# ENGN2219/COMP6719 Computer Systems & Organization

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# Word Count (wordcount.c)

**Problem statement:** Count the number of words input by the user via keyboard

A word contains a sequence of characters (a-z, A-Z) without a blank space or a new line

- **✓** ENGN2219
- ✓ 2219ENGN
- **√** ENGN
- X 2219

# Input/Ouput

Input: Read from keyboard character-wise until end of file is encountered. Blank space and new-line starts a new word.

Output: # of words

#### Flow of our solution

- Read characters until the end of file is encountered
   EOF is a symbolic constant in C (equivalent to pressing Ctrl-d)
- 2. For each character, check if it is in the range: a to z or A to Z
- 3. Keep count of the number of words seen so far

# Reading characters

```
char c;
while ((c = getchar()) != EOF) {
```

# Checking for characters in range

In C, the *char* type or the character variable holds an ASCII value between 0 and 127

Dec	Н	Oct	Cha	r	Dec	Нх	Oct	Html	Chr	Dec	Нх	Oct	Html	Chr	Dec	: Нх	Oct	Html C	hr_
0	0	000	NUL	(null)	32	20	040	6#32;	Space	64	40	100	@	0	96	60	140	a#96;	*
1	1	001	SOH	(start of heading)	33	21	041	@#33;	1	65	41	101	A	Α	97	61	141	a#97;	a
2	2	002	STX	(start of text)	34	22	042	@#3 <b>4</b> ;	"	66	42	102	B	В	98	62	142	498; a#98	b
3				(end of text)				@#35;					C					6#99;	
4				(end of transmission)				\$					D					a#100;	
5				(enquiry)				6#37;					E					6#101;	
6				(acknowledge)				6#38;					a#70;					a#102;	
7				(bell)				'					G					a#103;	
8		010		(backspace)				a#40;					H					a#104;	
9		011		(horizontal tab)				6#41;					6#73;					a#105;	
10		012		(NL line feed, new line)				6#42;					6#74;					a#106;	
11	_	013		(vertical tab)				a#43;					a#75;					a#107;	
12	_	014		(NP form feed, new page)				a#44;					a#76;					a#108;	
13		015		(carriage return)			-	a#45;			_		M					a#109;	
14	_	016		(shift out)		_		a#46;			_		N					n	
15	_	017		(shift in)				6#47;					O		1			6#111;	
		020		(data link escape)				6#48;					P					6#112;	
			DC1					6#49;					Q	-				a#113;	
		022		(device control 2)				a#50;					R					a#114;	
		023		(device control 3)	10 -			6#51;					a#83;					a#115;	
				(device control 4)				4					 <b>4</b> ;					a#116;	
				(negative acknowledge)				6#53;					6#85;		1			u	
				(synchronous idle)				6#54;					V		1			a#118;	
				(end of trans. block)				6#55;					W					6#119;	
				(cancel)				a#56;					6#88;					x	
		031		(end of medium)				6#57;					Y					y	
		032		(substitute)				6#58;					6#90;					z	
		033		(escape)				6#59;					6#91;					6#123;	
		034		(file separator)				<					\					6#124;	
		035		(group separator)				=					6#93;					}	
		036		(record separator)				6#62;					6#94;					~	
31	1F	037	US	(unit separator)	63	3 <b>F</b>	077	?	?	95	5 <b>F</b>	137	6#95;	_					
													5	ourc	e: W	MVV.	Look	upTable:	s.com

#### A note on characters in C

```
if (((c \ge 'a') \&\& (c \le 'z')) | | ((c \ge 'A') \&\& (c \le 'Z')))
```

# **Counting words**

First, we need a variable to store the *state* we are in Inside a word (**IN**)

Outside a word (**OUT**)

If the initial state is **OUT**State transitions to **IN** if the user types a valid character

State transitions to **OUT** if the user inputs blank space or \n

#### $OUT \rightarrow IN$

We have a new word (words++)

