variables
  - Register Variables

# Review: Definitions

---

- Variable - name/reference to a stored value (usually in memory)
- Data type - determines the size of a variable in memory, what values it can take on, what operations are allowed
- Operator - an operation performed using 1-3 variables
- Expression - combination of literal values/variables and operators/functions



# Review: Data types

---

- Various sizes (**char**, **short**, **long**, **float**, **double**)
- Numeric types - **signed/unsigned**
- Implementation - little or big endian
- Careful mixing and converting (casting) types

# Review: Operators

---

- Unary, binary, ternary (1-3 arguments)
- Arithmetic operators, relational operators, binary (bitwise and logical) operators, assignment operators, etc.
- Conditional expressions
- Order of evaluation (precedence, direction)

## 6.087 Lecture 3 – January 13, 2010

---

- Review
- **Blocks and Compound Statements**
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  - Conditional Statements
  - Loops
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# Blocks and compound statements

---

- A simple statement ends in a semicolon:

```
z = foo(x+y);
```

- Consider the multiple statements:

```
temp = x+y;  
z = foo(temp);
```

- Curly braces – combine into compound statement/*block*

# Blocks

---

- Block can substitute for simple statement
- Compiled as a single unit
- Variables can be declared inside

```
{  
    int temp = x+y;  
    z = foo(temp);  
}
```

- Block can be empty { }
- No semicolon at end

# Nested blocks

---

- Blocks nested inside each other

```
{  
    int temp = x+y;  
    z = foo(temp);  
    {  
        float temp2 = x*y;  
        z += bar(temp2);  
    }  
}
```

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# Control conditions

---

- Unlike C++ or Java, no *boolean* type (in C89/C90)
  - in C99, `bool` type available (use `stdbool.h`)
- Condition is an expression (or series of expressions)  
*e.g.* `n < 3` or `x < y || z < y`
- Expression is non-zero  $\Rightarrow$  condition true
- Expression must be numeric (or a pointer)

```
const char str[] = "some text";  
if (str) /* string is not null */  
    return 0;
```



# Conditional statements

---

- The `if` statement
- The `switch` statement

# The `if` statement

---

```
if (x % 2)  
    y += x/2;
```

- Evaluate condition  
    `if (x % 2 == 0)`
- If true, evaluate inner statement  
    `y += x/2;`
- Otherwise, do nothing

# The `else` keyword

---

```
if (x % 2 == 0)
    y += x/2;
else
    y += (x+1)/2;
```

- Optional
- Execute statement if condition is false  
     $y += (x+1)/2;$
- Either inner statement may be block

# The `else if` keyword

---

```
if (x % 2 == 0)
    y += x/2;
else if (x % 4 == 1)
    y += 2*((x+3)/4);
else
    y += (x+1)/2;
```

- Additional alternative control paths
- Conditions evaluated in order until one is met; inner statement then executed
- If multiple conditions true, only first executed
- Equivalent to nested `if` statements

# Nesting `if` statements

---

```
if (x % 4 == 0)
    if (x % 2 == 0)
        y = 2;
else
    y = 1;
```

To which `if` statement does the `else` keyword belong?

# Nesting `if` statements

---

To associate `else` with outer `if` statement: use braces

```
if (x % 4 == 0) {  
    if (x % 2 == 0)  
        y = 2;  
} else  
    y = 1;
```

# The switch statement

---

- Alternative conditional statement
- Integer (or character) variable as input
- Considers cases for value of variable

```
switch (ch) {  
    case 'Y': /* ch == 'Y' */  
        /* do something */  
        break;  
    case 'N': /* ch == 'N' */  
        /* do something else */  
        break;  
    default: /* otherwise */  
        /* do a third thing */  
        break;  
}
```

# Multiple cases

---

- Compares variable to each case in order
- When match found, starts executing inner code until `break;` reached
- Execution “falls through” if `break;` not included

```
switch (ch) {  
  case 'Y':  
  case 'y':  
    /* do something if  
    ch == 'Y' or  
    ch == 'y' */  
    break;  
}
```

```
switch (ch) {  
  case 'Y':  
    /* do something if  
    ch == 'Y' */  
  case 'N':  
    /* do something if  
    ch == 'Y' or  
    ch == 'N' */  
    break;  
}
```



# The `switch` statement

---

- Contents of `switch` statement a block
- Case labels: different entry points into block
- Similar to labels used with `goto` keyword (next lecture...)

# Loop statements

---

- The `while` loop
- The `for` loop
- The `do-while` loop
- The `break` and `continue` keywords

# The while loop

---

```
while (/* condition */)
    /* loop body */
```

- Simplest loop structure – evaluate body as long as condition is true
- Condition evaluated first, so body may never be executed

# The `for` loop

---

```
int factorial(int n) {  
    int i, j = 1;  
    for (i = 1; i <= n; i++)  
        j *= i;  
    return j;  
}
```

- The “counting” loop
- Inside parentheses, three expressions, separated by semicolons:
  - Initialization: `i = 1`
  - Condition: `i <= n`
  - Increment: `i++`
- Expressions can be empty (condition assumed to be “true”)

# The for loop

---

Equivalent to `while` loop:

```
int factorial(int n) {  
    int j = 1;  
    int i = 1; /* initialization */  
    while (i <= n /* condition */) {  
        j *= i;  
        i++; /* increment */  
    }  
    return j;  
}
```

# The `for` loop

---

- Compound expressions separated by commas

```
int factorial(int n) {  
    int i, j;  
    for (i = 1, j = 1; i <= n; j *= i, i++)  
        ;  
    return j;  
}
```

- Comma: operator with lowest precedence, evaluated left-to-right; not same as between function arguments

# The do-while loop

---

```
char c;
do {
    /* loop body */
    puts("Keep going? (y/n) ");
    c = getchar();
    /* other processing */
} while (c == 'y' && /* other conditions */);
```

- Differs from `while` loop – condition evaluated after each iteration
- Body executed at least once
- Note semicolon at end

# The `break` keyword

---

- Sometimes want to terminate a loop early
- `break`; exits innermost loop or `switch` statement to exit early
- Consider the modification of the `do-while` example:

```
char c;  
do {  
    /* loop body */  
    puts("Keep going? (y/n) ");  
    c = getchar();  
    if (c != 'y')  
        break;  
    /* other processing */  
} while (/* other conditions */);
```



## The `continue` keyword

---

- Use to skip an iteration
- **`continue`**; skips rest of innermost loop body, jumping to loop condition
- Example:

```
#define min(a,b) ((a) < (b) ? (a) : (b))

int gcd(int a, int b) {
    int i, ret = 1, minval = min(a,b);
    for (i = 2; i <= minval; i++) {
        if (a % i) /* i not divisor of a */
            continue;
        if (b % i == 0) /* i is divisor of both a and b */
            ret = i;
    }
    return ret;
}
```

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# Functions

---

- Already seen some functions, including `main()`:

```
int main(void) {  
    /* do stuff */  
    return 0; /* success */  
}
```

- Basic syntax of functions explained in Lecture 1
- How to write a program using functions?

# Divide and conquer

---

- Conceptualize how a program can be broken into smaller parts
- Let's design a program to solve linear Diophantine equation ( $ax + by = c, x, y$ : integers):

*get  $a, b, c$  from command line*

*compute  $g = \gcd(a, b)$*

*if ( $c$  is not a multiple of the  $g$ )*

*no solutions exist; exit*

*run Extended Euclidean algorithm on  $a, b$*

*rescale  $x$  and  $y$  output by  $(c/g)$*

*print solution*

- Extended Euclidean algorithm: finds integers  $x, y$  s.t.

$$ax + by = \gcd(a, b).$$

# Computing the gcd

---

- Compute the gcd using the Euclidean algorithm:

```
int gcd(int a, int b) {  
    while (b) { /* if a < b, performs swap */  
        int temp = b;  
        b = a % b;  
        a = temp;  
    }  
    return a;  
}
```

- Algorithm relies on  $\text{gcd}(a, b) = \text{gcd}(b, a \bmod b)$ , for natural numbers  $a > b$ .

[Knuth, D. E. The Art of Computer Programming, Volume 1: Fundamental Algorithms. 3rd ed. Addison-Wesley, 1997.]

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# Extended Euclidean algorithm

---

Pseudocode for Extended Euclidean algorithm:

```
Initialize state variables (x,y)  
if (a < b)  
    swap(a,b)  
while (b > 0) {  
    compute quotient, remainder  
    update state variables (x,y)  
}  
return gcd and state variables (x,y)
```

[Menezes, A. J., et al. Handbook of Applied Cryptography. CRC Press, 1996.]

