

# Programming in C NCI HPC Toolkit

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### **Acknowledgement of Country**

The National Computational Infrastructure acknowledges, celebrates and pays our respects to the Ngunnawal and Ngambri people of the Canberra region and to all First Nations Australians on whose traditional lands we meet and work, and whose cultures are among the oldest continuing cultures in human history.

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# **Outline**



This course presents an introduction to programming in C with little to no assumed prior knowledge.

#### It covers:

- Syntax
- Control flow
- Data types
- Pointers and memory management
- Common pitfalls and best practices
- Basic compiler options

**Not covered:** C++, multithreading, profiling, many other things

A great reference: Modern C, by Jens Gustedt



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### Introduction



C is a statically typed systems programming language.

#### It is:

- Very fast (when used correctly)
- Cross-platform
- Close to the hardware (lots of control)
- Supported by many scientific libraries (e.g. MPI, OpenMP, OpenACC)
- One of the most widely used programming languages (e.g. Linux, Git, VMD, Doom)
- Standardised (ISO C99, C11, C17, C23)

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### Introduction



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### It is not:

- Always the best choice for quick development
- The most memory-safe language
- C++





```
#include <stdio.h>
int main(void) {
    printf("Hello, world!\n");
    return 0;
}
```



```
#include <stdio.h>
int main(void) {
    printf("Hello, world!\n");
    return 0;
}
```

- Include standard input/output library
  - Gives access to the printf function (and many others)
- #include says "Paste the contents of this file here."
  - Use <> for external (e.g. system) files, " " for project files.



```
#include <stdio.h>
int main(void) {
    printf("Hello, world!\n");
    return 0;
}
```

- Declare the main function
- The compiler looks for this function as the entry point
- int is the return type
- () marks the input arguments
  - Not taking any for now. We'll come back to this later.
- {} marks the body of the function



```
#include <stdio.h>
int main(void) {
    printf("Hello, world!\n");
    return 0;
}
```

- Print "Hello, world!" to the terminal
- '\n' prints a new line at the end
- ; marks the end of a code line



```
#include <stdio.h>
int main(void) {
   printf("Hello, world!\n");
   return 0;
}
```

- Return a 0 to indicate that program execution succeeded
- Can return other values to indicate various errors



How do we make it run?

# Compiling



- The compiler takes C code and turns it into a binary executable
- Some common C compilers include:
  - ► gcc
  - ▶ icc
  - clang

```
$ gcc main.c -o hello_world
$ ./hello_world
Hello, world!
$
```

# Compiling

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- There are many useful compiler flags. Some of the most common are summarised here.
- It's a good idea to turn on as many warnings as possible!

Flag	Purpose
-o <exe_name></exe_name>	Output file (default a.out)
-Wall	Turn on warnings
-Wextra	Turn on extra warnings
-Wpedantic	Even more warnings
-Werror	Treat warnings as errors
-g	Include debugging informa-
	tion in the binary
-O <level></level>	Enable optimisations from 0
	(no optimisation) to 3 (all safe
	optimisations)
-D <macro>[=<defn>]</defn></macro>	Define a macro (we'll come
	back to this later)

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# Compiling



- There are many useful compiler flags. Some of the most common are summarised here.
- It's a good idea to turn on as many warnings as possible!
- Beware the -Ofast and -ffast-math options.
   They can make code faster, but come at the cost of potential floating point error. Never use them when compiling libraries that others will use!

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	back to this later)



Programming is often easiest to learn by doing.





Programming is often easiest to learn by doing.

Let's build something useful!



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# Fibonacci Sequence



#### Goal

Print all Fibonacci numbers less than or equal to some input value.

### **Example input/output:**

```
$ ./fibonacci 12
1 1 2 3 5 8
$ ./fibonacci 0
$ ./fibonacci 1
1 1
$ ./fibonacci asdf
ERROR: invalid input!
$
```

# Fibonacci Sequence



### **Program flow:**

- Read input
- Check that it's an integer
- Handle values ≤ 0
- Print the Fibonacci numbers

# Fibonacci Sequence - Reading input



First we need to read user input and store it somewhere.

To do this, we need to know about variables.

### **Variables**



- C is statically typed, which means variables must be declared with a data type.
- Variable names must begin with a letter or underscore, and can only contain letters, numbers, and underscores.
- The primitive types are:

```
[signed/unsigned] long/short/int
float/[long] double
bool (or _Bool)
[signed/unsigned] char
void
```

See https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/C\_data\_types#Main\_types for a full list

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# Variables - Examples



```
int my int = -12345; // int uses 32 bits (4 bytes)
short my_small_int = 32767;  // short uses 16 bits
long my large int = 999999999999; // long uses 64 bits
unsigned int positive only = 3200000000;
unsigned char small_positive = 255; // char uses 8 bits
char my char = 'a';  // Can be numeric or ASCII character
float almost pi = 3.14; // 32 bit floating point value
double my double = 3.141592; // 64 bit floating point value
long double my 128bit float = 3.14159265358979;  // 128 bit
_Bool intrinsic_bool = 1; // 0 = false, 1 = true
#include <stdbool.h>
bool my bool = true; // stdbool.h allows 'bool' and 'true/false'
```

# Variables - Examples



```
// Variables can be forward-declared
int a, b, c; // values currently undefined
a = 5; // store 5 in a
b = c = 10; // store 10 in b and c
// types can be implicitly converted, but be careful!
float f = 1.2, fa = a;
int one = f;  // information is lost here! one = 1
double zero = 1/3; // 1 and 3 are integers. Integer division!
double one third = 1.0/3; // 3 converted to double to do division
float f third = one third; // Less precise data type. Info lost!
// Can explicitly cast types into other types
float one half = (float) a / b; // a converted to float first
```

# Variables - Scope



```
{ // Begin outer scope
   int a = 10;
    { // Begin inner scope
     int b = 5:
     // Variables from outer scope are still accessible
     int c = a + b:
     // Can re-declare 'a' here, but now we can't access
     // the outer 'a'
     int a = 4;
    } // End inner scope
    // outer 'a' is still 10
   // Variables from the inner scope can't be accessed anymore.
   // This is a compile error:
   a = b; // ERROR: use of undeclared identifier 'b'
```

# Variables - Global

Global variables are those declared in the global scope (outside any functions). E.g.<sup>AU</sup>

```
// Declare a constant to be used anywhere in the program
const int THE ANSWER = 42;
// Declare a global variable that can be CHANGED anywhere.
// This can be dangerous and lead to unintended bugs!
// Avoid wherever feasible.
int MY GLOBAL;
// Gain access to a global variable declared in another .c file
extern int EXTERNAL GLOBAL;
static int FILE ONLY = 123; // Only visible to this file
int main(void) {
 /* Do things with global variables */
```



- Variables are just named chunks of memory
- Each chunk has an address
- References give the address of the memory storing a variable
- Pointers can be used to store the address
- A pointer can be dereferenced to access the memory it's pointing to.

