

CS 261

Fall 2017

Mike Lam, Professor



Getopt and Debugging

(and some C technicalities)

C operator precedence

- **Precedence** is the order in which operators are applied
 - Example: `2+3*4` means `2+(3*4)` not `(2+3)*4`
 - Multiplication (*) is has **higher precedence** than addition (+)
- In C, some precedence relationships are non-intuitive
 - Member operator (.) is higher than dereference (*)
 - `*ptr.foo` means `*(ptr.foo)` not `(*ptr).foo`
 - This is partially why “->” is such a useful operator
 - Some unary operators (e.g., ++) are higher than dereference (*)
 - `*ptr++` means `*(ptr++)` not `(*ptr)++`
 - Use the latter to apply the operator through a dereference

Full precedence list:

http://en.cppreference.com/w/c/language/operator_precedence

C technicalities

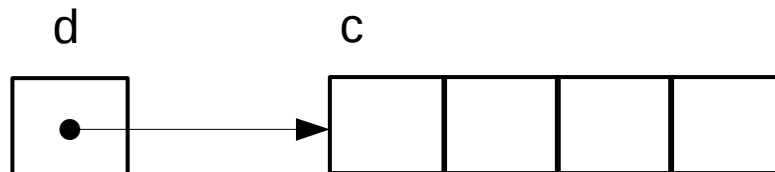
- Zero-length arrays are (generally) not allowed

```
int a[0];    // compiler warning
int b[];     // same as "int b[1];"
```

- Array names are **aliases**, not pointers

```
int c[4];    // c is not (strictly speaking) a pointer
int *d = c;  // d is a pointer
```

- Practically, they behave like constant pointers
- Except that `&c == &c[0]` (which is not true of `d`)
 - And `sizeof(c)` is the size (in bytes) of the whole array



C technicalities

- Nuances: initializing arrays using pointer syntax
 - Generally results in a buffer overrun (compiler warning)

```
int *a = {1, 2, 3, 4} // buffer overrun!
```

- Special case for C strings:

```
char *s = "hello"; // ok, but read-only
```

- String "hello" is stored in a **read-only** section of static data
 - Regardless of whether *s* is local or global
- Pointer *s* is initialized to point to "hello"
- Read-only strings may be re-used by other portions of code

C technicalities

- The type "`void *`" denotes a **generic** pointer
 - No information about what it is pointing to
 - Must **cast** it to a specific pointer type before using it
 - E.g., `(int*)ptr`
 - This can be very dangerous if we're wrong
 - Use it sparingly
 - E.g., return value of `malloc()` where we know the type

C technicalities

- `malloc()` can **fail**
 - Potential cause: memory leak fills up all available memory
 - If `malloc` fails, it will return `NULL`
 - This will cause a segfault when you try to use the pointer
 - You must check for this **every time** you call `malloc`
 - Find a graceful and informative way to fail
 - Printing a message and aborting the program is fine in this course

```
double *temp_data = (double*)malloc(sizeof(double) * ndays);

if (temp_data == NULL) {
    fprintf(stderr, "ERROR: Cannot allocate storage for temperature data\n");
    exit(EXIT_FAILURE);
}
```

<code that uses temp_data>

C technicalities

- Memory is uninitialized by default
 - You should manually initialize values to useful defaults if you need to rely on them
 - One easy way to do this: `memset()`
 - Set all bytes in a region of memory to a given character
 - Often used to "zero out" (set to 0) a structure
 - You could also copy from another region with `memcpy()`
 - Inappropriate for strings because it does not append a null terminator
 - If on the heap, you can initialize and allocate with `calloc()`
 - Alternative to `malloc` that will zero out all allocated bytes
 - Slower than `malloc`!

Thought exercise

- Write a program that takes command-line parameters according to the following usage text:

Usage: ./args [options] <filename>

Valid options:

-a	Print an 'A'
-b	Print a 'B'

Thought exercise

- Write a program that takes command-line parameters according to the following usage text:

Usage: ./args [options] <filename>

Valid options:

-a	Print an 'A'
-b	Print a 'B'

Valid commands:

```
./args file.txt  
./args -a file.txt  
./args -a -b file.txt  
./args -ab file.txt
```

Invalid commands:

```
./args  
./args -a  
./args -c file.txt
```

Thought exercise

- Write a program that takes command-line parameters according to the following usage text:

Usage: ./args [options] <filename>

Valid options:

