

# Lecture 1

## C primer

### What we will cover

- A crash course in the basics of C
- You should read the K&R C book for lots more details
- Various details will be exemplified later in the course

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## Outline

- Overview comparison of C, Java and Python
- Hello world
- Preprocessor
- Command line arguments
- Arrays and structures
- Pointers and dynamic memory

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## Operators in Python and C

Python	C	Comment
+, -, *, /, %, >>, <<	The same	
**	Does not exist	Have to use function
Does not exist	++, --	x++, ++x
=, +=, *=, ....	The same	
<, <=, >, >=, ==, !=	The same	
<>	Does not exist	Use !=
&,  , ^	The same	
and, or, not	&&,   , !	
in	Does not exist	Have to use function
Does not exist	? :	Conditional

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## If-statements and blocks in Python and C

Python	C	Comment
if test1:	if (test1) {	{ ...
statement1	statement1;	... } is a block, it
statement2	statement2; }	can be used to put several
elif test2:	else if (test2)	statements where one
statement3	statement3;	statement is expected.
else	else {	In Python this is done by
statement4	statement4;	indentation. In C indentation
statement5	statement5; }	is purely for readability.
		Statements in C are ended by ;.

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## Other control flow in Python and C

Python	C	Comment
while test: statement	while (test) statement;	or a block of statements.
for i in range(100): statement	do statement; while (test);	or a block. statement is at least executed once.
	int i; for (i=1; i <= 100; i++) statement;	or a block.
	switch () { case 1: ...}	Multiple choice.
break;	break;	Jump out of loop.
	continue;	Go directly to next round.

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## Variable declaration in C

A file of C-code consists of global variables and functions.

In Python a variable is created when you first use it. In C a variable must be declared before it can be used.

A variable is either global or local. A global variable is declared outside of functions. A local variable is a function parameter or declared at the beginning of a block inside a function.

The content of a block consists of some variable declarations and then some statements.

Functions are always global, they can't be declared inside a function.

```
int x;
x = 5;
foo (int y, float z) {
  int i;
  int x;
  ...
}
```

Global variable

Local variables

This local variable shadows the global variable. This means that inside the function `foo`, the local variable `x` is used not the global variable `x`.

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## Simple Data Types

datatype	size	values
char	1	-128 to 127
short	2	-32,768 to 32,767
int	4	-2,147,483,648 to 2,147,483,647
long	4	-2,147,483,648 to 2,147,483,647
(long long)	8	-9,223,372,036,854,775,808 to 9,223,372,036,854,775,087)
float	4	3.4E+/-38 (7 digits)
double	8	1.7E+/-308 (15 digits long)

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## Gotchas (1)

```
{
  int i;
  for(i = 0; i < 10; i++)
  ...
```

NOT (as in Java)

```
{
  for(int i = 0; i < 10; i++)
  ...
```

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## Gotchas (2)

- Uninitialized variables
  - catch with `-Wall` compiler option

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

```
int main(int argc, char* argv[])  
{  
    int i;  
    factorial(i);  
    return 0;  
}
```

This variable is declared but has not a given value when it is used here.

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## Gotchas (3)

- Error handling
  - No exceptions. No `try` but there is `longjump` which has similarities.
  - Must look at return values

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## Hello World

```
#include <stdio.h>  
int main(int argc, char* argv[])  
{  
    /* print a greeting */  
    printf("Hello World!\n");  
    return 0;  
}
```

The file `helloworld.c`

```
$> gcc -o helloworld helloworld.c # Compile the file
```

```
$> ./helloworld # Run the program
```

```
Hello World!
```

```
$>
```

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## Edit, Compile, Run

C is a compiled language. Program in 3 steps:

- Edit file. Creates `helloworld.c`
- Compile. `helloworld.c -> helloworld`
- Run program `helloworld`

An interpreted language like Python is used in 2 steps: Edit and Run

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## Breaking down the code

- **#include <stdio.h>**
  - Include the contents of the file `stdio.h`
    - Case sensitive – lower case only
  - No semicolon at the end of line
- **int main(...)**
  - The OS calls this function when the program starts running.
- **printf(format\_string, arg1, ...)**
  - Prints out a string, specified by the format string and the arguments.

