

## CSC 322: Computer Organization Lab

Lecture 01: Introduction to C

### Grading and Class Policies

- Final Exam: 20%
- Labs: 60%
- Two Milestones (20%)
  - Software-based: 10%
  - Hardware-based: 10%
- Exam Details
  - Exams are closed book, closed notes
- All assignments must be your own original work.
  - Cheating/copying/partnering will not be tolerated

## Lab Reports

- You need to submit a report at the conclusion of each lab
- The report should follow the LaTex template on **github**
  - <https://github.com/harmanani/csc322/tree/master/Lab%20Report%20Template>

## Course Introduction

- Lab will be held on Thursdays from 5:00-7:00 pm
  - Need to schedule a lecture to explain the lab before Thursday
- Prerequisites
  - The ability to program
- What will we do in the lab?
  - Learn C programming
  - Learn Python Programming
  - Learn Verilog
  - Model hardware using the above languages
- We will be using LaTex in order to write the reports!

## Contact Information

- Haidar M. Harmanani
  - Office: Block A, 810
  - Hours: TTh 8:00-9:30 or by appointment.
  - Email: [haidar@lau.edu.lb](mailto:haidar@lau.edu.lb)

## Lab Assignments

- All assignments and handouts will be communicated via piazza
  - Make sure you enable your account
- Use piazza for questions and inquiries
  - No questions will be answered via email
- All assignments must be submitted via github
  - git is a distributed version control system
  - Version control systems are better tools for sharing code than emailing files, using flash drives, or Dropbox
  - Make sure you get a private repo
    - Apply for a free account: [https://education.github.com/discount\\_requests/new](https://education.github.com/discount_requests/new)

## On to C ...

### Why learn C (after Java)?

- Both high-level and low-level language
  - OS: user interface to kernel to device driver
- Better control of low-level mechanisms
  - Memory allocation, specific memory locations
- Performance better than Java
  - More predictable
- Java hides many details needed for writing OS code
- But you will have to worry about:
  - Memory management
  - Initialization and error detection
- More room for mistakes in C
- Philosophical considerations:
  - Being multi-lingual is good!
  - Should be able to trace program from UI to assembly (EEs: to electrons)

## C history

- C
  - Dennis Ritchie in late 1960s and early 1970s
  - systems programming language
    - make OS portable across hardware platforms
    - not necessarily for real applications – could be written in Fortran or PL/I
- C++
  - Bjarne Stroustrup (Bell Labs), 1980s
  - object-oriented features
- Java
  - James Gosling in 1990s, originally for embedded systems
  - object-oriented, like C++
  - ideas and some syntax from C

## C for Java programmers

- Java is mid-90s high-level OO language
- C is early-70s *procedural* language
- C advantages:
  - Direct access to OS primitives (system calls)
  - Fewer library issues – just execute
- (More) C disadvantages:
  - language is portable, APIs are not
  - memory and “handle” leaks
  - preprocessor can lead to obscure errors

## Simple Example

```
#include <stdio.h>

void main(void)
{
    printf("Hello World. \n \t and you ! \n ");
                /* print out a message */
    return;
}

$ gcc hello.c
$ ./a.out
$ Hello World.
        and you !
$
```

## Simple Example

```
#include <stdio.h>

void main(void)
{
    printf("Hello World. \n \t and you ! \n ");
                /* print out a message */
    return;
}

$ gcc -o hello hello.c
$ ./hello
$ Hello World.
        and you !
$
```

## Dissecting the example

- `#include <stdio.h>`
  - include header file stdio.h
  - # lines processed by *pre-processor*
  - No semicolon at end
  - Lower-case letters only – C is case-sensitive
- `void main(void){ ... }` is the only code executed
- `printf(" /* message you want printed */ ");`
- `\n` = newline, `\t` = tab
- `\` in front of other special characters within `printf`.
  - `printf("Have you heard of \"The Rock\" ? \n");`

## Compiling and Executing a C Program

## Executing the C program

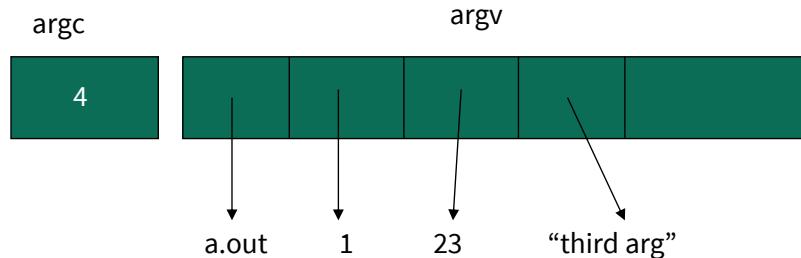
- How can we pass parameters to a C program?
- Example
  - Assume we have a set of names in a file
  - I would like to pass the file as an argument so that these names are processed.
  - I do not wish to be prompted for a file name

## Executing the C program

- ```
int main(int argc, char argv[])
```
- argc is the argument count
  - argv is the argument vector
    - array of strings with command-line arguments
  - the int value is the return value
    - convention: 0 means success, > 0 some error
    - can also declare as void (no return value)

## Executing a C program

- Name of executable + space-separated arguments
- \$ a.out 1 23 ‘third arg’



## Executing a C program

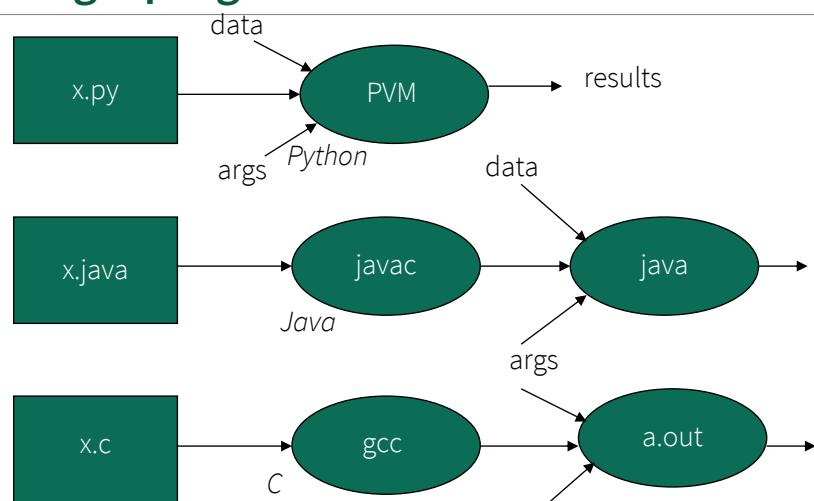
- If no arguments, simplify:

```
int main() {  
    puts("Hello World");  
    exit(0);  
}
```
- Uses `exit()` instead of `return` – same thing.

## Executing C programs

- Scripting languages are usually interpreted
  - perl (python, Tcl) reads script, and executes it
  - sometimes, just-in-time compilation – invisible to user
- Java programs semi-interpreted:
  - javac converts foo.java into foo.class
  - not machine-specific
  - byte codes are then interpreted by JVM
- C programs are normally compiled and linked:
  - gcc converts foo.c into a.out
  - a.out is executed by OS and hardware

## Executing C programs



## The C compiler gcc

- gcc invokes C compiler
- gcc translates C program into executable for some target
- default file name a.out
- also “cross-compilation”

```
$ gcc hello.c
```

```
$ a.out
```

Hello, World!

