

Announcements

- Program #5
 - is due Today
- Final
 - Monday 4-6 in J. M. Patterson 3201
- Pickup old assignments from me today
 - Midterms (including re-grades)
 - Programming assignments

Review Lecture

- Final covers all material from the class
 - Comprehensive
 - relatively equally weighted between 1st, 2nd and after 2nd exam
- Today's lecture is set of highlights
 - Be aware that there are things not in today's review which will likely also be on the final!

Why Study Low-level Programming? and Why Study the C language?

- Provides Understanding of How Things Work
 - Compilers, Processors, Data Structures
- Allows access to Hardware when required
- Allows efficiency and control
 - Writing device drivers and operating systems
 - If you are careful and good it will be faster
 - BUT could also be Dangerous or Slower
- Widely Used for System Programming
- “Middle Aged” Language – created in late 1970’s
- C’s design goals Goals
- Major Differences from JAVA
 - Explicit Memory Allocation and Deallocation
 - Procedural rather than object oriented
 - *Compiles* directly to machine code (rather than byte codes)

Phases of Compilation

- Preprocessor
 - Not everything is in one file
 - Definitions of routines are in separate files
 - Function *Prototypes*
 - Define name, parameters, and return types
 - #include, #if, #endif, #ifndef
 - macros, constants, conditional compilation
- translation (compilation)
 - source to object code
 - of individual files
 - making sure prototypes match definitions and calls
- linking
 - combining object files
 - making sure all parts are there

Readability, Reliability and Efficiency of Your program

- Readability
 - Comments
 - Should be surrounded by `/*` and `*/`
 - May span multiple lines
 - White Space
 - vertical and horizontal
- Testing
 - Write Tests as you write software
 - When the software is “done”, tests continue as part of it
 - Types of Testing
 - line coverage, white box and black box
- Efficiency
 - Code motion
 - Loop Unrolling
 - Dead-Code Elimination

Make: A Tool to Compile Programs

- Problem: Compiling programs is tedious
- Solution: Automate it!
- Done in Unix by the make command
 - Uses a file called Makefile
 - A makefile is a file (script) containing :
 - Project structure (files, dependencies)
 - Instructions for files creation
- Make is not limited to C programs

Stored Program Computer

- A Program:
 - Consists of a sequence of operations
 - Is loaded into a computer's memory to execute
- Standardize set of allowed operations, called *Instructions*
 - each instruction performs a specific operation
 - Instructions can
 - read or change memory
 - compute a value
 - read or write output
 - What instruction to execute next:
 - normally it is the next instruction
 - provide control to select alternate next instruction
- Program and data are both stored in memory
- Completeness of Instructions

What do Instructions Look Like?

- For Project #1, instructions:
 - are 32 bits long
 - contain three parts

Purpose	Opcode	Register ₁	Register ₂	Register ₃	Memory
Size (bits)	4	4	4	4	16

- Extension Later – Maintaining the Stack
 - Calling Functions
 - for calls to the same function from other places in the program
 - for recursion
 - parameter passing to functions
 - return values of functions

Function Arguments

- Comma separated list of values
- All parameters are passed by value
 - called function can modify values
 - arrays are passed by the address of their 0th element
 - modifying elements of array seen by calling function
- Can pass address of variable to change values

```
int foo(int *a) {  
    *a = 3;  
}
```

```
int x;  
foo(&x);
```

struct, union, and typedef

- Often useful to use typedef and struct together:

```
typedef struct {  
    int a;  
    char b;  
} Simple;
```

- Declarations then look like:

```
Simple x;  
Simple y[20], z;
```

- Header Files

- If structure used by more than one file, put it in a header file.
- Use `#include` to include definition in each file where used.