-a	Print an 'A'
-b	Print a 'B'

```
int main (int argc, char **argv)
{
    // parse options
    for (int i = 0; i < argc; i++) {
        switch (argv[i][1]) {
            case 'a':    a_flag = true;    break;
            case 'b':    b_flag = true;    break;
            default:     report_err();     break;
        }
    }

    // get filename
    char *fn = argv[argc-1];
}
```

Valid commands:

```
./args file.txt
./args -a file.txt
./args -a -b file.txt
./args -ab file.txt
```

Invalid commands:

```
./args
./args -a
./args -c file.txt
```

Thought exercise

- Write a program that takes command-line parameters according to the following usage text:

Usage: ./args [options] <filename>

Valid options:

-a Print an 'A'
-b Print a 'B'

```
int main (int argc, char **argv)
{
    // parse options
    for (int i = 0; i < argc; i++) {
        switch (argv[i][1]) {
            case 'a':    a_flag = true;    break;
            case 'b':    b_flag = true;    break;
            default:     report_err();     break;
        }
    }

    // get filename
    char *fn = argv[argc-1];
}
```

Valid commands:

```
./args file.txt
./args -a file.txt
./args -a -b file.txt
./args -ab file.txt
```

Invalid commands:

```
./args
./args -a
./args -c file.txt
```

What could go wrong?

Thought exercise

- Write a program that takes command-line parameters according to the following usage text:

Usage: ./args [options] <filename>

Valid options:

-a Print an 'A'
-b Print a 'B'

```
int main (int argc, char **argv)
{
    // parse options
    for (int i = 0; i < argc; i++) {
        switch (argv[i][1]) {
            case 'a':    a_flag = true;    break;
            case 'b':    b_flag = true;    break;
            default:     report_err();     break;
        }
    }

    // get filename
    char *fn = argv[argc-1];
}
```

Valid commands:

```
./args file.txt
./args -a file.txt
./args -a -b file.txt
./args -ab file.txt
```

Invalid commands:

```
./args
./args -a
./args -c file.txt
```

What if there's no filename at the end?

What if there are two filenames?

How to handle parameters (e.g., "-n 5")?

How to handle combined flags (e.g., "-ab")?

What if there is no argv[i][1]?

Getopt

- There's a better way: `getopt()` and `getopt_long()`
 - The latter enables longer options (e.g., “--help”)
 - Useful (and mostly standard now), but we won't require it in this course
 - Basic idea: call `getopt()` repeatedly
 - It will return each of the flags individually even if they are grouped or out of order
 - Returns -1 when done
 - Need to pass an **optstring** (list of valid flags as a string)
 - E.g., "abc" indicates that "-a", "-b", and "-c" are valid (any any combinations)
 - Use a colon to indicate a flag that takes a parameter (e.g., "n:" to allow “-n 4”)
- Global variables
 - `optarg`: pointer to string parameter for flags that take them
 - `optind`: index of next flag (use to check for extra arguments at the end!)

Getopt example

```
#include <getopt.h>
```

```
int main (int argc, char **argv)
{
    // parse options
    int opt;
    while ((opt = getopt(argc, argv, "ab")) != -1) {
        switch (opt) {
            case 'a':    a_flag = true;        break;
            case 'b':    b_flag = true;        break;
            default:      report_err();         break;
        }
    }

    // check for and get filename
    if (optind != argc-1) {
        report_err();
        return 1;
    }
    char *fn = argv[optind];
}
```

Much more robust!