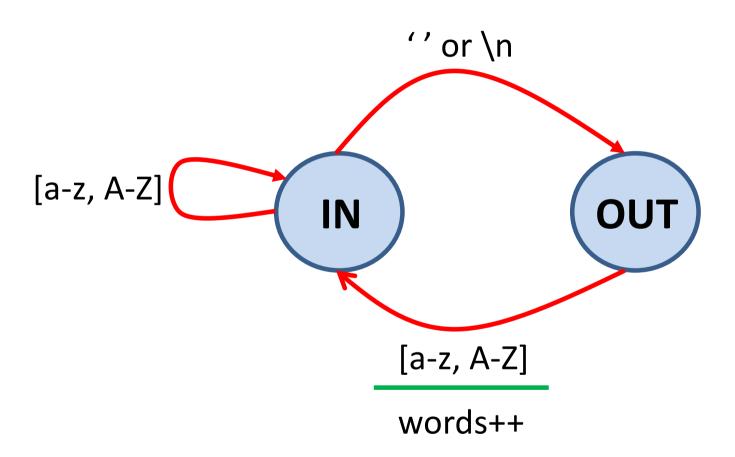
### Question?

What happens if we are in state **IN** and the user inputs a valid character?

# Printing the #words

```
printf("%d\n", words);
```

# State machine diagram



#### wordcount.c

```
1 #include <stdio.h>
   #define IN 1 // inside a word
3 #define OUT 0 // outside a word
  int main(void) {
5
        char c;
6
       int inorout = OUT;
        int words = 0;
8
       while ((c = getchar()) != EOF) {
           if (((c >= 'a') \&\& (c <= 'z')) || ((c >= 'A') \&\& (c <= 'Z'))) {
               if (inorout == OUT) {
10
                   inorout = IN;
11
12
                   words++;
13
           } else if ((c == ' ') || (c == '\n')) {
14
               inorout = OUT;
15
           } else {
16
             // ignore
17
18
19
20
       printf("%d\n", words);
21
        return 0;
22 }
```

# **Address Space**

#### Address range

- A 32-bit (ARM) CPU generates addresses in the range 0 to 0xFFFFFFFC (4294967292)
- With a 4 X 10<sup>9</sup> address range, the CPU can access
   4 billion individual bytes

#### Address space

■ The address space of a 32-bit CPU is 2<sup>32</sup> bytes which equals 4 Gigabytes (GB)

#### OXFFFFFFC

# **Address Space**

- Each word is 32 bits or4 bytes. Address of first& last word is shown
- The address space is empty as shown here
  - Let's populate with stack and code and data

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### Questions

- Where is the code, data, and the stack in the address space?
- Memory map
  - Defines where code, data, and stack memory are in the program address space
  - Differs from architecture to architecture
  - The subsequent discussion pertains to ARM

#### **OXFFFFFFFC**

# ARM 32-bit Memory Map

- Five parts or segments
  - text
  - global data
  - dynamic data
  - OS & I/O
  - Exception handlers

**Operating System &** 1/0 Stack **Dynamic Data** Heap **Global Data Text Exception Handlers** 

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# Operating System & I/O

Stack

Dynamic Data

theap

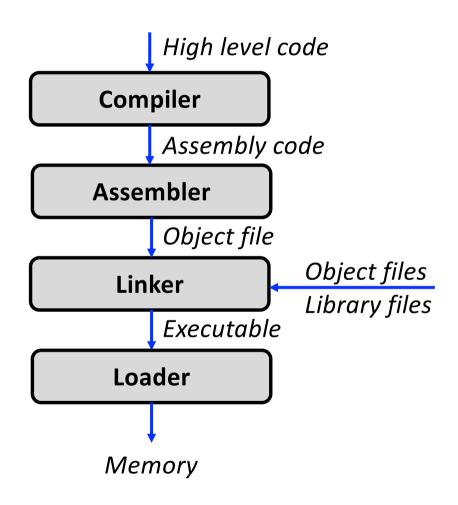
**Global Data** 

**Text** 

**Exception Handlers** 

- Data in this segment is dynamically allocated and deallocated during program execution
- Heap data is allocated by the program at runtime
  - malloc() and new
- Heap grows upward, stack grows downward
- Global variables visible to all functions (contrasted with local variables that are only visible to a function)
- Machine language program
- Also called read-only (RO) segment
- Literals (constants) such as "Hello"