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# Returning multiple values

---

- Extended Euclidean algorithm returns gcd, and two other state variables, x and y
- Functions only return (up to) one value
- Solution: use *global* variables
- Declare variables for other outputs outside the function
  - variables declared outside of a function block are globals
  - persist throughout life of program
  - can be accessed/modified in any function

# Divide and conquer

---

- Break down problem into simpler sub-problems
- Consider iteration and recursion
  - How can we implement  $\text{gcd}(a,b)$  recursively?
- Minimize transfer of state between functions
- Writing pseudocode first can help



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# Programming modules in C

---

- C programs do not need to be monolithic
- Module: interface and implementation
  - interface: header files
  - implementation: auxiliary source/object files
- Same concept carries over to external libraries (next week...)

# The Euclid module

---

- Euclid's algorithms useful in many contexts
- Would like to include functionality in many programs
- Solution: make a module for Euclid's algorithms
- Need to write header file (`.h`) and source file (`.c`)

## The source: euclid.c

---

Implement `gcd()` in `euclid.c`:

```
/* The gcd() function */
int gcd(int a, int b) {
    while (b) { /* if a < b, performs swap */
        int temp = b;
        b = a % b;
        a = temp;
    }
    return a;
}
```

Extended Euclidean algorithm implemented as  
`ext_euclid()`, also in `euclid.c`

# The `extern` keyword

---

- Need to inform other source files about functions/global variables in `euclid.c`
- For functions: put function prototypes in a header file
- For variables: re-declare the global variable using the `extern` keyword in header file
- `extern` informs compiler that variable defined somewhere else
- Enables access/modifying of global variable from other source files

## The header: euclid.h

---

Header contains prototypes for `gcd()` and `ext_euclid()`:

```
/* ensure included only once */
#ifndef __EUCLID_H__
#define __EUCLID_H__

/* global variables (declared in euclid.c) */
extern int x, y;

/* compute gcd */
int gcd(int a, int b);

/* compute  $g = \text{gcd}(a,b)$  and solve  $ax+by=g$  */
int ext_euclid(int a, int b);

#endif
```

# Using the Euclid module

---

- Want to be able to call `gcd()` or `ext_euclid()` from the main file `diophant.c`
- Need to include the header file `euclid.h`:  
`#include "euclid.h"` (file in `"."`, not search path)
- Then, can call as any other function:

```
/* compute g = gcd(a,b) */  
g = gcd(a,b);
```

```
/* compute x and y using Extended Euclidean alg. */  
g = ext_euclid(a,b);
```

- Results in global variables `x` and `y`

```
/* rescale so ax+by = c */  
grow = c/g;  
x *= grow;  
y *= grow;
```

# Compiling with the Euclid module

---

- Just compiling `diophant.c` is insufficient
- The functions `gcd()` and `ext_euclid()` are defined in `euclid.c`; this source file needs to be compiled, too
- When compiling the source files, the outputs need to be linked together into a single output
- One call to `gcc` can accomplish all this:

```
athena%1 gcc -g -O0 -Wall diophant.c  
euclid.c -o diophant.o
```

- `diophant.o` can be run as usual

---

<sup>1</sup>Athena is MIT's UNIX-based computing environment. OCW does not provide access to it.



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# Variable scope

---

- *scope* – the region in which a variable is valid
- Many cases, corresponds to block with variable's declaration
- Variables declared outside of a function have global scope
- Function definitions also have scope

# An example

---

What is the scope of each variable in this example?

```
int nmax = 20;
```

```
/* The main() function */
```

```
int main(int argc, char ** argv) /* entry point */
```

```
{
```

```
    int a = 0, b = 1, c, n;
```

```
    printf("%3d: %d\n", 1, a);
```

```
    printf("%3d: %d\n", 2, b);
```

```
    for (n = 3; n <= nmax; n++) {
```

```
        c = a + b; a = b; b = c;
```

```
        printf("%3d: %d\n", n, c);
```

```
    }
```

```
    return 0; /* success */
```

```
}
```

# Scope and nested declarations

---

How many lines are printed now?

```
int nmax = 20;

/* The main() function */
int main(int argc, char ** argv) /* entry point */
{
    int a = 0, b = 1, c, n, nmax = 25;
    printf("%3d: %d\n", 1, a);
    printf("%3d: %d\n", 2, b);
    for (n = 3; n <= nmax; n++) {
        c = a + b; a = b; b = c;
        printf("%3d: %d\n", n, c);
    }
    return 0; /* success */
}
```

# Static variables

---

- `static` keyword has two meanings, depending on where the static variable is declared
- Outside a function, `static` variables/functions only visible within that file, not globally (cannot be `extern`'ed)
- Inside a function, `static` variables:
  - are still local to that function
  - are initialized only during program initialization
  - do not get reinitialized with each function call

```
static int somePersistentVar = 0;
```

# Register variables

---

- During execution, data processed in *registers*
- Explicitly store commonly used data in registers – minimize load/store overhead
- Can explicitly declare certain variables as registers using `register` keyword
  - must be a simple type (implementation-dependent)
  - only local variables and function arguments eligible
  - excess/unallowed register declarations ignored, compiled as regular variables
- Registers do not reside in addressed memory; pointer of a register variable illegal

## Example

---

Variable scope example, revisited, with `register` variables:

```
/* The main() function */
int main(register int argc, register char ** argv)
{
    register int a = 0, b = 1, c, n, nmax = 20;
    printf("%3d: %d\n", 1, a);
    printf("%3d: %d\n", 2, b);
    for (n = 3; n <= nmax; n++) {
        c = a + b; a = b; b = c;
        printf("%3d: %d\n", n, c);
    }
    return 0; /* success */
}
```

# Summary

---

Topics covered:

- Controlling program flow using conditional statements and loops
- Dividing a complex program into many simpler sub-programs using functions and modular programming techniques
- Variable scope rules and `extern`, `static`, and `register` variables



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## 6.087 Practical Programming in C

January (IAP) 2010

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## 6.087 Lecture 4 – January 14, 2010

---

- Review
- Control flow
- I/O
  - Standard I/O
  - String I/O
  - File I/O

# Blocks

---

- Blocks combine multiple statements into a single unit.
- Can be used when a single statement is expected.
- Creates a local scope (variables declared inside are local to the block).
- Blocks can be nested.

```
{  
    int x=0;  
    {  
        int y=0; /*both x and y visible*/  
    }  
    /*only x visible*/  
}
```

# Conditional blocks

---

**if ... else..else if** is used for conditional branching of execution

```
if (cond)
{
    /*code executed if cond is true*/
}
else
{
    /*code executed if cond is false*/
}
```

# Conditional blocks

---

**switch..case** is used to test multiple conditions (more efficient than if else ladders).

```
switch (opt)
{
    case 'A' :
        /* execute if opt=='A' */
        break;
    case 'B' :
    case 'C' :
        /* execute if opt=='B' || opt=='C' */
    default:
}
```

# Iterative blocks

---

- **while** loop tests condition before execution of the block.
- **do..while** loop tests condition after execution of the block.
- **for** loop provides initialization, testing and iteration together.

## 6.087 Lecture 4 – January 14, 2010

---

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# goto

---

- **goto** allows you to jump **unconditionally** to arbitrary part of your code (within the same function).
- the location is identified using a label.
- a label is a named location in the code. It has the same form as a variable followed by a ':'

```
start :  
{  
    if (cond)  
        goto outside ;  
    /*some code*/  
    goto start ;  
}  
outside :  
/*outside block*/
```



# Spaghetti code

---

Dijkstra. *Go To Statement Considered Harmful*.  
Communications of the ACM 11(3), 1968

- Excess use of `goto` creates *sphagetti code*.
- Using `goto` makes code harder to read and debug.
- Any code that uses `goto` can be written without using one.

## error handling

Language like C++ and Java provide exception mechanism to recover from errors. In C, **goto** provides a convenient way to exit from nested blocks.

```
for (..)
{
    for (..)
    {
        if (error_cond)
            goto error;
        /* skips 2 blocks*/
    }
}
error:

cont_flag=1;
for (..)
{
    for (init; cont_flag; iter)
    {
        if (error_cond)
        {
            cont_flag=0;
            break;
        }
        /*inner loop*/
    }
    if (!cont_flag) break;
    /*outer loop*/
}
```

## 6.087 Lecture 4 – January 14, 2010

---

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# Preliminaries

---

- Input and output facilities are provided by the standard library `<stdio.h>` and not by the language itself.
- A text stream consists of a series of lines ending with `'\n'`. The standard library takes care of conversion from `'\r\n' -> '\n'`
- A binary stream consists of a series of raw bytes.
- The streams provided by standard library are **buffered**.

# Standard input and output

---

**int** putchar(**int**)

- putchar(c) puts the character c on the *standard output*.
- it returns the character printed or EOF on error.

**int** getchar()

- returns the next character from *standard input*.
- it returns EOF on error.

# Standard input and output

---

What does the following code do?

```
int main()
{
    char c;
    while ((c=getchar())!=EOF)
    {
        if (c>='A' && c<='Z')
            c=c-'A'+ 'a' ;
        putchar(c);
    }
    return 0;
}
```

To use a file instead of standard input, use '<' operator (\*nix).

