

Machine-Oriented Programming

C-Programming part 4

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Original slides by Ulf Assarsson

Objectives

- **Topics**
 - Sets, bit management: **enum**, **union**, little/big **endian**
 - “Visibility”/scope: **extern**, **static**
 - Pragma directives: **#if**, **#ifdef**, **#include**, **#define**
 - Dynamic memory allocation: **malloc** and **free**
 - File operations: **FILE**, **fopen**, **fprintf**, **fgets**
- **Related to:**
 - “Arbetsbok” section 5 graphics display
- **Homework: v4**

Type Union

Union allows to store different data types in the same memory location. Same syntax as [struct](#)

```
union opt_name {
    int a;
    char b;
    float c;
} x;
x.a = 4;
x.b = 'i';
x.c = 3.0;
```

x.a = 1077936128

```
typedef union {
    float v[2];
    struct {float x,y;};
} Vec2f;
```

```
Vec2f pos;
pos.v[0] = 1; pos.v[1] = 2;
pos.x = 1; pos.y = 2;
```

&x.a == &x.b == &x.c

a, b and c share the same memory address. That is the same memory address can be accessed in three different ways via three different variable names.

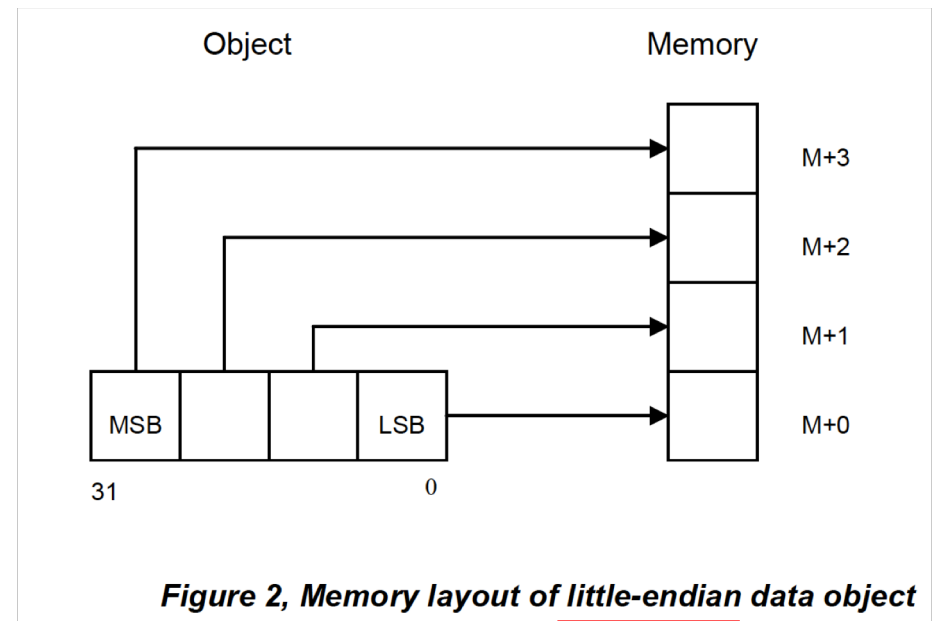
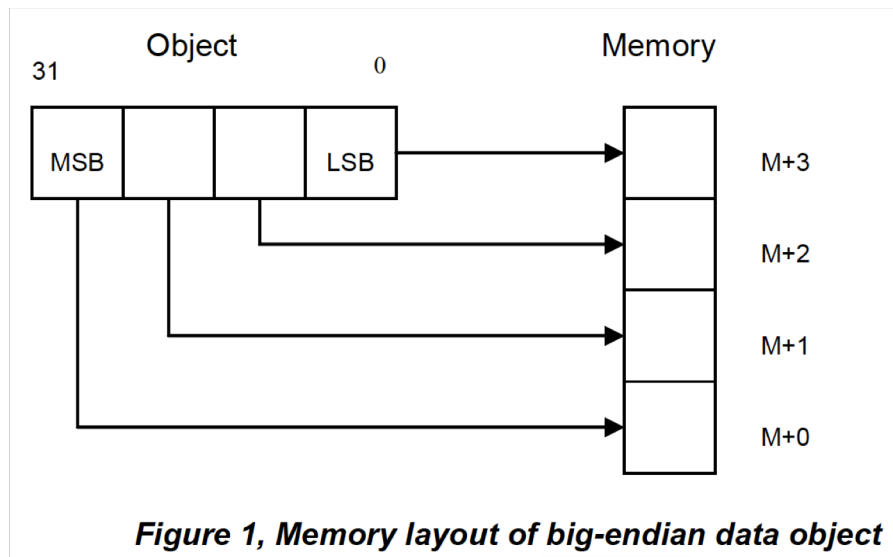
Example: pos.v[0] and pos.x are the same. “pos.x” clearly shows that it is the x-coordinate we address. “pos.v[i]” is useful if we want to write a loop over the x and y coordinates.

