

C Programming Lab

Advanced Computer Science Studies in Sweden
Introduction to Studies in Embedded Systems
HT 2015

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Two lab slots

- Thursday Sept 3rd, 8:00 – 12:00
- Tuesday Sept 8th, 8:00 – 12:00

- Both start with a lecture part, following by time to work on the assignments
- **Refresher!**
- **Not** meant as a course for beginners
 - we assume that you all had some education in programming before

Assignments, Instructions

- Assignments to be solved **individually**, or in groups of **two people**
- Deadline for submitting solutions:
Tuesday September 8th, 12:00
- Document contains assignments in order of increasing difficulty
 - At least 4 assignments have to be solved to pass the lab

<http://www.it.uu.se/edu/course/homepage/avandatintroids/ht15/c-lab/assignments.pdf>

Example

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

const double tax = 0.2;

int price( int items)
{
    return ((1+tax)* items);
}

int main ( void)
{
    int pay;
    pay = price(5);
    printf("You need to pay:%d", pay);
    return 1;
}
```

Structure of a C program

declare some
(module) global
variables (scope
module global)

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

Tell pre-processor to load
these header files

```
const double tax = 0.2;  
int price, items;
```

define
function
named price

```
int price( int items)  
{  
    statement 1;  
    statement 2;  
    return ((1+tax)* items);  
}
```

function
body

define
function main

```
int main ( void)  
{  
    statemenmt 1;  
    int pay;  
    pay = price(5);  
    return 1;  
}
```

Function Body,
This is the scope of
function-local
declarations (binding of
names)!

built-in data types in C

The most important base data types in C can be grouped into character, integer and floating point data types

Character data types

Name	Range	Size	Application
char	Alpha-numeric character	1 Byte	characters are put in quotes char a = 'a';
char	-128 to 127	1 Byte	we store integer values char a = 128; (??)
unsigned char	0 to 255	1 Byte	positive integer values char a = 256; (??)

Remember: size of a Byte is fixed (8 Bits). Size of a word depends on the architecture. 64-Bit architecture has words of 8 Bytes

integers

Name	Range ¹	Size
short int	-32768 to 32767	2 Byte
int	architecture dependent	
unsigned int	architecture dependent	
long int	- 2,147,483,648 to 2,147,483,647	4 Byte
unsigned long int	0 to 4,294,967,295	4 Byte
long long int	-9,223,372,036,854,775,808 to -9,223,372,036,854,775,8087	8 Byte
unsigned long long int	0 to 8,446,744,073,709,551,615	8 Byte

`int` and `unsigned int` have architecture dependent sizes. For a 64-Bit architecture size is 8 Byte.

floating point

Name	Range ¹	Size	Precision
float	$1.18 * 10^{-38}$ to $3.4 * 10^{38}$	4 Byte	7 digits
double	$2.23 * 10^{-308}$ to $1.79 * 10^{308}$	8 Byte	15 digits
long double	$3.37 * 10^{-4932}$ to $1.18 * 10^{4932}$	16 Byte	33 digits
long long int	-9,223,372,036,854,775,808 to -9,223,372,036,854,775,8087	8 Byte	
unsigned long long int	0 to 8,446,744,073,709,551,615	8 Byte	

Implementation of long double is architecture dependent

Remarks

- ✧ For the non-signed data types one may use the keyword `signed` to emphasize the signed character. But one does not need to do this (and nobody actually does)
- ✧ For `short`, `long`, `signed` and `unsigned int`, the keyword `int` can be omitted
- ✧ function **`sizeof(xyz)`** gives you the number of bytes of data type `xyz`

Operators

The distinguish between

- ✧ unary, one operand, e.g. negation !A
- ✧ binary, two operands, e.g., addition $a+a$,
- ✧ ternary operator $a?b:c$; (if a is true give b else c)

Arithmetic operators

Operator	Example	Remark
Addition: +	<code>b = a + a;</code>	first addition than assignment to variable c
Subtraction: -	<code>b = a - a;</code>	as expected
Multiplication: *	<code>b = a * a;</code>	as expected
Division: /	<code>b = a / a;</code>	as expected
Modulo: % (division with remainder)	<code>b = a % a;</code>	as expected (gives 0).

Shortforms (combined with assignment)

Operator	Example	Remark
Increment: ++	<code>b++;</code>	gives <code>b = b+1;</code>
Decrement: --	<code>b--;</code>	gives <code>b = b-1;</code>
Addition to a variable	<code>b +=a;</code>	gives <code>b = b + a;</code>
Subtraction, multiplication, division and modulo to and with a variable	<code>a -= b; a*= b;</code> <code>a /= b; a%=b;</code>	as expected

Relational operators

Operator	Example	Remark
smaller: <	$b < c$	evaluates to true, i.e. 1, if and only if variable b is smaller than variable c
larger : >	$b > c$	as expected
smaller equal: >=	$b >= c$	as expected
larger equal : =<	$b =< c$	as expected
equal: ==	$b == c$	as expected
not equal: !=	$b != c$	as expected

Logical operators

Operator	Example	Remark
and: &&	<code>a == 5 && b == 3</code>	evaluates to true, i.e. 1, if and only if variable a is 5 and b is 3
or:	<code>a == 5 b == 3</code>	as expected
not: !	<code>!(a == 5)</code>	evaluates to true if a is not 5.

Bit operators

Operator	Example	Remark let a = 0011 and b = 1001
and: &	c = a & b;	c is
or:	c = a b;	c is ...
xor: ^	c = a ^ b;	c is
left shift <<	c = a << b;	c is
right shift >>	c = a >> b;	c is
bitwise negation: = ~	c = ~b;	c is

Short forms

Operation short version	long version	Remark let a = 0011
<code>a &= 4;</code>	<code>a = a & 4;</code>	a is
<code>a = 6;</code>	<code>a = a 6;</code>	a is ...
<code>a ^= 5;</code>	<code>a = a ^5;</code>	a is
<code>a >>=2;</code>	<code>a = a >> 2;</code>	a is
<code>a << = 2;</code>	<code>a = a << 2;</code>	a is

Conversion of data types

In case one uses different data types implicit type conversion rules apply. This may yield:

- ✧ loss of bit positions or
- ✧ precision of the floating point

To avoid implicit conversion, one can do an explicit type conversion denoted **cast**

Operation short version	Remark
<pre>int i = 5; double b = (double) i;</pre>	The value of variable i is converted into a double and assigned to variable b
<pre>double a = 3.2, b = 4.5; double c = (double) ((int) a + (int) b)</pre>	b is

Functions

Parameters:

- ✧ data_type identifier, e.g., int a, int b, double c
- ✧ entries are separated by komma.

Parameters are function local variable:

- ✧ identifier is only visible within function
- ✧ the actual passed in variable is a copy, i.e., any manipulation is not made to the original variable but the copied input parameter.