- Normal invocation: ./a.out
- Input redirection: a.out < file.txt. Treats file.txt as source of standard input. This is an OS feature, not a language feature.

# Standard output:formatted

---

**int** printf (**char** format[], arg1,arg2 ,...)

- printf() can be used for formatted output.
- It takes in a **variable** number of arguments.
- It returns the number of characters printed.
- The format can contain literal strings as well as format specifiers (starts with %).

Examples:

```
printf("hello world\n");  
printf("%d\n",10); /* format: %d (integer), argument:10 */  
printf("Prices:%d and %d\n",10,20);
```

# printf format specification

The format specification has the following components

%[flags][width][. precision][length]<type>

**type:**

type	meaning	example
d,i	integer	printf ("%d",10); /*prints 10*/
x,X	integer (hex)	printf ("%x",10); /*print 0xa*/
u	unsigned integer	printf ("%u",10); /*prints 10*/
c	character	printf ("%c",'A'); /*prints A*/
s	string	printf ("%s","hello"); /*prints hello*/
f	float	printf ("%f",2.3); /*prints 2.3*/
d	double	printf ("%d",2.3); /*prints 2.3*/
e,E	float(exp)	1e3,1.2E3,1E-3
%	literal %	printf ("%d %%",10); /*prints 10%*/



# printf format specification (cont.)

---

`%[flags][width][.precision][modifier]<type>`

**width:**

format	output
<code>printf ("%d",10)</code>	"10"
<code>printf ("%4d",10)</code>	bb10 (b:space)
<code>printf ("%s","hello")</code>	hello
<code>printf ("%7s","hello")</code>	bbhello

# printf format specification (cont.)

---

%[flags][width][.precision][modifier]<type>

**flag:**

format	output
printf ("%d, %+d, %+d", 10, -10)	10, +10, -10
printf ("%04d", 10)	0010
printf ("%7s", "hello")	bbhello
printf ("% -7s", "hello")	hellobb

# printf format specification (cont.)

---

%[flags][width][.precision][modifier]<type>

## **precision:**

format	output
<code>printf ("% .2f, % .0f, 1.141, 1.141)</code>	<code>1.14,1</code>
<code>printf ("% .2e, % .0e, 1.141, 100.00)</code>	<code>1.14e+00,1e+02</code>
<code>printf ("% .4s", "hello")</code>	<code>hell</code>
<code>printf ("% .1s", "hello")</code>	<code>h</code>

## printf format specification (cont.)

---

`%[flags][width][.precision][modifier]<type>`

**modifier:**

modifier	meaning
h	interpreted as short. Use with i,d,o,u,x
l	interpreted as long. Use with i,d,o,u,x
L	interpreted as double. Use with e,f,g

## Digression: character arrays

---

Since we will be reading and writing strings, here is a brief digression

- strings are represented as an array of characters
- C does not restrict the length of the string. The end of the string is specified using 0.

For instance, "hello" is represented using the array

`{ 'h', 'e', 'l', 'l', '\0' }.`

Declaration examples:

- `char str[] = "hello";` */\*compiler takes care of size\*/*
- `char str[10] = "hello";` */\*make sure the array is large enough\*/*
- `char str[] = { 'h', 'e', 'l', 'l', 0};`

Note: use `\` if you want the string to contain `"`.

## Digression: character arrays

---

Comparing strings: the header file `<string.h>` provides the function `int strcmp(char s[], char t[])` that compares two strings in dictionary order (lower case letters come **after** capital case).

- the function returns a value  $<0$  if `s` comes before `t`
- the function return a value  $0$  if `s` is the same as `t`
- the function return a value  $>0$  if `s` comes after `t`
- `strcmp` is case sensitive

### Examples

- `strcmp("A", "a") /*<0*/`
- `strcmp("IRONMAN", "BATMAN") /*>0*/`
- `strcmp("aA", "aA") /*==0*/`
- `strcmp("aA", "a") /*>0*/`

# Formatted input

---

**int** scanf(**char**\* format ,...) is the input analog of printf.

- scanf reads characters from standard input, interpreting them according to format specification
- Similar to printf , scanf also takes variable number of arguments.
- The format specification is the same as that for printf
- When multiple items are to be read, each item is assumed to be separated by white space.
- It returns the number of **items** read or EOF.
- **Important:** scanf ignores white spaces.
- **Important:** Arguments have to be address of variables (pointers).

# Formatted input

---

`int` `scanf(char* format ,...)` is the input analog of `printf`.

Examples:

<code>printf (" %d",x)</code>	<code>scanf("%d",&amp;x)</code>
<code>printf (" %10d",x)</code>	<code>scanf("%d",&amp;x)</code>
<code>printf (" %f",f)</code>	<code>scanf("%f",&amp;f)</code>
<code>printf (" %s",str)</code>	<code>scanf("%s",str) /*note no &amp; required*/</code>
<code>printf (" %s",str)</code>	<code>scanf("%20s",str) /*note no &amp; required*/</code>
<code>printf (" %s %s",fname,lname)</code>	<code>scanf("%20s %20s",fname,lname)</code>



# String input/output

---

Instead of writing to the standard output, the formatted data can be written to or read from character arrays.

**int** sprintf (**char** string [], **char** format[], arg1,arg2)

- The format specification is the same as printf.
- The output is written to string (does not check size).
- Returns the number of character written or negative value on error.

**int** sscanf(**char** str [], **char** format[], arg1,arg2)

- The format specification is the same as scanf;
- The input is read from str variable.
- Returns the number of items read or negative value on error.

So far, we have read from the standard input and written to the standard output. C allows us to read data from text/binary files using `fopen()`.

`FILE* fopen(char name[], char mode[])`

- mode can be "r" (read only), "w" (write only), "a" (append) among other options. "b" can be appended for binary files.
- `fopen` returns a **pointer** to the file stream if it exists or `NULL` otherwise.
- We don't need to know the details of the `FILE` data type.
- **Important:** The standard input and output are also `FILE*` datatypes (`stdin`, `stdout`).
- **Important:** `stderr` corresponds to standard error output (different from `stdout`).

**int** fclose(FILE\* fp)

- closes the stream (releases OS resources).
- fclose() is automatically called on all open files when program terminates.

# File input

---

**int** getc(FILE\* fp)

- reads a single character from the stream.
- returns the character read or EOF on error/end of file.

Note: getchar simply uses the standard input to read a character. We can implement it as follows:

**#define** getchar() getc(stdin)

**char**[] fgets(**char** line [], **int** maxlen, FILE\* fp)

- reads a single line (upto maxlen characters) from the input stream (including linebreak).
- returns a pointer to the character array that stores the line (read-only)
- return NULL if end of stream.

# File output

---

**int** putc(**int** c, FILE\* fp)

- writes a single character c to the output stream.
- returns the character written or EOF on error.

Note: putchar simply uses the standard output to write a character. We can implement it as follows:

**#define** putchar(c) putc(c, stdout)

**int** fputs(**char** line [], FILE\* fp)

- writes a single line to the output stream.
- returns zero on success, EOF otherwise.

**int** fscanf(FILE\* fp, **char** format[], arg1, arg2)

- similar to scanf, sscanf
- reads items from input stream fp.

# Command line input

---

- In addition to taking input from standard input and files, you can also pass input while invoking the program.
- *Command line parameters* are very common in \*nix environment.
- So far, we have used `int main()` as to invoke the main function. However, main function can take arguments that are populated when the program is invoked.

## Command line input (cont.)

---

`int` main(`int` argc,`char`\* argv[])

- argc: count of arguments.
- argv[]: an array of pointers to each of the arguments
- note: the arguments include the name of the program as well.

Examples:

- `./cat a.txt b.txt` (argc=3,argv[0]="cat" argv[1]="a.txt" argv[2]="b.txt")
- `./cat` (argc=1,argv[0]="cat")

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## 6.087 Lecture 5 – January 15, 2010

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- Review
- Pointers and Memory Addresses
  - Physical and Virtual Memory
  - Addressing and Indirection
  - Functions with Multiple Outputs
- Arrays and Pointer Arithmetic
- Strings
  - String Utility Functions
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# Review: Unconditional jumps

---

- **goto** keyword: jump somewhere else in the same function
- Position identified using labels
- Example (**for** loop) using **goto**:

```
{  
    int i = 0, n = 20; /* initialization */  
    goto loop_cond;  
loop_body:  
    /* body of loop here */  
    i++;  
loop_cond:  
    if (i < n) /* loop condition */  
        goto loop_body;  
}
```

- Excessive use of **goto** results in “spaghetti” code

# Review: I/O Functions

---

- I/O provided by `stdio.h`, not language itself
- Character I/O: `putchar()`, `getchar()`, `getc()`, `putc()`, etc.
- String I/O: `puts()`, `gets()`, `fgets()`, `fputs()`, etc.
- Formatted I/O: `fprintf()`, `fscanf()`, etc.
- Open and close files: `fopen()`, `fclose()`
- File read/write position: `feof()`, `fseek()`, `ftell()`, etc.
- ...

