#### C for math folks

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Why use C?

#### Why use C?

- To a first-order approximation: don't bother! Modern software such as Mathematica, Maple, Matlab, Python, etc. free you from the kinds of low-level details that C requires you to think about.
- But ... every once in a while, primarily for performance reasons, you'll need to code all or part of an application in C.
- In my industry career, I found that the paradigm was: prototype in Matlab (the code is faster to write), deploy in C (the code runs faster). You may need C (or even Fortran!) for certain jobs, and/or when working with certain collaborators.
- C and C++ are the languages that higher-level languages are written in. True software wizardry (if that is your desire) requires mastery of C.

# History

Unix and C were born the same year I was. Back in those days, sideburns and horn-rimmed glasses were really cool and people were walking on the moon. Also, the accepted wisdom was that whereas applications could be written in high-level languages like COBOL, Fortran, and PL/I, operating systems needed to be coded entirely in assembler.

Problem: each CPU architecture has its own completely different assembly language. This made porting operating systems a pain!

Solution: Brian Kernighan and Dennis Ritchie (immortalized ever after as "K&R") flew their freak flag and wrote a mid-level language which maps rather directly to machine language. It turns out 95% or so of the OS code *could* be written in C.

Much has changed in the almost 40 years since, but still, C is a mid-level language: portable, efficient, and plain.

#### What makes C different?

Years ago, one would say "Here's how Matlab is different from C." Now, in the 21st century, higher-level languages are often the first ones most of us encounter — and I find myself telling you how C is different from Matlab.

- C is a compiled language. Instead of just running your program, you must first have another program (the compiler) translate it into machine language. Then, you execute that program.

  Example: python hello.py (1 step) vs. gcc -Wall -Werror hello.c -o hello; ./hello (2 steps).

  (I always use the flags -Wall to enable all warnings and -Werror to treat warnings as errors and so should you.)
- C is a strongly typed language. In Matlab, x=[1.0:0.1:4.0] or x='abc' or whatever. In C, you have to say whether x is an integer, floating-point number, etc.
- There are other differences which we'll see as we go along.

First example

#### demo1.c

Here's the obligatory first example:

```
#include <stdio.h>
int main(void)
{
    printf("Hello, world!\n");
    return 0;
To run it, do
gcc -Wall -Werror demo1.c -o demo1
./demo1
```

#### **Functions**

- There are those darned header files (e.g. stdio.h)! We'll soon see why they matter.
- Execution starts at main. Command-line arguments may be passed in; see below.
- The syntax for a function is output-type function-name (arguments ...) { body ... }. The keyword void means no arguments. Subroutines, i.e. functions with no return value, should have return type void.
- Return 0 from main to signal successful completion back to the shell. (You can return 1 for an abnormal exit.) When you start scripting multiple invocations of your program, you may find that this is a good habit.
- There are bloody holy wars about indentation style, which other authors will engage in. I won't comment. As long as you don't reformat my perfect, beautiful code, we're at peace.

#### **Second example**

#### demo2.c

Even this simple example contains much of what you need to know:

```
#include <stdio.h> // For the printf prototype
#include <string.h> // For the sscanf prototype
#include <stdlib.h> // For the exit prototype
#include <math.h> // For the sin prototype
int main(int argc, char ** argv)
{
   int n = 40:
   int i;
   float x, y;
   if (argc == 2) {
        if (sscanf(argv[1], "n=%d", &n) != 1) {
           fprintf(stderr, "Usage: %s [n=...]\n", argv[0]);
           exit(1):
       }
   for (i = 0; i < n; i++) { // Here is a comment.}
       x = (float)i/n * 2.0 * M_PI;
       v = sin(x):
       printf("%3d %11.7f %11.7f\n", i, x, y);
   return 0:
}
```

# Command-line arguments; control blocks

- I'll tell you about header files (#include ...) soon, I promise!
- Command-line arguments are passed from the shell into your C program through the argv array. The program name is always argv [0]. If you type ./demo2 xyz pdq at the shell prompt, then the C program gets argc=3, with argv [0]="./demo2", argv [1]="xyz", and argv [2]="pdq". How you handle command-line parsing is completely up to you including determining whether argument strings are valid string representations of integers, etc.
- Beginnings and endings of control blocks are done with curly braces.
   This is much cleaner than begin and end keywords. (Whitespace control structure, e.g. in Python, is even cleaner!)

