Computing in C for Science Lecture 3 of 5

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Common Problems

- Misuse of Power! x^2 should always be written x*x, $NOT_{pow}(x, 2.0)$. \sqrt{x} should be written sqrt(x), $NOT_{pow}(x, 0.5)$.
- Integer Division Remember a fraction such as 1/3 is equal to zero. To get a floating point fraction, this should be rewritten 1.0/3.0.

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Input and Output in C - Streams

- All I/O in C is accomplished via file streams.
- This stems from C's UNIX roots (every device is a file).
- We have already seen printf, formatted output to console.
- C90 defines three streams which are initialised by default when a program starts.

stdin Input from the keyboard. (read only)
stdout Text console. (write only)
stderr Another text console. (write only)

Why have stderr?

Stream Redirection

- UNIX (and now most other operating systems) allow for a C program's streams to be redirected at the command line.
- This is completely transparent to the C program (it just reads and writes data oblivious to the source).
- One can redirect stdout using (>) as follows:

myprogram > output.txt

• stderr can be redirected using (2>):

myprogram 2> errorlog.txt

• stdin can be redirected using (<):

myprogram < input.txt</pre>

Having a separate *error stream*, allows for important messages to be filtered from data output.

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printf and scanf - formatted output and input

These are automatically connected to stdout and stderr respectively. The more generalised functions are fprintf and fscanf. As an example:

```
fprintf(stdout, "Text to stdout...\n");
fprintf(stderr, "Text to stderr...\n");
```

We can also read text from a stream:

```
fscanf(stdin, "%lf", &ptrDouble);
```

• Additional streams can be opened using fopen.

fopen - open a file stream

```
FILE * stream = fopen(char * filename, char * mode);
```

Working backwards, mode is a string telling C how to open the file:

```
meaning
mode
        Open filename for reading. The file must exist or {\tt NULL} is
"r"
         returned.
" w "
         Open filename for writing, starting from the beginning of the
         file. The file will be created if it doesn't already exist. Any old
         data will be overwritten.
"a"
         Open filename for writing, starting from the end of the file.
         File will be appended if it doesn't exist and created otherwise.
        Open filename for reading and writing, starting from the be-
"r+"
         ginning. If the file doesn't exist, NULL is returned.
        Open filename for reading and writing, starting from the be-
        ginning. If the file doesn't exist it's created.
        Open filename for reading and writing (append if exists).
```

fopen - II

```
FILE * stream = fopen(char * filename, char * mode);
```

filename

Must be a legal operating system file name. A safe option would be something similar to:

```
"results.txt"
```

Absolute Filenames

We can specify a full directory path to a filename:

```
data = fopen("C:\\TEMP\\mydata.dat", "w"); /* Windows */
data = fopen("/tmp/mydata.dat", "w");
                                           /* UNIX */
```

Relative Filenames

It is much safer to omit the full path:

```
data = fopen("mydata.dat", "w"); /* works on most os' */
```

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fopen - III

"a+"

```
FILE * stream = fopen(char * filename, char * mode);
```

- Here stream is a pointer to a FILE data type.
- stdin, stdout and stderr are also pointers (which are opened automatically for us).
- Sometimes it is not possible to open a file (it may not exist, or belong to another user etc...), in this case a special pointer value NULL (which is equal to zero) is returned.

NULL pointers

A NULL pointer is a special value, usually signalling failure. This can be checked for:

```
stream = fopen("illegal/\\filename.txt", "w");
if (!stream)
  fprintf(stderr, "Unable to open file\n");
```

fclose - Closing a file stream

• Any file streams fopen'ed should be closed using:

fclose(stream);

- File read/writes may go to an internal buffer before they go to the disk (to speed things up).
- An explicit file close ensures that any pending data is written to disk.
- For the lazy there is:

fcloseall();

• Do NOT call fclose on any of the following:

stdin, stdout & stderr

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Moving around a file - rewind, ftell and fseek

rewind(stream);

Start the next read/write from the beginning of the file.

fpos = ftell(stream);

Get an int telling us how far we are in the file (from the beginning).

fseek(stream, fpos, SEEK_SET);

Move fpos bytes into the file (counted from the beginning).

fseek(stream, fpos, SEEK_CUR);

Move fpos bytes forward into file (from current position).

fseek(stream, fpos, SEEK_END);

Move fpos bytes from the end of the file.