## Review: `printf()` and `scanf()`

---

- Formatted output:

`int` `printf` (`char` `format[]`, `arg1`, `arg2`, ...)

- Takes variable number of arguments
- Format specification:

`%[flags][width][.precision][length]<type>`

- types: `d`, `i` (int), `u`, `o`, `x`, `X` (unsigned int), `e`, `E`, `f`, `F`, `g`, `G` (double), `c` (char), `s` (string)
  - flags, width, precision, length - modify meaning and number of characters printed
- Formatted input: `scanf()` - similar form, takes pointers to arguments (except strings), ignores whitespace in input

# Review: Strings and character arrays

---

- Strings represented in C as an array of characters (`char []`)
- String must be null-terminated (`'\0'` at end)
- Declaration:  
`char str[] = "I am a string.";` or  
`char str[20] = "I am a string.";`
- `strcpy()` - function for copying one string to another
- More about strings and string functions today...

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# Pointers and addresses

---

- Pointer: memory address of a variable
- Address can be used to access/modify a variable from anywhere
- Extremely useful, especially for data structures
- Well known for obfuscating code

# Physical and virtual memory

---

- Physical memory: physical resources where data can be stored and accessed by your computer
  - cache
  - RAM
  - hard disk
  - removable storage
- Virtual memory: abstraction by OS, addressable space accessible by your code



# Physical memory considerations

---

- Different sizes and access speeds
- Memory management – major function of OS
- Optimization – to ensure your code makes the best use of physical memory available
- OS moves around data in physical memory during execution
- Embedded processors – may be very limited

# Virtual memory

---

- How much physical memory do I have?  
Answer: 2 MB (cache) + 2 GB (RAM) + 100 GB (hard drive) + ...
- How much virtual memory do I have?  
Answer: <4 GB (32-bit OS), typically 2 GB for Windows, 3-4 GB for linux
- Virtual memory maps to different parts of physical memory
- Usable parts of virtual memory: *stack* and *heap*
  - stack: where declared variables go
  - heap: where dynamic memory goes

# Addressing variables

---

- Every variable residing in memory has an address!
- What doesn't have an address?
  - register variables
  - constants/literals/preprocessor defines
  - expressions (unless result is a variable)
- How to find an address of a variable? The `&` operator

```
int n = 4;  
double pi = 3.14159;  
int *pn = &n; /* address of integer n */  
double *ppi = &pi; /* address of double pi */
```

- Address of a variable of type  $t$  has type  $t^*$

# Dereferencing pointers

---

- I have a pointer – now what?
- Accessing/modifying addressed variable:  
dereferencing/indirection operator \*

```
/* prints "pi = 3.14159\n" */  
printf("pi = %g\n",*ppi);
```

```
/* pi now equals 7.14159 */  
*ppi = *ppi + *pn;
```

- Dereferenced pointer like any other variable
- null pointer, *i.e.* 0 (NULL): pointer that does not reference anything

# Casting pointers

---

- Can explicitly cast any pointer type to any other pointer type

```
ppi = (double *)pn; /* pn originally of type (int *) */
```

- Implicit cast to/from `void *` also possible (more next week...)
- Dereferenced pointer has new type, regardless of real type of data
- Possible to cause segmentation faults, other difficult-to-identify errors
  - What happens if we dereference `ppi` now?

# Functions with multiple outputs

---

- Consider the Extended Euclidean algorithm  
`ext_euclid(a,b)` function from Wednesday's lecture
- Returns  $\gcd(a,b)$ ,  $x$  and  $y$  s.t.  $ax + by = \gcd(a,b)$
- Used global variables for  $x$  and  $y$
- Can use pointers to pass back multiple outputs:  
`int ext_euclid(int a, int b, int *x, int *y);`
- Calling `ext_euclid()`, pass pointers to variables to receive  $x$  and  $y$ :  

```
int x, y, g;  
/* assume a, b declared previously */  
g = ext_euclid(a,b,&x,&y);
```
- Warning about  $x$  and  $y$  being used before initialized

# Accessing caller's variables

---

- Want to write function to swap two integers
- Need to modify variables in caller to swap them
- Pointers to variables as arguments

```
void swap(int *x, int *y) {  
    int temp = *x;  
    *x = *y;  
    *y = temp;  
}
```

- Calling `swap()` function:

```
int a = 5, b = 7;  
swap(&a, &b);  
/* now, a = 7, b = 5 */
```

# Variables passing out of scope

---

- What is wrong with this code?

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

```
char * get_message() {  
    char msg[] = "Aren't pointers fun?";  
    return msg;  
}
```

```
int main(void) {  
    char * string = get_message();  
    puts(string);  
    return 0;  
}
```



# Variables passing out of scope

---

- What is wrong with this code?

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

```
char * get_message() {  
    char msg[] = "Aren't pointers fun?";  
    return msg;  
}
```

```
int main(void) {  
    char * string = get_message();  
    puts(string);  
    return 0;  
}
```

- Pointer invalid after variable passes out of scope

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# Arrays and pointers

---

- Primitive arrays implemented in C using pointer to block of contiguous memory
- Consider array of 8 ints:  
`int arr[8];`
- Accessing `arr` using array entry operator:  
`int a = arr[0];`
- `arr` is like a pointer to element 0 of the array:  
`int *pa = arr; ⇔ int *pa = &arr[0];`
- Not modifiable/reassignable like a pointer

# The `sizeof()` operator

---

- For primitive types/variables, size of type in bytes:

```
int s = sizeof(char); /* == 1 */
```

```
double f; /* sizeof(f) == 8 */ (64-bit OS)
```

- For primitive arrays, size of array in bytes:

```
int arr[8]; /* sizeof(arr) == 32 */ (64-bit OS)
```

```
long arr[5]; /* sizeof(arr) == 40 */ (64-bit OS)
```

- Array length:

```
/* needs to be on one line when implemented */  
#define array_length(arr) (sizeof(arr) == 0 ?  
    0 : sizeof(arr)/sizeof((arr)[0]))
```

- More about `sizeof()` next week...

# Pointer arithmetic

---

- Suppose `int *pa = arr;`
- Pointer not an `int`, but can add or subtract an `int` from a pointer:  
`pa + i` points to `arr[i]`
- Address value increments by  $i$  times size of data type  
Suppose `arr[0]` has address 100. Then `arr[3]` has address 112.
- Suppose `char *pc = (char *)pa;` What value of  $i$  satisfies `(int *)(pc+i) == pa + 3`?

# Pointer arithmetic

---

- Suppose `int *pa = arr;`
- Pointer not an `int`, but can add or subtract an `int` from a pointer:  
`pa + i` points to `arr[i]`
- Address value increments by  $i$  times size of data type  
Suppose `arr[0]` has address 100. Then `arr[3]` has address 112.
- Suppose `char *pc = (char *)pa;` What value of  $i$  satisfies `(int *)(pc+i) == pa + 3`?
  - $i = 12$

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# Strings as arrays

---

- Strings stored as null-terminated character arrays (last character == `'\0'`)
- Suppose `char str[] = "This is a string.";` and  
`char * pc = str;`
- Manipulate string as you would an array  
`*(pc+10) = 'S';`  
`puts(str); /* prints "This is a String." */`



# String utility functions

---

- String functions in standard header `string.h`
- Copy functions: `strcpy()`, `strncpy()`  
`char * strcpy( strto , strfrom );` – copy *strfrom* to *strto*  
`char * strncpy( strto , strfrom, n );` – copy *n* chars from *strfrom* to *strto*
- Comparison functions: `strcmp()`, `strncmp()`  
`int strcmp(str1, str2);` – compare *str1*, *str2*; return 0 if equal, positive if *str1* > *str2*, negative if *str1* < *str2*  
`int strncmp(str1, str2, n);` – compare first *n* chars of *str1* and *str2*
- String length: `strlen()`  
`int strlen( str );` – get length of *str*

# More string utility functions

---

- Concatenation functions: `strcat()`, `strncat()`  
`char * strcat ( strto , strfrom );` – add *strfrom* to end of *strto*  
`char * strncat ( strto , strfrom , n );` – add *n* chars from *strfrom* to end of *strto*
- Search functions: `strchr()`, `strrchr()`  
`char * strchr ( str , c );` – find char *c* in *str*, return pointer to first occurrence, or NULL if not found  
`char * strrchr ( str , c );` – find char *c* in *str*, return pointer to last occurrence, or NULL if not found
- Many other utility functions exist. . .