```
int addAndAssign (int a, int b)
{
    a += b; //value of a here?
    return(a);
}
```

```
//somewhere in main()
int a = 10;
addAndAssign(a, 5); //value of a here?
```

Comments in C

✧ Example

```
/* This is an example of a comment  
put into a C program */
```

- ✧ begin with `/*` and end with `*/` indicating that these two lines are a **comment**.
- ✧ **You insert comments to document programs and improve program readability.**
- ✧ Comments do not cause the computer to perform any action when the program is run. (They are removed by the pre-processor).

if-then-else-statement

An if statement can be extended with an else-statement. In case the expression of the if-statement is 0, the body of the else is executed.

Syntax

```
if (expression) { body of if-statement }  
else { body of if-statement }
```

- ✧ The body can be a single statement, than you do not need the curly brackets
- ✧ An else-statement always refers to the previous if-statement, curly brackets improve readability!

```
int mynumber = scanf("%d",&mynumber);  
  
if ( mynumber == 10){  
    printf("is equal 10\n");  
    printf("closing program\n");  
    return 0;  
}  
else printf("is not equal 10\n");
```

if-then-else-statement (more)

Elseif-statement.

- ✧ Does not exist in C, instead one may use else if { .. }.
- ✧ This works as the if-statement and its body is seen as single line.

```
if( expression1 )
    statement1;
else if(expression2 )
    statement2;
else if(expression3 )
    statement3;
.
.
else
    statementN;
```

- ✧ **An else-statement always refers to the previous if-statement, curly brackets improve readability!**

```
int p = 0
if(0)
if(1) p = 5;
else p = 1;
```

?-statement

if-then-else can be replaced with a single statement

Syntax

```
result = test-expression ? value1 : value2;
```

If `test-expression` evaluates to true result is assigned the value `value1`, otherwise result is assigned the value `value2`.