For example:

```
Vec2f addVec(Vec2f a, Vec2f b)
{
    for(i=0; i<2; i++)
        a.v[i] += b.v[i];
    return a;
}
```

Endian

- Big endian / Little endian



We use little endian. ARM Cortex-m4 can handle both via settings.

Union + Endian...

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

```
union {  
    int a;  
    char c[4];  
} x;
```

```
int main() {  
    x.a = 256;  
    printf("%d: %d %d %d %d\n", x.a, x.c[0], x.c[1], x.c[2], x.c[3]);  
}
```

256: 0x 00 00 01 00
In Memory (little endian):
00
00
01
00

256: 0 1 0 0

In big endian?

Byte-addressing with unions

For GPIO ports

// GPIO

```
typedef struct _gpio {
    uint32_t  mode;
    uint32_t  otyper;
    uint32_t  ospeedr;
    uint32_t  pupdr;
```

```
    union {
        uint32_t  idr;
        struct {
            byte  idrLow;
            byte  idrHigh;
            short reserved;
        };
    };
```

```
    union {
        uint32_t  odr;
        struct {
            byte  odrLow;
            byte  odrHigh;
        };
    };
};
```

```
} GPIO;
```

```
#define GPIO_D (*((volatile GPIO*) 0x40020c00))
```

```
#define GPIO_E (*((volatile GPIO*) 0x40021000))
```

GPIO Input Data Register (IDR)

offset	31	30	29	28	27	26	25	24	23	22	21	20	19	18	17	16	15	14	13	12	11	10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0	mnemonic
0x10																		r	r	r	r	r	r	r	r	r	r	r	r	r	r		IDR
	RESERVEADE																0x11				0x10												

Bits 16 to 31 are not used and will hold its RESET value, that is 0

Now idrHigh can be addressed with:

byte c = GPIO_E.idrHigh;

Instead of with:

byte c = *((byte*)&(GPIO_E.idr) + 1);

As for example:

GPIO_E.odrLow &= (~B_SELECT & ~x);

Instead of:

((byte)&(GPIO_E.odr)) &= (~B_SELECT & ~x);

Enumerations: `enum`

```
enum type_name { value1, value2,..., valueN }; //type_name optional. By default, value1 = 0, value2 = value1 + 1, etc.
```

```
enum type_name { value1 = 0, value2, value3 = 0, value4 }; //However, with gcc values: 0, 1, 0, 1 - not intuitive.
```

```
enum day {monday=1, tuesday, wednesday, thursday, friday, saturday, sunday};
```

```
enum day today; // day becomes a char, short or int
```

```
today=wednesday;
```

```
printf("%d:th day",today+1); // output: "4:th day"
```

```
typedef enum { false, true } bool;
```

```
bool ok = true;
```

```
-----  
#define B_E          0x40          // using enums
```

```
#define B_RST        0x20
```

```
#define B_CS2         0x10
```

```
#define B_CS1         8
```

```
#define B_SELECT      4
```

```
#define B_RW          2
```

```
#define B_RS          1
```

Can be replaced with:

```
enum {B_RS=1, B_RW=2, B_SELECT=4, B_CS1=8, B_CS2=0x10, B_RST=0x20, B_E=0x40};
```