# **Translating/Starting Programs**

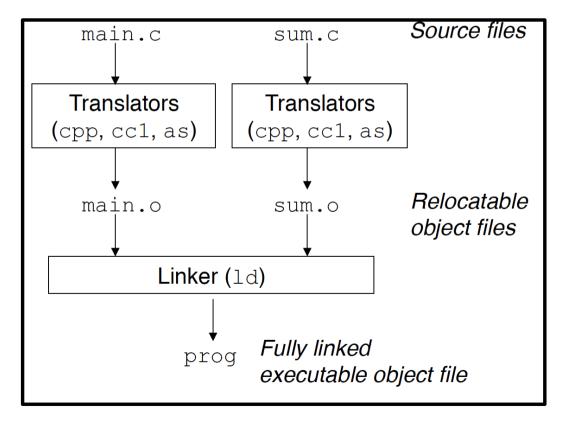


# **Translating/Starting Programs**

- GNU compilation system & Linux specific
  - gcc —o prog main.c sum.c
- Invokes the GCC driver
  - GCC performs # steps

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# **Example**

```
sum.h:
int sum(int a, int b);

sum.c:
int sum(int a, int b) {
   return a + b;
}
```

#### main.c:

```
#include <stdio.h>
#include "sum.h"
int main() {
  int c = sum(a,b);
  printf("c = %i \n", c);
  return 0;
}
```

### cpp, cc1, and as

- cpp is the C preprocessor: handles header file inclusion and macro expansion and generates an intermediate (.i) file
  - #include <stdio.h> copies the contents of stdio.h
  - #define LEN 100 replaces LEN with 100 everywhere in the code
- cc1 is the C compiler that generates an assembly (.s) file from the intermediate format (internal command)
- as is the assembler, which translates the assembly file into a binary relocatable (.o) object file

# Relocatable Object File

- Contains binary code and data that can be combined with other relocatable object files at compile time to create an executable object file
- Symbols are not resolved
  - Variables with the same name declared in multiple sources
  - Symbol resolution: removes ambiguity by creating a single linked executable file
- Functions and variables are not bound to any specific address
- Addresses are still symbols (i.e., starting from 0 in each object file), and not properly assigned to an address in the memory map

# Useful gcc commands

- Can break down the steps to generate the final executable file
  - gcc —c main.c (generates main.o)
  - gcc —c sum.c (generates sum.o)
  - gcc —o prog main.o sum.o
- Can generate the assembly (.s) file to view the assembly
  - gcc —S main.c (generates main.s)

#### Program vs. Process

- Program
  - A compiled executable binary lies dormant on a storage medium such as disk
- A process is a running program
  - The loader loads the executable file (image) in memory and fills up the memory map with code and data
  - Process has an execution environment (stack and heap)

### Scope

- C identifiers (variables, functions, macros) have scope that delimits the regions where they can be accessed
- Four type of scope
  - File
  - Block
  - Function prototype
  - Function
- Scope is determined by where a variable is declared in the program

# **Example: Scope**

```
int i; // file scope of i begins
void f(int i) { // block scope of i begins
   int \mathbf{j} = 1; // block scope of \mathbf{j} begins; hides file-scope \mathbf{j}
   i++; // i refers to function parameter
   for (int \mathbf{i} = 0; \mathbf{i} < 2; \mathbf{i}++) { // block scope of loop-local \mathbf{i} begins
      int \mathbf{j} = 2; // block scope of inner \mathbf{j} begins, hides outer \mathbf{j}
      printf("%d\n", i); // inner i is in scope, prints?
   }
   printf("%d\n", j); // outer j is in scope, prints?
} // the block scope of i and j ends
void q(int j); // j has function prototype scope; hides file-scope j
```

# **Storage Duration**

- Variables (objects) have a storage duration that determines their lifetime
  - There is a physical memory location reserved for the variable
- Example: Variables declared inside a code block or function definition are alive during the execution of the block or function
- Example: The loop index (declared inside the for statement) dies when loop terminates
- Four durations available in C
  - automatic
  - static
  - allocated
  - thread (related to concurrency, won't cover)