- Unions

- Rather than storing each field, only stores **one** of the fields
- Syntax: `union tag { member-list } variable-list`

Bit Fields

- Part of the Power of C is control over data layout
 - If you need a field with exactly 13 bits, you can define it
 - Useful for:
 - defining fields that interact with hardware
 - managing pre-defined file formats
 - saving every last bit of space
 - Syntax: type variable:size;

- Examples:

```
int foo:13;
unsigned int foo:4;
typedef struct {                /* from project #1 */
    unsigned int opCode:4;
    unsigned int r1:4;
    unsigned int r2:4;
    unsigned int r3:4;
    unsigned int address:16;
} instruction;
```

Bit Shift Operator

- C has operators to bit shift numbers
 - number of bits changed depends on size of variable
- Left Shift (number << xxx)
 - Move each bit of number to the left by xxx bit positions
 - Leftmost xxx bits discarded
 - Rightmost xxx bits gets 0
- Right Shift (number >> xxx)
 - Move each bit of number to the right by xxx bit positions
 - Rightmost xxx bits discarded
 - Leftmost xxx bits gets 0 **or replicate sign bit**
 - for unsigned gets 0
 - for signed, its **implementation dependent**

Type Conversion

- Promotion of char and short
 - in expressions, char and short are promoted to int
- ```
char a, b, c;
a = b + c;
```
- b and c are converted to int, then the sum is truncated

- Arithmetic Conversions

- can't be performed on different types
  - converted to "higher" type

long double ← Highest Type

double

float

unsigned long int

long int

unsigned int

int

# Precedence

- There is a set of rules about precedence of operator
  - Most important precedence rule:
    - When in doubt, put in () to ensure correct order
  - Order (highest to lowest):
    - ()
    - Function call, subscript, postfix increment/decrement
    - rest of unary operators
    - type conversion
    - Arithmetic operators
    - Relational operators
    - Bit operators
    - Assignment operators
    - , (comma operator)

# Standard I/O Library

- `#include <stdio.h>`
  - includes prototypes for standard I/O routines
- Most I/O is stream based
  - buffered to allow efficient operations
    - mostly to disks or networks
  - interactive I/O is normally flushed at useful points
    - `printf("foo\n");` /\* `\n` causes a flush \*/
- `FILE` type
  - used to describe an active I/O connection
  - three default ones supplied on entry to main:
    - `stdin` - an input stream for default input (often keyboard)
    - `stdout` - default output stream (often terminal window)
    - `stderr` - default output stream for errors

# I/O Functions

- `FILE *fopen(char *name, char *mode)`
- `int fclose(FILE *fp);`
- `int fgetc(FILE *stream);`
- `int fputc(int character, FILE *stream);`
- `int putchar(int character);`
- `int ungetc(int character, FILE *stream);`
- `char *fgets(char *buffer, int bufferSize, FILE *stream);`
- **gets: never use this function!**
  - it leads to buffer overflow problems
- `int fputs(char *buffer, FILE *stream);`

# Strings

- Zero or more characters followed by NUL
  - not counted as part of string
  - string.h defines prototypes for string routines
- Copying Strings
  - `size_t strlen(char const *str);`
    - returns count of characters in str
  - `char *strncpy(char *dst, char const *src, size_t len);`
    - copy src to dst
    - copy until NUL in src or at most len characters
    - pad extra characters with NUL
    - Safety tip: `dst[len-1] = '\0';` to force termination
  - `char *strncat(char *dst, char const *src, size_t len);`
    - append src onto the end of dst
    - always appends NUL ('\0') to end of string

# Arrays of Pointers

- `int *api[10];`
  - An array of 10 pointers to integers;

```
char *keyword[] = {
 "Load",
 "Store",
 "Negate",
 ...
};
```

# Pointers

- Can declare any variable to be of type pointer
  - are similar to references in Java
  - use \* before variable name to create a pointer to the type
    - `int *foo;`
    - `myTypeDef *myPtr;`
    - `float *bar;`
  - The type determines both:
    - what is pointed to
    - the size of the object being pointed to
- Initialization
  - creating a pointer doesn't create the space it points to
  - `int *foo;`
  - `*foo = 3;` /\* error: haven't defined what it points to \*/