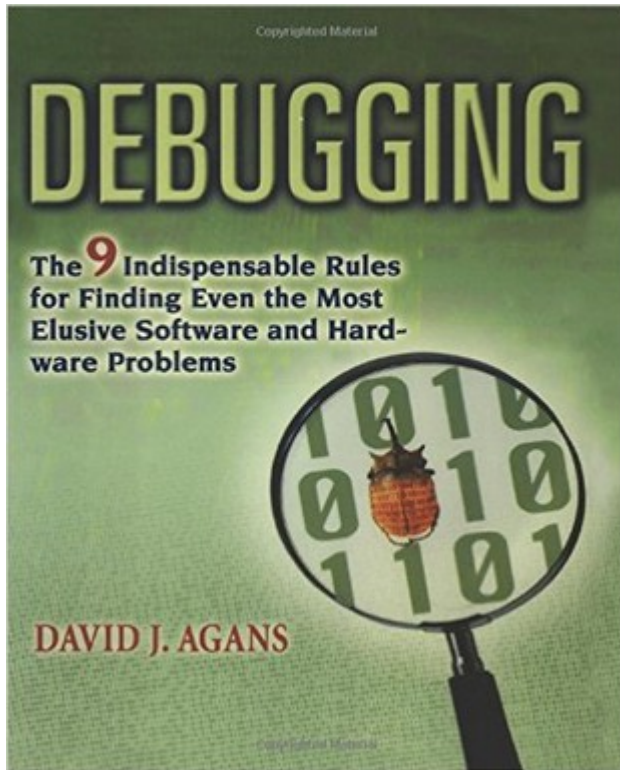
Debugging

- “It’s 11pm and I just wrote 500 lines of code!”
 - “All the functions are there.”
 - “I’m done now, right?”
- “I should probably run some tests”
 - “Just to be sure...”
- “@#\$%, it’s not working!”
 - “But it **looks** like it should work...”

Debugging

- A **software defect** is an error in code that produces incorrect or undesired behavior
 - Colloquially called “bugs”
 - Many types: syntax, logic, integration, concurrency
 - Many causes: typos, incorrect code, design flaws, ambiguous spec
- Fundamental issue: mismatches between user’s expectations and machine’s behavior
 - Proximate cause (symptom) vs. root cause (defect)
 - **Debugging** is the process of starting from the former and working towards discovering the latter
 - Basically: the process of continually asking “why is this happening?”
 - One of the most important practical skills in programming

9 Rules of Debugging



Recommended book
ISBN-13: 978-0814474570

- 1) **Understand the system**
- 2) **Make it fail**
- 3) **Quit guessing and look**
- 4) **Divide and conquer**
- 5) **Change one thing at a time**
- 6) **Keep an audit trail**
- 7) **Check the obvious**
- 8) **Get a fresh view**
- 9) **If you didn't fix it, it ain't fixed**

Debugging

- The nature of C makes it possible to explore the kinds of things we want to explore in CS 261
 - However, the power comes at a cost: it is easier to make a mistake!
- Debugging in C will be harder than it was in Java
 - The failure point (e.g., segfault location) is usually not where the bug is!
- Main question: **Where is the earliest point at which the program diverges from your expectations?**
 - Use debug output or a debugger tool to help
- Other useful questions:
 - What **data type(s)** are you dealing with?
 - Which **memory regions** are involved?
 - What is the **size** and **lifetime** of the variables?

Debuggers

- A **debugger** (e.g., **gdb**) is a program that allows you to examine another program while it is running
 - Execute the program step-by-step
 - Examine the contents of memory at any point
 - Add breakpoints and watchpoints
 - Reverse execution to find the root cause
- Debuggers are more useful with extra information from the compiler
 - In gcc, compile with the “-g” option to enable this
 - It’s also useful to disable optimization (“-O0”)

GDB quick reference

`run <args>` - begin/restart execution

`start <args>` - begin/restart execution and pause at main

`break <func>` - set a **breakpoint** ("pause here") at the beginning of a function

`break <file>:<line>` - set a breakpoint at a specific line of code

`watch <loc>` - pause when a specific variable or memory location changes

`continue` - resume execution (until a breakpoint, watchpoint, or segfault)

`next` - run one line of code then pause (skips over function calls)

`step` - run one line then pause (descends into functions)

`print <expr>` - print current value of a variable or expression

`print /x <expr>` - print current value of a variable or expression in hex

`ptype <expr>` - print the type of a variable or expression

`backtrace` - print **stack trace** (list of active functions on the stack)

(`up` and `down` to cycle through function call sites)

`quit` - exit GDB

**most of these can be abbreviated to the first letter (e.g., 'p' for 'print')
(see also CS:APP 3.10.2 and Fig. 3.39)**

Software testing

- **Test-Driven Development**: write the tests first!
 - Popular software engineering technique
 - Describe the behavior of correct code
 - Write a series of **test cases** to test individual features
 - Make sure you consider edge/corner cases!
 - Save these tests in a **test suite** that is easy to run
 - THEN write the code
 - Now you have some indication of when you're "done"
 - Write more tests as you go if new cases arise

Project tip: don't rely on the provided test suite—devise your own tests!

Exercise

- Write a program (args.c) that takes command-line parameters according to the following usage text:

Usage: ./args [options] <filename>

Valid options:

-a	Print an 'A'
-b	Print a 'B'
-c	Print a 'C'
-n <i>	Print i copies of 'N'

Valid commands:

```
./args file.txt
./args -a file.txt
./args -a -c file.txt
./args -abc file.txt
./args -n 4 file.txt
./args -a -n4 file.txt
./args -a -n4 -c file.txt
```

Invalid commands:

```
./args
./args -a
./args -n file.txt
```