

# Practical Programming Methodology (CMPUT-201)

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## Lecture 9

- Global / Static Variables
- Arrays
- C-Structures

## Global Variables

- Declared **outside of any block**
- Numbers **initialized** with default value 0
- Scope is entire program unless the **static** modifier is used to indicate that the variable's scope is local to the current module
- Should be **avoided** because of potential name conflicts and accidents (every program part can change global variables!)
- Static and global variables are placed in the process data memory segment

## Global Variable Example

```
int global;                // initialized with 0 (*)

float global_pi = 3.1415926535; // everyone can change it!

const float global_e = 2.718; // const prevents this!

static int I_am_local_to_the_current_file; // initialized to 0

int main()
{
    float global;        // (**), masks (*), uninitialized

    global = 5;          // changes local variable (**)
    global_pi = 0.0;    // possibly not intended
}
```

## Global Variables and Multiple Modules

main.c:

```
#include "global.h"

int main()
{
    global_val = 1.0;
    ...
}
```

global.h:

```
#ifndef GLOBAL_H
#define GLOBAL_H

// declaration
extern int global_val;
...
#endif
```

global.c:

```
// definition
int global_val;
...
```

## Static Local Variables

```
int do_something() {
    static int numberOfCalls = 0; // assignment only
    ...                          // done once!!!
    ++numberOfCalls;

    if (!(numberOfCalls % 100)) {
        // print statistics every 100-th call
        ...
    }
}
```

- `static` modifier
- Global variables in disguise
- Initialized before the function is called for the first time
- They keep their values between calls!

## sizeof Operator

`sizeof` operator can be applied to any type or variable

It returns the number of bytes a variable occupies in memory

E.g.

```
sizeof(char) == 1
sizeof(int) == 4 (usually)
sizeof(double) == 8
```

```
int x;
cout << sizeof(x) << endl; // -> 4
```

## Arrays

Arrays group together variables of identical type

E.g. declaring array `a` (8 integers): `int a[8];`

Access by index: `a[i] = 0;`

Elements are laid out consecutively in memory

```
int a[8];
```

address	contents	address	contents
x	..x+3 a[0]	x+16..x+19	a[4]
x+4	..x+7 a[1]	x+20..x+23	a[5]
x+8	..x+11 a[2]	x+24..x+27	a[6]
x+12	..x+15 a[3]	x+28..x+31	a[7]

This array occupies  $8 \cdot \text{sizeof}(\text{int}) = 32$  bytes in memory

## Array Declaration

```
int N;
const int M = 256;

char A[12]; // OK - 12 characters A[0]..A[11]

int B[N]; // not OK! not a constant expression

float C[2*M]; // OK - 512 floats C[0]..C[511]
```

- Syntax: `<type> <ident> [ <const-int-expr> ] ;`
- Integer expression defines the number of objects in the array. In case of simple types, they are not initialized!
- Array index always starts with 0

## Array Initialization

```
int A[4];          // 4 integers - not initialized!
int B[4] = { 4, 3, 2, 1 }; // B[0]=4,..B[3]=1
char C[2] = { 'a','b','c' }; // invalid! too many
char D[] = { 'a','b','c' }; // OK, declares D[3]
int E[2] = { 1 }; // OK, E[0]=1 E[1]=0
```

- `<type> <indent> [{<const-int-expr>}] = {<const-expr>, ..., <const-expr>};`
- The list of constant expressions is evaluated and assigned to the array elements
- If list is shorter than array size, 0s are padded
- Array size can be omitted; it is then equal to the list length

## Multi-Dimensional Arrays

- Arrays with more than one index  
`char page[ROWS][COLS];`  
`int table4[2][2][2][2];`
- Rectangular array of array of ...
- Flat memory layout ("mailbox" format)

```
address  contents
x        : page[0][0] page[0][1] ... page[0][COLS-1]
x+COLS  : page[1][0] page[1][1] ... page[1][COLS-1]
...
x+COLS* : page[ROWS-1][0] ... page[ROWS-1][COLS-1]
(ROWS-1)
total: ROWS*COLS bytes
```

## Example

```
int table[2][2] = { { 0,1 } , { 2,3 } };
// after initialization:
// tab[0][0] = 0, tab[0][1] = 1
// tab[1][0] = 2, tab[1][1] = 3

int add_table_entries()
{
    int s = 0;
    for (int i=0; i < 2; ++i) {
        for (int j=0; j < 2; ++j) {
            s += table[i][j]; // table[i,j] is illegal
        }
    }
    return s;
}
```

## Array Access

- Syntax: `<ident> [ <integer-expression> ]`
- The expression is evaluated and the array element with that index is accessed
- **No index out-of-bounds checks!**

```
#include <cassert>
const int N = 10;
int A[N];

for (int i=1; i <= N; ++i) cout << A[i];
// oops! that's a bug which is hard to detect!

for (int i=1; i <= N; ++i) { // buggy!
    assert(i >= 0 && i < N); // this kills out-of-
    cout << A[i] << " "; // bounds bugs dead!
}
```

## Arrays as Function Parameters

```
const int N = 10;
int A[N];

void sort(int a[]); // doesn't work, what's a's size?
void sort(int a[], int size); // makes more sense
...
sort(A, sizeof(A)/sizeof(A[0])); // OK
```