```
int mynumber = scanf("%d",&mynumber);
```

```
if ( mynumber == 10)
```

```
    printf("is 10\n");
```

```
else
```

```
    printf("is not 10\n");
```

```
int mynumber = scanf("%d",&mynumber), c;
```

```
c = (mynumber != 10) ? printf("is not 10\n") : printf("is 10\n");
```

```
// another example
```

```
int max;
```

```
max = (v1 > v2) ? v1 : v2;
```

switch-statement

- ✧ The switch statement can have many conditions. You start the switch statement with a `switch-expression` which is evaluated.
- ✧ If one of the `case expressions` equals the value of the expression, the instructions are executed until a `break` is encountered.
- ✧ If none of the `case expressions` equals the switch expression the default is executed

```
int main() {
    char myinput;
    printf("Choose: \t a) Program 1 \t b) Program 2\n");
    scanf("%c", &myinput);
    switch (myinput){ // variables are evaluated
        case 'a': //compare value to case-expression
            printf("Run program 1\n");
            break;
        case 'b':
            printf("Run program 2\n");
            printf("Please Wait\n");
            break;
        default:
            printf("Invalid choice\n");
            break;
    }
    return 0;}

```

The `break`-statements are required to exit the switch statement, **otherwise everything behind will be executed as well, until the next break or the end of the switch** –no re-testing of the variable again!

while-Loop

```
while (loop-condition)
{
    // loop body
} // brackets can be omitted for a single statement
```

- ✧ The loop condition is the expression which tells us if we can enter (again).
- ✧ No pre- and post-loop statements

```
#include<stdio.h>

int main(){
    int i, howmuch;
    scanf("%d", &howmuch);
    i = 0;
    while(i < howmuch) printf ("Hello World: %d\n", ++i);
    return 0;
}
```

Be aware of endless loops and that variables have always the intended value.

do-while-Loop

- ✧ The “do while loop” is almost the same as the while loop. But loop-condition is tested after the body!.
- ✧ The “do while loop” has the following form:

```
do
{
    // loop body
} // brackets can be omitted for a single statement
while (loop-condition);
```

```
#include<stdio.h>

int main(){
    int i, howmuch;
    scanf("%d", &howmuch);
    i = 0;
    do {
        printf ("Hello World: %d\n", ++i);
    } while(i < howmuch);
    return 0;
}
```

Be aware of endless loops and that variables have always the intended value.

for-Loop

```
for (pre-loop statement; loop-condition; post-loop statement)
{
    // loop body
} // brackets can be omitted for a single statement
```

- ✧ The pre-loop statement is executed before the first loop entry.
- ✧ The loop condition is the expression which tells us if we can enter (again).
- ✧ post-loop statement is executed after each loop iteration.

```
#include<stdio.h>

int main(){
    int i;
    for (i = 0; i < 10; i++){
        printf ("Hello World: %d\n",i);
    }
    return 0;
}
```

Be aware of endless loops and that variables have always the intended value.

pre-mature leave or re-entering of a loop

- ✧ With a break-statement the loop is left immediately
- ✧ with a continue-statement one directly jumps to the loop-head and tests the loop condition again (for and while loop)

```
#include<stdio.h>
int main(){
    int i;
    for (i = 0; i < 10; i++){
        if(!(i % 5)) continue;
        printf ("Hello World: %d\n",i);
    }
    return 0;}
```

```
#include<stdio.h>
int main(){
    int i, p;
    printf ("\nGive a number to be tested for being prime\n");
    scanf("%d", &p);
    for (int i = 2; i < p; i++){
        if (p % i == 0) break;
    }
    if (i == p) printf ("%d is a prime \n",p);
    else printf ("%d is not a prime \n",p);
    return 0;}
```

function printf()

- ✧ The `printf` function is another useful function from the standard library
- ✧ **Syntax:** `printf("expression", variable 1, ...);`
- ✧ `expression` is text mixed with format specifiers for the variables
- ✧ the format specifiers are mapped to the variables 1:1 in the order of appearance

`%i` or `%d`

int

`%c`

char

`%f`

`%f` float (see also the note next page)

`%s` string

string

function printf()