## Using gcc

- Two-stage compilation
  - pre-process & compile: `gcc -c hello.c`
  - link: `gcc -o hello hello.o`
- Linking several modules:  
`gcc -c a.c → a.o`  
`gcc -c b.c → b.o`  
`gcc -o hello a.o b.o`
- Using math library
  - `gcc -o calc calc.c -lm`

## Error reporting in gcc

- Multiple sources
  - preprocessor: missing include files
  - parser: syntax errors
  - assembler: rare
  - linker: missing libraries

## Error reporting in gcc

- If gcc gets confused, hundreds of messages
  - fix first, and then retry – ignore the rest
- gcc will produce an executable with warnings
  - don't ignore warnings – compiler choice is often not what you had in mind
- Does not flag common mindos
  - `if (x = 0)` vs. `if (x == 0)`

## gcc errors

- Produces object code for each module
- Assumes references to external names will be resolved later
- Undefined names will be reported when linking:

```
undefined symbol first referenced in file  
    _print program.o  
ld fatal: Symbol referencing errors  
No output written to file.
```

Let us try to compile something using gcc

## Source Code

```
#include <stdio.h>

int main(void)
{
    int iNumberOfMoney = 0; /* Initialization, required */

    printf("How much money do you have ?:");
    scanf ("%d", &iNumberOfMoney); /* Read input */
    printf("You have %d Lebanese Pounds.\n", iNumberOfMoney);

    return 0;
}

$ How much money do you have ?: 200000 (enter)
You have 200000 Lebanese Pounds.
```

## Using emacs, Linux, and gcc



## Type The code

A screenshot of the Emacs text editor window titled "haidar — emacs example.c — 103x24". The code in the buffer is:

```
#include <stdio.h>
int main(void)
{
    int iNumberOfMoney = 0; /* Initialization, required */
    printf("How much money do you have ?:");
    scanf ("%d", &iNumberOfMoney); /* Read input */
    printf("You have %d Lebanese Pounds.\n", iNumberOfMoney);

    return 0;
}
```

The status bar at the bottom shows "-uuu:---F1 example.c All L11 (C/l Abbrev)-----".

## Compile and Run

A screenshot of a terminal window titled "haidar — -bash — 103x24". The session logs are:

```
yoda:~ haidar$ gcc -o example example.c
yoda:~ haidar$ ./example
How much money do you have ?:200000
You have 200000 Lebanese Pounds.
yoda:~ haidar$ ]]
```

## gcc Options

- **gcc -o example example.c -g -Wall**
  - ‘-o’ option tells the compiler to name the executable ‘example’
  - ‘-g’ option adds symbolic information to **example** for debugging
  - ‘-Wall’ tells it to print out all warnings (very useful!!!)
  - Can also give ‘-O6’ to turn on full optimization
  - -l to include libraries
  - -E for preprocessor output only
- To execute the program simply type: **./example**
- **gdb** is the Linux debugger

## gcc Options: Summary

- Behavior controlled by command-line switches:

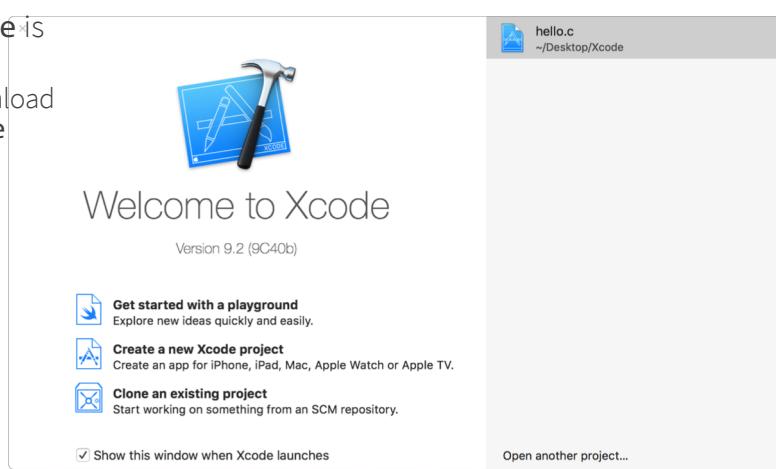
|                |                                      |
|----------------|--------------------------------------|
| <b>-o file</b> | output file for object or executable |
| <b>-Wall</b>   | all warnings – use always!           |
| <b>-c</b>      | compile single module (non-main)     |
| <b>-g</b>      | insert debugging code (gdb)          |
| <b>-p</b>      | insert profiling code                |
| <b>-l</b>      | library                              |
| <b>-E</b>      | preprocessor output only             |

**Let us redo the same example using Developer Studio or Xcode**

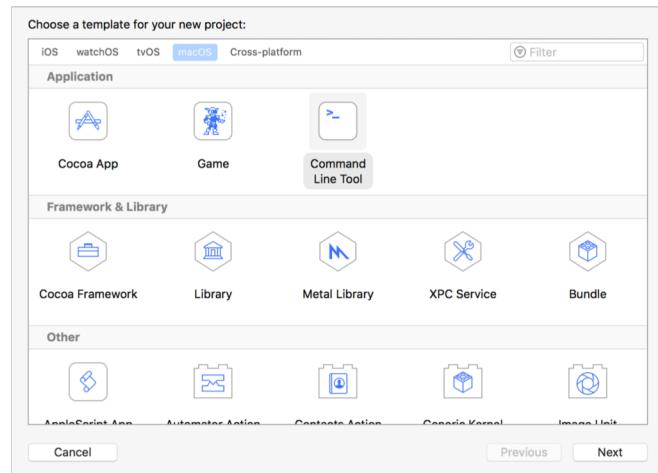
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## Open Xcode:

- Make sure that **Xcode** is already installed
  - Otherwise, freely download it from the [App Store](#)



## Open Xcode and Create a Project Using the Command Line Tool



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Name your project `hello.c` and Select any organization identifier

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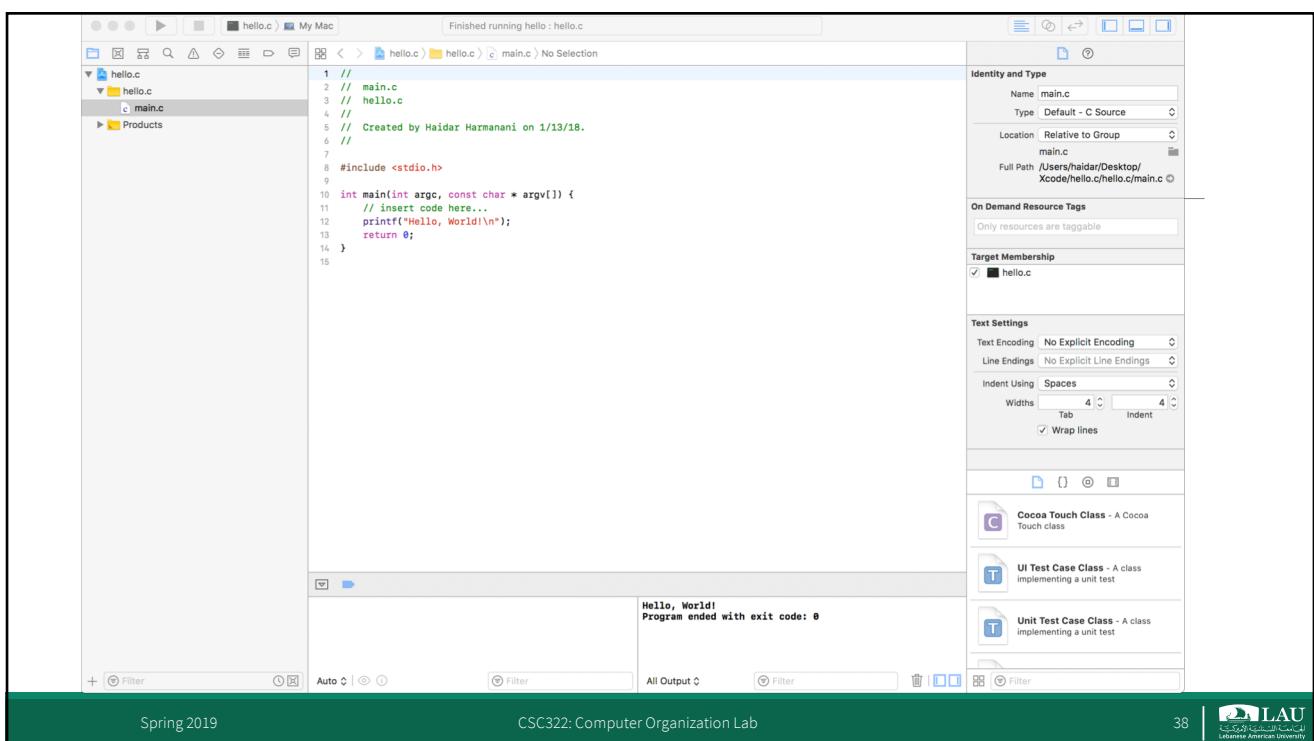
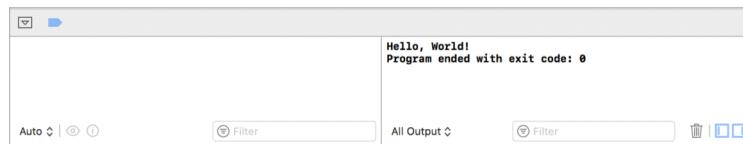
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## Edit and Compile

