Computer Labs: Introduction to C

2º MIEIC

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C vs. C++

- C++ is a **super**-set of C
    - C++ has classes – facilitates OO programming
    - C++ has references – safer and simpler than C pointers

C and Object Oriented Programming

- It is possible, and often desirable, to use OO programming in C
- A “class” may be implemented in a compilation unit, i.e. a file
  - We can use the keyword `static` to hide some aspects of the “class”' implementation from the other code
  - There are yet some issues related to the visibility/accessibility of the data and functions that we’ll address later
- For each “class” we can define a header file containing its public interface
  - The function prototypes of its “public methods”
  - The data structures defined for the “class” and used in its public “methods”

I/O in C

- C provides standard streams for I/O:

  `stdin`

  `stdout`

  `stderr`
- But C does not have the `cin` and `cout` objects nor the `>>` or the `<<` operators
  - C does not support classes
- Instead you should use the functions:

  `scanf`

  `printf` or `fprintf()`

  declared in `<stdio.h>`

printf()

```
printf("video_txt:: vt_print_string(%s, %lu, %lu, 0x%X)\n",
str, row, col, (unsigned)attr);
```

- The first argument is the format string, which comprises:
  - Standard characters, which will be printed verbatim
  - Conversion specifications, which start with a `%` character
  - Format characters, such as `\n` or `\t`, for newline and tabs.
- The syntax of the conversion specifications is somewhat complex, but at least must specify the types of the values to be printed:
  - `%c` for a character, `%x` for an unsigned integer in hexadecimal, `%d` for an integer in decimal, `%u` for an unsigned integer in decimal, `%l` for a long in decimal, `%lu` for an unsigned long in decimal, `%s` for a string, `%p` for an address
- The remaining arguments should:
  - Match in number that of conversion specifications;
  - Have types compatible to those of the corresponding conversion specification
    - The first conversion specification refers to the 2nd argument, and so on

scanf()

```
scanf("Origin: code = %c, attr = 0x%x, row = %d, col = %d",
         &ch, &attr, &row, &col);
```

- The first argument is the format string, which comprises:
  - Normal characters, which will be printed verbatim – seldom used
  - Conversion specifications, which start with a `%` character
  - White spaces, which match any number, including zero, of white space characters (space, tab, newline, etc.)
- The syntax of the conversion specifications is similar to that of that used in `printf()`, with minor variations
- The remaining arguments should:
  - Match in number that of conversion specifications;
  - Be addresses of variables (**pointers**) of types compatible to those of the corresponding conversion specification
    - The first conversion specification refers to the 2nd argument, and so on
- Returns the number of items successfully matched and assigned (returns immediately if a conversion specification fails)

C Variables and Memory

- C variables abstract memory, and in particular memory addresses.
- When we declare a variable, e.g.:

  ```
  int n;  /* Signed int variable */
  ```

  what the compiler does is to allocate a region of the process' address space large enough to contain the value of a signed integer variable, usually 4 bytes;
- Subsequently, while that declaration is in effect (this is usually called the **scope** of the declaration), uses of this variable name translate into accesses to its memory region:

  ```
  n = 2*n;  /* Double the value of n */
  ```

- However, in C, almost any "real world" program must explicitly use addresses
  - C++ provides references which are substitutes of C addresses that work in most cases

C Pointers

- A C pointer is a data type whose values are memory addresses.
  - Program variables are stored in memory
  - Other C entities are also memory addresses
- C provides two basic operators to support pointers:

  & to obtain the address of a variable. E.g.

  ```
  p = &n; /* Initialize pointer p with
             the address of variable n */
  ```

  * to dereference the pointer, i.e. to read/write the memory positions it refers to.

  ```
  *p = 8; /* Assign the value 8 to variable n */
  ```
- To declare a pointer (variable), use the * operator:

  ```
  int *p; /* Variable/pointer p points to integers or
             the value pointed to by p is of type int */
  ```
- Use of pointers in C is similar to the use of indirect addressing in assembly code, and as prone to errors.

C Pointers and Arrays

- The elements of an array are stored in consecutive memory positions
- In C, the name of an array is the address of the first element of that array:

  ```
  int a[5];
  p = a;          /* set p to point to the first element *
  p = & (a[0]); /* same as above */
  ```

- C supports pointer arithmetic – meaningful only when used with arrays. E.g. to iterate through the elements of an array using a pointer:

  ```
  for( i = 0, p = a; i < 5; i++, p++) {
      ...
  }
  ```

  or, without using variable `i`:

  ```
  for( p = a; p-a < 5; p++) {
      ...
  }
  ```

  IMP: Pointer `p` must be declared to point to variables of the type of the elements of array `a`.

C Pointers and Pointer Arithmetic: `vt_fill()`

- Actually, pointer arithmetic may be used when we want to access a collection of data items of the same type that are layed consecutively in memory. E.g., the characters and its attributes of VRAM in text mode.

```
static char *video_mem;     /* Address to which VRAM is mapped
static unsigned scr_width; /* Width of screen in columns */
static unsigned scr_lines; /* Height of screen in lines */

void vt_fill(char ch, char attr) {
  int i;
  char *ptr;
  ptr = video_mem;

  for(i = 0; i< scr_width*scr_lines; i++, ptr++) {
```

- Variables `video_mem`, etc. are global, but static
- `ptr++` takes advantage of pointer arithmetic (here just adds one, because in C each character takes only 1 byte)

Strings and Pointers in C: `vt_print_string()`

- A string is an array of characters terminated by character code 0x00 (zero), also know as *end of string* character.
  - In C, a string is completely defined by the address of its first character

