Variables in C

What is a variable?
  Each variable is just a block of memory
  Block of memory that equates to a certain value
  Actual value is determined by the programmer
    Integer, Byte, A few bits, etc.
Example:
- ASCII character 'A'
    numeric value 65   In hex = 0x41
  Depending on the debugger, it may appear as 'A', 65, or 0x41
- Array Example
  The string "CprE281x" is represented in memory as
    'C' 'P' 'R' 'E' '2' '8' '1' `x' '\0'
  Memory contains
    0x43 0x50 0x52 0x45 0x32 0x38 0x31 0x58 0x00

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Variables in C

- The notation of a variable is just a way of representing a specific quantity. The programmer interprets how the information is represented and decide how the value is used
- Passed in the value 50 in an 8 bit quantity
  - Binary   =   0011 0010
  - Hex   =   0x32
  - Decimal =   50
- Could be the actual number 50
  - $x = x + 50$
- Could be various bits of information
  - If bit 6 is set, do something
- Could be a combination
  - If bit 6 is set, $x = x$ + lower nibble of the value

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Variables in C

- Variable declaration: compiler knows two things – the name and type of the variable
  - int k – reserves 32 bits of memory to hold integer value of k
  - k is called an object or "a named region of storage"
- In variable assignment the compiler places the value in the memory location of the object
  - k = 2 –> places 2 (a 32 bit value) at memory location k
- The two values associated with k are
  - rvalue – the right value, 2
  - lvalue – the left value, address of k or the object `k'
  - The lvalue cannot be used on the right side of an equation, i.e. 2=k is not acceptable

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Variables in C

- What if we want a variable that has the ability to store an lvalue (a memory address)?
  - Called a pointer variable
  - The pointer size is the width of the memory address
  - Size can vary based on the system – for most computers the address width is 4 bytes
    - i.e. sizeof($type$ *) = 4 bytes
- A pointer is declared using the "*" symbol
  - We must also tell the compiler what type of variable we want it to point to
  - int *myBaseAddr tells the compiler myBaseAddr points to an integer, a 32 bit quantity
  - Note on naming and syntax
    - Do not use char* myBaseAddr, char *pMyBaseAddr or myBaseAddrPtr when declaring a pointer

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Variables in C

- myBaseAddr is the name of the pointer and it contains an address (lvalue), thus
  - It generally does not make sense to say myBaseAddr = 5_{10} or myBaseAddr = myInt
    - This works but does assigning an rvalue to an lvalue really make sense? The second case usually gives a warning
  - We should write myBaseAddr = 0x0000 0005 or myBaseAddr = &myInt
    - The statements assign an address to myBaseAddr
    - The & symbol is used to access the lvalue of the variable myInt – the andress of myInt
    - Now myBaseAddr points to the address of myInt

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Variables in C

- So how do we access the value stored at the address pointed to by myBaseAddr?
  - Use the * symbol again – called the dereferencing
  - *myBaseAddr = 50_{10} assigns 50 the address pointed to by myBaseAddr
  - How many bytes of memory used to store this value?
  - What should be the value of myInt now?
  - What is the lvalue of myBaseAddr?
  - The rvalue?
  - What happens if we increment myBaseAddr by 1 as in myBaseAddr++?
  - What does the statement (*myBaseAddr)++ do?

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Arrays

- What is an array?
  - Sequence of a specific variable type stored in memory
  - Not a specific type
  - Pointer to a block of memory
- Define an array as
  - type variableName[arraySize];
  - Declares "arraySize" elements of type "type" denoted by "variableName"
- Zero-indexed (starts at zero rather than one)
- Last element is found at arraySize-1

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Variables in C

Strings

What is a string?

Special array of type *char* that is ended by the NULL (\0) character

Remember to create an array of **N+1** characters to allow space for the NULL character

20 character string

```
char szString[21];       /* 20 + 1 */
```

Why is there a NULL character?

Otherwise, how can you identify actual chars in a string?