0x00	5	int	а	=	5;
0x04		int	b;		
0x08					
0x0C					
0x10					
0x05					
0x06					
0x07					

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0x00	5	int	а	=	5
0x04		int	b;		
80x0					
0x0C					
0x10					
0x05					
0x06					
0x07					



0x00	5	int	a :	= 5	5;	
0x04	10	int	b;	b	=	10
0x08						
0x0C						
0x10						
0x05						
0x06						
0x07						



0x00	5	int a = 5;
0x04	10	int b; b = 10;
0x08	0×00	int* addr_a = &a
0x0C		
0x10		
0x05		
0x06		
0x07		



0x00	5	int a = 5;
0x04	10	int b; b = 10;
0x08	0x00	int* addr_a = &a
0x0C	0x04	int* addr_b = &b
0x10		
0x05		
0x06		
0x07		



0x00	5	int a = 5;
0x04	10	int b; b = 10;
0x08	0x00	int* addr_a = &a
0x0C	0x04	int* addr_b = &b
0x10	0x0C	int** addr_addr_b = &addr_b;
0x05		
0x06		
0x07		



0x00	5	int a = 5;
0x04	10	int b; b = 10;
0x08	0x00	int* addr_a = &a
0x0C	0x04	int* addr_b = &b
0x10	0x0C	int** addr_addr_b = &addr_b
0x05	10	int copy_b = *addr_b;
0x06		
0x07		



0x00	5	int a = 5;
0x04	10	int b; b = 10;
0x08	0x00	int* addr_a = &a
0x0C	0x04	int* addr_b = &b
0x10	0x0C	int** addr_addr_b = &addr_b;
0x05	10	<pre>int copy_b = *addr_b;</pre>
0x06	0x04	<pre>int* copy_addr_b = addr_b;</pre>
0x07		

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```
int a = 5;
int* ptr = &a; // ptr points to a
*ptr = 15;  // a is now 15
int b = 2;
ptr = &b; // ptr now points to b
*ptr = 4;
               // b is now 4. a is still 15.
ptr = 128;
               // ptr now points to address 128.
               // We don't know what's stored there!
               // This is undefined behaviour!
b = *ptr;
               // b could be anything now, or the
               // program might crash with a
               // segmentation fault
```

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Although it's clearer to attach the  $\star$  to the type, be aware that it actually binds to the variable name!



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# Beware of dangling pointers!

```
int* my_ptr;
{
    int my_value = 10;
    my_ptr = &my_value;
} // my_value falls out of scope here!

// This is undefined behaviour since
// my_value no longer exists!
int another_value = *my_ptr;
```

# Variables - Arrays



```
int my_array[] = {1, 2, 3, 4, 5};
int another array[10]; // forward declare a 10 element array
mv arrav[0] = 6;
                           // Array is now {6, 2, 3, 4, 5}
my_array[3] = my_array[2]; // Array is now {6, 2, 3, 3, 5}
int* same_array = my_array; // my_array is just a pointer!
*same_array = 10;
                   // Array is now {10, 2, 3, 3, 5}
*mv_array = 4;
                     // Array is now {4, 2, 3, 3, 5}
same array[4] = 12;
                     // Array is now {4, 2, 3, 3, 12}
\star (same array+2) = 9;
                    // Array is now {4, 2, 9, 3, 12}
another_array[10] = my_array[2]; // Undefined behaviour!
```

## Arrays of pointers and pointers to arrays



```
// To declare an array of pointers, the syntax is as expected
int* array_of_ptrs[10]; // Store 10 pointers
// array_of_ptrs has the type int*[10]

// For a pointer to an array, use
int (*ptr_to_array)[10]; // Point to an array of length 10
// ptr_to_array has the type int(*)[10]
```

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## Variables - Strings



```
// Strings are just arrays of characters
char my_string[] = "Hello, world.";
my string[12] = '!';
// mv string is now "Hello, world!"
// Note, use single quotes, '', for single chars
// or double quotes, "", for strings.
// We can have a list of strings:
char string_list[][10] = {"Hello", "world", "something"};
// Note, [10] is required, and must be the length of the
// longest element (something\0)
// Also note, string list is of type char**
```

## Variables - Stack vs Heap

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- Variables allocated to the stack by default
  - Stack size is limited, so large data may not fit (stack overflow!)
  - In general, stack variable size should be known at compile time.
  - Exception is variable length arrays
    (e.g. int vla[argc];), but make
    sure size is checked to be valid!
- Heap used for unknown sizes or large data types
  - Allocate with functions like malloc()
  - Need to manually de-allocate (free()) when finished, otherwise we cause a memory leak!
- Everything we've seen so far has been stack allocated.

```
// Allocate space for 1000 ints
int* heap array = \
   malloc(sizeof(int) * 1000);
if (!heap_array) {
   printf("ALLOCATION FAILED\n");
   // Handle error here
// heap array now points to the
// 1st element of the memory block
heap array[100] = 1; // Store 1
// de-allocate the memory
free(heap_array); // Don't forget!
// This is undefined behaviour!!
```

# Back to the Fibonacci Sequence



We need to take an input argument that sets the upper bound of the sequence.

\$ ./fibonacci 12

# Back to the Fibonacci Sequence



We need to take an input argument that sets the upper bound of the sequence.

\$ ./fibonacci 12

We can do this with the main() function!

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## **Input Arguments**



```
int main(int argc, char* argv[]) {
    // argc tells us how many arguments there were
    // argv is a list of strings - one element for each argument
    // argc will always be >= 1
    // argv[0] will be the name of the executable
    return argc;
}
```

#### Running this code:

```
$ gcc main.c -o return_argc
$ echo $(./return_argc)
1
$ echo $(./return_argc hello world "one string")
4
```

# Back to the Fibonacci Sequence



We want to check whether we were given an input argument, and make sure that argument was an integer.

# Back to the Fibonacci Sequence



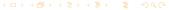
We want to check whether we were given an input argument, and make sure that argument was an integer.

We need operators and control flow!

## **Operators**



- We've already been using a few operators.
- They generally fall under one of 3 categories:
  - Mathematical
  - Boolean
  - Bit-wise



### **Operators**



#### **Mathematical**

- We've already been using a few operators.
- They generally fall under one of 3 categories:
  - Mathematical
  - Boolean
  - Bit-wise

```
int a, b, c;
// \dots set a and b
           // Assignment operator
c = (a = b); // Result is the RHS value
c = a = b; // Equivalent to previous line
c = a + b; // Addition
c = a - b; // Subtraction
 = a * b; // Multiplication
 = a / b: // Division (rounds down for int)
c = a % b; // Modulo (remainder)
```



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#### Mathematical

a = 10;

= a++;

- We've already been using a few operators.
- They generally fall under one of 3 categories:
  - Mathematical
  - Boolean
  - Bit-wise

```
c += a;
            //c = c + a;
c -= a;
            // c = c - a:
            // c = c * a:
c *= a:
c /= a;
            //c = c / a;
            // c = c % a:
c %= a;
C++;
            // Add 1 to c. Returns original c
            // Subtract 1 from c. As above
C--;
            // Add 1 to c. Returns new c value
++c:
--c;
            // Subtract 1 from c. As above
// Example:
```

// Store 10 in b, inc. a to 11

// Store 10 in a



#### **Boolean**

- We've already been using a few operators.
- They generally fall under one of 3 categories:
  - Mathematical
  - Boolean
  - Bit-wise

```
bool w, x, y, z;
x = a > b;
                // Greater than
x = a < b;
                // Less than
                // Greater than or equal to
x = a >= b;
x = a \le b;
           // Less than or equal to
               // Equal to
x = a == b;
x = a != b;
                // Not equal to
v = !x;
                // Not
z = x \mid y;
                // Or (short-circuit)
z = x \& \& y;
               // And (short-circuit)
z = !(x \& \& !y | | w); // Can be combined
   Ternary
c = x ? a : b; // if (x) <math>c = a; else c = b;
```

### **Operators**

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- We've already been using a few operators.
- They generally fall under one of 3 categories:
  - Mathematical
  - Boolean
  - Bit-wise

#### **Bit-wise**

```
0b001:
                 // Bit-wise or. a ==
         0b011:
                     Bit-wise and, a
         0b011:
                    Bit-wise xor, a
      bit-wise operators don't short-circuit
0b100
                 // Right shift. a ==
0b001 << 1:
                 // Left shift. a ==
\sim 0b011;
                 // Bit-wise not.
Since a is 32bit int, ~0b011
```

## Operators - Use with care!



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### Beware of implicit type conversions!