    ```
    #define HELLO "Hello, World!"
    ...
    char *p = HELLO; /* Set p to point to string HELLO */
    for( len = 0; *p != 0; p++, len++);
    ```
- The C standard library provides a set of string operations, that are declared in `<string.h>`

  ```
  #include <string.h>
  ...
  char *p = HELLO; /* Set p to point to string HELLO */
  len = strlen(p);
  ```
- Array names and string literals are constants not variables. The following is **WRONG**:

  ```
  char a[20];
  a = HELLO;    /* This is similar to 2 = 5; */
  HELLO = a;    /* Same as above */
  ```

  may use instead:

  ```
  strncpy(a, HELLO, 20); /* If strncpy is not ... */
  ```

Structs and Pointers: The −> operator

- C structs can be used to define structured types:

  ```
  struct vt_info {
      /* VRAM info */
      unsigned long vram_size; /* size in bytes of VRAM */
      void * vram_base;        /* VRAM physical address */
      /* Text mode resolution */
      unsigned scr_width;      /* # columns of the screen */
      unsigned scr_lines;      /* # lines of the screen */
  };
  struct vt_info vi, *vip;
  ```

- To access to a struct's member use the `.` operator:

  ```
      vi.scr_width = NO_COLS;
  ```

  Using a pointer to a struct:

  ```
      vip = &vi;
      (*vip).scr_width = NO_COLS;
  ```

  or more readable (better):

  ```
      vip->scr_width = NO_COLS;
  ```

Structs and Typedef

- To initialize on declaration is simpler:

```
     struct vt_info vi = { VRAM_SIZE, VRAM_PHYS,
                           NO_COLS, NO_LINES };
```

- C structs are often used with `typedef`, a construct that allows to define new names for a type. For example:

```
typedef struct vt_info vt_info_t;

vt_info_t vi, *vip;
```

- Basically, this means that instead of writing `struct vt_info`, we can write only `vt_info_t`
- Actually, with `typedef` we need not give a name to the struct:

```
typedef struct {
     /* VRAM info */
     unsigned long vram_size; /* size in bytes of VRAM */
     void * vram_base;        /* VRAM physical address */
     /* Text mode resolution */
     unsigned scr_width;      /* # columns of the screen */
     unsigned scr_lines;      /* # lines of the screen */
} vt_info_t;
```

Lab Preparation: Again

- It is a good practice to test your code gradually as you write it

Issue How can you test `vt_fill()` and `vb_blank()` before class, if you do not have Minix 3 installed yet?

Solution I've written a few functions that emulate VRAM

- They use only standard C functions
- They have been tested in Linux (but it should be possible to develop and test in Windows)
- They require a terminal emulator (Linux terminal)

Emulation Environment

VRAM Is emulated as a two-dimensional array in `vt_info.c`.

```
static char video_mem[NO_LINES][NO_COLUMNS*2];
```

- Note that although the name is the same, there are not name conflicts with the variable declared in `video_txt.c`
  - They are both declared `static` in different source files, thus their scope is disjoint
- The function `vt_info_get()` has been changed accordingly
- Thus, changes that would be done to VRAM are now done in this array

Screen updating This is done by means of function `vt_update_display()` in `video_txt.c`

- It copies the content of the `video_mem` array to the standard output.

Changes to the Code Provided

- With exception of `vt_info.c`, there is only one version of the source files and of the header files
  - The file `vt_info.c` is provided for emulation purposes, in Minix 3, you'll use a library: `libvt.a`
- However, changes to the code were still necessary

  `lab1.c` This includes `main()`
    - Include files at the top
    - Invocation of `vt_update_display()` at the end of `main()`, rather than `sef_startup()`
    - Different versions for `print_usage()`
    - Blanking the screen requires writing a printable character

  `video_txt.c` This is the file you need to complete
    - Include files at the top
    - `vt_init()` which does not require mappings
- In any case, **you need to develop your code as if you were writing to VRAM**
  - That code should work fine in the emulation environment
  - Conversely, if your code does not work in the emulation environment, it will not work in Minix 3.

Code Generation

- To use a single file of each source code file, we have used the `#ifdef` and `#ifndef` directives of the C pre-processor
- Thus to compile the code in the emulation environment, you need to define the constant `EMUL`
  - We already provide you with the necessary `Makefile`.
  - In Linux, all you need is to type `make`. (This is likely to work in the MacOS as well.)
  - In Windows, you may have to invoke the C compiler in a different way.
- The `Makefile` for Minix 3 is different:
  - We take advantage of the build system for device drivers provided in Minix 3
  - It is included in the VMware VM image

C Program Compilation

- A C program source code may be in different files
  - In each lab assignment you'll be asked to write a set of functions, usually in a single file
  - In addition, we'll provide the file for testing in a different file

  IMP: Following this approach, at the end of the lab assignments you'll have the I/O code for your project
- To compile each file to object code use the `-c` switch. E.g.:

  ```
  > gcc -DEMUL -Wall -c video_txt.c
  ```

  - `gcc` requires a C source file to have the `.c` extension
  - `-DEMUL` defines the `EMUL` macro, to compile for emulation
  - Always use the `-Wall` option, so that `gcc` reports all warnings
- To link all the object code files and generate the executable program use the `-o` switch. E.g.:

  ```
  > gcc vt_info.o video_txt.o lab1.o -o lab1
  ```
- Finally, you can run the program, by invoking it:

  ```
  > ./lab1
  ```