- Arrays are passed by reference
- An array parameter is essentially the array starting address. There is no size information attached to it! Need to pass number of elements
- Functions cannot return arrays

## Programming with Arrays: Searching and Sorting

- Common computational tasks
- Need to be implemented efficiently
- Details in algorithms/data structure courses such as CMPUT-204
- Here only some basics to illustrate C/C++ programming with arrays:
  - linear search
  - simple sorting

## Search 1

- Task: find an element in an array
- if found, return smallest index, otherwise return -1

```
// precondition: A has at least size elements
// postcondition: returned value is smallest
// index of e in array A, or -1 if not found

int find(int e, const int A[], int size)
{
    for (int i=0; i < size; ++i)
        if (A[i] == e)
            return i;
    return -1;
}
```

## Search 2

Task: return index of maximum array element

```
// precondition: A has at least size > 0 elements
// postcondition: returned value is the index
// of the maximum array element

int indexOfMax(const int A[], int size)
{
    assert(size > 0);
    int max_ind = 0; // current index of maximum value
    int max_val = A[0]; // current maximum value

    for (int i=1; i < size; ++i)
        if (A[i] > max_val) {
            max_val = A[i]; max_ind = i;
        }
    return max_ind;
}
```

## Sorting

Task: sort an array in increasing order

Idea: find maximal element, move it to the end, and apply the same algorithm to the remaining array part ("Selection Sort")

```
// precondition: A has at least size elements
// postcondition: A[0] <= A[1] <=...<= A[size-1]

int sort(int A[], int size)
{
    for (int l=size; l > 1; --l) {
        // swap maximal element in A[0..l-1] with A[l-1]
        swap(A[indexOfMax(A, l)], A[l-1]);
    }
}
```

## C-Structures

```
struct Point {
    int x, y;
};

Point p;

p.x = 100; p.y = 200;

plot(framebuffer, p, color);
```

```
struct Complex {
    float re, im;
};

Complex a, b, c;
a = add(b, c);
```

- Collection of one or more variables
- Grouped together under a single name
- Called "records" in the Algol family
- Structures help organize data

## Struct Definition

```
struct PersonInfo {
    int height;
    int weight;
    Date birthday;
};
```

```
PersonInfo x;

x.height      = 180;
x.weight      = 78;
x.birthday.year = 1965;
x.birthday.month = 4;
x.birthday.day  = 5;
```

- Data members are laid out in consecutive memory locations
- Recursive structure definitions are not allowed
- Data is accessed by the . operator

## Struct Initialization

```
struct Date {
    int year;
    int month;
    int day;
};

Date date = { 1965, 4, 5 };
```

- Structure variables are not initialized by default!
- Explicit initialization: add  
= { <const-expr>, ..., <const-expr> }
- Data members are initialized corresponding to their order in definition

## Structures and Functions

```
struct Complex {
    float re, im;
};

Complex add(const Complex &a, const Complex &b)
{
    Complex r;
    r.re = a.re + b.re; r.im = a.im + b.im;
    return r;
}
```

- Structures can be passed by value or by reference
- Passing by reference is faster
- Returning structs is allowed
- Difference to Java: C-structs are allocated on stack

## Structure Assignment

```
struct Point { int x, y; };

Point p1, p2;

p1 = p2; // equivalent to p1.x = p2.x; p1.y = p2.y;
```

- Structure variables can occur on the lhs of assignments
- Type of the rhs expression must be identical
- All structure members are copied one by one
- By default, structures can't be compared (but see overloading ==, >, ... for [C++ classes](#))

## Struct Memory Layout

- Layout and size of structures depend on compiler and machine architecture!
- In g++ under Linux for Intel/AMD x86 CPUs:
  - ▶ ints are aligned to addresses divisible by 4
  - ▶ shorts are aligned to addresses divisible by 2

```
struct Foo {
    char a; int b; char c;
} x;
```

How x is stored in memory:

```
x.a    1 byte
unused 3 bytes
x.b    4 bytes
x.c    1 byte
unused 3 bytes  total 12
```

```
struct Bar {
    char a; char c; int b;
} y;
```

How y is stored in mem.:

```
y.a    1 byte
y.b    1 byte
unused 2 bytes
y.c    4 bytes total 8
```

## Structure Memory Layout Continued

- Accessing aligned ints is faster than unaligned ints
- Reason: data bus from CPU to memory is 32, 64, or even 128 bits wide
  - ▶ aligned int: just one memory access
  - ▶ unaligned int: possibly two accesses!

physical memory organization: 4-byte words

```
0 1 2 3  int stored at 0..3: 1 access
4 5 6 7  int stored at 5..8: 2 accesses!
8 9 10 11
12 13 14 15
...
```

## Packed Structures in gcc/g++

```
struct Foo {  
    char a; int b; char c;  
} x;
```

How x is stored in memory:

```
x.a    1 byte  
unused 3 bytes  
x.b    4 bytes  
x.c    1 byte  
unused 3 bytes total 12
```

```
struct  
__attribute__((packed)) Foo  
{  
    char a; int b; char c;  
} x;
```

How x is stored now:

```
x.a    1 byte  
x.b    4 bytes  
x.c    1 byte    total 6!
```

- Save memory with `__attribute__((packed))`
- packed structures: smaller, but slower access
- non-standard C language extension
- Compiles only with gcc/g++