- Consider the function definition below
  - Variable life and death has automatic storage duration
    - Implicit, no need to specify explicitly
  - It is alive only during the execution of function in which it is declared

```
void function(int i) {
   int life_and_death = 1;
   printf("%i\n", life_and_death);
}
int main() {
   int life_and_death = 2;
   printf("%i\n", life_and_death);
   return 0;
}
```

More generally, variables declared in a code block demarcated by { . . . }
 have automatic storage duration

The compiler (or assembly programmer) can reclaim the register in which is stored after the for loop terminates

- Objects declared in file scope have static storage duration
- Array big\_array has static storage duration
  - Lifetime → Entire execution of program
- Static storage duration is implicit for variables declared in file scope

```
int big_array[1L<<24]; //static
int huge_array[1L<<31]; // static

int main() {
    printf("%d\n", life_and_death);
    return 0;
}</pre>
```

- We can explicitly use static storage duration for variables inside functions
- These variables persist after the function exits

```
int big array[1L<<24];</pre>
int huge array[1L<<31];</pre>
void increment() {
   // ctr is only initialized once
   static unsigned int ctr = 0;
   ctr++;
   printf("ctr = %d\n'', ctr);
int main()
   for (int i=0; i<5; i++)
      increment();
   return 0;
```

- We can explicitly use static storage duration for variables inside functions
- These variables persist after the function exits
- Output
  - ctr = 1
  - $\bullet$  ctr = 2
  - $\bullet$  ctr = 3
  - $\bullet$  ctr = 4
  - ctr = 5

```
int big array[1L<<24];</pre>
int huge array[1L<<31];</pre>
void increment() {
   // ctr is only initialized once
   static unsigned int ctr = 0;
   ctr++;
   printf("ctr = %d\n'', ctr);
int main() {
   for (int i=0; i<5; i++)
    increment();
   return 0;
```

- We can declare ctr outside the function increment()
- Good software engineering practice to limit the scope of a variable whenever possible
- Static variables cannot be initialized to the symbol/name of another variable
- Initialized only to constants such as 0, 1, "Hello"

```
int big array[1L<<24];
int huge array[1L<<31];</pre>
void increment() {
   // ctr is only initialized once
   static unsigned int ctr = 0;
   ctr++;
   printf("ctr = %d\n'', ctr);
int main()
   for (int i=0; i<5; i++)
    increment();
   return 0;
```

Where is everything mapped?

```
Operating System &
int big array[1L<<24];</pre>
                                                          1/0
int huge array[1L<<31];</pre>
                                                        Stack
void increment() {
   // ctr is only initialized onde
                                                     Dynamic Data
   static unsigned int ctr = 0;
   ctr++;
                                                         Heap
   printf("ctr = %d\n'', ctr);
                                                     Global Data
int main() -{
   for (int i=0; i<5; i++)
                                                         Text
    increment()
                         instructions
   int *ptr;
   return 0;
                                                 Exception Handlers
```

# **Statically Allocated Memory**

```
int big_array[1L<<24];
int huge_array[1L<<31];</pre>
```

- The above arrays are statically allocated
  - Size must be known at compile time (*limitation of static*)
- We need to specify the size of the statically-allocated arrays

### **Limitations of Stack Allocation**

- Memory is allocated and deallocated (freed) in a specific order
  - Last In First Out (LIFO)
- Memory is retained on the stack even if it is not needed
  - Memory is a precious resource
- No way for programmer to inform the compiler/OS to free unused memory
  - Deallocated only when function returns
  - And in a specific order

### **Example: Mem Waste**

```
int caller_useless func() {
   int sum = 0;
   int array[5] = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\};
   for (int i = 0; i < 5; i++)
      sum += array[i];
   int x = useless_func(sum);
   return x * sum;
int useless func(int var) {
   int multiplied = var * 5;
   return multiplied;
```

array is no longer needed after this statement, but it is still retained on the stack