Enum

```
#include <stdio.h>

typedef enum { one=1, two, three, four, five=10, six, seven, eight, nine, ten } numbers;

int main() {
    printf("two=%d eight=%d\n", two, eight );
}
```

two=2 eight=13

```
#include <stdio.h>

typedef enum { monday, tuesday, wednesday, thursday, friday, saturday, sunday } daysofweek;
char *daysname[] = { "Mon", "Tue", "Wed", "Thu", "Fri", "Sat", "Sun" };

int main() {
    for(int i = monday; i <= wednesday; i++)
        printf("Day = %s\n", daysname[i]);
}
```

Day = Mon
Day = Tue
Day = Wed

Extern

`extern` in `C` means that the symbol is coming from another file.

```
// main.c
#include <stdio.h>
```

```
extern int g_var;
void myFunc();
```

```
void main()
{
    g_var = 5;
    myFunc();
}
```

Just declaration – without definition.
`g_var` defined later – for example in another .c-file

`extern` not necessary for functions, the
prototype means: the code exists at link-time.

```
// myFunc.c
int g_var;
void myFunc()
{
    printf("hej");
};
```

Extern

Note: If you code a larger program for lab5, you may not want all global items/variables declared in the main file. Then you need to use external.

extern in C means that the symbol comes from another file.

```
// main.c
#include "fractalmountain.h"
...

OBJECT objects[] = {&player, &fmountain};
unsigned int nObjects = 2;

void main()
{
    ...
}
```

```
// fractalmountain.h
#ifndef FRACTALMOUNTAIN_H
#define FRACTALMOUNTAIN_H

#include "object.h"

extern OBJECT fmountain;

#endif //FRACTALMOUNTAIN_H
```

```
// fractalmountain.c
#include "fractalmountain.h"

OBJECT fmountain = {
    0,                // geometry - no
    0,0,              // direction vector
    0,0,              // initial startposition
    drawMountain,     // draw method
    0,                // clear_object - unused
    moveMountain,     // move method
    set_object_speed  // set-speed method
};
```

extern = declare without defining
(without **extern** we would create a **new** variable.)

Extern: C function called from C++ code

```
extern "C" int foo( char, float );
```

```
int main() {  
    char c = 'a';  
    float f = 3.1415;  
    int r;  
  
    r = foo( c, f );  
    ...  
}
```

C: visibility for declarations

All declarations (variables, functions) and expressions like typedefs + defines are visible first below them - not above them. Source files are processed from top to bottom.

Example:

```
void fkn1(short param)
{
    ...
    if(...) {
        return fkn2('a'); // fkn2 is here unknowned for the C-compiler so it results in a compilation error
    }
    ...
    return;
}

void fkn2(char c)
{
    ...
    return;
}
```

C: visibility for declarations

All declarations (variables, functions) and expressions like typedefs + defines are visible first below them - not above them. Source files are processed from top to bottom.

Example:

```
void fkn2(char c);           // Fix to make the declaration of fkn2 already known here.
void fkn2(char c);           // We may have the declaration how many times we want
void fkn1(short param)
{
    ...
    if(...) {
        return fkn2('a'); // now fkn2 is known here
    }
    ...
    return;
}

void fkn2(char c)             // The definition of fkn2
{
    ...
    return;
}
```

C: visibility for declarations

All declarations (variables, functions) and expressions like typedefs + defines are visible first below them - not above them. Source files are processed from top to bottom.

Example:

```
void fkn2(char c);           // Fix to make the declaration of fkn2 already known here.
                             // We may have the declaration how many times we want
void fkn1(short param)
{
    void fkn2(char c);       // We can even have it here instead
    if(...) {
        void fkn2(char c);   // or here!
        return fkn2('a');    // now fkn2 is known here
    }
    ...
    return;
}

void fkn2(char c)            // The definition of fkn2
{
    ...
    return;
}
```

static

static in C can do two things:

1. Give visibility only in its own and inner scopes
 - For example, symbols (variables / features) can not be seen outside its .c file.
2. A static variable is in the data segment as opposed to volatile on the stack
 - Allows you to create local variables that retain their value between the function calls