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Variables in C

```
int     nMyIntArray[30];

nMyIntArray[0]  /* The first element of the array */
…
nMyIntArray[29] /* The last element of the array  */

nMyIntArray[30] /* INVALID! Beyond the edge of the array */
```

Example

```
int   nTestArray1[20];       /* An array of 20 integers */
int   nTestArray2[20];       /* An array of 20 integers */

nTestArray1[0] = nTestArray2[0];  /* This works */

nTestArray1  = nTestArray2;     /* This does not work */
```

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Variables in C

```
Be careful of boundaries in C
  No guard to prevent you from
  accessing beyond array edge
  Write beyond array = Potential for
  disaster

What exactly is an array?
  Not a specific type
  Pointer to a block of memory
  No built-in mechanism for copying
  arrays
```

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Accessing Arrays - pointers

- As a pointer point to the address of another variable the same is true for arrays, for example
  - myBaseAddr = &myIntArray[0] sets the pointer myBaseAddr to the address of myIntArray[0]
  - What do *myBaseAddr and myIntArray[0] have in common
  - What does *(myBaseAddr + 1) represent in array?
  - What about *(++myBaseAddr)?
  - Difference between the previous two statements?
- Can also write myBaseAddr = myIntArray
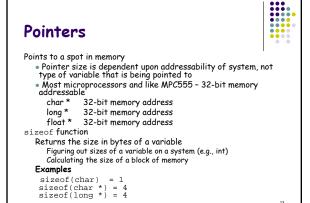 - I.E. the name of the array is actually the address of the first element of the array

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Arrays and Pointers

- Be careful when using pointers and arrays interchangeably – what is wrong with the following code

```
char myCharArray[20] = "this is my string";
int *myArrayBaseAddr;

myArrayBaseAddr = myCharArray;
While(*myArrayBaseAddr != 0)
{
    printf("%c", *myArrayBaseAddr);
    myArrayBaseAddr++;
}
```

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Pointers

Points to a spot in memory
- Pointer size is dependent upon addressability of system, not type of variable that is being pointed to
- Most microprocessors and like MPC555 – 32-bit memory addressable
  - char *   32-bit memory address
  - long *   32-bit memory address
  - float *   32-bit memory address

`sizeof` function

Returns the size in bytes of a variable
  - Figuring out sizes of a variable on a system (e.g., int)
  - Calculating the size of a block of memory

Examples
```
sizeof(char)  = 1
sizeof(char *) = 4
sizeof(long *) = 4
```

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Pointers

```
int  nVal;
int  *pnVal;
pnVal = &nVal; /* let address be 0x20000000 */
nVal = 10;
```
  pnVal is 0x20000000
   *pnVal is 10
```
*pnVal = 5;
```
  pnVal is still 0x20000000
   *pnVal is 5
  nVal is 5

Draw a memory diagram

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Pointers

Three key steps when using pointers:

1. Declare the pointer
```
type    *      pName;
        char   *      pChar;
        long   *      pHistory;
```

2. Initialize the pointer

In order to use the pointer, we need to point it somewhere.
```
pChar = (char *) 0x00001800;
pHistory = &lValue;
```
The (char *) tells the compiler this is a 32-bit memory address, not a 32-bit value.

3. Access the pointer (Read/Write)

In order to get the value, we must use a * in front of the name.
```
n = *pChar & 0x80;
if(*pHistory + 25 > TOL_HISTORY)
        *pHistory = TOL_MINIMUM;
```

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Pointers

What does the pointer point to?
  Depends upon the system, may not always be RAM

Two types of architecture
  Unified Memory - Motorola
    All devices, RAM, etc. share the same address space
    0x2000 may be memory, a temperature sensor, hard disk
  Split I/O – Intel
    Separate addresses for I/O and memory
    Hard disk, PCI cards – I/O address space, special assembly instructions to access

A device can choose to respond however it wants to read and write
  Thus, a write with bit 7 set may behave differently than a write with bit 7 clear
  Need to understand the device's programming model or interface