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# Searching and sorting

---

- Basic algorithms
- Can make good use of pointers
- Just a few examples; not a course in algorithms
- Big-O notation

# Searching an array

---

- Suppose we have an array of `int`'s  
`int arr[100]; /* array to search */`
- Let's write a simple search function:

```
int * linear_search(int val) {  
    int * parr, * parrend = arr + array_length(arr);  
    for (parr = arr; parr < parrend; parr++) {  
        if (*parr == val)  
            return parr;  
    }  
    return NULL;  
}
```

# A simple sort

---

- A simple insertion sort:  $O(n^2)$ 
  - iterate through array until an out-of-order element found
  - insert out-of-order element into correct location
  - repeat until end of array reached
- Split into two functions for ease-of-use

```
int arr[100]; /* array to sort */
```

```
void shift_element(unsigned int i) {  
    /* do insertion of out-of-order element */  
}
```

```
void insertion_sort() {  
    /* main insertion sort loop */  
    /* call shift_element() for  
       each out-of-order element */  
}
```

# Shifting out-of-order elements

---

- Code for shifting the element

```
/* move previous elements down until
   insertion point reached */
void shift_element(unsigned int i) {
    int ival;
    /* guard against going outside array */
    for (ival = arr[i]; i && arr[i-1] > ival; i--)
        arr[i] = arr[i-1]; /* move element down */
    arr[i] = ival; /* insert element */
}
```

# Insertion sort

---

- Main insertion sort loop

```
/* iterate until out-of-order element found;  
   shift the element, and continue iterating */  
void insertion_sort(void) {  
    unsigned int i, len = array_length(arr);  
    for (i = 1; i < len; i++)  
        if (arr[i] < arr[i-1])  
            shift_element(i);  
}
```

- Can you rewrite using pointer arithmetic instead of indexing?



# Quicksort

---

- Many faster sorts available (shellsort, mergesort, quicksort, ...)
- Quicksort:  $O(n \log n)$  average;  $O(n^2)$  worst case
  - choose a pivot element
  - move all elements less than pivot to one side, all elements greater than pivot to other
  - sort sides individually (recursive algorithm)
- Implemented in C standard library as `qsort()` in `stdlib.h`

# Quicksort implementation

---

- Select the pivot; separate the sides:

```
void quick_sort(unsigned int left ,
               unsigned int right) {
    unsigned int i , mid;
    int pivot;
    if (left >= right)
        return; /* nothing to sort */
    /* pivot is midpoint; move to left side */
    swap(arr+left , arr + (left+right)/2);
    pivot = arr[mid = left];
    /* separate into side < pivot (left+1 to mid)
       and side >= pivot (mid+1 to right) */
    for (i = left+1; i <= right; i++)
        if (arr[i] < pivot)
            swap(arr + ++mid , arr + i);
```

[Kernighan and Ritchie. The C Programming Language. 2nd ed. Prentice Hall, 1988.]

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# Quicksort implementation

---

- Restore the pivot; sort the sides separately:

```
/* restore pivot position */
swap(arr+left , arr+mid);
/* sort two sides */
if (mid > left)
    quick_sort(left , mid-1);
if (mid < right)
    quick_sort(mid+1, right);
}
```

- Starting the recursion:

```
quick_sort(0, array_length(arr) - 1);
```

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# Discussion of quicksort

---

- Not *stable* (equal-valued elements can get switched) in present form
- Can sort *in-place* – especially desirable for low-memory environments
- Choice of pivot influences performance; can use random pivot
- Divide and conquer algorithm; easily parallelizeable
- Recursive; in worst case, can cause stack overflow on large array

# Searching a sorted array

---

- Searching an arbitrary list requires visiting half the elements on average
- Suppose list is sorted; can make use of sorting information:
  - if desired value greater than value and current index, only need to search after index
  - each comparison can split list into two pieces
  - solution: compare against middle of current piece; then new piece guaranteed to be half the size
  - divide and conquer!
- More searching next week. . .

# Binary search

---

- Binary search:  $O(\log n)$  average, worst case:

```
int * binary_search(int val) {
    unsigned int L = 0, R = array_length(arr), M;
    while (L < R) {
        M = (L+R-1)/2;
        if (val == arr[M])
            return arr+M; /* found */
        else if (val < arr[M])
            R = M; /* in first half */
        else
            L = M+1; /* in second half */
    }
    return NULL; /* not found */
}
```

# Binary search

---

- Worst case: logarithmic time
- Requires random access to array memory
  - on sequential data, like hard drive, can be slow
  - seeking back and forth in sequential memory is wasteful
  - better off doing linear search in some cases
- Implemented in C standard library as `bsearch()` in `stdlib.h`

# Summary

---

Topics covered:

- Pointers: addresses to memory
  - physical and virtual memory
  - arrays and strings
  - pointer arithmetic
- Algorithms
  - searching: linear, binary
  - sorting: insertion, quick



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## 6.087 Lecture 6 – January 19, 2010

---

- Review
- User defined datatype
  - Structures
  - Unions
  - Bitfields
- Data structure
  - Memory allocation
  - Linked lists
  - Binary trees

# Review: pointers

---

- Pointers: memory address of variables
- '&' (address of) operator.
- Declaring: `int x=10; int * px= &x;`
- Dereferencing: `*px=20;`
- Pointer arithmetic:
  - `sizeof()`
  - incrementing/decrementing
  - absolute value after operation depends on pointer datatype.

# Review: string.h

---

- String copy: `strcpy()`, `strncpy()`
- Comparison: `strcmp()`, `strncmp()`
- Length: `strlen()`
- Concatenation: `strcat()`
- Search: `strchr()`, `strstr()`

# Searching and sorting

---

## Searching

- Linear search:  $O(n)$
- Binary search:  $O(\log n)$ . The array has to be sorted first.

## Sorting

- Insertion sort:  $O(n^2)$
- Quick sort:  $O(n \log n)$

## 6.087 Lecture 6 – January 19, 2010

---

- Review
- User defined datatype
  - Structures
  - Unions
  - Bitfields
- Data structure
  - Memory allocation
  - Linked lists
  - Binary trees

# Structure

---

Definition: A structure is a collection of related variables (of possibly different types) grouped together under a single name. This is an example of **composition**—building complex structures out of simple ones.

Examples:

```
struct point
{
    int x;
    int y;
};
/* notice the ; at the end*/
```

```
struct employee
{
    char fname[100];
    char lname[100];
    int age;
};
/*members of different
type*/
```

# Structure

---

- **struct** defines a new datatype.
- The name of the structure is optional.  
**struct** {...} x,y,z;
- The variables declared within a structure are called its *members*
- Variables can be declared like any other built in data-type.  
**struct** point ptA;
- Initialization is done by specifying values of every member.  
**struct** point ptA={10,20};
- Assignment operator copies every member of the structure (be careful with pointers).



## Structure (cont.)

---

More examples:

```
struct triangle
{
    struct point ptA;
    struct point ptB;
    struct point ptC;
};
```

*/\*members can be structures\*/*

```
struct chain_element
{
    int data;
    struct chain_element* next
};
```

*/\*members can be self referential\*/*

## Structure (cont.)

---

- Individual members can be accessed using '.' operator.  
`struct` point pt={10,20}; `int` x=pt.x; `int` y=pt.y;
- If structure is nested, multiple '.' are required

```
struct rectangle
{
    struct point tl; /* top left */
    struct point br; /* bot right */
};
struct rectangle rect;
int tlx=rect.tl.x; /* nested */
int tly=rect.tl.y;
```

# Structure pointers

---

- Structures are copied element wise.
- For large structures it is more efficient to pass pointers.  
`void foo(struct point * pp); struct point pt; foo(&pt)`
- Members can be accessed from structure pointers using `'->'` operator.

```
struct point p={10,20};  
struct point* pp=&p;  
pp->x = 10; /*changes p.x*/  
int y= pp->y; /*same as y=p.y*/
```

Other ways to access structure members?

```
struct point p={10,20};  
struct point* pp=&p;  
(*pp).x = 10; /*changes p.x*/  
int y= (*pp).y; /*same as y=p.y*/
```

why is the `()` required?