# Type Conversion

- **C lets you assign variables of different types**
  - called type conversion
  - useful when dealing with
    - external devices
      - `int *fooDev = (int *) 100;`
      - we know the foo device is at location 100
    - when type information read from a file is based on file contents.
- **WARNING: This can be very dangerous**
- (type \*) variable:
  - `int *x;`
  - `float *y;`
  - `x = (int *) y;`

# Pointer Aliases

- Sometimes two pointers point to the same thing\

- This can be useful
- This can cause problems:

```
int *p, *q;
```

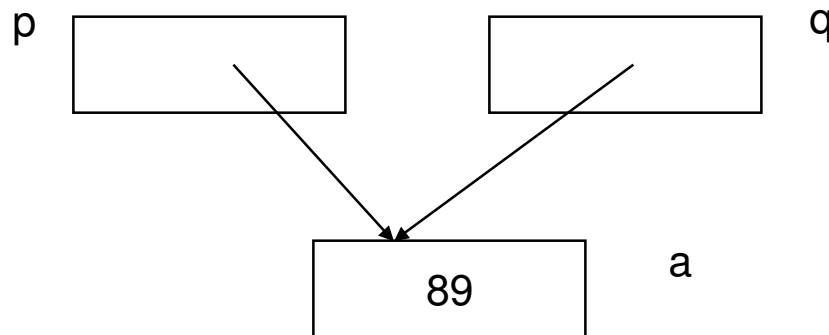
```
int a= 89;
```

```
p = &a;
```

```
q = p;
```

```
free(p);
```

```
if (*q) { ... } /* error: *q points to freed space */
```



# Heap Memory Management

- Allocating memory:
  - `void *malloc(size_t requestedSize);`
    - allocate requestedSize bytes of memory
  - `void *calloc(size_t requestCount, size_t objectSize);`
    - allocate requestCount objects of size objectSize bytes each
    - set the requested memory to zero
  - Type Information
    - malloc/calloc return void \*
    - need to convert to desired type using cast operator
- `free(void *p);`
  - returns space pointed to by p
  - does **not** change p
    - good idea `p=NULL;` right after deallocation.

# Linked Data Structures

- Singly Linked Lists
- Doubly Linked Lists
- Trees
- Hash
  - simple
  - linked
- Graphs
  - Directed vs. undirected
  - Cyclic vs Non-Cyclic
  - DAGS – directed acyclic graphs
- How they are stored
- Algorithms for traversal

# Graphs - Directed

- Examples
  - List of web pages that link to each other
- Nodes can
  - have an arbitrary number of out arcs
  - have an arbitrary number of inbound arcs

- Declarations

```
typedef struct ARC {
 struct NODE *nodePtr;
 struct ARC *next;
} Arc;
typedef struct NODE {
 Arc *outArcs;
 int value;
} Node;
```

# Number Representation

- Integers - 2's complement representation
  - To compute a negative value:
    - flip all the bits of the positive value, add 1
  - Allows addition of signed and unsigned numbers
  - Valid range of numbers
    - $-2^{n-1}$  to  $2^{n-1}-1$  for n bits
    - Example: 16 bit number -32,768 to 32,767
- Real numbers
  - Each number has two parts
    - mantissa (represents a number between -1 and 1)
    - exponent (designates the position of the decimal point)
    - number =  $m r^e$  where r is the radix
  - Normalization
    - convert to number between -1 and 1
    - if the most significant digit of mantissa is non-zero.