- Type your code in the built-in editor
- Compile by clicking on the arrow 
- Output will appear in the bottom window



The screenshot shows the Xcode IDE interface. The top menu bar includes File, Editor, View, Project, Run, Stop, Product, Debug, and Help. The main window has a toolbar with icons for file operations like New, Open, Save, and Print. The left sidebar displays a project structure with files: hello.c, hello.c, main.c, and Products. The code editor shows the following C code:

```
1 // main.c
2 // hello.c
3 // Created by Haider Hazmanian on 1/13/18.
4 //
5 // Insert code here...
6 // printf("Hello, World!\n");
7 // return 0;
8
9 #include <stdio.h>
10
11 int main(int argc, const char * argv[]) {
12     // Insert code here...
13     printf("Hello, World!\n");
14     return 0;
15 }
```

The right side of the interface contains several inspector panes:

- Identity and Type**: Shows the file name as main.c, type as Default - C Source, location as Relative to Group, and full path as /Users/haider/Desktop/Xcode/hello.c/main.c.
- On Demand Resource Tags**: A section indicating "Only resources are taggable".
- Target Membership**: Shows a checkmark next to hello.c.
- Text Settings**: Includes Text Encoding (No Explicit Encoding), Line Endings (No Explicit Line Endings), Indent Using (Spaces), and Widths (Width: 4, Tab: 4).
- Assistant Editor**: Shows the same code as the main editor.
- Document Outline**: Shows the project structure with main.c selected.
- File Inspector**: Shows the file's properties.
- Attribute Inspector**: Shows the file's attributes.
- Symbol Inspector**: Shows the file's symbols.

The bottom of the interface features a toolbar with filters and output controls, and an output window displaying the results of the compilation:

```
Hello, World!
Program ended with exit code: 0
```

## More C Programming

### C preprocessor

- The C preprocessor (cpp) is a macro-processor which
  - manages a collection of macro definitions
  - reads a C program and transforms it

— Example:

```
#define MAXVALUE 100
#define check(x) ((x) < MAXVALUE)
if (check(i)) { ...}
becomes
if ((i) < 100) { ...}
```

## C preprocessor

- Preprocessor directives start with # at beginning of line:
  - define new macros
  - input files with C code (typically, definitions)
  - conditionally compile parts of file
- gcc -E shows output of preprocessor
- Can be used independently of compiler

## C preprocessor

- ```
#define name const-expression
#define name (param1,param2,...) expression
#undef symbol
```
- replaces name with constant or expression
  - textual substitution
  - symbolic names for global constants
  - *in-line* functions (avoid function call overhead)
    - mostly unnecessary for modern compilers
  - type-independent code

## C preprocessor

- Example: `#define MAXLEN 255`
  - Lots of system .h files define macros
  - invisible in debugger
  - `getchar()`, `putchar()` in stdio library
- ```
#define valid(x) ((x) > 0 && (x) < 20)
if (valid(x++)) {...}
valid(x++) -> ((x++) > 0 && (x++) < 20)
```



**Don't treat macros like function calls**

## C preprocessor –file inclusion

- ```
#include "filename.h"
#include <filename.h>
```
- inserts contents of filename into file to be compiled
  - “filename” relative to current directory
  - <filename> relative to /usr/include
  - gcc -I flag to re-define default
  - import function prototypes (cf. Java import)
  - Examples:

```
#include <stdio.h>
#include "mydefs.h"
#include "/home/alice/program/defs.h"
```

## C preprocessor – conditional compilation

```
#if expression
code segment 1
#else
code segment 2
#endif


- preprocessor checks value of expression
- if true, outputs code segment 1, otherwise code segment 2
- machine or OS-dependent code
- can be used to comment out chunks of code – bad!


#define OS linux
...
#if OS == linux
    puts("Linux!");
#else
    puts("Something else");
#endif
```

## C preprocessor - ifdef

- For boolean flags, easier:

```
#ifdef name
code segment 1
#else
code segment 2
#endif
```

- preprocessor checks if name has been defined
  - #define USEDDB
- if so, use code segment 1, otherwise 2

## Advice on preprocessor

- Limit use as much as possible
  - subtle errors
  - not visible in debugging
  - code hard to read
- much of it is historical baggage
- there are better alternatives for almost everything:
  - #define INT16 -> type definitions
  - #define MAXLEN -> const
  - #define max(a,b) -> regular functions
  - comment out code -> CVS, functions
- limit to .h files, to isolate OS & machine-specific code

## C Comments and data types

## Comments

- /\* any text until \*/
- // C++-style comments – careful!
- no /\*\* \*/, but doct++ has similar conventions
- Convention for longer comments:

```
/*
 * AverageGrade()
 * Given an array of grades, compute the average.
 */
```
- Avoid \*\*\*\* boxes – hard to edit, usually look ragged.