```
int a = 2147483648; // This stores -2147483648 in a!
unsigned int b = 1 - 2; // This stores 4294967295 in b!
unsigned short c = 0x10000; // This stores 0 in c!
float d = 1/3;
                          // This stores 0 in d!
float d1 = 1.0/3;
                       // This works as expected
float d2 = 1/3.0; // So does this
float d3 = (float)1/3; // And this (equivalent to 1.0f/3)
float e f = 1.0;
int e i = (int)e f; // This stores 1 in e i.
int* e i ptr = (int*)&e f; // This creates a pointer of type int*
                          // that points to data of type float!
int i from ptr = *e i ptr; // This stores 1065353216 in i from ptr!
```

### Operators - Use with care!



### Check operator precedence!

```
// Addition binds more tightly than shift operators
unsigned int a = 1 \ll 1 + 1; // This stores 4 in a!
// == binds more tightly than bit-wise operators
unsigned int b = 1 ^ 1 == 0; // This stores 1 in b!
Be aware of boolean evaluation.
// Any non-zero value evaluates to true
bool a = 0 \times 1000000000; // This stores true in e
bool b = (unsigned int) 0x100000000; // This stores false!
bool c = (float)1.0; // This stores true
bool d = (float) 0.0; // This stores false (0.0 is <math>0x000000000)
int* ptr = 0;  // This is a null pointer
bool e = ptr; // This stores false in e
bool* e_ptr = &e; // This is a pointer to e
bool f = e ptr;  // This stores true in f
```



#### Onto control flow



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### Control Flow - if statements



```
bool condition, other_condition;
// ... code that sets condition to something
if (condition) {
   printf("Condition was true!\n");
} else {
   printf("Condition was false!\n");
// { } can be omitted if body is a single line
if (other condition)
   printf("other condition was true!\n");
// else statement can also be omitted if not required
```

### Control Flow - if statements



```
int a, b, c;
// ... code that sets a, b, and c

// Statements can be chained for more complex logic
if (a > b) {
    printf("a greater than b!\n");
} else if (a > c) {
    printf("a greater than c, but not b!\n");
} else printf("a is the smallest!\n");
```

#### Note

It's good practice to indent the body of control flow statements to make the code clearer and easier to read.

### Control Flow - if statements



```
int a, b, c;
// ... code that sets a, b, and c
// Statements can also be nested!
if (a > b) {
    printf("a greater than b, ");
    if (a > c)
        printf("and also c! \n");
    else
        printf("but not c!\n");
} else if (a > c) {
    printf("a greater than c, but not b!\n");
} else printf("a is the smallest!\n");
```

### Control Flow - switch statements



Suppose we want to handle various values of some variable.

With an if statement, we would write:

```
if (var == 0) {
    // do something
} else if (var == 1) {
    // do something else
} else if (var == 3) {
    // do a different thing
} else {
    // do the default thing
}
```

With a switch statement, we would write:

```
switch (var) {
    case 0:
        // do somethina
        break;
    case 1:
        // do something else
        break:
    case 3:
        // do a different thing
        break:
    default:
        // do the default thing
```

### Control Flow - switch statements



Switch statements can "fall through" to cover multiple options.

```
switch (var) {
    case 0:
        // do something for 0 and fall through
    case 1:
    case 3:
        // do this for values of 0, 1, and 3
        break:
    case 5:
        // do a separate thing
        break;
    default:
        // do the default thing
```

### Control Flow - while and do loops



```
// Loop until condition is false
while (condition) {
    // Do something that might change 'condition'
   // Body won't execute if condition is false at the start
// Loop at least once until condition is false
do {
    // Body will always be executed at least once
} while (condition);
// Note, ; is required after a do loop
```

### Control Flow - while and do loops



#### **Example:** Print "Hello" *N* times.

```
int counter = 0;
int N = 10;
while (counter < N) {</pre>
    printf("Hello\n");
    // This is equivalent to // once if N is 0
    // counter = counter + 1
    counter++;
```

```
int counter = 0;
int N = 10;
// A do loop is incorrect here,
// since it would still print
do {
    printf("Hello\n");
    counter = counter + 1;
} while (counter < N);</pre>
```

### Control Flow - for loops



while loops are more useful when we don't know how many iterations are needed. When we know the number of iterations, a for loop is more convenient (but equivalent).

```
int N = 10;
for (int counter = 0; counter < N; counter++) {
    printf("Hello\n");
}</pre>
```

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### Control Flow - for loops



Each of the three statements are called at specific times, and all are optional

```
for (/* called once at start */;
     /* called before each loop through */;
    /* called after each loop through */)
{
    /* Body of loop */
}
```

This can be transformed to a while loop:

```
{ // scope of equivalent for loop
    /* called once at start */;
    while (/* called before each loop through */) {
        /* Body of loop */
        /* called after each loop through */)
    }
```

### Control Flow - for loops



A for loop without a condition statement will loop infinitely

```
for (;;) {
    // Print "Hello" until the program is killed
    printf("Hello\n");
}
```

### Equivalent to:

```
while (true) {
    // Print "Hello" until the program is killed
    printf("Hello\n");
}
```

### Control Flow - break and continue



#### break

- Break out of the current loop or case
- Only breaks out of immediately surrounding loop if loops are nested

#### continue

- Skip the rest of the loop body and begin the next iteration
- Only applies to surrounding loop if loops are nested

```
// This only prints once
while (true) {
    printf("Hello\n");
    break;
}
```

```
// This only prints 5 times
for (int i=0; i < 10; i++) {
   if (i > 4) continue;
   printf("Hello\n");
}
```

## Control Flow - labels and goto



goto jumps to a label *anywhere* in the code. This makes it very easy to introduce memory leaks or undefined behaviour. It should be used only with extreme caution!

Main use case is to exit early from a nested loop where break statements would be awkward:

```
// This prints "Hello" 500,000 times. NOT 100,000,000 times
for (int i=0; i < 10000; i++) {
    for (int j=0; j < 10000; j++) {
        if (i*j > 500000) goto my_label;
        printf("Hello\n");
    }
}
my_label:
printf("Finished with loop\n");
```

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```
int main(int argc, char* argv[]) {
    // Make sure we were given an input argument
    if (argc != 2) {
        printf("ERROR: expected one input argument\n");
        return 1;
    }
    // TODO: convert argv[1] to an integer
    return 0;
}
```



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```
#include <stdio.h>
#include <stdlib.h>
int main(int argc, char* argv[]) {
   // Make sure we were given an input argument
   if (argc != 2) {
      printf("ERROR: expected one input argument\n");
      return 1;
   printf("Input was: %i\n", fib_max); // Print it back out
   return 0;
```

For standard library documentation, https://en.cppreference.com/w/c is a good resource.

atoi takes a char\* as input, and outputs an int

printf format specification can be found here: https://en.cppreference.com/w/c/io/fprintf



- \$ gcc fibonacci.c -o fibonacci
- \$ ./fibonacci
- ERROR: expected one input argument
- \$ ./fibonacci 12
- Input was: 12
- \$ ./fibonacci -3
- Input was: -3



```
$ gcc fibonacci.c -o fibonacci
$ ./fibonacci
ERROR: expected one input argument
$ ./fibonacci 12
Input was: 12
$ ./fibonacci -3
Input was: -3
$ ./fibonacci 1.2
Input was: 1
```



```
$ qcc fibonacci.c -o fibonacci
$ ./fibonacci
ERROR: expected one input argument
$ ./fibonacci 12
Input was: 12
$ ./fibonacci -3
Input was: -3
$ ./fibonacci 1.2
Input was: 1
$ ./fibonacci asdf
Input was: 0
```