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## format\_string

- Composed of ordinary characters (not %)
  - Copied unchanged into the output
- Conversion specifications (start with %)
  - Fetches one or more arguments
  - For example
    - `char`     `%c`
    - `char*`   `%s`
    - `int`       `%d`
    - `float`     `%f`
- For more details: `man -s 3 printf`

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## Compilation steps

Compilation is done in several steps:	Command	Converts
• Preprocessor	<code>gcc -E prog.c &gt; progE.c</code>	<code>prog.c -&gt; progE.c</code>
• Actual compilation	<code>gcc -x cpp-output -S progE.c</code>	<code>progE.c -&gt; prog.s</code>
• Assembling	<code>gcc -c prog.s</code>	<code>prog.s -&gt; prog.o</code>
• Linking	<code>gcc -o prog prog.o</code>	<code>prog.o -&gt; prog</code>

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## C Preprocessor

```
#define FIFTEEN_TWO_THIRTEEN \  
    "The Class That Gives CMU Its Zip\n"  
  
int main(int argc, char* argv[])  
{  
    printf(FIFTEEN_TWO_THIRTEEN);  
    return 0;  
}
```

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## After the preprocessor (gcc -E)

```
int main(int argc, char* argv)
{
    printf("The Class That Gives CMU Its Zip\n");
    return 0;
}
```

## Conditional Compilation

```
#define CS213

int main(int argc, char* argv)
{
    #ifdef CS213
        printf("The Class That Gives CMU Its Zip\n");
    #else
        printf("Some other class\n");
    #endif /* CS213 */
    return 0;
}
```

## After the preprocessor (gcc -E)

```
int main(int argc, char* argv)
{
    printf("The Class That Gives CMU Its Zip\n");
    return 0;
}
```

## Command Line Arguments (1)

- `int main(int argc, char* argv[])`
- `argc`
  - Number of arguments (including program name)
- `argv`
  - Array of `char*` (that is, an array of 'c' strings)
  - `argv[0]`: = program name
  - `argv[1]`: = first argument
  - ...
  - `argv[argc-1]`: last argument

## Command Line Arguments (2)

```
#include <stdio.h>

int main(int argc, char* argv[])
{
    int i;
    printf("%d arguments\n", argc);
    for(i = 0; i < argc; i++)
        printf("  %d: %s\n", i, argv[i]);
    return 0;
}
```

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## Command Line Arguments (3)

```
$ ./cmdline The Class That Gives CMU Its Zip
8 arguments
0: ./cmdline
1: The
2: Class
3: That
4: Gives
5: CMU
6: Its
7: Zip
$
```

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## Arrays

- **char foo[80];**
  - An array of 80 characters
  - **sizeof(foo)**
    - = 80 x **sizeof(char)**
    - = 80 x 1 = 80 bytes
- **int bar[40];**
  - An array of 40 integers
  - **sizeof(bar)**
    - = 40 x **sizeof(int)**
    - = 40 x 4 = 160 bytes

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## Aggregate data: structures

```
#include <stdio.h>

struct person
{
    char*    name;
    int      age;
}; /* <== DO NOT FORGET the semicolon */

int main(int argc, char* argv[])
{
    struct person bovik;
    bovik.name = "Harry Bovik";
    bovik.age = 25;

    printf("%s is %d years old\n", bovik.name,
    bovik.age);
    return 0;
}
```

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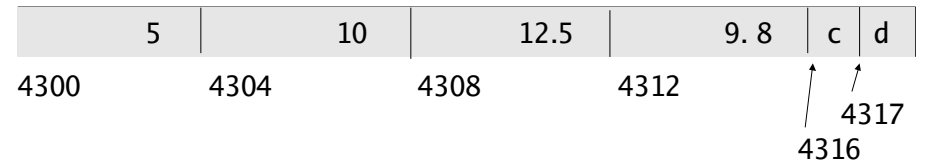
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# Pointers

- Pointer variables are variables that hold an address in memory.
- That address can be the address of another variable.