## Numeric data types

| <b>type</b> | <b>bytes</b> | <b>range</b>                    |
|-------------|--------------|---------------------------------|
| char        | 1            | -128 ... 127                    |
| short       | 2            | -65536...65535                  |
| int, long   | 4            | -2,147,483,648 to 2,147,483,647 |
| long long   | 8            | $2^{64}$                        |
| float       | 4            | 3.4E+/-38 (7 digits)            |
| double      | 8            | 1.7E+/-308 (15 digits)          |

## Remarks on data types

- Range differs – `int` is “native” size, e.g., 64 bits on 64-bit machines, but sometimes `int` = 32 bits, `long` = 64 bits
- Also, `unsigned` versions of integer types
  - same bits, different interpretation
- `char` = 1 “character”, but only true for ASCII and other Western char sets

## Type conversion

```
#include <stdio.h>
void main(void)
{
    int i,j = 12;      /* i not initialized, only j */
    float f1,f2 = 1.2;

    i = (int) f2;      /* explicit: i <- 1, 0.2 lost */
    f1 = i;            /* implicit: f1 <- 1.0 */

    f1 = f2 + (int) j; /* explicit: f1 <- 1.2 + 12.0 */
    f1 = f2 + j;       /* implicit: f1 <- 1.2 + 12.0 */
}
```

## Explicit and implicit conversions

- Implicit: e.g., `s = a (int) + b (char)`
- Promotion: `char -> short -> int -> ...`
- If one operand is `double`, the other is made `double`
- If either is `float`, the other is made `float`, etc.
- Explicit: type casting – (*type*)
- Almost any conversion does something – but not necessarily what you intended

## Type conversion

```
int x = 100000;  
short s;  
  
s = x;  
printf("%d %d\n", x, s);  
  
100000 -31072
```

## C – no booleans

- C doesn't have booleans
- Emulate as int or char, with values 0 (false) and 1 or non-zero (true)
- Allowed by flow control statements:

```
if (n == 0) {
    printf("something wrong");
}
```
- Assignment returns zero -> false

## User-defined types

- `typedef` gives names to types:

```
typedef short int smallNumber;
typedef unsigned char byte;
typedef char String[100];

smallNumber x;
byte b;
String name;
```

## Defining your own boolean

- ```
typedef char boolean;  
#define FALSE 0  
#define TRUE 1
```
- Generally works, but beware:  

```
check = x > 0;  
if (check == TRUE) {...}
```
  - If x is positive, check will be non-zero, but may not be 1.

## Enumerated types

- Define new integer-like types as enumerated types:

```
typedef enum {  
    Red, Orange, Yellow, Green, Blue, Violet  
} Color;  
enum weather {rain, snow=2, sun=4};
```

- look like C identifiers (names)
- are listed (enumerated) in definition
- treated like integers
  - can add, subtract – even color + weather
  - can't print as symbol (unlike Pascal)
  - but debugger generally will

## Enumerated types

- Just syntactic sugar for ordered collection of integer constants:

```
typedef enum {  
    Red, Orange, Yellow  
} Color;
```

is like

```
#define Red 0  
#define Orange 1  
#define Yellow 2
```

- `typedef enum {False, True} boolean;`

## Bit fields

- On previous slides, labeled integers with size in bits (e.g., pt:7)
- Allows aligning struct with real memory data, e.g., in protocols or device drivers
- Order can differ between little/big-endian systems
- Alignment restrictions on modern processors – *natural* alignment
- Sometimes clearer than `(x & 0x8000) >> 31`

## Control Structures

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### Control structures

- Same as Java
- sequencing: ;
- grouping: { ... }
- selection: if, switch
- iteration: for, while

## Sequencing and grouping

- statement1 ; statement2; statement n;
  - executes each of the statements in turn
  - a semicolon after every statement
  - not required after a {...} block
- { statements} {declarations statements}
  - treat the sequence of statements as a single operation (block)
  - data objects may be defined at beginning of block

## The if statement

- Same as Java

```
if (condition1) {statements1}
else if (condition2) {statements2}
else if (conditionn-1) {statementsn-1} |
else {statementsn}
```
- evaluates statements until find one with non-zero result
- executes corresponding statements

## The if statement

- Can omit {}, but careful

```
if (x > 0)
    printf("x > 0!");
if (y > 0)
    printf("x and y > 0!");
```

## The switch statement

- Allows choice based on a single value

```
switch(expression) {
    case const1: statements1; break;
    case const2: statements2; break;
    default: statementsn;
}
```

- Effect: evaluates integer expression
- looks for case with matching value
- executes corresponding statements (or defaults)

## The switch statement

```
Weather w;
switch(w) {
    case rain:
        printf("bring umbrella");
    case snow:
        printf("wear jacket");
        break;
    case sun:
        printf("wear sunscreen");
        break;
    default:
        printf("strange weather");
}
```

## Repetition

- C has several control structures for repetition

| Statement              | repeats an action...                               |
|------------------------|----------------------------------------------------|
| while(c) {}            | zero or more times, while condition is $\neq 0$    |
| do {...} while(c)      | one or more times, while condition is $\neq 0$     |
| for (start; cond; upd) | zero or more times, with initialization and update |

## The break statement

- break allows early exit from one loop level

```
for (init; condition; next) {  
    statements1;  
    if (condition2) break;  
    statements2;  
}
```

## The continue statement

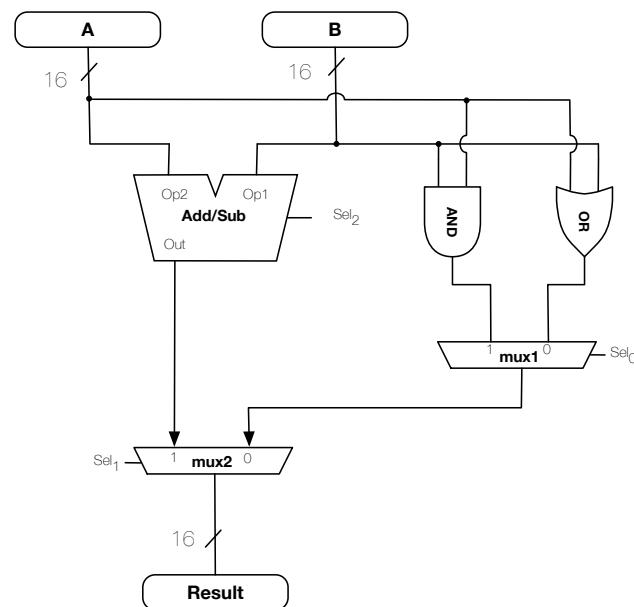
- continue skips to next iteration, ignoring rest of loop body

- does execute next statement

```
for (init; condition1; next) {  
    statement2;  
    if (condition2) continue;  
    statement2;  
}
```

- often better written as if with block

## Using C to Model Hardware

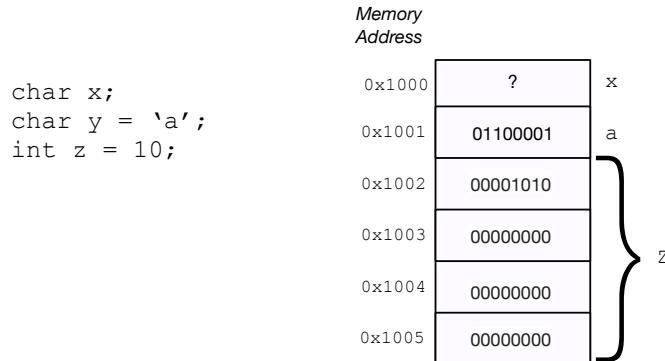


## C Objects (or lack thereof)

### Objects (or lack thereof)

- C does not have objects (C++ does)
- Variables for C's primitive types are defined very similarly:

```
short int x;
char ch;
float pi = 3.1415;
float f, g;
```
- Variables defined in {} block are active only in block
- Variables defined outside a block are global (persist during program execution), but may not be globally visible (static)



## C Variables

- Variable = container that can hold a value
  - in C, pretty much a CPU word or similar
- default value is (mostly) undefined – treat as random
  - compiler may warn you about uninitialized variables
- `ch = 'a'; x = x + 4;`
- Always pass by value, but can pass address to function:  
`scanf("%d%f", &x, &f);`

## C Variables

- Every data object in C has
  - a name and data type (specified in definition)
  - an address (its relative location in memory)
  - a size (number of bytes of memory it occupies)
  - visibility (which parts of program can refer to it)
  - lifetime (period during which it exists)