```
$ qcc fibonacci.c -o fibonacci
$ ./fibonacci
ERROR: expected one input argument
$ ./fibonacci 12
Input was: 12
$ ./fibonacci -3
Input was: -3
$ ./fibonacci 1.2
Input was: 1
$ ./fibonacci asdf
Input was: 0
```

These last two cases should return an error! Negative numbers also don't really make sense.



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#### Try to implement this yourself!

#### **Useful information:**

You can access individual characters of the input argument using argv[1][i], where i is an integer.

The last character in a C string is '\0'. Use this to know when the loop should end.

The isdigit (char) function from ctype.h returns true if the input character is a digit (0-9).

←□▶ ←□▶ ←□▶ ←□▶ ←□
 ←□▶ ←□▶ ←□▶ ←□

```
// ~snip~ include stdio.h for printf() and stdlib.h atoi()
#include <ctype.h> // for isdigit()
int main(int argc, char* argv[]) {
   if (argc != 2) { // Make sure we were given an input argument
       printf("ERROR: expected one input argument\n"); return 1;
   // Check for invalid input
   for (int i = 0; argv[1][i] != '\0'; ++i) {
       if (!isdigit(argv[1][i])) {
          printf("ERROR: invalid input!\n"); return 2;
   printf("Input was: %i\n", fib max); // Print it back out
   return 0:
```



- \$ gcc fibonacci.c -o fibonacci
- \$ ./fibonacci

ERROR: expected one input argument

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- \$ gcc fibonacci.c -o fibonacci
- \$ ./fibonacci
- ERROR: expected one input argument
- \$ ./fibonacci 12
- Input was: 12



- \$ gcc fibonacci.c -o fibonacci
- \$ ./fibonacci
- ERROR: expected one input argument
- \$ ./fibonacci 12
- Input was: 12
- \$ ./fibonacci -3
- ERROR: invalid input!



- \$ gcc fibonacci.c -o fibonacci
- \$ ./fibonacci
- ERROR: expected one input argument
- \$ ./fibonacci 12
- Input was: 12
- \$ ./fibonacci -3
- ERROR: invalid input!
- \$ ./fibonacci 1.2
- ERROR: invalid input!



- \$ gcc fibonacci.c -o fibonacci
- \$ ./fibonacci
- ERROR: expected one input argument
- \$ ./fibonacci 12
- Input was: 12
- \$ ./fibonacci -3
- ERROR: invalid input!
- \$ ./fibonacci 1.2
- ERROR: invalid input!
- \$ ./fibonacci asdf
- ERROR: invalid input!

Now it works as expected!

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```
$ qcc fibonacci.c -o fibonacci
$ ./fibonacci
ERROR: expected one input argument
$ ./fibonacci 12
Input was: 12
$ ./fibonacci -3
ERROR: invalid input!
$ ./fibonacci 1.2
ERROR: invalid input!
$ ./fibonacci asdf
ERROR: invalid input!
```

Now it works as expected!

The code almost doesn't fit on the slide though. Let's fix that.



- Functions allow you to separate sections of code that perform a particular task
- They allow for easy code re-use (avoid copy-pasting!)
- They also allow for easy testing
  - Unit tests can be compiled for debugging
  - ► Call function with various valid and invalid inputs and check for expected result
- We've already used a few functions from the standard library:
  - printf()
  - ▶ atoi()
  - ▶ isdigit()
- main() is also just a function. The C compiler knows that the main() function will be the main entry point for the program

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- Functions allow you to separate sections of code that perform a particular task
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- We've already used a few functions from the standard library:
  - printf()
  - ▶ atoi()
  - ▶ isdigit()
- main() is also just a function. The C compiler knows that the main() function will be the main entry point for the program
- Let's add a input\_valid() function to handle input validation
  - ► Take input string as input (argv[1])
  - ▶ Return true if input is valid, false otherwise



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```
// ~snip~ #includes omitted
#include <stdbool.h>
bool input_valid(const char*);  // Forward declare function
int main(int argc, char* argv[]) {
   if (argc != 2) { // Make sure we were given an input argument
       printf("ERROR: expected one input argument\n");
       return 1:
   if (!input_valid(argv[1])) { // Make sure input is valid
       printf("ERROR: invalid input!\n");
       return 2;
   printf("Input was: %i\n", fib max); // Print it back out
   return 0:
```



```
bool input_valid(const char* input) {
    for (int i = 0; input[i] != '\0'; ++i) {
        if (!isdigit(input[i])) return false;
    }
    return true;
}
```

#### Note

The const keyword specifies that the variable cannot change.

Note this is a pointer to a const char (i.e. (const char) \*). The address pointed to can still change, but that won't affect the data. For constant data and address, use const char\*const.

const applies to the left unless it's the leftmost keyword. (i.e. const int and int const are equivalent).

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- Functions only have access to the local scope.
- Only a single variable can be returned with a return statement.
- Large input data can be expensive to copy.



- Functions only have access to the local scope.
- Only a single variable can be returned with a return statement.
- Large input data can be expensive to copy.
- This can all be worked around by using pointers as input arguments.



```
void return two values(int* val1, double* val2) {
    *val1 = 10:
    *val2 = 4.5:
int main(void) {
    int my int;
    double my double;
    get two values (&my int, &my double);
    printf("my_int = %i and my_double = %q\n", my_int, my_double);
    return 0;
// Prints:
// my int = 10 and my double = 4.5
```



```
// Taking pointer to const as promise that data won't be modified
int sum_of_array(const int* array, const int array length) {
    int sum = 0;
    for (int i = 0; i < array length; ++i)</pre>
        sum += array[i];
    return sum;
int main(void) {
    int my_array[] = {5, 3, 4, 0, 1, 10};
    printf("Sum of my_array is: %i\n", sum_of_array(my_array, 6);
    return 0;
// Prints:
// Sum of my array is: 23
```

```
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```

```
// Even better, if working with arrays, make obvious
// that we expect array to be initialised to a particular size
int sum of array(const int len, const int array[len]) {
    int sum = 0:
    for (int i = 0; i < len; ++i)</pre>
        sum += array[i];
    return sum:
int main(void) {
    int my array[] = \{5, 3, 4, 0, 1, 10\};
    // Can avoid hard-coding length of stack array
    // by using sizeof(). Doesn't work for heap pointers
    printf("Sum of my_array is: %i\n", \
        sum of array(sizeof(my array)/sizeof(int), my array);
    return 0;
```



```
// Taking pointer to const as promise that data won't be modified
int sum of array(const int len, const int array[len]) {
    int sum = 0:
    for (int i = 0; i < len; ++i)</pre>
        sum += array[i];
    return sum:
int main(void) {
    int my int = 12;
    // Can take address of a variable to pass in a pointer to it
    printf("Sum of my_array is: %i\n", sum_of_array(1, &my_int);
    return 0;
// Prints:
```

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#### Static variables



Static variables inside a function have a lifetime of the program, but live in the local scope.

```
int count up() {
  // Static variable persists between function calls
  static int value = 0;
  return ++value;
int main(void) {
  printf("%d, ", count up());
  printf("%d, ", count up());
  printf("%d\n", count up());
  return 0:
// Prints: 1, 2, 3
// If value wasn't declared as static, this would print: 1, 1, 1
```

#### Static functions

void log\_value(const int value) {

file1.c:

Functions declared as static can be interpreted in the same way as global static variables. That is, they're only visible within the current file.

```
printf("Value is: %d\n", value);
file2.c:
void log value(const int value, const int step) {
    printf("Got value = %d on step %d\n", value, step);
This will fail to link since there are two versions of log value:
$ qcc file1.c file2.c
/usr/bin/ld: /tmp/ccbaHZyr.o: in function `log value':
file.c:(.text+0x0): multiple definition of `log_value';
/tmp/cc2aYUjz.o:file1.c:(.text+0x0): first defined here
collect2: error: ld returned 1 exit status
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```

#### Static functions



Functions declared as static can be interpreted in the same way as global static variables. That is, they're only visible within the current file.