# Arrays of structures

---

- Declaring arrays of int: **int** x[10];
- Declaring arrays of structure: **struct** point p[10];
- Initializing arrays of int: **int** x[4]={0,20,10,2};
- Initializing arrays of structure:  
    **struct** point p[3]={0,1,10,20,30,12};  
    **struct** point p [3]={{0,1},{10,20},{30,12}};

# Size of structures

---

- The size of a structure is greater than or equal to the sum of the sizes of its members.
- Alignment

```
struct {  
    char c;  
    /*padding*/  
    int i;
```

- Why is this an important issue? libraries, precompiled files, SIMD instructions.
- Members can be explicitly aligned using **compiler** extensions.

```
__attribute__((aligned(x))) /*gcc*/  
__declspec(aligned(x)) /*MSVC*/
```

# Union

---

A union is a variable that may hold objects of different types/sizes in the same memory location. Example:

```
union data
{
    int idata;
    float fdata;
    char* sdata;
} d1,d2,d3;
d1.idata=10;
d1.fdata=3.14F;
d1.sdata="hello world";
```

## Unions (cont.)

---

- The size of the union variable is equal to the size of its largest element.
- **Important:** The compiler does not test if the data is being read in the correct format.

```
union data d; d.idata=10; float f=d.fdata; /* will give junk*/
```

- A common solution is to maintain a separate variable.

```
enum dtype{INT,FLOAT,CHAR};  
struct variant  
{  
    union data d;  
    enum dtype t;  
};
```

# Bit fields

Definition: A bit-field is a set of adjacent bits within a single 'word'. Example:

```
struct flag{  
    unsigned int is_color:1;  
    unsigned int has_sound:1;  
    unsigned int is_ntsc:1;  
};
```

- the number after the colons specifies the width in bits.
- each variables should be declared as **unsigned int**

## Bit fields vs. masks

CLR=0x1,SND=0x2,NTSC=0x4;	<b>struct</b> flag f;
x = CLR; x =SND; x =NTSC	f.has_sound=1;f.is_color=1;
x&= ~CLR; x&=~SND;	f.has_sound=0;f.is_color=0;
<b>if</b> (x & CLR    x& NTSC)	<b>if</b> (f.is_color    f.has_sound)



## 6.087 Lecture 6 – January 19, 2010

---

- Review
- User defined datatype
  - Structures
  - Unions
  - Bitfields
- Data structure
  - Memory allocation
  - Linked lists
  - Binary trees

# Digression: dynamic memory allocation

---

**void\*** malloc(size\_t n)

- malloc() allocates blocks of memory
- returns a pointer to **uninitialized** block of memory on success
- returns NULL on failure.
- the returned value should be cast to appropriate type using (). **int\*** ip=(**int\***)malloc(**sizeof(int)\*100**)

**void\*** calloc(size\_t n, size\_t size)

- allocates an array of n elements each of which is 'size' bytes.
- initializes memory to 0

**void** free(**void\***)

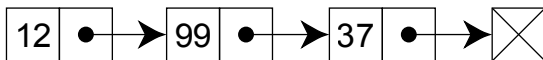
- Frees memory allocated by malloc()
- Common error: accessing memory after calling free

# Linked list

---

Definition: A dynamic data structure that consists of a sequence of records where each element contains a **link** to the next record in the sequence.

- Linked lists can be *singly linked*, *doubly linked* or *circular*. For now, we will focus on *singly* linked list.
- Every node has a *payload* and a link to the next node in the list.
- The start (*head*) of the list is maintained in a separate variable.
- End of the list is indicated by NULL (*sentinel*).



# Linked list

---

```
struct node
{
    int data; /* payload */
    struct node* next;
};
struct node* head; /* beginning */
```

Linked list vs. arrays

	linked-list	array
size	dynamic	fixed
indexing	$O(n)$	$O(1)$
inserting	$O(1)$	$O(n)$
deleting	$O(1)$	$O(n)$

# Linked list

---

Creating new element:

```
struct node* nalloc(int data)
{
    struct node* p=(struct node*) malloc(sizeof(node));
    if (p!=NULL)
    {
        p->data=data;
        p->next=NULL;
    }
    return p;
}
```

# Linked list

---

Adding elements to front:

```
struct node* addfront(struct node* head,int data)
{
    struct node* p=nalloc(data);
    if (p==NULL) return head;
    p->next=head;
    return p;
}
```

# Linked list

---

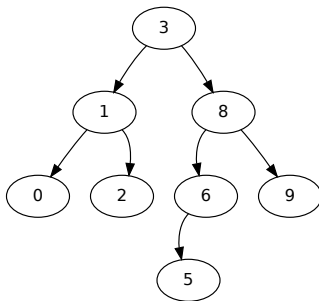
Iterating:

```
for (p=head; p!=NULL; p=p->next)  
    /*do something*/
```

```
for (p=head; p->next!=NULL; p=p->next)  
    /*do something*/
```

# Binary trees

- A binary tree is a dynamic data structure where each node has at most two children. A binary **search** tree is a binary tree with ordering among its children.
- Usually, all elements in the left subtree are assumed to be "less" than the root element and all elements in the right subtree are assumed to be "greater" than the root element.





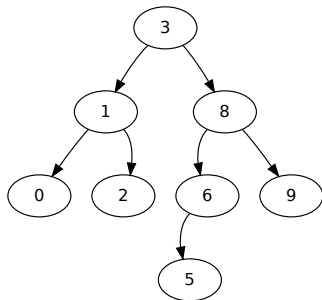
## Binary tree (cont.)

```
struct tnode
{
    int data; /*payload*/
    struct tnode* left;
    struct tnode* right;
};
```

The operation on trees can be framed as recursive operations.

### Traversal (printing, searching):

- pre-order: root, left subtree, right subtree
- Inorder: left subtree, root, right subtree
- post-order: right subtree, left subtree, root



## Binary tree (cont.)

---

### Add node:

```
struct tnode* addnode(struct tnode* root, int data)
{
    struct tnode* p=NULL;
    /*termination condition*/
    if (root==NULL)
    {
        /* allocate node*/
        /* return new root*/
    }
    /*recursive call*/
    else if (data< root->data)
        root->left=addnode(root->left, data)
    else
        root->right=addnode(root->right, data)
}
```

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# 6.087 Lecture 7 – January 20, 2010

---

- Review
- More about Pointers
  - Pointers to Pointers
  - Pointer Arrays
  - Multidimensional Arrays
- Data Structures
  - Stacks
  - Queues
  - Application: Calculator

# Review: Compound data types

---

- **struct** - structure containing one or multiple fields, each with its own type (or compound type)
  - size is combined size of all the fields, padded for byte alignment
  - anonymous or named
- **union** - structure containing one of several fields, each with its own type (or compound type)
  - size is size of largest field
  - anonymous or named
- Bit fields - structure fields with width in bits
  - aligned and ordered in architecture-dependent manner
  - can result in inefficient code

# Review: Compound data types

---

- Consider this compound data structure:

```
struct foo {  
    short s;  
    union {  
        int i;  
        char c;  
    } u;  
    unsigned int flag_s : 1;  
    unsigned int flag_u : 2;  
    unsigned int bar;  
};
```

- Assuming a 32-bit x86 processor, evaluate  
`sizeof(struct foo)`

# Review: Compound data types

---

- Consider this compound data structure:

```
struct foo {  
    short s;                ← 2 bytes  
    union {                 ← 4 bytes,  
        int i;              4 byte-aligned  
        char c;  
    } u;  
    unsigned int flag_s : 1; ← bit fields  
    unsigned int flag_u : 2;  
    unsigned int bar;        ← 4 bytes,  
};                           4 byte-aligned
```

- Assuming a 32-bit x86 processor, evaluate  
`sizeof(struct foo)`

# Review: Compound data types

---

- How can we rearrange the fields to minimize the size of `struct` foo?



# Review: Compound data types

---

- How can we rearrange the fields to minimize the size of `struct foo`?
- Answer: order from largest to smallest:

```
struct foo {  
    union {  
        int i;  
        char c;  
    } u;  
    unsigned int bar;  
    short s;  
    unsigned int flag_s : 1;  
    unsigned int flag_u : 2;  
};
```

`sizeof(struct foo) = 12`

# Review: Linked lists and trees

---

- Linked list and tree dynamically grow as data is added/removed
- Node in list or tree usually implemented as a **struct**
- Use `malloc()`, `free()`, etc. to allocate/free memory dynamically
- Unlike arrays, do not provide fast random access by index (need to iterate)

- Review
- More about Pointers
  - Pointers to Pointers
  - Pointer Arrays
  - Multidimensional Arrays
- Data Structures
  - Stacks
  - Queues
  - Application: Calculator

# Pointer review

---

- Pointer represents address to variable in memory
- Examples:

**int** \*pn; – pointer to `int`

**struct** div\_t \* pdiv; – pointer to structure `div_t`

- Addressing and indirection:

**double** pi = 3.14159;

**double** \*ppi = &pi;

printf("pi = %g\n", \*ppi);

- Today: pointers to pointers, arrays of pointers, multidimensional arrays

# Pointers to pointers

---

- Address stored by pointer also data in memory
- Can address location of address in memory – pointer to that pointer

```
int n = 3;  
int *pn = &n; /* pointer to n */  
int **ppn = &pn; /* pointer to address of n */
```

- Many uses in C: pointer arrays, string arrays

# Pointer pointers example

---

- What does this function do?

```
void swap(int **a, int **b) {  
    int *temp = *a;  
    *a = *b;  
    *b = temp;  
}
```

# Pointer pointers example

---

- What does this function do?

```
void swap(int **a, int **b) {  
    int *temp = *a;  
    *a = *b;  
    *b = temp;  
}
```

- How does it compare to the familiar version of swap?

```
void swap(int *a, int *b) {  
    int temp = *a;  
    *a = *b;  
    *b = temp;  
}
```

# Pointer arrays

---

- Pointer array – array of pointers  
`int *arr[20];` – an array of pointers to `int`'s  
`char *arr[10];` – an array of pointers to `char`'s
- Pointers in array can point to arrays themselves  
`char *strs[10];` – an array of `char` arrays (or strings)