- Warning:

```
int *foo(char x) {  
    return &x;  
}  
pt = foo(x);  
*pt = 17;
```

## C Variables

- Unlike scripting languages and Java, all C data objects have a fixed size over their lifetime
  - except dynamically created objects
- Size of object is determined when object is created:
  - global data objects at compile time (data)
  - local data objects at run-time (stack)
  - dynamic data objects by programmer (heap)

## Dynamic Memory Allocation

```
int x;
int arr[20];
int main(int argc, char *argv[]) {
    int i = 20;
    {into x; x = i + 7;}
}
int f(int n)
{
    int a, *p;
    a = 1;
    p = (int *)malloc(sizeof int);
}
```

## Dynamic Memory Allocation

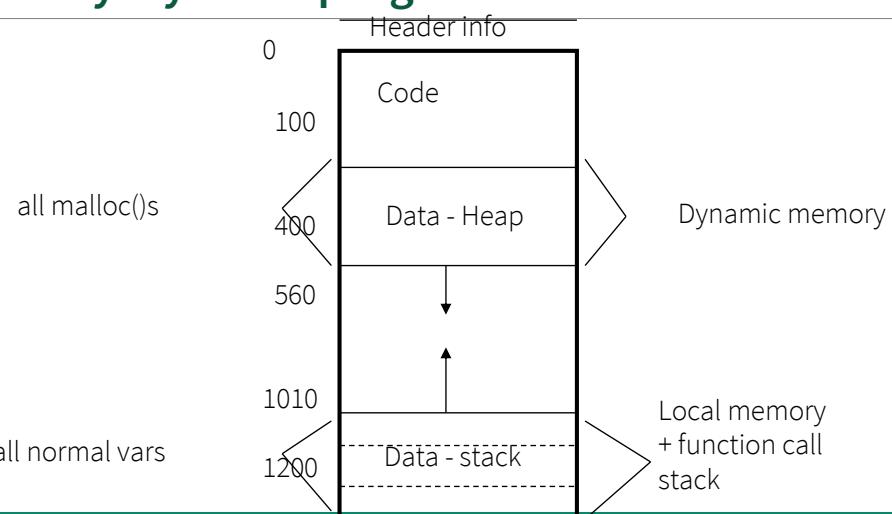
- `malloc()` allocates a block of memory
- Lifetime until memory is freed, with `free()`.
- Memory leakage – memory allocated is never freed:

```
char *combine(char *s, char *t) {
    u = (char *)malloc(strlen(s) + strlen(t) + 1);
    if (s != t) {
        strcpy(u, s); strcat(u, t);
        return u;
    } else {
        return 0;
    }
}
```

## Dynamic Memory Allocation

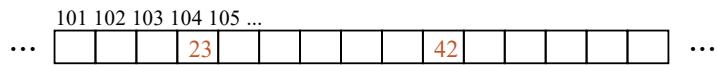
- Note: `malloc()` does not initialize data
- `void *calloc(size_t n, size_t elsize)` does initialize (to zero)
- Can also change size of allocated memory blocks:  
`void *realloc(void *ptr, size_t size)`  
`ptr` points to existing block, `size` is new size
- New pointer may be different from old, but content is copied.

## Memory layout of programs



## Address vs. Value

- Consider memory to be a single huge array:
  - Each cell of the array has an address associated with it.
  - Each cell also stores some value.
  - Do you think they use signed or unsigned numbers? Negative address?!
- Don't confuse the **address** referring to a memory location with the **value** stored in that location.

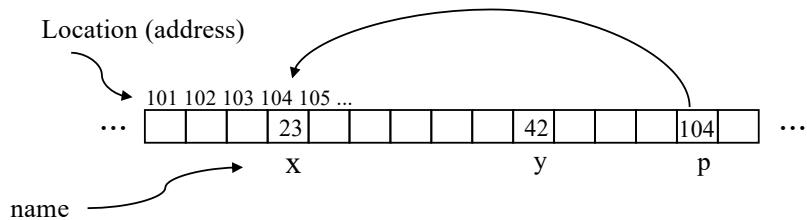


## C Pointers

- The **memory address** of a data object, e.g., `int x`
  - can be obtained via `&x`
  - has a data type `int *` (in general, `type *`)
  - has a value which is a large (4/8 byte) unsigned integer
  - can have pointers to pointers: `int **`
- The **size** of a data object, e.g., `int x`
  - can be obtained via `sizeof x` or `sizeof(x)`
  - has data type `size_t`, but is often assigned to `int` (bad!)
  - has a value which is a small(ish) integer
  - is measured in bytes

## C Pointers

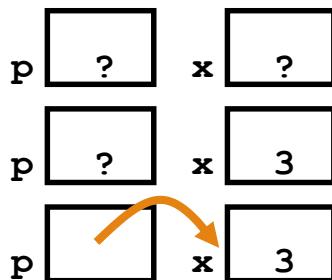
- An address refers to a particular memory location. In other words, it points to a memory location.
- **Pointer:** A variable that contains the address of a variable.



## C Pointers

- How to create a pointer:
  - & operator: get address of a variable

```
int *p, x;  
x = 3;  
p = &x;
```



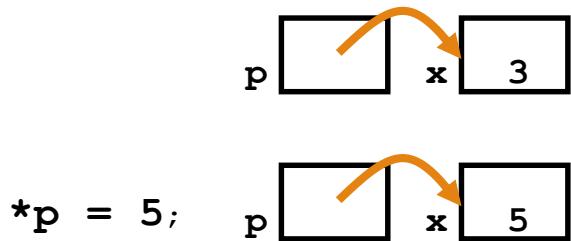
Note the "\*" gets used 2 different ways in this example.

In the declaration to indicate that **p** is going to be a pointer, and in the **printf** to get the value pointed to by **p**.

- How get a value pointed to?
  - \* "dereference operator": get value pointed to
  - `printf("p points to %d\n", *p);`

## C Pointers

- How to change a variable pointed to?
  - Use dereference \* operator on left of =



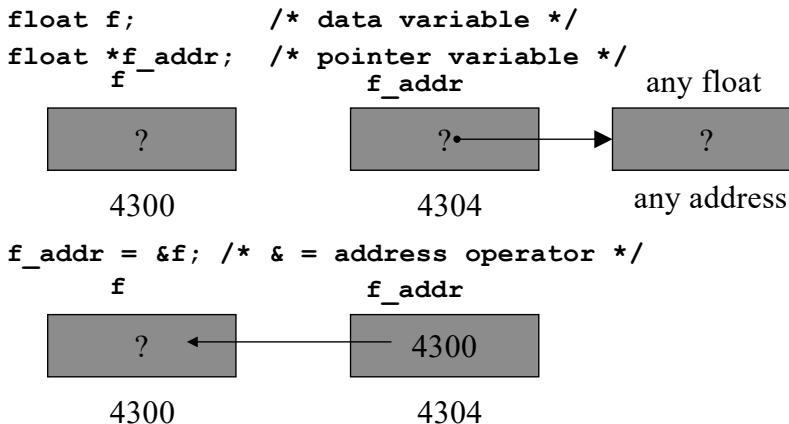
## C Pointers

```
int x = 5, y = 10;
float f = 12.5, g = 9.8;
char c = 'c', d = 'd';
```

|      |      |      |      |      |      |
|------|------|------|------|------|------|
| 5    | 10   | 12.5 | 9.8  | c    | d    |
| 4300 | 4304 | 4308 | 4312 | 4316 | 4317 |

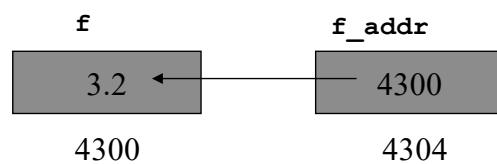
## C Pointers

- *Pointer* = variable containing address of another variable

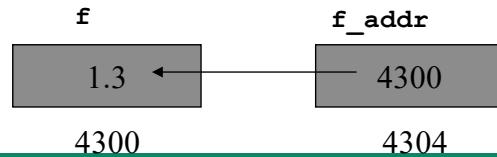


## C Pointers

```
*f_addr = 3.2; /* indirection operator */
```



```
float g=*f_addr; /* indirection:g is now 3.2 */  
f = 1.3;
```



## Pointers and Parameter Passing

- Java and C pass parameters “by value”
  - procedure/function/method gets a copy of the parameter, so changing the copy cannot change the original

```
void addOne (int x)
{
    x = x + 1;
}
int y = 3;
addOne(y);
```

What is the value of y? Why?