#### Comments

All variables are typed, and must be declared at the top of the function. The main types are as follows (remember 8 bits are one byte):

- int: signed integer, usually 32-bit i.e.  $-2^{31} \le n < 2^{31}$ .
- unsigned: unsigned integer, also usually 32-bit, so  $0 \le n < 2^{32}$ .
- float: single-precision IEEE float, 32 bits: about 7 sigfigs.
- double: double-precision IEEE float, 64 bits: about 13 sigfigs.
- char: single characters, 8 bits.
- Zero-based arrays of any type, e.g. int x[10] has elements x[0] through x[9].
- Pointers to variables or starts of arrays, e.g. int \* px = &n or int
   \* px = &x[0]. The ampersand (&) is the address-of operator which gives the location of an item in RAM.
- One of the most powerful features of C is the struct: compound data types. There's no time to talk about them today, alas.
- I won't talk about short or long either, let alone long long.

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# Bits and bytes

 Why do we care about the number of bits anyway? Higher-level languages don't ask me to care — why should C?

```
Python:
print 1*2*3*4*5*6*7*8*9*10*11*12*13*14*15
1307674368000
C:
int x = 1*2*3*4*5*6*7*8*9*10*11*12*13*14*15;
printf("%d\n", x);
2004310016
```

What happened? 32-bit arithmetic is done mod  $2^{32}$ . Surprise! There are arbitrary-precision subroutine libraries, but they're add-ons. (Batteries not included.)

# Mixed types; for loops

- Why did I type (float)i/n instead of i/n? In fact, what's 7/4?
   Not 1.75 but 1. (Another surprise!) Integer division is quotient and remainder. If you want a floating-point quotient of integers, cast one or both operands to float first. (int operand int is int; int operand float is float. This is called promotion.)
- C has a wonderfully flexible for-loop structure:

```
for (initial statement(s); continuation test; update statement(s)) {
   body ...
   body ...
}

which means
initial statement(s);
while (continuation test is true) {
   body ...
   body ...
   body ...
   body ...
   update statement(s);
}
```

# Input from strings

 The sscanf routine reads strings and stores values into specified variables. It returns the number of variables successfully scanned. Here, I typed

```
if (sscanf(argv[1], "n=%d", &n) != 1) {
    fprintf(stderr, "Usage: %s [n=...]\n", argv[0]);
    exit(1);
}
```

The sscanf routine takes argv[1] which the user typed in via ./demo2 n=10. It sees if argv[1] starts with n=, followed by numerical characters. If so, it stuffs the resulting number (here, 10) into n and returns 1. Else, the value of n is undefined and sscanf returns 0.

## Formatted output

- Formatted I/O consists of formatted input (e.g. sscanf to scan from string and fscanf to scan from a file) and formatted output (e.g. printf).
- Unlike higher-level languages, where a single print or disp routine
  will print out anything you throw its way, in C you need to use format
  specifiers (e.g. %3d) which depend on the data type being printed out.
- The main format types are d, f, and lf for integer, float, and double, respectively. Also e and le to print floats/doubles in scientific notation.
- In between the % and the format type are field widths: e.g. %4d for making integers take up four spaces, and %11.7f for 11 characters wide with 7 of those characters after the decimal point.

## Libraries and linking

Compile this with gcc -Wall -Werror demo2.c -o demo2 and you get:

```
/tmp/ccoFJT8z.o: In function 'main':
demo2.c:(.text+0xa7): undefined reference to 'sin'
collect2: ld returned 1 exit status
```

Compile instead with gcc -Wall -Werror demo2.c -o demo2 -lm and it works. The problem is that sin is in the math library. In standard batteries-not-included fashion ("Oh, you wanted to do math? All righty then."), the C linker only links in libraries you specify via -lname. The exception is the so-called C library, with things like printf, exit, etc.