### **Another Problem: Stack Allocation**

Sharing data across functions

```
int caller useless func() {
   int sum = 0;
   int array[5] = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\};
   for (int i = 0; i < 5; i++)
      sum += array[i];
   int *y = useless func(sum);
   printf("Now printing .... \n");
                                                          printf's stack frame
   printf("%d\n", *y * sum);
                                                            likely corrupts the
                                                            useless func's
                                                            stack frame
int *useless func(int var) {
   int multiplied = var * 5;
                                                       multiplied is dead
                                                       after the function returns
   return &multiplied;
```

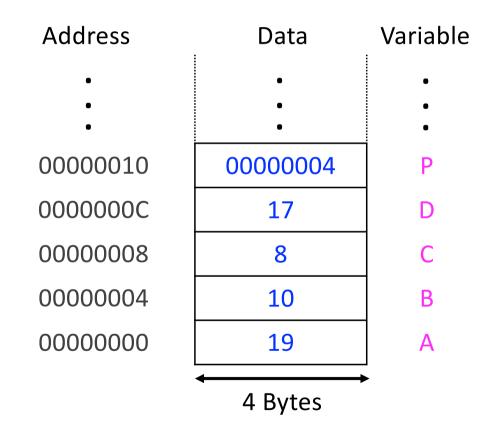
### **Problem: Stack Allocation**

- We can solve the problem by allocating multiplied as a global variable
- What if we want to share an array b/w functions?
  - Statically allocate the array
  - Ok, but what if we only find out the exact length of the array at run-time? What if we want to resize the array?
  - E.g., number of records in a database not known in advance
  - Student numbers grow dynamically during the semester
- We use the heap for such "dynamically allocated" memory

#### **Pointers: Revision**

 A pointer is a variable that contains the address of another variable

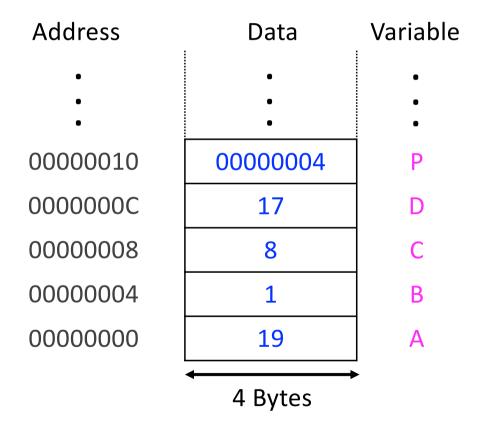
```
int A = 19;
int B = 10;
int C = 8;
int D = 17;
....
int *P = &B;
//unary operator & gives
    the address of a
    variable
```



#### **Pointers: Revision**

 Can use the pointer to access the value stored in a memory location

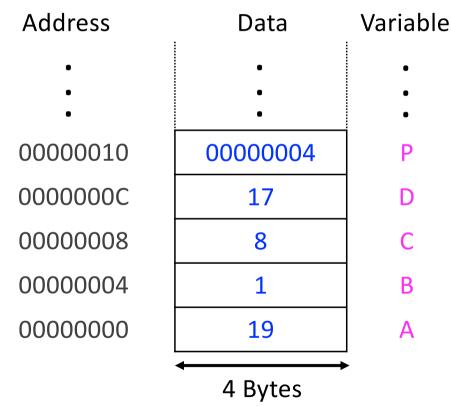
```
int A = 19;
int B = 10;
int C = 8;
int D = 17;
....
int *P = &B;
*P = 1;
//dereferencing or
// indirection operator
//that accesses the value
// stored at address in P
```



## **Pointers: Example**

A pointer is 4-bytes on a 32-bit system and 8-bytes on a 64-bits system & it can be stored on the stack or data segment like ordinary variables

int A = 19;
int B = 1;
int C = 8;
int D = 17;
....
int \*P = &B;
char \*Q = &B;
// Both P and Q contain
 00000004
printf("%i\n",\*P); ??
printf("%i\n",\*Q); ??