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Pointers

Embedded Programming Example

Given:
```
Temperature       0x2500          float
AC        0x2520          byte
```
If temp>80 then turn on AC by setting bit 0 to true

```
    float * pfTemp;
    char * pAC;

    pfTemp = (float *) 0x2500;
    pAC =  (char *) 0x2520;

    if ( *pfTemp > 80 )
        *pAC = *pAC | 0x01;
```

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Memory Diagram Example

- Assume the following C code
```
int myInt;
char myArray[10] = "CPRE281x";
char *myCharAddress;
int *myIntAddress;

myCharAddress = myArray;
myIntAddress = &myInt;
myInt = 200;
```
- What is *myIntAddress?
- What is *myCharAddress?
- What is *myCharAddress++?
  - What is myCharAddress now?
  - What is *(myCharAddress++)?
- What is *myIntAddress++?

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Operations in C

Arithmetic operators: + - * / % ()

Shift: the shift operation may be done via an arithmetic shift or by a logical shift

Arithmetic – MSB stays the same on a right shift
Logical – Always shift in a zero

```
0x0F >> 2   =       0x03;
0x0F << 2   =       0x3C;
0x9F >> 1   =
```

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Operator Precedence

```
~    !  - (unary)    ++    --
*    / %                          arithmetic
+    -
<<   >>                          bit shift
<    <=>     >=                  relational
==   !=
&                                bitwise logical
^
|
&&                               Boolean
||
```

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Functions

- Goal – Calculate some value or do some task
- Subroutines – May/may not return a value
- Syntax
  ```
  ReturnType      FunctionName
  (Type Parameter1Name, Type Parameter2Name, …)
  {
      return (expression of ReturnType);
  }
  ```
- main function is the startup point for all C programs
  ```
  main ()
  { }
  ```

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Functions

- Return Types

```
void            No Return Value
```

May return any variable type but an array
Note: Don't return a pointer to a local variable (more later)

- Examples
  ```
  return (0);
  return (nVal);
  return 1;
  return;             /* void function */
  ```
- *return* keyword immediately exits the function

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Functions

Parameters
- May have zero or more parameters
  Typically, standard practice is to keep the number of parameters below 5 to 8
- Any type, even an array
  void PassArray (char szString[])
  For an array, may or may not declare size
  If the size is not declared, make sure to either know the size ahead of time or to pass the size in as a parameter
  Arrays are passed in as pointers
- All parameters are local variables, i.e. altering the local variable does not affect the actual caller unless the variable is a pointer

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Functions

Prototyping
- How does C look up a function?
  C → top-down compilation
  Compiler only knows about what it has seen so far
    i.e at line 20, knows contents of lines 1-20
- Problem: Write the function definition at the bottom, call it at the top
    Solution 1: Move the function definition earlier
    Solution 2: Write a prototype
- Prototype – Tells the compiler the function is defined somewhere in the code
    If the function is prototyped but not defined, linker error

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Functions

Prototype

Declaration or header line of function, up to first curly brace, plus semicolon

    No semicolon = compiler expects function body (i.e., code)

    Semicolon = prototype

- **Declaration**

```
void WritePrototype (char szString[], short nStringLen)
    {}
```

- **Prototype**

```
void WritePrototype (char szString[], short nStringLen);
```

- **Call**

Syntax: FunctionName (parameter1, parameter2, etc.);

```
if(x > 5)
    WritePrototype(szName,20);
```

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Functions

Passing Variables

Can pass via one of two ways:

1. Pass to be read only   (Write – No effect)
2. Pass allowing changes   (Write – Changes actual variables)

Pass by value ("call by value"), i.e. no changes

```
void DoValue (int, float, char);
…
DoValue (5, 2.5, 'A');
DoValue (nTest, fPressure, byInput);
```

Value – A local variable on the stack

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Functions

Pass by pointer ("call by reference")

    i.e., allow changes

```
void DoChanges (int *, float *, char[]);
…
DoChanges(5, 2.5,"test");/* Can't do this,
  need a variable to use */

DoChanges(&nTest,&fPressure,szName);
```

- In order to allow changes to the variable, must pass as a pointer

- Memory Address – Access to actual variable itself

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Functions

How does this happen?