## Pointers and Parameter Passing

- How to get a function to change a value?

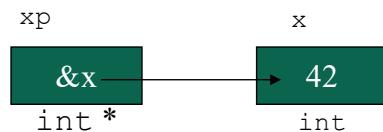
```
void addOne (int *p) {
    *p = *p + 1;
}
int y = 3;

addOne(&y);
```

y is now = 4

## C Pointers

- Every data type T in C/C++ has an associated pointer type T \*
- A value of type \* is the address of an object of type T
- If an object int \*xp has value &x, the expression \*xp dereferences the pointer and refers to x, thus has type int



## C Pointers

- If p contains the address of a data object, then \*p allows you to use that object
- \*p is treated just like normal data object

```
int a, b, *c, *d;  
*d = 17; /* BAD idea */  
a = 2; b = 3; c = &a; d = &b;  
if (*c == *d) puts("Same value");  
*c = 3;  
if (*c == *d) puts("Now same value");  
c = d;  
if (c == d) puts ("Now same address");
```

## void pointers

- Generic pointer
- Unlike other pointers, can be assigned to any other pointer type:  
`void *v;`  
`char *s = v;`
- Acts like `char *` otherwise:  
`v++, sizeof(*v) = 1;`

## What does this C program do ?

```
#include <stdio.h>
struct list{int data; struct list *next};
struct list *start, *end;
void add(struct list *head, struct list *list, int data);
int delete(struct list *head, struct list *tail);

void main(void){
    start=end=NULL;
    add(start, end, 2);
    add(start, end, 3);
    printf("First element: %d", delete(start, end));
}

void add(struct list *head, struct list *tail, int data){
    if(tail==NULL){
        head=tail=malloc(sizeof(struct list));
        head->data=data; head->next=NULL;
    }
    else{
        tail->next= malloc(sizeof(struct list));
        tail=tail->next; tail->data=data; tail->next=NULL;
    }
}
```

Terrified ? Come back to this at the end of the slide set and work through it.

## What does this C program, do – cont'd?

```
void delete (struct list *head, struct list *tail) {
    struct list *temp;
    if (head==tail) {
        free (head); head=tail=NULL;
    }
    else {
        temp=head->next; free (head); head=temp;
    }
}
```

## C Data Structures

## Structured data objects

- Structured data objects are available as

| object   | property                    |
|----------|-----------------------------|
| array [] | enumerated, numbered from 0 |
| struct   | names and types of fields   |
| union    | occupy same space (one of)  |

## Arrays

- Arrays are defined by specifying an element type and number of elements
  - int vec[100];
  - char str[30];
  - float m[10][10];
- For array containing  $N$  elements, indexes are 0.. $N-1$
- Stored as linear arrangement of elements
- Often similar to pointers

## Arrays

- C does not remember how large arrays are (i.e., no length attribute)
- `int x[10]; x[10] = 5;` may work (for a while)
- In the block where array A is defined:
  - `sizeof A` gives the number of bytes in array
  - can compute length via `sizeof A / sizeof A[0]`
- When an array is passed as a parameter to a function
  - the size information is not available inside the function
  - array size is typically passed as an additional parameter
    - `PrintArray(A, VEC_SIZE);`
  - or as part of a struct (best, object-like)
  - or globally
    - `#define VEC_SIZE 10`

## Arrays

- Array elements are accessed using the same syntax as in Java: `array[index]`
- Example (iteration over array):

```
int i, sum = 0;
...
for (i = 0; i < VEC_SIZE; i++)
    sum += vec[i];
```
- C does not check whether array index values are sensible (i.e., no bounds checking)
  - `vec[-1]` or `vec[10000]` will not generate a compiler warning!
  - if you're lucky, the program crashes with  
`Segmentation fault (core dumped)`

## Arrays

- C references arrays by the address of their first element
- array is equivalent to &array[0]
- can iterate through arrays using pointers as well as indexes:

```
int *v, *last;  
int sum = 0;  
last = &vec[VECSIZE-1];  
for (v = vec; v <= last; v++)  
    sum += *v;
```

## 2-D arrays

- 2-dimensional array

```
int weekends[52][2];
```



- `weekends[2][1]` is same as `*(&weekends+2*2+1)`  
– NOT `*weekends+2*2+1` :this is an int !

## Arrays - example

```
#include <stdio.h>
void main(void) {
    int number[12]; /* 12 cells, one cell per student */
    int index, sum = 0;
    /* Always initialize array before use */
    for (index = 0; index < 12; index++) {
        number[index] = index;
    }
    /* now, number[index]=index; will cause error:why ?*/

    for (index = 0; index < 12; index = index + 1) {
        sum += number[index]; /* sum array elements */
    }
    return;
}
```

## Aside: void, void \*

- Function that doesn't return anything declared as void
- No argument declared as void
- Special pointer \*void can point to anything

```
#include <stdio.h>
extern void *f(void);
void *f(void) {
    printf("the big void\n");
    return NULL;
}
int main(void) {
    f();
}
```

## Overriding functions – function pointers

- overriding: changing the implementation, leave prototype
- in C, can use function pointers  
`returnType (*ptrName)(arg1, arg2, ...);`
- for example, `int (*fp)(double x);` is a pointer to a function that return an integer
- `double * (*gp)(int)` is a pointer to a function that returns a pointer to a double

## structs

- Similar to fields in Java object/class definitions
- components can be any type (but not recursive)
- accessed using the same syntax `struct.field`
- Example:  
`struct {int x; char y; float z;} rec;`  
`...`  
`r.x = 3; r.y = 'a'; r.z= 3.1415;`

## structs

- Record types can be defined
  - using a tag associated with the struct definition
  - wrapping the struct definition inside a typedef
- Examples:

```
struct complex {double real; double imag;};
struct point {double x; double y;} corner;
typedef struct {double real; double imag;} Complex;
struct complex a, b;
Complex c,d;
```

  - a and b have the same size, structure and type
  - a and c have the same size and structure, but different types

## structs

- Overall size is sum of elements, plus padding for alignment:

```
struct {
    char x;
    int y;
    char z;
} s1;    sizeof(s1) = ?
struct {
    char x, z;
    int y;
} s2;    sizeof(s2) = ?
```

## structs - example

```
struct person {
    char name[41];
    int age;
    float height;
    struct {           /* embedded structure */
        int month;
        int day;
        int year;
    } birth;
};

struct person me;
me.birth.year=1977;
struct person class[60];
/* array of info about everyone in class */
class[0].name="Gun"; class[0].birth.year=1971;.....
```