### **Pointers: Bottomline**

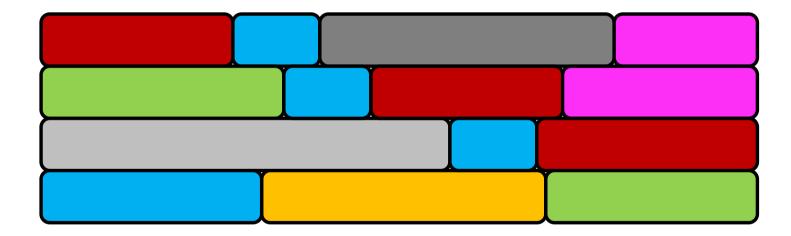
- A pointer points to a memory location
- Its content is a memory address
- It wears "datatype glasses"
  - Wherever it points, it sees through these glasses
- The variable stored at some memory address can be interpreted (via the dereferencing operator \*) as character or integer or float, depending on the type of the pointer



## Heap

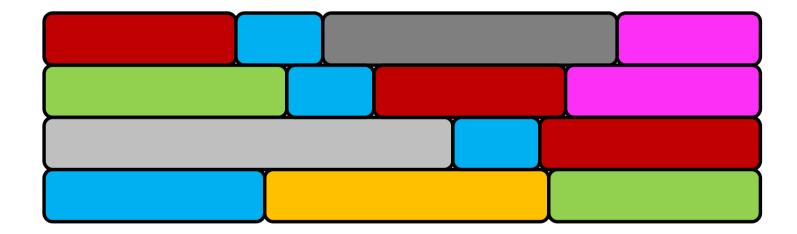
- Heap is for dynamically allocated memory
  - Contrast with statically allocated memory
  - Large subdividable block of memory
  - Programmers explicitly allocate and deallocate memory on the heap
- Lifetime of heap variables/arrays extend from allocation until deallocation
- Memory managers are libraries that manage heap for the programmer (we will refine this view)

 Programs dynamically allocate objects (arrays, structures) of different types and sizes on the heap over time



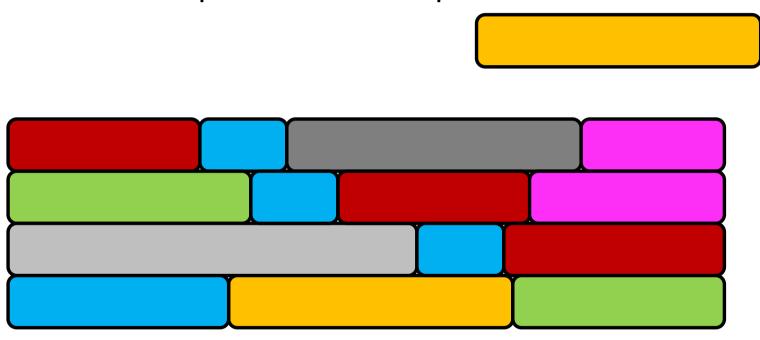
Heap is now full!

- C programmers need to track lifetime of heap variables
- Suppose we do not need anymore

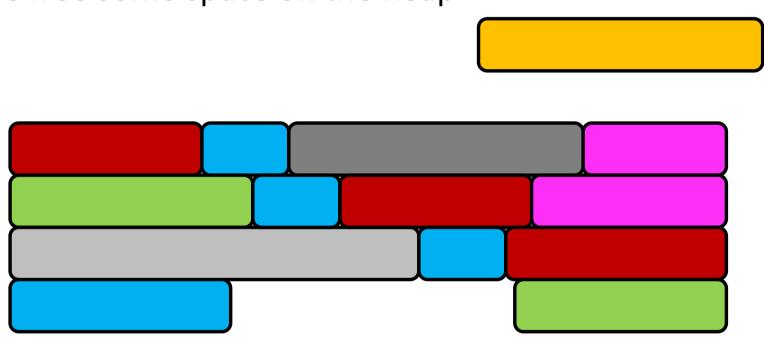


Heap is now full!

