



User-Defined Functions Appendix II: More on C-Programming

Advanced UDF
Modeling Course

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Introduction to C

- ◆ Why write in C?
- ◆ Topics covered in this brief introduction
 - C functions
 - C data types
 - Pointers, arrays & structures
 - Expressions and statements
 - C arithmetic and logical operators
 - Flow control
 - File I/O
 - C preprocessor

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Why C?

- ◆ The FLUENT solver is written in C
- ◆ C is a versatile language with many versatile features
- ◆ Current UDF internal compiler supports only a subset of ANSI C

C Functions (1)

- ◆ The basic form of a C function:

<code>/* A simple C function */</code>	A comment line
<code>#include "udf.h"</code>	A preprocessor directive for including files
<code>#define PI 3.14159</code>	A preprocessor directive for macro substitution
<code>float a = 1.2345;</code>	A variable with "global" scope, outside of {}
<code>float myfunction(int x)</code>	Function declaration (returns a float type)
<code>{</code>	Left curly brace opens body of function
<code> int y;</code>	Variable declarations
<code> float z;</code>	
<code> y = 11;</code>	Set y = 11
<code> z = a*(x+y)*PI;</code>	Compute z
<code> printf("Value is %f",z);</code>	Print z to screen
<code> return z;</code>	Return float value
<code>}</code>	Right curly brace closes body of function

C Functions (2)

- ◆ All C statements must end with a semicolon (;)
- ◆ Comments are delineated by the character sequence
/* . . . */
 - comments can be placed anywhere in a C listing
 - use comments liberally to document your UDFs
- ◆ Groups of C statements are enclosed by curly braces ({ })

C Functions (3)

- ◆ Variables defined within a { } body are local to that group (local scope)
- ◆ Variables defined outside the function body can be used by all functions which follow the definition (global scope)
- ◆ If a function is defined with a specific type, it must return a value of the same type (using the return statement). If it doesn't return a value, it must be declared void

C Functions (4)

- ◆ C compilers include a library of standard math, I/O, and utility functions which can be used in your C code
- ◆ Some common I/O functions
 - **scanf(...)** - formatted read (like FORTRAN READ)
 - **printf(...)** - formatted print (like FORTRAN WRITE)
- ◆ Some common mathematical functions
 - **sin(x)** - sine function
 - **cos(x)** - cosine function
 - **exp(x)** - exponential function
 - **sqrt(x)** - square root function

Comparison with FORTRAN

- ◆ C functions are similar to FORTRAN function subroutines

```
/* A simple C function */
int myfunction(int x)
{
    int y,z;
    y = 11;
    z = x+y;
    printf("z = %d",z);
    return z;
}
```

```
C An equivalent FORTRAN function
      INTEGER FUNCTION MYFUNCTION(X)
      INTEGER X,Y,Z
      Y = 11
      Z = X+Y
      WRITE (*,100) Z
      MYFUNCTION = Z
100   FORMAT("Z = ",I5)
      END
```

The main() function

- ◆ You won't see it much with UDFs but there is a wrapper function called **main()**
- ◆ Generally a portal in the same way **PROGRAM** was in FORTRAN

```
#include <stdio.h>
int main(void )
{
    printf("Hello, world\n");
    return 0;
}
```

Exercise: Hello, world

- ◆ Start up the editor **gedit** or **emacs**
- ◆ Type in the program from the previous slide
- ◆ Save the file as **hello.c**
- ◆ Compile the program
 - **cc hello.c -o hello**
- ◆ Run the program
 - **./hello**

C Data Types (1)

- ◆ The UDF compiler supports standard C data types
 - `int, long` - integer data types
 - `float, double` - floating point data types (Usually use `real` in UDFs)
 - `char` - character data type
- ◆ Functions which do not return values are given the type void
 - `void myfunction(int x) { ... } /* No return needed */`

C Data Types (2)

- ◆ You can convert from one type to another by “casting”

```
int z, x = 10;  
float y = 3.14159;  
z = (int)(x*y); /* z = 31 */
```

- ◆ C also allows you to create “user-defined” types using `typedef`

```
typedef int mytype; /* define mytype to be integer type */  
mytype a, b, c; /* equivalent to int a, b, c */  
typedef float real; /* or double depending on version */
```

Pointers (1)