## structs

- Often used to model real memory layout, e.g.,

```
typedef struct {
    unsigned int version:2;
    unsigned int p:1;
    unsigned int cc:4;
    unsigned int m:1;
    unsigned int pt:7;
    u_int16 seq;
    u_int32 ts;
} rtp_hdr_t;
```

## Dereferencing pointers to struct elements

- Pointers commonly to **struct**'s  
`(*sp).element = 42;`  
`y = (*sp).element;`
- Note: **\*sp.element** doesn't work
- Abbreviated alternative:  
`sp->element = 42;`  
`y = sp->element;`

## More pointers

```
int month[12]; /* month is a pointer to base address 430*/  
  
month[3] = 7; /* month address + 3 * int elements => int at address (430+3*4) is now 7 */  
  
ptr = month + 2; /* ptr points to month[2], => ptr is now (430+2 * int elements)= 438 */  
ptr[5] = 12; /* ptr address + 5 int elements  
=> int at address (438+5*4) is now 12.  
Thus, month[7] is now 12 */  
  
ptr++; /* ptr <- 438 + 1 * size of int = 442 */  
(ptr + 4)[2] = 12; /* accessing ptr[6] i.e., array[9] */
```

- Now, `month[6]`, `*(month+6)`, `(month+4)[2]`, `ptr[3]`, `*(ptr+3)` are all the same integer variable.

## C Functions

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## Functions

- Prototypes and functions (cf. Java interfaces)
  - `extern int putchar(int c);`
  - `putchar('A');`
  - `int putchar(int c) {`
    - do something interesting here`}`
- If defined before use in same file, no need for prototype
- Typically, prototype defined in .h file
- Good idea to include <.h> in actual definition

## Functions

- static functions and variables hide them to those outside the same file:

```
static int x;  
static int times2(int c) {  
    return c*2;  
}
```

- compare protected class members in Java.

## Functions – const arguments

- Indicates that argument won't be changed.
- Only meaningful for pointer arguments and declarations:

```
int c(const char *s, const int x) {  
    const int VALUE = 10;  
    printf("x = %d\n", VALUE);  
    return *s;  
}
```

- Attempts to change `*s` will yield compiler warning.

## Functions - extern

```
#include <stdio.h>

extern char user2line [20]; /* global variable defined
                             in another file */
char user1line[30];          /* global for this file */
void dummy(void);

void main(void) {
    char user1line[20];      /* different from earlier
                             user1line[30] */
    . . .
    /* restricted to this func */
}

void dummy(){
    extern char user1line[]; /* the global user1line[30] */
    . . .
}
```

## Overloading functions – var. arg. list

- Java:  
`void product(double x, double y);  
void product(vector x, vector y);`
- C doesn't support this, but allows variable number of arguments:  
`debug("%d %f", x, f);  
debug("%c", c);`
- declared as `void debug(char *fmt, ...);`
- at least one known argument

## Overloading functions

- must include <stdarg.h>:

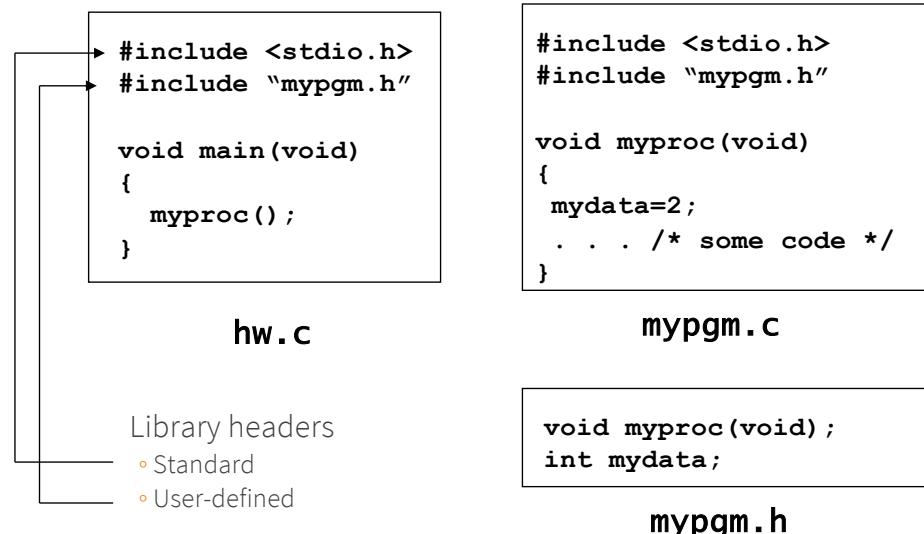
```
#include <stdarg.h>
double product(int number, ...) {
    va_list list;
    double p;
    int i;
    va_start(list, number);
    for (i = 0, p = 1.0; i < number; i++) {
        p *= va_arg(list, double);
    }
    va_end(list);
}
```

- Danger
  - `product(2, 3, 4)` won't work, needs `product(2, 3.0, 4.0);`

## Overloading functions

- Limitations:
  - cannot access arguments in middle
    - needs to copy to variables or local array
  - client and function need to know and adhere to type

## Program with multiple files



## Data hiding in C

- C doesn't have classes or private members, but this can be approximated

- Implementation defines real data structure:

```
#define QUEUE_C
#include "queue.h"
typedef struct queue_t {
    struct queue_t *next;
    int data;
} *queue_t, queuestruct_t;
queue_t NewQueue(void) {
    return q;
}
```

- Header file defines public data:

```
#ifndef QUEUE_C
typedef struct queue_t *queue_t;
#endif
queue_t NewQueue(void);
```

## Pointer to function

```
int func(); /*function returning integer*/  
int *func(); /*function returning pointer to integer*/  
int (*func)(); /*pointer to function returning integer*/  
int *(*func)(); /*pointer to func returning ptr to int*/
```

## Function pointers

```
int (*fp) (void);  
double* (*gp) (int);  
int f(void)  
double *g(int);  
  
fp=f;  
gp=g;  
  
int i = fp();  
double *g = (*gp)(17); /* alternative */
```

## Pointer to function - example

```
#include <stdio.h>

void myproc (int d);
void mycaller(void (* f)(int), int param);

void main(void) {
    myproc(10);                                /* call myproc with parameter
10*/
    mycaller(myproc, 10); /* and do the same again ! */
}

void mycaller(void (* f)(int), int param){
    (*f)(param);           /* call function *f with param */
}

void myproc (int d){
    . . .          /* do something with d */
}
```

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## C Libraries

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## Libraries

- C provides a set of standard libraries for

|                          |            |     |
|--------------------------|------------|-----|
| numerical math functions | <math.h>   | -lm |
| character strings        | <string.h> |     |
| character types          | <ctype.h>  |     |
| I/O                      | <stdio.h>  |     |

## The math library

- **#include <math.h>**
  - careful: **sqrt(5)** without header file may give wrong result!
- **gcc -o compute main.o f.o -lm**
- Uses normal mathematical notation:

|                 |            |
|-----------------|------------|
| Math.sqrt(2)    | sqrt(2)    |
| Math.pow(x,5)   | pow(x,5)   |
| 4*math.pow(x,3) | 4*pow(x,3) |

## Characters

- The char type is an 8-bit byte containing ASCII code values (e.g., ‘A’ = 65, ‘B’ = 66, ...)
- Often, char is treated like (and converted to) int
- <ctype.h> contains character classification functions:

|             |              |              |
|-------------|--------------|--------------|
| isalnum(ch) | alphanumeric | [a-zA-Z0-9]  |
| isalpha(ch) | alphabetic   | [a-zA-Z]     |
| isdigit(ch) | digit        | [0-9]        |
| ispunct(ch) | punctuation  | [~!@#%^&...] |
| isspace(ch) | white space  | [ \t\n]      |
| isupper(ch) | upper-case   | [A-Z]        |
| islower(ch) | lower-case   | [a-z]        |