Parameters are set up as local variables

- Created on the stack
- Visible only to the function
- Enter the function: Space is created
- Exit the function: Space is destroyed
  - Not really destroyed, just changed to garbage status

Why is returning a pointer to a local variable bad?

Return a value – OK – actual value and mechanisms are set up for that

Return an address – Address to memory that may/may not be garbage

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Functions

Global vs. Local

Global variable

- Declared outside of all functions
- May be initialized upon program startup
- Visible and usable everywhere from .c file

What happens when local/global have the same name?

- Local takes precedence

Summary

- Local – declared inside of a function, visible only to function
- Global – declared outside all functions, visible to all functions

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Functions

What happens when you want a local variable to stick around but do not want to use a global variable?

Create a *static* variable

Syntax:

    static Type   Name;

Static variables are initialized once

    Think of static variables as a "local" global

    Sticks around (has persistence) but only the function can access it

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Control-Flow in C

Flow Control – Making the program behave in a particular manner depending on the input given to the program.

Why do we need flow control?
    Not all program parts are executed all of the time, i.e., we want the program to intelligently choose what to do.
Statements for Boolean flow control
    if, else if, else
The evaluation for Boolean flow control is done on a TRUE / FALSE basis. TRUE / FALSE in the context of a computer is defined as non-zero (TRUE) or zero (FALSE).
    -1, 5, 15, 225, 325.33   TRUE
    0   FALSE

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Flow Control/Control FLow in C

if, else if, else
Must always have "if"; may/may not have "else if" or "else"
Syntax
```
if ( Condition1)
{       …
}
  else if (Condition2)
  {          …
  }
  else if (Condition3)
  {          …
  }
  else
  {          …
  }
```

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Flow Control/Control Flow in C

Follows a level hierarchy
- *else if* statements are only evaluated if all previous *if* and *else if* conditions have failed for the block
- *else* statements are only executed if all previous conditions have failed

Why is how if statements are evaluated important?
- Helps in the design of efficient logic
- Know if a condition is evaluated, all previous conditions up to that point have failed
- For example, in the above syntax example, the *else if (Condition2)* will only be executed if Condition1 is false.

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Flow Control/Control Flow in C

Example

```
if ( nVal > 10)
  {
      nVal += 5;
  }
  else if (nVal > 5)          /* If we reach
  this point, */
  {                    /* nVal must be <= 10 */
      nVal -= 3;
  }
  else                        /* If we reach
  this point, */
{                /* nVal must be <= 10 and  */
      nVal = 0;        /* nVal must be <= 5 */
}
```

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Flow Control/Control Flow in C

Comparison (Relational Operators) – Numeric
`>` (greater), `>=` (geq), `<` (less), `<=` (leq), `==` (Equal), `!=` (Not Equal)
Comparison gives a result of zero (FALSE) or !zero (TRUE).
   A TRUE result may not necessarily be a 1
Equality   Double equals sign   `==`
   `=` Assigns a value
   `==` Tests for equality, returns non-zero or zero
`if (nVal == 5)` **versus** `if (nVal = 5)`
   The second expression always evaluates to TRUE.
     Why?
Multiple condition tie together using Boolean (logical) operators, `&&` (AND), `||` (OR), `!` (NOT)
```
        if ( (nVal > 0) && (nArea < 10))
        if( (nVal < 3) || (nVal > 50))
        if ( ! (nVal <= 10) )
```

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Flow Control/Control Flow in C

Conditions are evaluated using *lazy evaluation.*
   Lazy evaluation – Once a condition is found that completes the condition, stop
OR   any condition is found to be TRUE   1 OR anything = 1
AND any condition is found to be FALSE   0 AND anything = 0

Why is lazy evaluation important?
Makes code run faster – skips unnecessary code
     Know condition will/will not evaluate, why evaluate other terms
Can use lazy evaluation to guard against unwanted conditions
     Checking for a NULL pointer before using the pointer

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