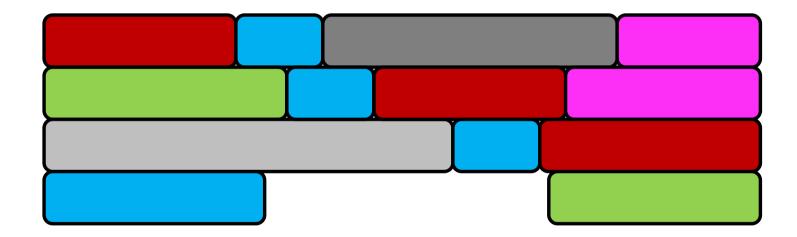
Let's free some space on the heap



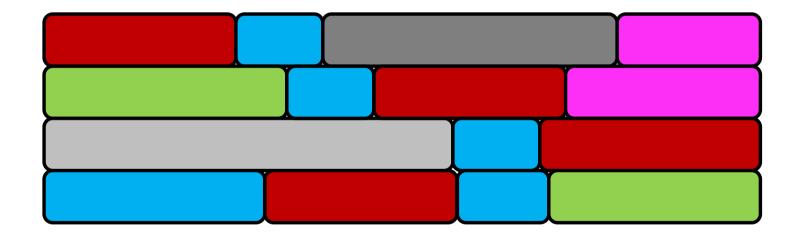
Let's free some space on the heap



Now we can allocate new objects



Now we can allocate new objects



### **Heap Management**

- We can deallocate (free) objects in any order (unlike the stack)
- Programmers need to deallocate objects that are no longer needed
  - Otherwise, heap will remain full even if we can have some free space
- Not returning unused heap back to the memory manager is called a memory leak

### malloc and free

C library provides malloc (short for memory allocate) and
 free to allocate and deallocate heap memory, respectively

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

void useless_func() {
   int *array = malloc(10 * sizeof(int));
   for (int i = 0; i < 10; i++)
        array[i] = i * i;
   int sum = array[0] + array[9];
   free(array);
   printf("%i\n",sum);
   return;
}</pre>
```

#### malloc and free

- malloc
  - Declaration in C library: void \*malloc(size\_t size)
  - Takes input as size (# bytes)
  - Returns a void pointer that can be casted to any pointer type
- free
  - Declaration in C library: void free(void \*ptr)
  - Memory manager knows how many bytes to free, all it needs is the starting address

Is there a memory-related bug in the following program?

```
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <stdio.h>
void useless func() {
    int *array1 = malloc(10 * sizeof(int));
    int *array2 = malloc(10 * sizeof(int));
    for (int i = 0; i < 10; i++) {
      array1[i] = i * i;
       array2[i] = i + i;
    int sum = array1[0] + array2[9];
    free(array1);
    free (array2);
   printf("%i\n", sum + array1[8]);
    return;
```

Is there a memory-related bug in the following program?

```
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <stdio.h>
void useless func() {
    int *array1 = malloc(10 * sizeof(int));
    int *array2 = malloc(10 * sizeof(int));
    for (int i = 0; i < 10; i++) {
      array1[i] = i * i;
       array2[i] = i + i;
    int sum = array1[0] + array2[9];
    free(array1);
    free (array2);
   printf("%i\n", sum + array1[8]);
    return;
```

use after free

Is there a memory-related bug in the following program?

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

void useless_func() {
    int *array1 = malloc(10 * sizeof(int));
    for (int i = 0; i < 10; i++)
        array1[i] = i * i;
    array1 = malloc(5 * sizeof(int));
    for (int i = 0; i < 10; i++)
        array1[i] = i * i;
    free(array1);
    printf("Done ....\n");
    return;
}</pre>
```

Is there a memory-related bug in the following program?

```
memory leak
#include <stdlib.h>
                                                             Original 10-
#include <stdio.h>
                                                           element array
void useless func() {
                                                             still on heap
   int *array1 = malloc(10 * sizeof(int));
                                                             (address is
   for (int i = 0; i < 10; i++)
                                                             gone, not saved)
     array1[i] = i * i;
   array1 = malloc(5 * sizeof(int));—
   for (int i = 0; i < 10; i++)
                                                      out of bounds
     array1[i] = i * i;
   free(array1);
   printf("Done ....\n");
   return;
```