```
file1.c:
static void log_value(const int value) {
    printf("Value is: %d\n", value);
}
file2.c:
static void log_value(const int value, const int step) {
    printf("Got value = %d on step %d\n", value, step);
}
```

This will work, since both versions are local to their own file.

Declaring all but one as static would also work.

## Functions - Good practices



In general, it is good practice for functions to:

- Take a pointer to input arguments that could be large and don't need to be copied
  - ▶ For small data types (8 bytes or less) copying is better unless using as a return variable.
- Take a const pointer to input data you promise not to change.
  - This helps users of your function debug their code, and helps the compiler stop you from making mistakes.
- Declare functions as static if they're not needed in other files.
  - This avoids potential naming conflicts.
- Use array notation for input arrays where possible to indicate the expected size.
  - void my\_func(const int len, const int array[len]); is clearer than void my\_func(const int len, const int\* array);, especially if the function takes in multiple arrays, or arrays with multiple dimensions.
  - E.g. matrix-matrix multiplication on the stack:

```
void mat_mul(const int m, const int k, const int n,
    const double A[m][k], const double B[k][n], double C[m][n]);
```

► This won't work with raw heap pointers, but there is a workaround!

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### Arrays on the heap

```
// Some function that takes an a x b array as input
void some function(const int a, const int b, int arr[a][b]);
// ...
int m = 100, n = 200;
// Declare heap array as a pointer to an m x n array of ints
int (*heap_array)[m][n];
// Allocate space on the heap for an m x n array of ints
heap_array = malloc(sizeof(*heap_array));
// Call the function by passing it the array (on the heap)
// pointed to by heap_array
some function (m, n, *heap array);
```



#### **Back to the Fibonacci sequence**



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### Back to the Fibonacci sequence



We have our input. Now we need to do something with it.

```
// ~snip~ #includes omitted
bool input valid(const char*); // Forward declare function
int main(int argc, char* argv[]) {
   if (argc != 2) { // Make sure we were given an input argument
       printf("ERROR: expected one input argument\n");
       return 1:
   if (!input_valid(argv[1])) { // Make sure input is valid
       printf("ERROR: invalid input!\n");
       return 2;
   printf("Input was: %i\n", fib_max); // Print it back out
   return 0:
```

## Back to the Fibonacci sequence



```
// ~snip~ #includes omitted
bool input_valid(const char*);
void print fibonacci(const int);
int main(int argc, char* argv[]) {
    if (argc != 2) { // Make sure we were given an input argument
        printf("ERROR: expected one input argument\n");
        return 1:
    if (!input_valid(argv[1])) { // Make sure input is valid
        printf("ERROR: invalid input!\n");
        return 2;
    int fib_max = atoi(argv[1]); // Read user input
    print fibonacci(fib max);  // Print the fibonacci numbers
    return 0:
```



Now we just need a function that prints the Fibonacci numbers



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#### Now we just need a function that prints the Fibonacci numbers

Four main options: while loop, do loop, for loop, recursion



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#### Now we just need a function that prints the Fibonacci numbers

Four main options: while loop, do loop, for loop, recursion

Try to implement this yourself!



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#### **Solutions**



### print\_fibonacci() - while loop



```
void print fibonacci(const int fib max) {
    if (fib max <= 0) {
        printf("\n");
        return;
    int prev = 1, current = 1;
    printf("1");
    while (next <= fib max) {</pre>
        printf(" %i", next);
        int next = prev + current
        prev = current;
        current = next;
    printf("\n");
```

### print\_fibonacci() - do loop



```
void print fibonacci(const int fib max) {
    if (fib max <= 0) {
        printf("\n");
        return;
    int prev = 0, current = 1, next = 1;
    printf("1");
    do {
        printf(" %i", next);
        prev = current;
        current = next;
        next = prev + current
    } while (next <= fib max);</pre>
    printf("\n");
```

### print\_fibonacci() - for loop



```
void print_fibonacci(const int fib_max) {
    if (fib max <= 0) {
        printf("\n");
        return;
    int prev = 1, current = 1, next = 2;
    printf("1 1");
    for (; next <= fib_max; next = prev + current) {</pre>
        printf(" %i", next);
        prev = current;
        current = next:
    printf("\n");
```

### print\_fibonacci() - Recursion



```
void print fibonacci(const int fib max, \
    const int prev, const int current)
    if (current > fib_max) {
        printf("\n");
        return:
    } else if (current == 1) printf("1 1");
    else printf("%i", current);
    // Functions can call themselves!
    print_fibonacci(fib_max, current, prev + current);
```

# print\_fibonacci() - Recursion



```
// ~snip~ #includes omitted
bool input_valid(const char*);
void print fibonacci(const int, const int, const int);
int main(int argc, char* argv[]) {
    if (argc != 2) { // Make sure we were given an input argument
        printf("ERROR: expected one input argument\n");
        return 1:
    if (!input_valid(argv[1])) { // Make sure input is valid
        printf("ERROR: invalid input!\n");
        return 2;
    int fib_max = atoi(argv[1]); // Read user input
    print_fibonacci(fib_max, 1, 1); // Print the fibonacci numbers
    return 0:
```

#### Recursion



- Function calls itself with new arguments.
- Can be very useful when working with recursive data structures (eg. binary trees)
- Need to be careful about overflowing the call stack!
  - When a function is called, a new stack frame is created to save the current state of the calling code.
  - If function calls are nested too deeply. this can overflow the stack.
  - Can be avoided by using tail recursion if compiler can do tail call optimisation. In this case, the recursive function call is the last operation, so it can replace the current stack frame instead of beginning a new one.

```
// function call to `to`, so
// stack frame must be preserved
int sumto(int to) {
    if (to > 1)
        return to + sumto(to-1);
    return to:
// Function call is final
// operation, so tail call
// optimisation is possible
int sumto(int to, int cur) {
    if (to == 0) return cur:
    return sumto (to-1, cur+to);
```



#### End of session 1.



#### Session 2



Yesterday we learned about the basic features of C and used them to implement a simple Fibonacci program.

We concluded by developing four different Fibonacci sequence implementations.

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#### Session 2



Yesterday we learned about the basic features of C and used them to implement a simple Fibonacci program.

We concluded by developing four different Fibonacci sequence implementations.

Let's pick up from there and learn some new features to clean up our code.

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### Session 2



**The Preprocessor** 

## The Preprocessor



- The preprocessor operates before compilation begins.
- Preprocessor directives begin with a #
- #include is a preprocessor directive that says "Insert the contents of this file here."
  - ▶ We can create our own header files to clean up our code!
- #define can be used to define a compile-time constant or macro that gets inserted wherever its symbol appears.
- #if .. #elif .. #else .. #endif can be used to conditionally compile sections of code based on constants available from #define macros.
- Similarly, #ifdef .. #elifdef .. #else .. #endif and #ifndef .. #elifndef .. #else .. #endif for conditional compilation based on whether a symbol has been #defined
  - #elifdef and #elifndef are C23 features! For older compilers, use #elif defefined instead.
- ullet To see exactly what the preprocessor is doing, you can compile with the  $-\mathbb{E}$  flag, and open the resultant output text file (typically a .i file by convention).

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- ullet To see exactly what the preprocessor is doing, you can compile with the  $-\mathbb{E}$  flag, and open the resultant output text file (typically a .i file by convention).
- Let's try some of these out to improve our Fibonacci code.