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File Types

Files in C can contain data in two formats:

- As text, where each byte is interpreted as an ASCII character mapping.
- Or as raw binary data, the meaning of which is left to the program to determine.

These files are referred to as text files and binary files respectively. All the I/O covered so far applies to text files.

Each format has it's advantages and disadvantages.

Text versus Binary Files

Text Files

- Pro Can be read by almost any program on almost any computer. (And by humans!).
- Con Inefficient Numbers can take up as much as twice the space as necessary.

Binary Files

- Pro Accurate and efficient.
- Con Incompatible Binary data can be very difficult to read by other programs, and incredibly difficult between processor architectures.

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Handling Binary Files

Binary files are opened using fopen, we need to add "b" to the file mode though:

```
stream = fopen("data.dat", "rb");
```

Data is read from and written to a binary file using fread and fwrite. For example:

```
double values[10] = {0.0};
/* we have "stream" an open binary file */
read = fread(values, sizeof(double), 10, stream);
if (read != 10)
{ read failed }
```

Please see <stdio.h> for more details.

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Permanent versus Temporary Files

- Sometimes we may not wish for a file to be permanent.
- Temporary files provide a means for storing intermediate computations.
- We open a temporary file using the tmpfile() function.

```
Example
```

```
stream = tmpfile();
if (!stream)
{
/* handle failure */
}
/* fread, fwrite, fprintf, fscanf */
fclose(stream);
```

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Pointers and Arrays

We saw the connection between arrays and pointers in the last lecture. Given the array:

```
double ar [4] = \{1.0, 2.0, 3.0, 4.0\};
```

The elements of this array can be accessed as follows:

```
*(ar) == ar[0] == 1.0
*(ar+1) == ar[1] == 2.0
*(ar+2) == ar[2] == 3.0
```

Pointer referencing is also supported:

```
ar == &ar[0]
(ar+1) == &ar[1]
(ar+2) == &ar[2]
```

Allowed Pointer Operations

```
Declaration: double * pA, * pB;

Assignment: pA = &var;

Increment: pA = pA + 1;

Decrement: pA = pA - 1;

Difference: gap = pA - pB;

Comparison: if (pA == pB)

De-referencing: *pA = val;
```

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Fixed Size Two-Dimensional Arrays

We can declare arrays of dimension higher than one, as follows:

```
double a[2][3] = \{\{1.0, 2.0, 3.0\}, \{2.0, 3.0, 4.0\}\};
```

Where the elements of a are denoted as expected:

a[0][0]	a[0][1]	a[0][2]
a[1][0]	a[1][1]	a[1][2]

To access the top left element:

```
myVal = a[0][0]; /* equal to 1.0 */
```

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Fixed Size Two-Dimensional Arrays II

```
#include <stdio.h>
#define COLS 3

void printArray(int matrix[][COLS], int rows)
{
   int i, j;
   for (i = 0; i < rows; i++)
        {
        for (j = 0; j < COLS; j++)
            printf("%d ", matrix[i][j]);
        printf("\n");
    }
}
int main()
{
   int matrix[2][COLS] = {{1, 2, 3},{4, 5, 6}};
   printArray(matrix, 2);
   return 0;
}</pre>
```

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Fixed Size Two-Dimensional Arrays III

We have seen an example of a two dimensional array:

```
a[0][0] a[0][1] a[0][2]
a[1][0] a[1][1] a[1][2]
```

In memory it is arranged as follows:

```
      [a[0][0] | a[0][1] | a[0][2] | a[1][0] | a[1][1] | a[1][2]

      (i.e. as a one dimensional array).
```

- Fixed size arrays are very inflexible as they require the dimensions to be "hard coded".
- They are allocated from the stack thus large arrays may cause problems.
- Dynamically allocated arrays overcome these restrictions.