```
#include<stdio.h>

main() {
    int a,b;
    float c,d;

    a = 15;
    b = a / 2;
    printf("%d\n",b);
    printf("%3d\n",b);
    printf("%03d\n",b);

    c = 15.3;
    d = c / 3;
    printf("%3.2f\n",d);
}
```

Useful special signs to be used
in the expression passed to printf():

- \n (newline)
- \t (tab)
- \v (vertical tab)
- \f (new page)
- \b (backspace)
- \r (carriage return)
- \n (newline)

function scanf()

```
#include <stdio.h>

int main()
{
    char str1[20], str2[30];

    printf("Enter name: ");
    scanf("%s", &str1);

    printf("Enter your website name: ");
    scanf("%s", &str2);

    printf("Entered Name: %s\n", str1);
    printf("Entered Website:%s", str2);

    return(0);
}
```

What is a pointer ?

- **In C, a pointer variable (or just “pointer”) is similar to a reference and it can contain the memory address of any variable**
 - **A primitive (int, char, float)**
 - **An array**
 - **A struct or union**
 - **Dynamically allocated memory**
 - **Another pointer**
 - **A function**
- **There’s a lot of syntax required to create and use pointers**

Pointer Caution

- **They are a powerful low-level device.**
- **Undisciplined use can be confusing and thus the source of subtle, hard-to-find bugs.**
 - **Program crashes**
 - **Memory leaks**
 - **Unpredictable results**

Pointer Declaration

The declaration

```
int *intPtr;
```

defines the variable `intPtr` to be a pointer to a variable of type `int`. `intPtr` will contain the memory address of some `int` variable or `int` array. Read this declaration as

- “`intPtr` is a pointer to an `int`”, or equivalently
- “`*intPtr` is an `int`”

Caution -- Be careful when defining multiple variables on the same line. In this definition

```
int *intPtr, intPtr2;
```

`intPtr` is a pointer to an `int`, but `intPtr2` is not!

Pointer Operators

The two primary operators used with pointers are
***** (star) and **&** (ampersand)

- The ***** operator is used to define pointer variables and to deference a pointer. “Dereferencing” a pointer means to use the value of the pointee.
- The **&** operator gives the address of a variable.
Recall the use of **&** in `scanf ()`

Pointer Examples

```
int x = 1, y = 2, z[10];
int *ip;          /* ip is a pointer to an int */

ip = &x;         /* ip points to (contains the memory address of) x */
y = *ip;        /* y is now 1, indirectly copied from x using ip */
*ip = 0;        /* x is now 0 */
ip = &z[5];      /* ip now points to z[5] */
```

If `ip` points to `x`, then `*ip` can be used anywhere `x` can be used so in this example `*ip = *ip + 10;` and `x = x + 10;` are equivalent

The `*` and `&` operators bind more tightly than arithmetic operators so `y = *ip + 1;` takes the value of the variable to which `ip` points, adds 1 and assigns it to `y`

Similarly, the statements `*ip += 1;` and `++*ip;` and `(*ip)++;` all increment the variable to which `ip` points. (Note that the parenthesis are necessary in the last statement; without them, the expression would increment `ip` rather than what it points to since operators like `*` and `++` associate from right to left.)

NULL

- **NULL** is a special value which may be assigned to a pointer
- **NULL** indicates that this pointer does not point to any variable (there is no pointee)
- Often used when pointers are declared

```
int *pInt = NULL;
```

- Often used as the return type of functions that return a pointer to indicate function failure

```
int *myPtr;  
myPtr = myFunction( );  
if (myPtr == NULL) {  
    /* something bad happened */  
}
```

- **Dereferencing a pointer whose value is NULL will result in program termination.**

Pointers and Function Arguments

- Since C passes all primitive function arguments “by value” there is no direct way for a function to alter a variable in the calling code.
- This version of the `swap` function doesn't work. **WHY NOT?**

```
/* calling swap from somewhere in main() */  
int x = 42, y = 17;  
Swap( x, y );
```

```
/* wrong version of swap */  
void Swap (int a, int b)  
{  
    int temp;  
    temp = a;  
    a = b;  
    b = temp;  
}
```

A better swap()

- The desired effect can be obtained by passing pointers to the values to be exchanged.
- This is a very common use of pointers.