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#### The result

```
./demo2 10
Usage: ./demo2 [n=...]
./demo2 n=10
     0.0000000 0.0000000
 0
     0.6283185 0.5877852
     1.2566371 0.9510565
 3
     1.8849556 0.9510565
 4
     2.5132742 0.5877852
 5
     3.1415927
                -0.000001
 6
     3.7699113
                -0.5877854
     4.3982296
                -0.9510565
 8
     5.0265484
                -0.9510565
 9
     5.6548667
                -0.5877853
```

Third example

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## Multiple files and subroutines

#### Here is the file demo3.c.

```
#include <stdio.h> // For the printf prototype
#include <string.h> // For the sscanf prototype
#include <stdlib.h> // For the exit prototype
#include <math.h> // For the sin prototype
#include "my_stuff.h" // For the my_function prototype
int main(int argc, char ** argv)
   int n = 12:
   int i;
   float c = 2.7;
   float x, y;
   for (i = 0; i < n; i++) {
        x = (float)i/n * 4.0:
        y = my_function(x, c); // Mystery function ...
       printf("%3d %11.7f %11.7f\n", i, x, y);
   return 0;
}
```

## Multiple files and subroutines

Here is the file my\_stuff.h ...

```
#ifndef MY_STUFF_H
#define MY_CONSTANT 2.0
// Computes x to the c power.
float my_function(float x, float c);
#endif //MY_STUFF_H
```

...and here's my\_stuff.c.

```
#include <math.h>
#include "my_stuff.h"
// Computes x to the c power.
float my_function(float x, float c)
{
    return pow(x, c);
}
```

Note (huge bummer for math folks!!) that the C language does not have an exponentiation operator: \*\* has to do with pointers to pointers, and  $\hat{}$  is a bitwise XOR. For squaring you can do x\*x, and so on, but in general you need to call the pow function.

# Output

```
./demo3
      0.000000
                   0.0000000
 0
 1
      0.3333333
                   0.0514959
 2
      0.6666667
                   0.3346213
 3
      1.0000000
                   1.0000000
      1.3333334
 4
                   2.1743760
 5
      1.6666666
                   3.9718387
 6
      2.0000000
                   6.4980192
      2.3333333
                   9.8522921
 8
      2.6666667
                  14.1291370
 9
      3.0000000
                  19.4190254
10
      3.3333333
                  25.8090858
11
      3.6666667
                  33.3835793
```

#### Headers

- Always put the #ifdef and #endif jazz at the top and bottom of your headers, so you don't get "multiply defined ..." errors when headers are included more than once (perhaps indirectly — headers can include other headers!).
- The compiler doesn't like you calling a function it doesn't already know something about. It wants to have seen the prototype

```
float my_function(float x, float c);
before it sees you calling the function:
```

```
y = my_function(x, c); // Mystery function ...
```

This way it knows the data types of the arguments and the return value.

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#### Headers

Header files (i.e. .h) files contain principally two things:

- (1) Function prototypes, e.g. math.h has something like double sin(double x):
- (2) Constant definitions, e.g.

```
# define M_PI 3.14159265358979323846 /* pi */
```

System header files are typically in /usr/include and are included with #include <...>. Your header files are typically in . and are included with #include "...". If you have headers in another directory, e.g. ../project2, then compile with -I../project2 to let the C preprocessor know where to look.

## Names of system headers

Question: OK, so this is really annoying! If I'm calling sin, sscanf, exit, etc., how do I know I need to include math.h, string.h, stdlib.h? Isn't this some sort of sadistic guessing game?!?

Answer: Perhaps so! But you can type man sscanf etc. at the command prompt. Manpages generally do a good job of telling you which header file contains the prototype for the function you're interested in.

## Third example

Compile this with gcc -Wall -Werror demo3.c -o demo3 and you get:

```
/tmp/ccCMgV6x.o: In function 'main':
demo3.c:(.text+0x4a): undefined reference to
'my_function'
collect2: ld returned 1 exit status
```

· Compile instead with

```
gcc -Wall -Werror demo3.c my_stuff.c -o demo3 -lm
```

 Question: If I only made changes to my\_stuff.c and not demo3.c, do I really need to recompile both of them? Answer: Certainly not! This is what makefiles are for. Which is another topic . . . . More

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#### More

- There's a lot more:
  - Pointers
  - Passing arguments by reference
  - Structs
  - Dynamic allocation
  - Reading input from files
  - Interfacing with Matlab
  - Makefiles
  - ...
- Google for "C tutorial" and go nuts!

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