See also homework assignment 4

The screenshot shows a presentation slide titled "Hemuppgifter C-programmering" with a navigation bar containing "Förel. 1" through "Förel. 5". The slide content is titled "C - Föreläsning 4." and includes the text: "Denna vecka skall vi öva oss på bl a: extern, static, enum, och separata .c-filer." Below this, a section titled "Deklaration vs Definition" explains the difference: "En deklaration talar endast om kompilatorn vad en variabel eller funktion har för typ. En definition beskriver variabeln/funktionen i dess helhet, dvs en funktionsdefinition innehåller även funktionskroppen medan en variabeldefinition instansierar variabeln:". A code example follows:

```
void func(); // deklaration av funktion
void func() // definition av funktion
{
    ...
}
```

Static variant 1

```
static int var;
```

The variable *var* can not be seen from another file, regardless of whether you use `extern`.

In "Java terminology" this is close to "private" but the scope is the file.

Static variant 2

```
#include <stdio.h>

void testFkt()
{
    int var1 = 0;
    static int var2 = 0;
    var1++;
    var2++;
    printf("var1: %i, var2: %i \n", var1, var2);
}

int main()
{
    testFkt();
    testFkt();
    testFkt();
}
```

Output:

```
var1: 1, var2: 1
var1: 1, var2: 2
var1: 1, var2: 3
```

var2 is initialized to zero only the first time we call the function, but then retains its value between calls.

var2 is a **global variable** that has only local visibility in its scope – in this case testFkt().

Static variant 2 – simple example

```
#include <stdio.h>

void testFkt()
{
    static int bFirstTime = 1;
    if(bFirstTime) {
        // For example allocate memory on the heap
        // or calculate something.
        bFirstTime = 0;
    }
    ... Do the main calculations/work.
}

int main()
{
    testFkt();
}
```

NOTE – The code is not thread-safe!

Some more qualifiers

- `const`
- `inline`

```
const double pi = 3.14159265359; // the variable's value can not change

x = 90 * pi / 180; // can be calculated already at compile-time

// now the pointer can not change it's value to another address
volatile unsigned char * const inport = (unsigned char*) 0x40021010;
```

```
static inline int square(int x)
{
    return x * x;
}

int main()
{
    int a = square(5);
}
```

foo () can not be inline (< gcc 2010)

```
// main.c
#include <stdio.h>
#include "foo.h"

int main()
{
    printf("x is %d", foo(0));
    return 0;
}
```

```
// foo.h
inline int foo(int x);
```

```
// foo.c
#include <stdlib.h>

inline int foo(int x)
{
    if( x == 0 ){
        int x = 4;
        return x;
    }

    return x;
}
```

The reason is that when the compiler compiles main.c, the definition of foo () is not available - just the declaration. (The declaration is in foo.h. The definition is in foo.c.)

In fact, often leads to compilation errors.

Now can foo() be inline

```
// main.c
#include <stdio.h>
#include "foo.h"

int main()
{
    printf("x is %d", foo(0));
    return 0;
}
```

c-file

includes header-file

```
// foo.h
static inline int foo(int x)
{
    if( x == 0 ){
        int x = 4;
        return x;
    }

    return x;
}
```

header-file

`static` is often necessary

Now main.c sees the whole definition of foo() .

BUT HEADER FILES SHOULD NEVER HAVE CODE!!!

Compiler Pragma Directives

- **#include**
- **#if, #ifdef, #ifndef, #endif**
- **#define**
- **#pragma**

Preprocessor directives: **#if**, **#ifdef**, **#ifndef**

Preprocessor conditional inclusion

```
#define X 1          // syntax: #define [identifier name] [value], where [value] is optional

#if X == 0           // syntax: #if <value>, where 0=false and !0==true. Integer arithmetic OK.
    ...              // any C-code
#elif X-1 == 1       // elif means else if
    ...
#else
    ...
#endif

#if 0 // good for temporarily commenting out large blocks of code.
    ... // any C-code
#endif

#define HW_DEBUG
...
#ifdef HW_DEBUG
    ... // any C-code, for example:
    #undef SIMULATOR
#endif
```

```
void delay_500ns(void)
{
    #ifndef SIMULATOR
        delay_250ns();
        delay_250ns();
    #endif
}
```