```
/* calling swap from somewhere in main( ) */  
int x = 42, y = 17;  
Swap( &x, &y );
```

```
/* correct version of swap */  
void Swap (int *px, int *py)  
{  
    int temp;  
    temp = *px;  
    *px = *py;  
    *py = temp;  
}
```

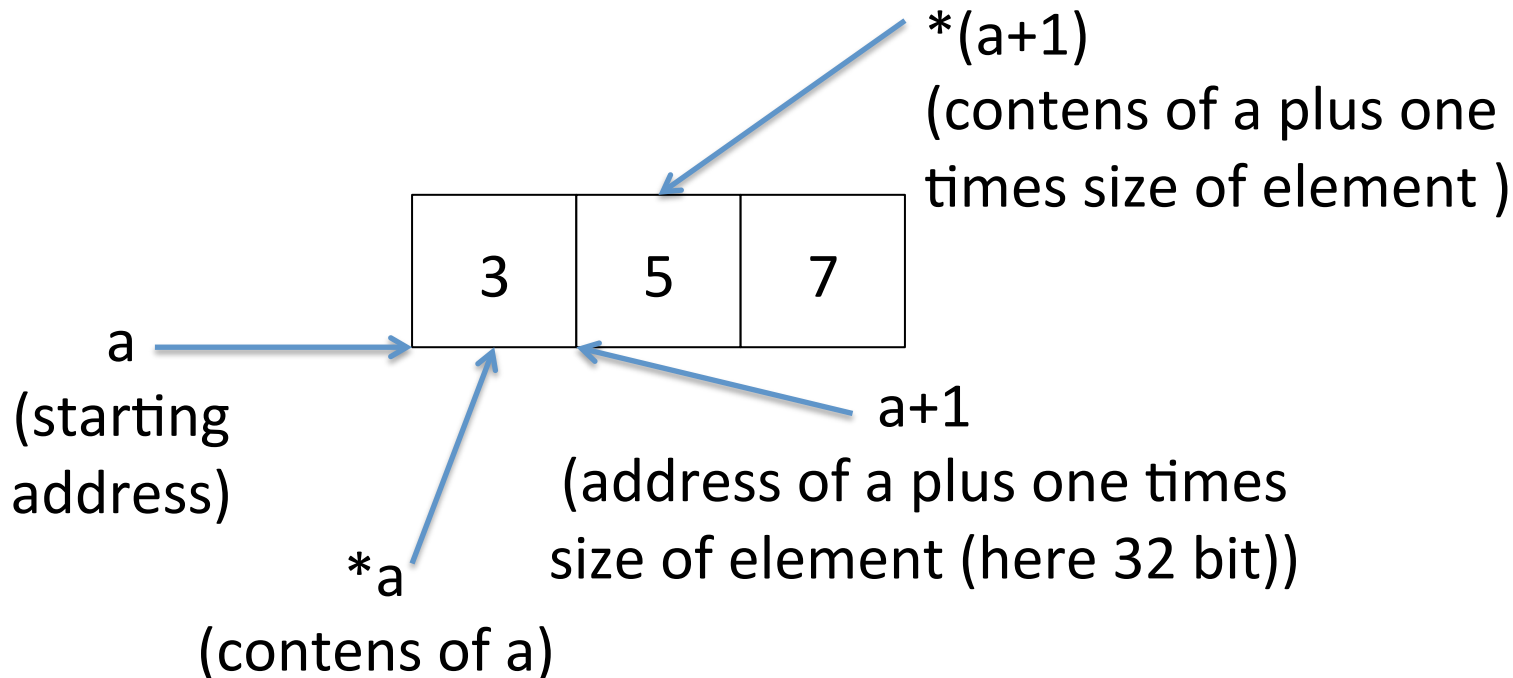
Pointer

✧ Operators to pointers:

* : contents of a pointer

& : address of a pointer

```
int n = 10;  
int a[3] = {3, 5, 7};
```



Exercises

- 1) Output
- 2) Input
- 3) Conditionals
- 4) Loops
- 5) Loops II
- 6) Functions
- 7) Functions II
- 8) Arrays
- 9) Pointers and Strings
- 10) Malloc, sorting strings
- 11) Sorting arrays in linear time
- 12) Recursion
- 13) Efficient Fibonacci
- 14) Cmdl. arguments, file I/O
- 15) Linked lists
- 16) Function pointers
- 17) Hamming weight
- 18) SCCs in graphs