```
main.c:
#include <stdio.h>
#include <stdlib.h>
#include "input valid.h"
#include "fibonacci.h"
int main(int argc, char* argv[]) {
    if (argc != 2) { // Make sure we were given an input argument
        printf("ERROR: expected one input argument\n"); return 1;
    if (!input_valid(argv[1])) { // Make sure input is valid
        printf("ERROR: invalid input!\n"); return 2;
    int fib_max = atoi(argv[1]); // Read user input
    print fibonacci(fib max); // Print the fibonacci numbers
    return 0:
```



```
input valid.h:
#ifndef INPUT_VALID_H
#define INPUT VALID H
#include <stdbool.h>
bool input valid(const char* input);
#endif
input_valid.c:
#include "input valid.h"
#include <ctvpe.h>
bool input_valid(const char* input) {
    for (int i = 0; input[i] != '\0'; ++i) {
        if (!isdigit(input[i])) return false;
    return true;
```

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```
fibonacci.h:
#ifndef FIBONACCI_H
#define FIBONACCI_H
#include <stdbool.h>
bool print_fibonacci(const int fib_max);
#endif
```

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```
fibonacci c
#include "fibonacci.h"
#include <stdio.h>
void print fibonacci(const int fib max) {
    if (fib max <= 0) { printf("\n"); return; }</pre>
    int prev = 1, current = 1, next = 2;
    printf("1 1");
    while (next <= fib max) {</pre>
        printf(" %i", next);
        prev = current;
        current = next;
        next = prev + current
    printf("\n");
```

### Try compiling like before:

\$ qcc main.c -o fib





### Try compiling like before:

```
$ gcc main.c -o fib
/usr/bin/ld: /tmp/ccSudkIr.o: in function `main':
main.c:(.text+0xb6): undefined reference to `valid_input'
/usr/bin/ld: main.c:(.text+0xfd): undefined reference to `print_fibo
collect2: error: ld returned 1 exit status
```



### Try compiling like before:

```
$ gcc main.c -o fib
/usr/bin/ld: /tmp/ccSudkIr.o: in function `main':
main.c:(.text+0xb6): undefined reference to `valid_input'
/usr/bin/ld: main.c:(.text+0xfd): undefined reference to `print_fibo
collect2: error: ld returned 1 exit status
This is a linker error.
```

Since main.c only includes the header, the compiler doesn't know anything about the implementation, so when it tries to link the function call to a the compiled function, it can't find it.

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#### Try compiling like before:

```
$ gcc main.c -o fib
/usr/bin/ld: /tmp/ccSudkIr.o: in function `main':
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/usr/bin/ld: main.c:(.text+0xfd): undefined reference to `print_fibo
collect2: error: ld returned 1 exit status
This is a linker error.
```

Since main.c only includes the header, the compiler doesn't know anything about the implementation, so when it tries to link the function call to a the compiled function, it can't find it.

This is easily fixed by telling the compiler about the implementation:

```
$ gcc main.c valid_input.c fibonacci.c -o fib
$ ./fib 10
1 1 2 3 5 8
```

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## Multi-Step Compilation



- Files can also be compiled into an object file (.o file) individually by calling the AUSTRALIA compiler with the -c flag.
  - ► -c tells the compiler to compile without linking.
  - ► For a single input .c file, the default output is a file with the same name, with a .o extension.
  - ightharpoonup .  $\circ$  files can be listed as input files in a future compile step the same way as .  $\circ$  files.
- This can allow small parts of a large project to be re-compiled without having to compile the whole thing from scratch. Only the changed code and code that depends on it needs to be recompiled.
  - ► For example, if we updated fibonacci.c, then fibonacci.o would need to be recompiled, as would the final executable, fib, but valid\_input.o can remain unchanged.

```
$ gcc fibonacci.c -c
$ gcc valid_input.c -c
$ gcc main.c fibonacci.o valid_input.o -o fib
$ ./fib 10
1 1 2 3 5 8
```

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But what if we want to choose between different Fibonacci implementations?

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One option is to define four different versions of the function and just call the particular one we want:

```
fibonacci.h:
#ifndef FIBONACCI H
#define FIBONACCI H
void print fibonacci while(const int fib max);
void print fibonacci do(const int fib max);
void print_fibonacci_for(const int fib_max);
void print fibonacci recursive (
    const int fib max,
    const int prev.
    const int current
) ;
#endif
```



This would work, but what if we want to choose an implementation at compile time with out in re-writing the code?

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This would work, but what if we want to choose an implementation at compile time with out re-writing the code? We can do this with #if inside our main() function.

```
main.c:
    /* ... set fib max from user input */
#if FIB IMPL==0
    print fibonacci while(fib max);
#elif FIB IMPL==1
    print fibonacci do(fib max);
#elif FIB_IMPL==2
    print fibonacci for(fib max);
#elif FIB IMPL==3
    print_fibonacci_recursive(fib_max, 1, 1);
#else
#error Unknown Fibonacci implementation
#endif
    /* ~snip~ */
```



#### Now if we compile as before, we get our error message:

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#### Now if we compile as before, we get our error message:

#### We need to provide a choice:

```
$ gcc main.c valid_input.c fibonacci.c -o fib -DFIB_IMPL=1
$ ./fib 10
1 1 2 3 5 8
$
```



#### Now if we compile as before, we get our error message:

#### We need to provide a choice:

```
$ gcc main.c valid_input.c fibonacci.c -o fib -DFIB_IMPL=1
$ ./fib 10
1 1 2 3 5 8
$
```

This chooses the do implementation, but it's not very clear!

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One option is to use #define to label our magic numbers. This is like declaring a global const, but its value is available to the preprocessor. Downside is that it has no type information.

```
main.c:
#define IMPL WHILE 0
                          #if FIB IMPL==IMPL WHILE
#define IMPL DO 1
                              print fibonacci while(fib max);
#define IMPL FOR 2
                          #elif FIB IMPL==IMPL DO
#define IMPL RECURSIVE 3
                              print fibonacci do(fib max);
                          #elif FIB_IMPL==IMPL_FOR
                              print fibonacci for (fib max);
#include <stdio.h>
#include <stdlib.h>
                          #elif FIB IMPL==IMPL RECURSIVE
                              print_fibonacci_recursive(fib_max, 1, 1);
#include "valid_input.h"
#include "fibonacci.h"
                          #else
int main(int argc,
                          #error "Unknown Fibonacci implementation"
    char* argv[]) {
                          #endif
/* ~snip~ */
                              /* ~snip~ */
```



#### Now we can compile with

```
qcc main.c valid_input.c fibonacci.c -o fib -DFIB_IMPL=IMPL_DO
 ./fib 10
 1 2 3 5 8
 qcc main.c valid input.c fibonacci.c -o fib -DFIB IMPL=IMPL WHILE
$ ./fib 15
 1 2 3 5 8 13
$ gcc main.c valid input.c fibonacci.c -o fib -DFIB IMPL=SOMETHING
main.c: In function 'main':
main.c:20:2: error: #error "Unknown Fibonacci implementation"
   20 | #error Unknown Fibonacci implementation
         ^ ~ ~ ~ ~
```



#### Now we can compile with

```
qcc main.c valid input.c fibonacci.c -o fib -DFIB IMPL=IMPL DO
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 1 2 3 5 8
 qcc main.c valid input.c fibonacci.c -o fib -DFIB IMPL=IMPL WHILE
$ ./fib 15
 1 2 3 5 8 13
$ gcc main.c valid input.c fibonacci.c -o fib -DFIB IMPL=SOMETHING
main.c: In function 'main':
main.c:20:2: error: #error "Unknown Fibonacci implementation"
   20 | #error Unknown Fibonacci implementation
         ^~~~~
```

This has a flaw though, which is that if SOMETHING were #defined elsewhere in the code, and it happened to evaluate to 0, 1, 2, or 3, then we'd choose that implementation instead of hitting the error!



Another option is to use #ifdef instead so that there aren't any magic numbers.