Include guards

- Include guards are used to automatically avoid to include a header file (.h-file) more than once per .c-file. This may happen if a .c-file includes several .h-files which in turn include the same .h-file

Include guards

```
// main.c
#include "player.h"
#include "enemies.h"

void main()
{
    ...
}
```

c-file

```
// vecmath.h

typedef struct {
    union {
        int v[2];
        struct {int x, y;};
    };
} Vec2i;

Vec2i add2i(Vec2i a, Vec2i b);
char isEqual(Vec2i a, Vec2i b);
```

```
// play
#include "vecmath.h"

void movePlayer(int i, Vec2i v);

typedef struct ... Vec2i;
```

Include guards

```
// main.c
#include "player.h"
#include "enemies.h"

void main()
{
    ...
}
```

c-file

```
// vecmath.h
#ifndef VECMATH_H
#define VECMATH_H

typedef struct {
    union {
        int v[2];
        struct {int x, y;};
    };
} Vec2i;

Vec2i add2i(Vec2i a, Vec2i b);
char isEqual(Vec2i a, Vec2i b);

#endif //VECMATH_H
```

```
// player.h
#ifndef PLAYER_H
#define PLAYER_H

#include "vecmath.h"

void movePlayer(Vec2i v);

#endif //PLAYER_H
```

```
// enemies.h
#ifndef ENEMIES_H
#define ENEMIES_H

#include "vecmath.h"

void moveEnemy(int i,
               Vec2i v);

#endif //ENEMIES_H
```

We should have include-guards on all .h files - although in this example is not required for player.h as well as enemies.h

Without including guards, vecmath.h is included twice for main.c. The second time, the compiler will complain that `Vec2i` is already defined.

.c-files are compiled separately. The preprocessor and compiler are executed individually per .c-file.

Constants or Macros with #define

```
#define MAX 1000

int arrayOfInt[MAX];

int main() {
    for( int i = 0; i < MAX; i++ )
        arrayOfInt = ...
}
```

```
#define _max_( _x_, _a_, _b_ ) { if( _a_ > _b_ ) \
                                _x_ = _a_;      \
                                else              \
                                _x_ = _b_; }

int main() {
    int a = 10;
    int b = 20;
    int r;

    _max_(r,a,b);

}
```

#define from compiler command line

```
#include <stdio.h>

int main() {
    int x = 10;

#ifdef DEBUG
    printf("In main, before calling foo() x=%d\n", x);
#endif

    foo(x);

#ifdef DEBUG
    printf("In main, after calling foo() x=%d\n", x);
#endif
}
```

```
$gcc -DDEBUG hwfile.c -o hwfile
```

```
$gcc hwfile.c -o hwfile
```

#define from compiler command line

```
#include <stdio.h>

#ifdef DEBUG
#define DEBUG1(_msg_,_p1_) { printf(_msg_,_p1_); }
#else
#define DEBUG1(_msg_,_p1_) { }
#endif

int main() {
    int x = 10;

    DEBUG1("In main, before calling foo() x=%d\n", x);
    foo(x);
    DEBUG1("In main, after calling foo() x=%d\n", x);
}
```

```
$gcc -DDEBUG hwfile.c -o hwfile
```

```
$gcc hwfile.c -o hwfile
```

#pragma

```
#include <stdio.h>

int main() {
    ...
    #pragma omp parallel for
    for( int i = 0; i < MAX; i++ )
        X[i] = A[i] + B[i];
    ...
}
```

You could also define
your own directives!

Dynamic Memory Allocation

- `malloc()` Allocate memory
- `free()` De-allocate (free) memory

What happens if we do not call free?

Do you need to use some sort of free also in Java? Why?

Function prototypes available in:

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

Dynamic Memory Allocation

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

```
char s1[] = "This is a long string. It is even more than one sentence.";
```

```
int main()  
{
```

```
    char* p;
```

```
    // allocate memory dynamically  
    p = (char*)malloc(sizeof(s1));
```

```
    // make something with the memory that we have reserved
```

```
    // free the memory space  
    free(p);  
    return 0;
```

```
}
```

Can you guess the
prototype for malloc?