# Floating Point Continued

- Computers normally use a radix of 2
- Examples of floating point numbers
  - $1001.11 = .1001110 \times 2^4$
  - $10.5 = 1010.1$  or  $10101 \times 2^4$
  - $17.451 = 111.011100 = 1110111 \times 2^3$
- IEEE Floating point standard
  - 32 bit floating point (float)
    - 1 sign bit, 8 bits exponent, 23 bits mantissa
  - 64 bit floating point (double)
    - 1 sign bit, 11 bits exponent, 52 bits mantissa
    - most common for real applications
  - 128 bit floating point (quad)
    - 1 sign bit, 15 bits exponent, 112 bits of mantissa

# Callbacks

```
typedef int (*compareFunc)(item *a, item * b);

int searchTree(Node *root, Item *target, compareFunc cmp) {
 if (!root) return -1;
 ret = (cmp)(target, root->data);
 if (ret == 0) {
 /* found it */
 return 1;
 } else if (ret < 0) {
 return searchTree(root->left, target, cmp);
 } else {
 return searchTree(root->right, target, cmp);
 }
}
```

# Programming Command Line Arguments

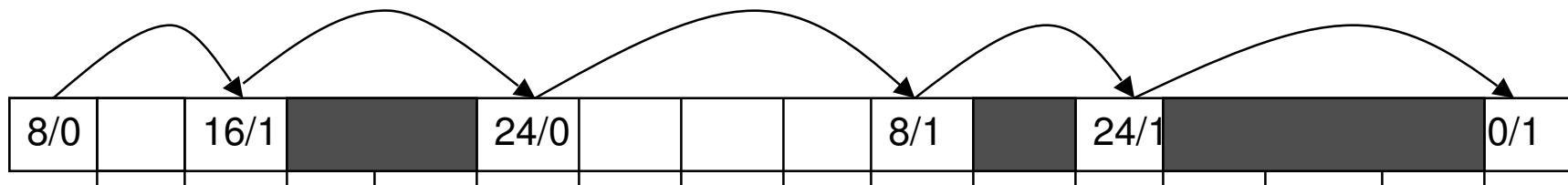
- Generally, want arguments to be accepted in any order
  - ./foo -file myfile -help
  - ./foo -help -file myfile
- Solution:
  - Table driven command line parsing
    - Example of a common pattern, table drive parsing
  - Declare a structure
    - fields describe each valid option

```
typedef enum { Flag, StrParam, IntParam };
```

```
typedef struct {
 char *name;
 optionTypes options;
 void *parameter;
} option;
```

# Simple Data Structure for Heap

- Divide heap into blocks
- Each Block has a 32 bite header
  - 29 bits define size of block (in 8 byte chunks)
  - 1 bit is for free/allocated (1 indicates allocated)
  - 2 bits are un-used
- Can find next block if know the current block
  - add address of current block header to size of block



# Garbage Collection

- What is Garbage?
  - memory the program can't get to anymore
  - Example:
    - `ptr = malloc(40);`
    - `ptr = NULL;`
- How to detect Garbage?
  - Need to know what is a pointer
    - know what everything is (Java)
    - guess anything that looks like a pointer is one (C)
      - any 32-bit quantity in globals, on stack, is assumed to be a pointer.
      - anything in a memory region pointed to
  - Compute reachability graph
    - Follow all pointers

# Representing Arrays

- Arrays (C style)
  - sequence of consecutive memory locations
  - address of array is the starting point for the array
  - subscript defines offset into array
    - $\text{location} = \text{baseAddr} + \text{subscript} * \text{sizeof}(\text{object})$
- Fortran90
  - sequence of logically consecutive bytes
  - array descriptor (runtime data) stores additional information
    - distance between array elements (for each dimension)
    - number of elements (for each dimension)
    - lower bound of array dimension
- Java
  - sequence of objects
  - array descriptor (runtime data) stores
    - type information about what this is an array of
    - length array

# Using JNI Functions

- Declaring Functions
  - Declare like a normal method, but add “native” keyword
  - `public native void displayHelloWorld();`
- Loading the Code
  - Use `loadLibrary` call
  - Making it static forces it to happen automatically
  - `System.loadLibrary("hello")`
- Invoke Native Method
  - `new HelloWorld().displayHelloWorld();`