```
main.c:
    /* ~snip~ */
#ifdef FIB IMPL WHILE
    print fibonacci while (fib max);
#elifdef FIB IMPL DO
    print fibonacci do(fib max);
#elifdef FIB IMPL FOR
    print fibonacci for (fib max);
#elifdef FIB IMPL RECURSIVE
    print fibonacci recursive (fib max, 1, 1);
#else
#error "Unknown Fibonacci implementation"
#endif
    /* ~snip~ */
```



#### In this case, we compile with:

```
qcc main.c valid_input.c fibonacci.c -o fib -DFIB_IMPL_DO
 ./fib 10
1 1 2 3 5 8
 gcc main.c valid_input.c fibonacci.c -o fib -DFIB_IMPL_WHILE
$ ./fib 15
1 1 2 3 5 8 13
$ gcc main.c valid input.c fibonacci.c -o fib -DFIB IMPL SOMETHING
main.c: In function 'main':
main.c:20:2: error: #error "Unknown Fibonacci implementation"
   20 | #error Unknown Fibonacci implementation
         ^~~~~
```



This makes our main () function quite messy though. Let's add a wrapper function. AUSTRALIA fibonacci.h: fibonacci.c:

```
#include "fibonacci.h"
#ifndef FIBONACCI H
                          /* ~snip~ various implementations ~snip! */
#define FIBONACCI H
void print fibonacci (
                          void print fibonacci(const int fib max) {
    const int fib max);
                         #ifdef FIB IMPL WHILE
                              print fibonacci while(fib max);
#endif
                          #elifdef FIB IMPL DO
main.c:
                              print fibonacci do(fib max);
/* ~snip~ */
                          #elifdef FIB IMPL FOR
print fibonacci(fib max);
                              print fibonacci for (fib max);
/* ~snip~ */
                          #elifdef FIB IMPL RECURSIVE
                              print_fibonacci_recursive(fib_max,1,1);
                          #else
                          #error Unknown Fibonacci implementation
                          #endif
```



We could also do this with a macro instead of a wrapper function. fibonacci.h:

```
#ifndef FIBONACCI H
#define FIBONACCI H
#ifdef FIB IMPL WHILE
#define PRINT FIBONACCI(FIB_MAX) print_fibonacci_while(FIB_MAX)
#elifdef FIB IMPL DO
#define PRINT FIBONACCI(FIB MAX) print fibonacci do(FIB MAX)
#elifdef FIB IMPL FOR
#define PRINT_FIBONACCI(FIB_MAX) print_fibonacci_for(FIB_MAX)
#elifdef FIB IMPL RECURSIVE
#define PRINT FIBONACCI(FIB MAX) \
    print fibonacci recursive (FIB MAX, 1, 1)
#else
#error "Unknown Fibonacci implementation"
#endif
// cont.d...
```



```
// cont.d...
void print_fibonacci_while(const int fib_max);
void print fibonacci do(const int fib max);
void print fibonacci for(const int fib max);
void print fibonacci recursive (const int fib max,
    const int prev, const int current);
#endif
main.c:
/* ~snip~ */
PRINT FIBONACCI (fib max);
/* ~snip~ */
```

Based on which implementation is defined at compile time, the correct function call is put in place of PRINT\_FIBONACCI, and fib\_max is passed through in place of FIB\_MAX.



```
// cont.d...
void print_fibonacci_while(const int fib_max);
void print fibonacci do(const int fib max);
void print fibonacci for(const int fib max);
void print fibonacci recursive (const int fib max,
    const int prev, const int current);
#endif
main.c:
/* ~snip~ */
PRINT FIBONACCI (fib max);
/* ~snip~ */
```

Based on which implementation is defined at compile time, the correct function call is put in place of PRINT\_FIBONACCI, and fib\_max is passed through in place of FIB\_MAX.



A short diversion into custom datatypes



## **User-Defined Datatypes**



#### We can define our own datatypes based on the primitive types.

```
// This defines size t as an alias for unsigned long
typedef unsigned long size t;
// Now we can use size t as a more convenient name
size_t my_unsigned_long = 0x100000000;
// This can be used to convey meaning, and provide
// single points of change.
typedef meters t double;
typedef seconds_t double;
```

## **User-Defined Datatypes - Enumerations**



Enumerations can be used to represent different states.

```
// Two ways to declare. Tagged:
enum colours {
    RED,
    GREEN,
   BLUE
}; // <- NOTE semicolon is required!
enum colours my colour = RED;
// Untagged (typedef colours to alias an anonymous enum)
typedef enum {RED, GREEN, BLUE} colours;
colours my colour = BLUE;
// Can combine both to allow both declaration types:
typedef enum colours {RED, GREEN, BLUE} colours;
```

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// Can combine both to allow both declaration types:
typedef enum colours {RED, GREEN, BLUE} colours;
```

# User-Defined Datatypes - Enumerations



Enumerations evaluate to integers by default.

```
enum colours {RED, GREEN, BLUE};
enum colours my colour = RED;
int red value = mv colour; // Stores 0
int blue value = BLUE;  // Stores 2
// Custom values can be assigned
enum colours {RED = 4, GREEN = 2, BLUE = 123};
// Can be useful for bit masks:
enum options {OPTA = 1 << 0, OPTB = 1 << 1, OPTC = 1 << 2};
int bitmask = OPTA | OPTC; // Stores 0b101
if (bitmask & OPTA) { /* Do something if OPTA bit is set */ }
bitmask |= OPTB; // Set the OPTB bit without altering others
bitmask &= ~OPTC; // Unset the OPTC bit. bitmask == 0b011
```

## **User-Defined Datatypes - Structures**



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Multiple values can be stored together in a structure:

```
struct SomeData {
   int a;
   double b;
   float c;
};
// As for enums, must use struct tag, or declare with typedef
struct SomeData my data1 = {1, 1.0, 2.0f};
// The below is equivalent, but much clearer. Prefer this notation.
struct SomeData my data2 = { .a = 1, .b = 1.0, .c = 2.0f};
// Use . to access members
my_data1.a = 10; // Store data in my_data1's a value
// Use -> in place of . to access members through a pointer
struct SomeData* data ptr = &my data2; // Get pointer to my data2
```

## **User-Defined Datatypes - Unions**

// Equivalent to:



Unions allow multiple datatypes to be stored in a single memory location. Only one member is valid at a time! Use with care!

```
union int or float {
    int i;
    float f;
} ;
// Initialise as for struct, but only set one member!
union int or float my int or float = {.i = 10};
my int or float.f = 1.0; // Store 1.0f. The integer value is been
// This *interprets* the bits of the float as an int!
int some_int = my_int_or_float.i;
```

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int some\_int = \*(int\*)&my\_int\_or\_float.f;

#### Fibonacci Sequence - Choice of Implementation

With more knowledge about datatypes, now we can switch between Fibonacci implementations at run time using function pointers. fibonacci.h:

```
typedef enum algorithm_t {WHILE, DO, FOR, RECURSIVE} algorithm_t;

// Declare print_algorithm as a type alias for any function

// that takes a const int as input and returns void

typedef void print_algorithm(const int);

// Function to choose algorithm from user input
algorithm_t choose_algorithm(int argc, const char** argv);

// Function to get the required function pointer

print_algorithm get_algorithm(algorithm_t);
```

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typedef void print_algorithm(const int);

// Function to choose algorithm from user input
algorithm_t choose_algorithm(int argc, const char** argv);