After malloc ALWAYS do:

```
if( !p ) {  
    printf("ERROR: Could not allocate p\n");  
    exit(-1);  
}
```

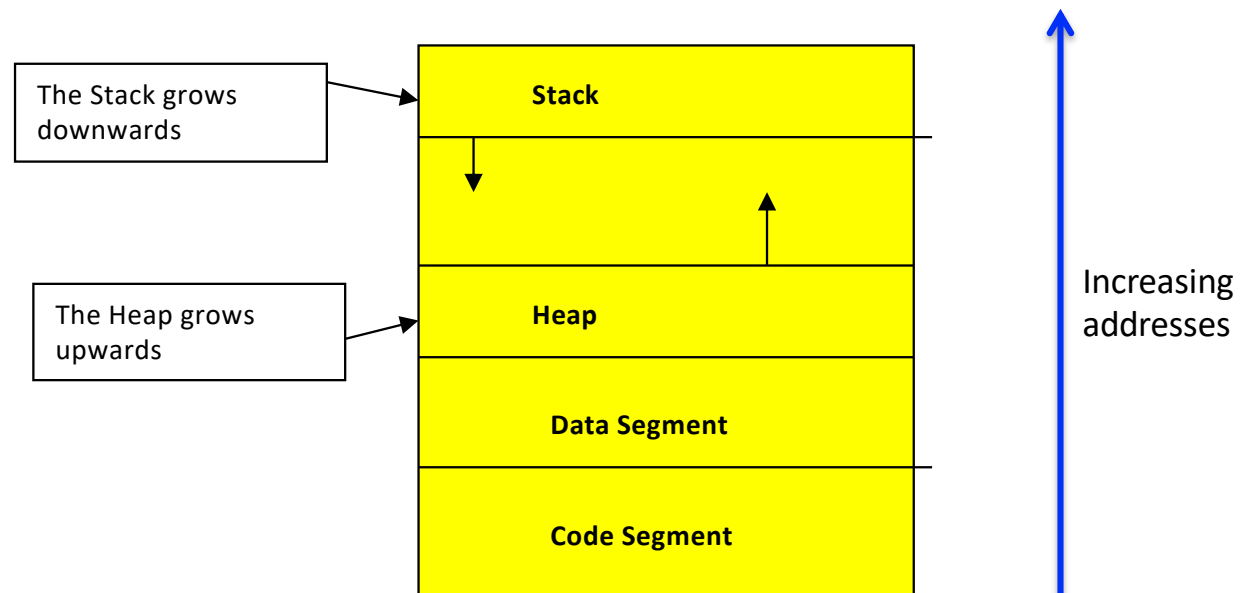
Number of bytes we want to allocate

OUT OF MEMORY

virtual address space is divided into pages swapped to the secondary storage (e.g. hard disk). Even this may end -> crash.

Address Space of a Program

- All programs as they execute, have some associated memory, which is typically divided into:
 - Code Segment
 - Data Segment (Holds Global Data)
 - Stack (where the local variables and other temporary information is stored)
 - Heap



Dynamic Memory Allocation Example

```
// Copy from s1 to the allocated memory pointed by p.
#include <stdio.h>
#include <stdlib.h>

char s1[] = "This is a long string. It is even more than one sentence.";
int main()
{
    char* p;
    int i;
    // allocate memory dynamically
    p = (char*)malloc(sizeof(s1));

    // make something with the memory that is allocated
    for( i=0; i<sizeof(s1); i++)
        *(p+i) = s1[i];
    printf("%s", p);

    // free memory
    free(p);

    return 0;
}
```

Do I need to do something
between allocation and use?

What happens if I do $*(p+1000) = 1024$

Why does `free(p)` not need
information about its size?

Dynamic Memory Allocation – other types

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

typedef struct {
    char *name;
    int   number;
} xyz;

int main() {
    int    *x;
    char   *y;
    double *z;
    xyz    *u;

    //allocate 100 int, char, double and xyz
}
```

```
x = (int*) malloc( sizeof(int)*100 );
if( !x ) exit(-1);
```

```
y = (char*) malloc( sizeof(char)*100 );
if( !y ) exit(-1);
```

```
z = (double*) malloc( sizeof(double)*100 );
if( !z ) exit(-1);
```

```
u = (xyz*) malloc( sizeof(xyz)*100 );
if( !u ) exit(-1);
```

Other dynamic memory allocation functions...