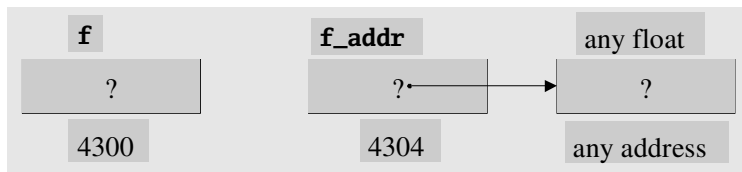
# Memory layout and addresses

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

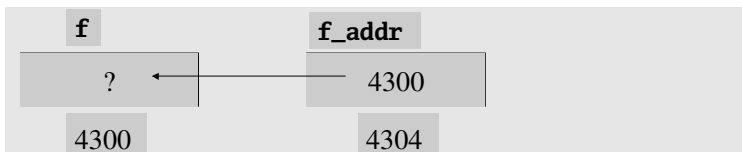


# Using Pointers (1)

```
float f; /* data variable */
float *f_addr; /* pointer variable */
```

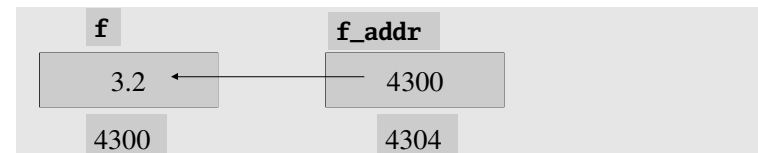


```
f_addr = &f; /* & = address operator */
```

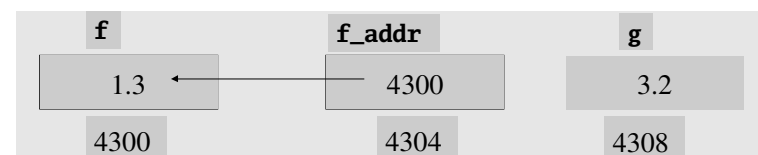


# Pointers made easy (2)

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



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



## Function Parameters

- Function arguments are passed “by value”.
- What is “pass by value”?
  - The called function is given a copy of the arguments.
- What does this imply?
  - The called function can’t alter a variable in the caller function, only its private copy.
- Three examples

## Example 1: swap\_1

```
int x = 3;
int y = 4;
void swap_1(int a, int b)
{
    int temp;
    temp = a;
    a = b;
    b = temp;
}
```

Q: After swap\_1(x,y);  
x=? y=?

A1: x=4; y=3;

A2: x=3; y=4;

## Example 2: swap\_2

```
int x = 3;
int y = 4;
void swap_2(int *a, int *b)
{
    int temp;
    temp = *a;
    *a = *b;
    *b = temp;
}
```

Q: After swap\_2(&x,&y);  
x=? y=?

A1: x=4; y=3;

A2: x=3; y=4;

## Example 3: scanf

```
#include <stdio.h>

int main()
{
    int x;
    scanf("%d\n", &x);
    printf("%d\n", x);
}
```

Q: Why using pointers in  
scanf?

A: We need to assign the  
value to x.



## Dynamic Memory

- Python and Java manages memory for you, C does not
  - C requires the programmer to *explicitly* allocate and deallocate memory
  - Unknown amounts of memory can be allocated dynamically during run-time with `malloc()` and deallocated using `free()`

## Not like Java or Python

- No **new**
- No garbage collection
- You ask for *n* bytes
  - Not a high-level request such as “I’d like an instance of class **String**”

## malloc

- Allocates memory in the heap
    - Lives between function invocations
  - Example
    - Allocate an integer
      - `int *iptr = (int *) malloc(sizeof(int));`
    - Allocate a structure
      - `struct name *nameptr = (struct name *) malloc(sizeof(struct name));`
- You have to do a cast as malloc always returns a char \* pointer

## free

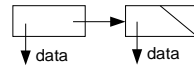
- Deallocates memory in heap.
- Pass in a pointer that was returned by `malloc`.
- Example
  - `int *iptr = (int *) malloc(sizeof int);`  
`free(iptr);`
- Caveat: don't use freed memory and don't free the same memory block twice!
- Must remember to free allocated memory

# Linked list

- In C a linked list of strings is constructed with structs in dynamic memory thus:

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

```
struct node  
{  
  char      *data;  
  struct node *next;  
} *list;
```



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

```
  list = NULL;  
  struct node *p;  
  for (i = 1; i < argc; i++)  
  {  
    p = (struct node*) malloc(sizeof(struct node));  
    p -> next = list;    p -> data = argv[i];  
    list = p;  
  }
```

```
  while (list != NULL)  
  {  
    printf(" %s", list -> data);  
    p = list;  
    list = list -> next;  
    free(p);  
  }
```

```
  putchar('\n');  
  return 0;
```