## Strings

- In Java, strings are regular objects
- In C, strings are just **char** arrays with a **NUL** (‘\0’) terminator
- “a cat” = 

|   |   |   |   |    |
|---|---|---|---|----|
| a | c | a | t | \0 |
|---|---|---|---|----|
- A literal string (“a cat”)
  - is automatically allocated memory space to contain it and the terminating \0
  - has a value which is the address of the first character
  - can’t be changed by the program (common bug!)
- All other strings must have space allocated to them by the program

## Strings

```
char *makeBig(char *s) {  
    s[0] = toupper(s[0]);  
    return s;  
}  
makeBig("a cat");
```

## Strings

- We normally refer to a string via a pointer to its first character:

```
char *str = "my string";  
char *s;  
s = &str[0]; s = str;
```

- C functions only know string ending by \0:

```
char *str = "my string";  
...  
int i;  
for (i = 0; str[i] != '\0'; i++) putchar(str[i]);  
char *s;  
for (s = str; *s; s++) putchar(*s);
```

## Strings

- Can treat like arrays:

```
char c;  
char line[100];  
for (i = 0; i < 100 && line[c]; i++) {  
    if (isalpha(line[c])) ...  
}
```

## Copying strings

- Copying content vs. copying pointer to content
- `s = t` copies pointer – `s` and `t` now refer to the same memory location
- `strcpy(s, t);` copies content of `t` to `s`

```
char mybuffer[100];  
...  
mybuffer = "a cat";
```
- is incorrect (but appears to work!)
- Use `strcpy(mybuffer, "a cat")` instead

## Example string manipulation

```
#include <stdio.h>
#include <string.h>
int main(void) {
    char line[100];
    char *family, *given, *gap;
    printf("Enter your name:"); fgets(line,100,stdin);
    given = line;
    for (gap = line; *gap; gap++)
        if (isspace(*gap)) break;
    *gap = '\0';
    family = gap+1;
    printf("Your name: %s, %s\n", family, given);
    return 0;
}
```

## string.h library

- Assumptions:
  - `#include <string.h>`
  - strings are **NUL**-terminated
  - all target arrays are large enough
- Operations:
  - `char *strcpy(char *dest, char *source)`
    - copies chars from source array into dest array up to NUL
  - `char *strncpy(char *dest, char *source, int num)`
    - copies chars; stops after num chars if no NUL before that; appends NUL

## string.h library

- **int strlen(const char \*source)**
  - returns number of chars, excluding NUL
- **char \*strchr(const char \*source, const char ch)**
  - returns pointer to first occurrence of ch in source; NUL if none
- **char \*strstr(const char \*source, const char \*search)**
  - return pointer to first occurrence of search in source

## Formatted strings

- String parsing and formatting (binary from/to text)
- **int sscanf(char \*string, char \*format, ...)**
  - parse the contents of string according to format
  - placed the parsed items into 3<sup>rd</sup>, 4<sup>th</sup>, 5<sup>th</sup>, ... argument
  - return the number of successful conversions
- **int sprintf(char \*buffer, char \*format, ...)**
  - produce a string formatted according to format
  - place this string into the buffer
  - the 3<sup>rd</sup>, 4<sup>th</sup>, 5<sup>th</sup>, ... arguments are formatted
  - return number of successful conversions

## Formatted strings

- The format strings for **sscanf** and **sprintf** contain
  - plain text (matched on input or inserted into the output)
  - formatting codes (which must match the arguments)
- The **sprintf** format string gives template for result string
- The **sscanf** format string describes what input should look like

## Formatted strings

- Formatting codes for **sscanf**

| Code  | meaning                            | variable |
|-------|------------------------------------|----------|
| %c    | matches a single character         | char     |
| %d    | matches an integer in decimal      | int      |
| %f    | matches a real number (ddd.dd)     | float    |
| %s    | matches a string up to white space | char *   |
| %[^c] | matches string up to next c char   | char *   |

## Formatted strings

- Formatting codes for sprintf
- Values normally right-justified; use negative field width to get left-justified

| Code  | meaning                                       | variable      |
|-------|-----------------------------------------------|---------------|
| %nc   | char in field of n spaces                     | char          |
| %nd   | integer in field of n spaces                  | int, long     |
| %n.mf | real number in width n, m decimals            | float, double |
| %n.mg | real number in width n, m digits of precision | float, double |
| %n.ms | first m chars from string in width n          | char *        |

## Formatted strings - examples

```
char *msg = "Hello there";
char *nums = "1 3 5 7 9";
char s[10], t[10];
int a, b, c, n;

n = sscanf(msg, "%s %s", s, t);
n = printf("%10s %-10s", t, s);
n = sscanf(nums, "%d %d %d", &a, &b, &c);

printf("%d flower%s", n, n > 1 ? "s" : " ");
printf("a = %d, answer = %d\n", a, b+c);
```

## The stdio library

- Access stdio functions by
  - using `#include <stdio.h>` for prototypes
  - compiler links it automatically
- defines `FILE *` type and functions of that type
- data objects of type `FILE *`
  - can be connected to file system files for reading and writing
  - represent a buffered stream of chars (bytes) to be written or read
- always defines `stdin`, `stdout`, `stderr`

## The stdio library: `fopen()`, `fclose()`

- Opening and closing `FILE *` streams:  
`FILE *fopen(const char *path, const char *mode)`
  - open the file called path in the appropriate mode
  - modes: “r” (read), “w” (write), “a” (append), “r+” (read & write)
  - returns a new `FILE *` if successful, NULL otherwise
- `int fclose(FILE *stream)`
  - close the stream `FILE *`
  - return 0 if successful, EOF if not

## stdio – character I/O

**int getchar()**

– read the next character from **stdin**; returns **EOF** if none

**int fgetc(FILE \*in)**

– read the next character from FILE *in*; returns **EOF** if none

**int putchar(int c)**

– write the character *c* onto stdout; returns *c* or **EOF**

**int fputc(int c, FILE \*out)**

– write the character *c* onto *out*; returns *c* or **EOF**

## stdio – line I/O

**char \*fgets(char \*buf, int size, FILE \*in)**

– read the next line from **in** into buffer **buf**

– halts at ‘\n’ or after size-1 characters have been read

– the ‘\n’ is read, but not included in buf

– returns pointer to strbuf if ok, NULL otherwise

– do not use **gets(char \*)** – buffer overflow

**int fputs(const char \*str, FILE \*out)**

– writes the string **str** to **out**, stopping at ‘\0’

– returns number of characters written or EOF

## stdio – formatted I/O

`int fscanf(FILE *in, const char *format, ...)`

- read text from stream according to format

`int fprintf(FILE *out, const char *format, ...)`

- write the string to output file, according to format

`int printf(const char *format, ...)`

- equivalent to `fprintf(stdout, format, ...)`

- Warning:

- do not use `fscanf(...);` use `fgets(str, ...);` `sscanf(str, ...);`

## Before you go....

- Always initialize anything before using it (especially pointers)
- Don't use pointers after freeing them
- Don't return a function's local variables by reference
- No exceptions – so check for errors everywhere
  - memory allocation
  - system calls
  - Murphy's law, C version: anything that can't fail, will fail
- An array is also a pointer, but its value is immutable.