```
ptr = (int*) calloc(n, sizeof(int));
```

```
ptr = (int*) malloc(n1 * sizeof(int));  
.  
.  
.  
ptr = realloc(ptr, n2 * sizeof(int));
```

realloc()

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

```
int main() {
    int *ptr, i, n1, n2;
    printf("Enter size of array: ");
    scanf("%d", &n1);
    ptr = (int*) malloc(n1 * sizeof(int));
    printf("Addresses of previously allocated memory: %u - %u\n", ptr, ptr + n1);
    printf("\nEnter new size of array: ");
    scanf("%d", &n2);
    ptr = realloc(ptr, n2 * sizeof(int));
    printf("Addresses of newly allocated memory: %u - %u\n", ptr, ptr + n2);
    return 0;
}
```

Enter size of array: 10

Addresses of previously allocated memory: 1599078400 - 1599078436

Enter new size of array: 20

Addresses of newly allocated memory: 1599078400 - 1599078476

Enter size of array: 10000

Addresses of previously allocated memory: 2877292544 - 2877332540

Enter new size of array: 40000

Addresses of newly allocated memory: 84406272 - 84566268

Enter size of array: 10000

Addresses of previously allocated memory: 3313500160 - 3313540156

Enter new size of array: 2000

Addresses of newly allocated memory: 3313500160 - 3313508156



Memory Leaks

- A memory leak occurs when we do not free a memory item that we have dynamically allocated (with malloc()).
- Memory leaks can cause system crash if it runs out of memory.
- Memory leakage disappears when program terminates. (or it should...)

Why and How?

Find a memory leak

- You can use a memory analyzer such as DrMemory (<http://www.drmemory.org/>) or Valgrind (<http://valgrind.org>)
- DrMemory replaces the default library, and analyzes calls to malloc() and free().
- It also finds accesses to uninitialized memory

DrMemory Example

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

void foo() {
    int *y;
    y = (int*) malloc( sizeof(int)*10 );
    //free(y);
}

int main() {
    char *x = "This is a long string";
    foo();
    foo();
    foo();
    foo();
}
```

```
$ gcc -m32 -g -fno-inline -fno-omit-frame-pointer t1.c -o t1
$ bin/drmemory -- ./t1
~~Dr.M~~ Error #3: POSSIBLE LEAK 40 direct bytes 0x005701c8-
0x005701f0 + 0 indirect bytes
~~Dr.M~~ # 0 replace_malloc
~~Dr.M~~ # 1 foo                                [/Users/t1.c:6]
~~Dr.M~~ # 2 main                                [/Users/t1.c:17]
~~Dr.M~~
~~Dr.M~~ ERRORS FOUND:
~~Dr.M~~ 0 unique, 0 total unaddressable access(es)
~~Dr.M~~ 0 unique, 0 total uninitialized access(es)
~~Dr.M~~ 0 unique, 0 total invalid heap argument(s)
~~Dr.M~~ 0 unique, 0 total warning(s)
~~Dr.M~~ 0 unique, 0 total, 0 byte(s) of leak(s)
~~Dr.M~~ 4 unique, 4 total, 160 byte(s) of possible leak(s)
~~Dr.M~~ ERRORS IGNORED:
~~Dr.M~~ 0 unique, 0 total, 0 byte(s) of still-reachable
allocation(s)
```

File operations

```
#include <stdio.h>

#define MAX 100

int main(void) {
    FILE *fp;
    char *filename = "x1.c";
    char str[MAX];
    int linenum = 0;

    fp = fopen(filename, "r");
    if( fp == NULL ) {
        printf( "ERROR: Could not find file %s\n", filename );
    }
    while(!feof(fp)) {
        fgets( str, MAX, fp );
        printf("%d: %s", linenum++, str);
    }
    printf("\n");
    fclose(fp);
}
```

Next C Lecture – Your pick!

- **Command line parameters with main input parameters**
- **Packing strings efficiently**
- **Linked lists, doubly linked lists, trees, etc.**
- **Any other wish list items?**