// Function to get the required function pointer

print_algorithm get_algorithm(algorithm_t);
```

Note, another option to declare a function pointer without a typedef is:

```
// declare my_fn_pointer with same signature as above
void (*my_fn_pointer) (const int);
my_fn_pointer = print_while; // Point to print_while function
```

## Fibonacci Sequence - Choice of Implementation



```
fibonacci.cpp:
// Need a print recursive with same signature as others
void print recursive wrap(const int fib max) {
    print recursive (fib max, 1, 1); }
print_algorithm get_algorithm(algorithm_t algo) {
    switch (algo) {
      case WHILE:
        return print while; // Point to the print while function
      case DO:
        return print do;
      case FOR:
        return print_for;
      case RECURSIVE:
        return print_recursive_wrap;
    fprintf(stderr, "ERROR: unknown algorithm!\n"); exit(255); }
```



Getting back on track, compilation is becoming more complicated with the extra files.





Getting back on track, compilation is becoming more complicated with the extra files.

How can we manage this for large projects?



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### **Build Systems**



- Build systems provide an abstraction over compilation
- They can be used to manage (and validate) compile options
- They can also handle complex dependency trees
  - ► E.g. code depends on a separately compiled library of other code in the project
  - Can have a compile target for each, with one dependent on the other
  - Compilation steps automatically re-run if required when build system is run
- There are a few to choose from, but the most common are make and cmake
- These both have a lot of complexity, so we'll just cover the basics here

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#### Makefile

```
cflags := -Wall -Wextra -Wpedantic -Werror -03
CC := qcc
sources := $(wildcard *.c)
all: fib while fib do fib for fib recursive
fib while: ${sources}
 ${CC} ${cflags} $^ -o $@ -DFIB IMPL WHILE
fib do: ${sources}
 ${CC} ${cflags} $^ -o $@ -DFIB IMPL DO
fib for: ${sources}
 ${CC} ${cflags} $^ -o $@ -DFIB_IMPL_FOR
fib recursive: ${sources}
  ${CC} ${cflags} $^ -o $@ -DFIB_IMPL_RECURSIVE
```



#### Now we can build the various versions with:

```
$ make fib_while
$ ./fib_while 10
1 1 2 3 5 8
$ make # running this will build all four versions
```

There is a lot more that can be done with make for more advanced configuration. For example, individual build steps can have their own target that produces a .o file, and then make can automatically detect which .o files (and subsequent steps that depend on them) need to be recompiled based on file modification times.

See https://makefiletutorial.com/ for a more detailed C-oriented guide, or for a more in-depth but general guide.

CMakeLists.txt



```
cmake_minimum_required(VERSION 3.10)
project(Fibonacci C)
```

add\_executable(fib\_while \${SRCS})
add\_executable(fib\_do \${SRCS})
add executable(fib for \${SRCS})

set (SRCS main.c valid input.c fibonacci.c)

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```
# contd...

target_compile_definitions(fib_while PRIVATE FIB_IMPL_WHILE)

target_compile_definitions(fib_do PRIVATE FIB_IMPL_DO)

target_compile_definitions(fib_for PRIVATE FIB_IMPL_FOR)

target_compile_definitions(fib_recursive PRIVATE FIB_IMPL_RECURSIVE)
```

#### Can configure the project with:

```
$ cmake -B build -DCMAKE_BUILD_TYPE=Release
```

This says "Build in a directory called 'build', and use the 'Release' configuration (defaults to -O3 -DNDEBUG)"

#### Can then build all targets with

```
$ cmake --build build # Build all targets
$ cmake --build build --target fib_while # Just fib_while
$ build/fib_while 10
1 1 2 3 5 8
```



cmake is a little harder to get started with than make, but has the benefit of being cross-platform (hence the c), and tends to be better at handling complex projects.

For a more detailed <code>cmake</code> tutorial, see the documentation, https://cmake.org/cmake/help/latest/guide/tutorial/index.html, or other tutorials such as https://riptutorial.com/cmake.



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If you're using Linux or MacOS, then compilation with gcc, make, and cmake should work exactly the same way on your own computer. For Windows users, you can either use the Windows Subsystem for Linux to compile/test in a Linux environment, or install Microsoft Visual Studio to compile natively (check the documentation for details).

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As you begin writing bigger projects, performance will inevitably become a factor to consider.

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As you begin writing bigger projects, performance will inevitably become a factor to consider.

Some general good practices that will help:

- Avoid deeply nested loops (i.e. loops inside loops inside loops etc.)
  - If you find yourself writing a for loop over a large range inside another loop that also goes over a large range, think about whether you can achieve your goal in a more efficient way.
  - Even more important for deeper nesting!



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  - Even more important for deeper nesting!
- Flatten multi-dimensional arrays.
  - Consider a 2D array, e.g.

```
double** mat_2D = malloc(sizeof(double*)*nrows);
```

- ▶ Instead of calling mat\_2D[i] = malloc(sizeof(double)\*ncols) for each row,
   use mat\_2D[0] = malloc(sizeof(double)\*nrows\*ncols);, and then just
   assign each row pointer as mat\_2D[i] = mat\_2D[i-1] + ncols;, or equivalently,
   mat\_2D[i] = &mat\_2D[0][i\*ncols];
- This means the whole array is stored in one block of memory, which takes less time to allocate, and is better for CPU caching.



- Prefer a struct of arrays to an array of structs.
  - ▶ When iterating over an array of structs, often you only need one or two of the members.
  - If the struct is large, there will be a lot of unused data being fetched, so computation may become limited by memory bandwidth.
  - ▶ By using a struct of arrays instead, you can iterate over the arrays of the members you care about without loading unnecessary data.

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- Use a profiler to find optimisation targets.
  - ▶ Profilers like gprof can help find which parts of your code take the longest to run.
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  - Similarly, for debugging, tools like valgrind are useful for finding memory bugs (e.g. leaks, out of range accesses, etc.).
- Don't try too hard to pre-optimise.
  - Start by writing good, readable code that is easy to debug and produces correct results.
  - ► Once it's working, use a profiler to find the best targets for optimisation.

←□ → ←□ → ← □ → ← □ → ← □
 ←□ → ←□ → ← □ → ← □



You now have all the tools you need to begin your own C projects.



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There's a lot more that can be learned about C, but that's best discovered as you need it.

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- For some example problems to solve, try https://projecteuler.net/archives
- To learn more about the C's capabilities and standard library features, have a look at https://en.cppreference.com/w/c/. For example:
  - ► Handling of complex numbers: https://en.cppreference.com/w/c/numeric/complex
  - Memory management functions: https://en.cppreference.com/w/c/memory
  - ► Reading terminal input: https://en.cppreference.com/w/c/io/fscanf
- Particularly for large projects, becoming familiar with source control (e.g. Git) for change tracking is essential. You can learn more about it here:
  - ► Git tutorial: https://www.tutorialspoint.com/git/index.htm
  - ► MIT lecture: https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=2sjqTHE0zok

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  - ► Git tutorial: https://www.tutorialspoint.com/git/index.htm
  - ► MIT lecture: https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=2sjqTHE0zok
- A common method for debugging is to print out the value of key variables with printf(). There are much more powerful options though, such as gdb: http://www.gdbtutorial.com/
  - ► Once you've learned the basics, see https://darkdust.net/files/GDB%20Cheat%20Sheet.pdf for a handy reference. ■



#### One last practice problem



#### **Practice Problem**



#### Using scanf () to read move coordinates, write a tic-tac-toe game:

Player 1 wins!

#### Thank you!



#### Please help us improve!

https://anu.aul.qualtrics.com/jfe/form/SV\_OBRRQvSz5oiwOqO