Dynamic Allocation

The heap

- C has set aside a special block of memory known as the heap.
- Memory can be requested from the heap.
- If memory is available, it is provided, otherwise a request is made to the operating system.
- The implementation details of the heap are "undefined".

sizeof

- We need to know how much memory to request.
- The sizeof keyword returns the size (in bytes), of a variable or data type.

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How to Borrow Memory

We use the malloc function (defined in <stdlib.h>) to request memory and free to return it to the heap.

```
#include <stdio.h>
#include <stdiib.h>
#define NCOUNT 10
int main()
{
   int * numbers, loop;
   numbers = (int *) malloc(sizeof(int)*NCOUNT);
   if (!numbers)
   {
      fprintf(stderr, "Unable to allocate memory\n");
      return -1;
   }
   for (loop = 0; loop < NCOUNT; loop++)
      numbers[loop] = loop;

   for (loop = 0; loop < NCOUNT; loop++)
      printf("numbers[%d] = %d\n", loop, numbers[loop]);
   free(numbers);
   return 0;
}</pre>
```

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How to Borrow Memory - Details

```
void * malloc(size_t Size);
void free(void * Memory);
```

What is void *?

- void * is a pointer to an unknown data type, it consists only of an address.
- We can explicitly cast from void * to any other pointer type.
- Any pointer type can be implicitly casted to a void *.
- A value of NULL usually means that a function encountered an error.

What is size_t?

size_t is defined to be an unsigned integer type large enough
to hold numbers returned by sizeof.

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How to Borrow Memory - More Details

Two more popular memory management functions are:

```
realloc Modifies the size of a memory block.
calloc Allocates memory, and sets every byte to 0.
```

Some common heap problems

- Allocating memory is slow and should be done as few times as possible.
- Memory allocation can fail, every malloc/calloc should be checked (or at the very least asserted).
- Every malloc/calloc should have a corresponding free, memory is leaked if it's not freed after use.

1-D Example: Fibonacci (again!)

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

double * fibs;
unsigned int nfibs=0, loop;
while (nfibs < 2)
{
    printf("How many Fibonacci numbers are needed (>1)?\n");
    scanf("%u", &nfibs);
}

fibs = (double *) malloc(sizeof(double)*nfibs);
if (!fibs) /* malloc failed? */
{
    fprintf(stderr, "Unable to allocate memory!\n");
    return -1;
}

fibs[0] = 1.0; fibs[1] = 1.0;
for (loop = 2; loop < nfibs; loop++)
    fibs[loop] = fibs[loop-1]+fibs[loop-2];

for (loop = 0; loop < nfibs; loop++)
    printf("fib[%u] = %lg\n", loop, fibs[loop]);
    free(fibs);
    return 0;
}</pre>
```

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Pointers to Pointers: **ptr

- Pointers in C are very flexible, to the extent that we can form pointers to pointers!
- This is known more formally as the "level of indirection".
- Tensors of arbitrary rank (Fortran 95 is limited to 7) can be formed easily in C.
- The most useful example in C being matrices.

Matrices in C

Matrices in C are commonly represented by the double ** type. This means "a pointer to a pointer to a double".

Constructing Matrices with Pointers

```
double ** makeMatrix(unsigned int rows, unsigned int cols)
  unsigned int i;
  double ** matrix;
  matrix = (double **) malloc(rows * sizeof(double *));
  if (!matrix) return NULL; /* failed */
  for (i = 0; i < rows; i++)</pre>
      matrix[i] = (double *) malloc(cols*sizeof(double));
      if (!matrix[i])
         return NULL; /* lazy, we should really free
                         all the memory allocated above */
  return matrix;
```

Accessing Matrix Elements