# Pointer array example

---

- Have an array `int arr[100];` that contains some numbers
- Want to have a sorted version of the array, but not modify `arr`
- Can declare a pointer array `int * sorted_array[100];` containing pointers to elements of `arr` and sort the pointers instead of the numbers themselves
- Good approach for sorting arrays whose elements are very large (like strings)

# Pointer array example

---

Insertion sort:

```
/* move previous elements down until
   insertion point reached */
void shift_element(unsigned int i) {
    int *pvalue;
    /* guard against going outside array */
    for (pvalue = sorted_array[i]; i &&
         *sorted_array[i-1] > *pvalue; i--) {
        /* move pointer down */
        sorted_array[i] = sorted_array[i-1];
    }
    sorted_array[i] = pvalue; /* insert pointer */
}
```

# Pointer array example

---

Insertion sort (continued):

```
/* iterate until out-of-order element found;
   shift the element, and continue iterating */
void insertion_sort(void) {
    unsigned int i, len = array_length(arr);
    for (i = 1; i < len; i++)
        if (*sorted_array[i] < *sorted_array[i - 1])
            shift_element(i);
}
```

# String arrays

---

- An array of strings, each stored as a pointer to an array of chars
- Each string may be of different length

```
char str1[] = "hello"; /* length = 6 */  
char str2[] = "goodbye"; /* length = 8 */  
char str3[] = "ciao"; /* length = 5 */  
char * strArray[] = {str1, str2, str3};
```

- Note that strArray contains only pointers, not the characters themselves!

# Multidimensional arrays

---

- C also permits multidimensional arrays specified using [ ] brackets notation:  
`int world[20][30];` is a 20x30 2-D array of `int`'s
- Higher dimensions possible:  
`char bigcharmatrix [15][7][35][4];` – what are the dimensions of this?
- Multidimensional arrays are rectangular; pointer arrays can be arbitrary shaped

- Review
- More about Pointers
  - Pointers to Pointers
  - Pointer Arrays
  - Multidimensional Arrays
- Data Structures
  - Stacks
  - Queues
  - Application: Calculator

# More data structures

---

- Last time: linked lists
- Today: stack, queue
- Can be implemented using linked list or array storage

# The stack

---

- Special type of list - last element in (push) is first out (pop)
- Read and write from same end of list
- The stack (where local variables are stored) is implemented as a \*gasp\* stack



# Stack as array

---

- Store as array buffer (static allocation or dynamic allocation):
- Elements added and removed from end of array; need to track end:

```
int stack_buffer[100];
```

```
int itop = 0; /* end at zero => initialized for empty stack */
```

# Stack as array

---

- Add element using **void** push(**int**);

```
void push(int elem) {  
    stack_buffer[itop++] = elem;  
}
```

- Remove element using **int** pop(**void**);

```
int pop(void) {  
    if (itop > 0)  
        return stack_buffer[--itop];  
    else  
        return 0; /* or other special value */  
}
```

- Some implementations provide **int** top(**void**); to read last (top) element without removing it

# Stack as linked list

---

- Store as linked list (dynamic allocation):

```
struct s_listnode {  
    int element;  
    struct s_listnode * pnext;  
};
```

**struct** s\_listnode \* stack\_buffer = NULL; – start empty

- “Top” is now at front of linked list (no need to track)

# Stack as linked list

---

- Add element using `void push(int);`

```
void push(int elem) {  
    struct s_listnode *new_node = /* allocate new node */  
        (struct s_listnode *)malloc(sizeof(struct s_listnode));  
    new_node->pnext = stack_buffer;  
    new_node->element = elem;  
    stack_buffer = new_node;  
}
```

- Adding an element pushes back the rest of the stack

# Stack as linked list

---

- Remove element using `int pop(void)`;

```
int pop(void) {  
    if (stack_buffer) {  
        struct s_listnode *pelem = stack_buffer;  
        int elem = stack_buffer->element;  
        stack_buffer = pelem->pnext;  
        free(pelem); /* remove node from memory */  
        return elem;  
    } else  
        return 0; /* or other special value */  
}
```

- Some implementations provide `int top(void)`; to read last (top) element without removing it

# The queue

---

- Opposite of stack - first in (enqueue), first out (dequeue)
- Read and write from opposite ends of list
- Important for UIs (event/message queues), networking (Tx, Rx packet queues)
- Imposes an ordering on elements

# Queue as array

---

- Again, store as array buffer (static or dynamic allocation);  
`float queue_buffer[100];`
- Elements added to end (rear), removed from beginning (front)
- Need to keep track of front and rear:  
`int ifront = 0, irear = 0;`
- Alternatively, we can track the front and number of elements:  
`int ifront = 0, icount = 0;`
- We'll use the second way (reason apparent later)

# Queue as array

---

- Add element using **void** enqueue(**float**);

```
void enqueue(float elem) {  
    if (icount < 100) {  
        queue_buffer[ifront+icount] = elem;  
        icount++;  
    }  
}
```

- Remove element using **float** dequeue(**void**);

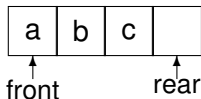
```
float dequeue(void) {  
    if (icount > 0) {  
        icount--;  
        return queue_buffer[ifront++];  
    } else  
        return 0.; /* or other special value */  
}
```



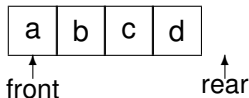
# Queue as array

---

- This would make for a very poor queue! Observe a queue of capacity 4:



- Enqueue 'd' to the rear of the queue:

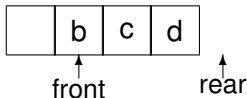


The queue is now full.

# Queue as array

---

- Dequeue 'a':



- Enqueue 'e' to the rear: where should it go?
- Solution: use a circular (or “ring”) buffer
  - 'e' would go in the beginning of the array

# Queue as array

---

- Need to modify **void** enqueue(**float**); and **float** dequeue(**void**);
- New **void** enqueue(**float**);:

```
void enqueue(float elem) {  
    if (icount < 100) {  
        queue_buffer[(ifront+icount) % 100] = elem;  
        icount++;  
    }  
}
```

# Queue as array

---

- New **float** dequeue(**void**);:

```
float dequeue(void) {  
    if (icount > 0) {  
        float elem = queue_buffer[ifront];  
        icount--;  
        ifront++;  
        if (ifront == 100)  
            ifront = 0;  
        return elem;  
    } else  
        return 0.; /* or other special value */  
}
```

- Why would using “front” and “rear” counters instead make this harder?

# Queue as linked list

---

- Store as linked list (dynamic allocation):

```
struct s_listnode {  
    float element;  
    struct s_listnode * pnext;  
};
```

```
struct s_listnode *queue_buffer = NULL; – start empty
```

- Let front be at beginning – no need to track front
- Rear is at end – we should track it:

```
struct s_listnode *prear = NULL;
```

# Queue as linked list

---

- Add element using **void** enqueue(**float**);

```
void enqueue(float elem) {  
    struct s_listnode *new_node = /* allocate new node */  
        (struct s_listnode *)malloc(sizeof(struct s_listnode))  
    new_node->element = elem;  
    new_node->pnext = NULL; /* at rear */  
    if (prear)  
        prear->pnext = new_node;  
    else /* empty */  
        queue_buffer = new_node;  
    prear = new_node;  
}
```

- Adding an element doesn't affect the front if the queue is not empty

# Queue as linked list

---

- Remove element using `float dequeue(void)`;

```
float dequeue(void) {  
    if (queue_buffer) {  
        struct s_listnode *pelem = queue_buffer;  
        float elem = queue_buffer->element;  
        queue_buffer = pelem->pnext;  
        if (pelem == prear) /* at end */  
            prear = NULL;  
        free(pelem); /* remove node from memory */  
        return elem;  
    } else  
        return 0.; /* or other special value */  
}
```

- Removing element doesn't affect rear unless resulting queue is empty

# A simple calculator

---

- Stacks and queues allow us to design a simple expression evaluator
- Prefix, infix, postfix notation: operator before, between, and after operands, respectively

Infix	Prefix	Postfix
$A + B$	$+ A B$	$A B +$
$A * B - C$	$- * A B C$	$A B * C -$
$(A + B) * (C - D)$	$* + A B - C D$	$A B + C D - *$

- Infix more natural to write, postfix easier to evaluate



# Infix to postfix

---

- "Shunting yard algorithm" - Dijkstra (1961): input and output in queues, separate stack for holding operators
- Simplest version (operands and binary operators only):
  1. dequeue token from input
  2. if operand (number), add to output queue
  3. if operator, then pop operators off stack and add to output queue as long as
    - top operator on stack has higher precedence, or
    - top operator on stack has same precedence and is left-associativeand push new operator onto stack
  4. return to step 1 as long as tokens remain in input
  5. pop remaining operators from stack and add to output queue

## Infix to postfix example

---

- Infix expression:  $A + B * C - D$

Token	Output queue	Operator stack
A	A	
+	A	+
B	A B	+
*	A B	+ *
C	A B C	+ *
-	A B C * +	-
D	A B C * + D	-
(end)	A B C * + D -	

- Postfix expression:  $A B C * + D -$
- What if expression includes parentheses?