```
Usage pattern for makeMatrix
double ** matrix = makeMatrix(rows, cols);
for (i=0; i < rows; i++)</pre>
   for (j=0; j < cols; j++)</pre>
       matrix[i][j] = 0.0;
free the matrix
```

 Accessing the dynamically allocated array looks identical to the fixed size ones, but "under the hood" things are a little different:

```
matrix[row][col] = *(*(matrix + row) + col)
```

• The makeMatrix code on the previous slide contained a lot of malloc statements, is there a better way to allocate a matrix? (yes!)

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A Better Way of Allocating Matrices

```
double ** allocMatrix(unsigned int rows, unsigned int cols)
   double ** matrix;
  unsigned int i;
   matrix = (double **) malloc (rows*sizeof(double *));
   if (!matrix) return NULL; /* failed */
   matrix[0] = (double *) malloc (rows*cols*sizeof(double));
   if (!matrix[0])
      free(matrix); /* we don't need matrix any more */
      return NULL; /* failed */
   for (i = 1; i < rows; i++)
  matrix[i] = matrix[i-1] + cols;</pre>
   return matrix;
```

Why is allocMatrix Better?

- allocMatrix only uses 2 mallocs whilst, makeMatrix uses cols + 1.
- Meaning there are fewer points of failure (we only check two pointers for NULL),
- It is much easier to free a matrix allocated with the allocMatrix function, all we need to do is:

```
void freeMatrix(double ** matrix)
{
    free(matrix[0]);
    free(matrix);
}
```

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Case Study: Matrix Addition

Let's define some utility functions to:

- Allocate memory for the matrix (allocMatrix) done,
- Free a matrix (freeMatrix) done,
- Print a matrix (printMatrix),
- Oreate a random matrix (randomMatrix),
- Add matrices together (addMatrices)

We drive all these functions using a main function.

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printMatrix and randomMatrix

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addMatrices

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The main function

```
int main()
      unsigned int rows, cols;
double ** matrixA, ** matrixB, **matrixC;
printf("Enter rows cols: ");
scanf("%u %u", &rows, &cols);
      matrixA = allocMatrix(rows, cols);
matrixB = allocMatrix(rows, cols);
matrixC = allocMatrix(rows, cols);
      if (!matrixA || !matrixB || !matrixC)
{    /* a little lazy, but it does the job */
    fprintf(stderr, "Unable to allocate matrices!\n");
    return -1;
      randomMatrix(matrixA, rows, cols); randomMatrix(matrixB, rows, cols);
addMatrices(matrixA, matrixB, matrixC, rows, cols);
     printf("\n\matrix A = \n");
printMatrix(matrixA, rows, cols);
printf("\n\matrixB = \n");
printMatrix(matrixB, rows, cols);
printf("\n\matrixA + matrixB = \n");
printMatrix(matrixC, rows, cols);
      freeMatrix(matrixC); freeMatrix(matrixB); freeMatrix(matrixA);
```

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Results

```
Enter rows cols: 4 4
matrix A =
 0.00125 0.56359 0.19330 0.80874
0.58501 0.47987 0.35029 0.89596
0.82284 0.74660 0.17411 0.85894
0.71050 0.51353 0.30399 0.01498
matrixB = 0.09140 0.36445 0.14731 0.16590 0.98853 0.44569 0.11908 0.00467
  0.00891 \quad 0.37788 \quad 0.53166 \quad 0.57118
  0.60176 0.60717 0.16623 0.66305
matrixA + matrixB = 0.09265 0.92804 0.34062 0.97464
  1.57353 0.92557 0.46937 0.90063
0.83175 1.12449 0.70577 1.43013
1.31227 1.12070 0.47023 0.67803
```

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