## Example with parentheses

- Infix expression:  $(A + B) * (C - D)$

Token	Output queue	Operator stack
(		(
A	A	(
+	A	( +
B	A B	( +
)	A B +	
*	A B +	*
(	A B +	* (
C	A B + C	* (
-	A B + C	* ( -
D	A B + C D	* ( -
)	A B + C D -	*
(end)	A B + C D - *	

- Postfix expression:  $A B + C D - *$

# Evaluating postfix

---

- Postfix evaluation very easy with a stack:
  1. dequeue a token from the postfix queue
  2. if token is an operand, push onto stack
  3. if token is an operator, pop operands off stack (2 for binary operator); push result onto stack
  4. repeat until queue is empty
  5. item remaining in stack is final result

## Postfix evaluation example

---

- Postfix expression: 3 4 + 5 1 - \*

Token	Stack
3	3
4	3 4
+	7
5	7 5
1	7 5 1
-	7 4
*	28
(end)	answer = 28

- Extends to expressions with functions, unary operators
- Performs evaluation in one pass, unlike with prefix notation

# Summary

---

Topics covered:

- Pointers to pointers
  - pointer and string arrays
  - multidimensional arrays
- Data structures
  - stack and queue
  - implemented as arrays and linked lists
  - writing a calculator

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## 6.087 Lecture 8 – January 21, 2010

---

- Review
- Pointers
  - Void pointers
  - Function pointers
- Hash table



# Review:Pointers

---

- pointers: `int x; int* p=&x;`
- pointers to pointer: `int x; int* p=&x;int** pp=&p;`
- Array of pointers: `char* names[]={ "abba ", "u2 "};`
- Multidimensional arrays: `int x [20][20];`

# Review: Stacks

---

- LIFO: last in first out data structure.
- items are inserted and removed from the same end.
- operations: `push()`, `pop()`, `top()`
- can be implemented using arrays, linked list

# Review: Queues

---

- FIFO: first in first out
- items are inserted at the rear and removed from the front.
- operations: `queue()`, `dequeue()`
- can be implemented using arrays, linked list

# Review: Expressions

---

- Infix:  $(A+B) * (C-D)$
- prefix:  $*+AB-CD$
- postfix:  $AB+CD-*$

## 6.087 Lecture 8 – January 21, 2010

---

- Review
- Pointers
  - Void pointers
  - Function pointers
- Hash table

# Void pointers

---

- C does not allow us to declare and use void **variables**.
- void can be used only as return type or parameter of a function.
- C allows void **pointers**
- Question: What are some scenarios where you want to pass void pointers?
- void pointers can be used to point to any data type
  - `int x; void* p=&x; /*points to int*/`
  - `float f; void* p=&f; /*points to float*/`
- void pointers cannot be dereferenced. The pointers should always be cast before dereferencing.  
`void* p; printf ("%d",*p); /*invalid*/`  
`void* p; int *px=(int*)p; printf ("%d",*px); /*valid*/`

# Function pointers

---

- In some programming languages, functions are first class variables (can be passed to functions, returned from functions etc.).
- In C, function itself is not a variable. But it is possible to declare pointer to functions.
- Question: What are some scenarios where you want to pass pointers to functions?
- Declaration examples:
  - `int (*fp)(int ) /*notice the ()*/`
  - `int (*fp)(void*,void*)`
- Function pointers can be assigned, pass to and from functions, placed in arrays etc.

# Callbacks

---

Definition: Callback is a piece of executable code passed to functions. In C, callbacks are implemented by passing function pointers.

Example:

```
void qsort(void* arr, int num, int size, int (*fp)(void* pa, void*pb))
```

- `qsort()` function from the standard library can be sort an array of any datatype.
- Question: How does it do that? callbacks.
- `qsort()` calls a function whenever a comparison needs to be done.
- The function takes two arguments and returns ( $<0, 0, >0$ ) depending on the relative order of the two items.



## Callback (cont.)

---

```
int arr[]={10,9,8,1,2,3,5};
/* callback */
int asc(void* pa, void* pb)
{
    return (* (int*)pa - *(int*)pb);
}
/* callback */
int desc(void* pa, void* pb)
{
    return (* (int*)pb - *(int*)pa);
}
/* sort in ascending order */
qsort(arr, sizeof(arr)/sizeof(int), sizeof(int), asc);
/* sort in descending order */
qsort(arr, sizeof(arr)/sizeof(int), sizeof(int), desc);
```

## Callback (cont.)

---

Consider a linked list with nodes defined as follows:

```
struct node{
    int data;
    struct node* next;
};
```

Also consider the function 'apply' defined as follows:

```
void apply(struct node* phead,
           void (*fp)(void*, void* ),
           void* arg) /* only fp has to be named */
{
    struct node* p=phead;
    while(p!=NULL)
    {
        fp(p, arg); /* can also use (*fp)(p, arg) */
        p=p->next;
    }
}
```

## Callback (cont.)

---

### Iterating:

```
struct node* phead;  
/* populate somewhere */  
void print(void* p, void* arg)  
{  
    struct node* np=(struct node*)p;  
    printf("%d ", np->data);  
}  
apply(phead, print, NULL);
```

## Callback (cont.)

---

### Counting nodes:

```
void dototal(void* p, void* arg)
{
    struct node* np=(struct node*)p;
    int* ptotal      =(int*)arg;
    *ptotal += np->data;
}
int total=0;
apply(phead, dototal, &total);
```

# Array of function pointers

---

Example: Consider the case where different functions are called based on a value.

```
enum TYPE{SQUARE,RECT,CIRCILE ,POLYGON};
struct shape{
    float params[MAX];
    enum TYPE type;
};
void draw(struct shape* ps)
{
    switch(ps->type)
    {
        case SQUARE:
            draw_square(ps); break;
        case RECT:
            draw_rect(ps); break;
        ...
    }
}
```

# Array of function pointers

---

The same can be done using an array of function pointers instead.

```
void (*fp[4])(struct shape* ps)=
{&draw_square,&draw_rec,&draw_circle,&draw_poly};
typedef void (*fp)(struct shape* ps) drawfn;
drawfn fp[4]=
{&draw_square,&draw_rec,&draw_circle,&draw_poly};
void draw(struct shape* ps)
{
    (*fp[ps->type])(ps); /* call the correct function */
}
```

## 6.087 Lecture 8 – January 21, 2010

---

- Review
- Pointers
  - Void pointers
  - Function pointers
- Hash table

# Hash table

Hash tables (hashmaps) combine linked list and arrays to provide an *efficient* data structure for storing dynamic data. Hash tables are commonly implemented as an array of linked lists (hash tables with chaining).

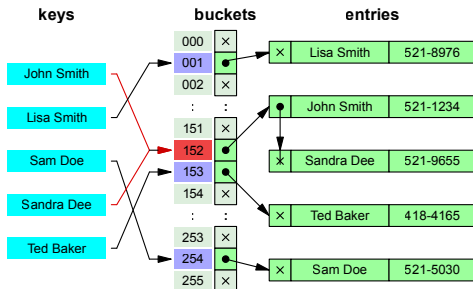


Figure: Example of a hash table with chaining (source: wikipedia)



# Hash table

---

- Each data item is associated with a *key* that determines its location.
- *Hash functions* are used to generate an evenly distributed hash value.
- A *hash collision* is said to occur when two items have the same hash value.
- Items with the same hash keys are chained
- Retrieving an item is  $O(1)$  operation.

# Hash tables

---

Hash functions:

- A hash function maps its input into a finite range: hash value, hash code.
- The hash value should ideally have uniform distribution. why?
- Other uses of hash functions: cryptography, caches (computers/internet), bloom filters etc.
- Hash function types:
  - Division type
  - Multiplication type
- Other ways to avoid collision: linear probing, double hashing.

# Hash table: example

---

```
#define MAX_BUCKETS 1000
#define MULTIPLIER 31
struct wordrec
{
    char* word;
    unsigned long count;
    struct wordrec* next;
};

/* hash bucket */
struct wordrec* table[MAX_LEN];
```

# Hash table: example

---

```
unsigned long hashstring(const char* str)
{
    unsigned long hash=0;
    while(*str)
    {
        hash= hash*MULTIPLIER+*str;
        str++;
    }
    return hash%MAX_BUCKETS;
}
```

# Hash table: example

---

```
struct wordrec* lookup(const char* str, int create)
{
    struct wordrec* curr=NULL;
    unsigned long hash=hashstring(str);
    struct wordrec* wp=table[hash];
    for(curr=wp; curr!=NULL ; curr=curr->next)
        /* search */;
notfound:
    if(create)
        /* add to front */
    return curr;
}
```

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