- ◆ A pointer is a variable which contains the address of another variable
- ◆ Possibly the greatest leap of faith required for the FORTRAN77 programmer
- ◆ When we declare a variable
 - `int k;`
 - on seeing `int` the compiler sets aside 4 bytes of memory to hold the value of the integer
- ◆ In C, `k` is called an object. Later if we write
 - `k = 2;`
 - the value 2 will be placed at the memory location associated with the object `k`

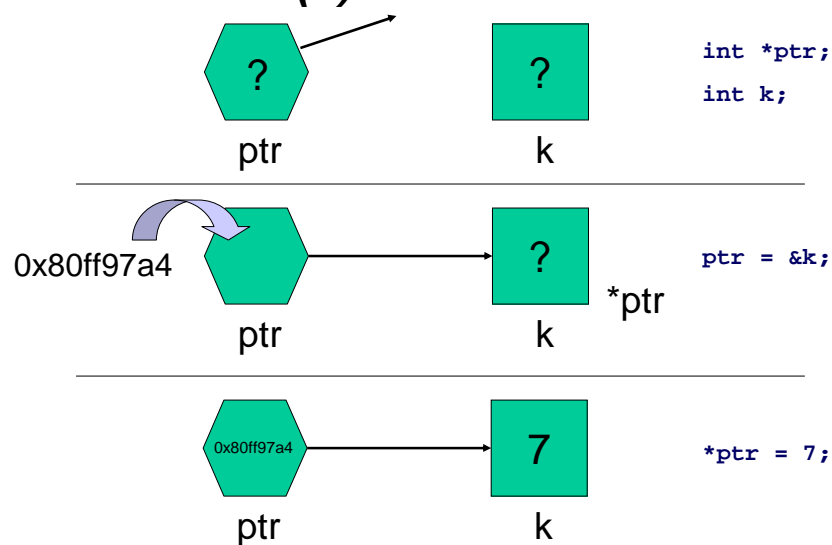
Pointers (2)

- ◆ Suppose we want a variable that holds a memory location (or *address*)
- ◆ Such a variable is called a *pointer*
- ◆ Consider the declaration
 - `int *ptr;`
- ◆ The `*` informs the compiler we wish to set aside enough memory for an address
- ◆ The `int` informs the compiler we wish to store the address of an integer

Pointers (3)

- ◆ Suppose we store the in `ptr` the address of our integer `k`
 - `ptr = &k;`
- ◆ Now `ptr` is said to *point to* `k`
- ◆ Suppose we want to copy 7 to the address pointed to by `ptr`
 - `*ptr = 7; /* Contents of ptr = 7 */`
- ◆ The `*` is the *dereferencing operator*
 - It allows access to the value stored at the address `ptr`
- ◆ Since `ptr` points to `k`, we have also set the value of `k` to 7

Pointers (4)



Pointer Fun with **Binky**



by Nick Parlante

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Carpe Post Meridiem!

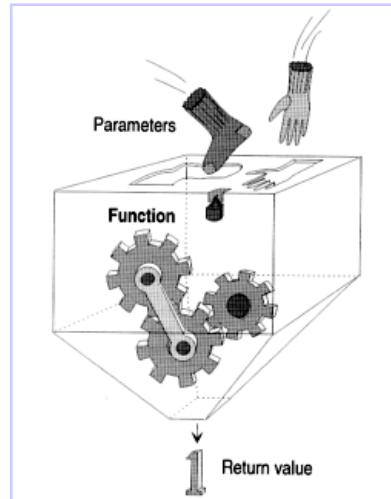
Exercise: Pointer1

- ◆ Save as pointer1.c, compile and execute it

```
#include <stdio.h>
int j, k;
int *ptr;
int main(void)
{
    j = 1;
    k = 2;
    ptr = &k;
    printf("\n");
    printf("j has the value %d and is stored at %p\n", j, (void *)&j);
    printf("k has the value %d and is stored at %p\n", k, (void *)&k);
    printf("ptr has the value %p and is stored at %p\n", ptr, (void *)&ptr);
    printf("The value of the integer pointed to by ptr is %d\n", *ptr);
    return 0;
}
```

Pointers (5)

- In C, function parameters are passed by value
- They only go one way
- You cannot alter the value of a parameter within a function and expect the calling function to see the change
 - Complete opposite of F77
- Only one value is returned by the function
- Classic opportunity to use pointers!!!!



Exercise: By value

```
#include <stdio.h>
#include <math.h>

int main(void)
{
    double x[3] = {1.0, 1.0, 2.0};
    double mag;

    double unit_vector(double *v); /* Function prototype */

    printf("Initial vector: (%9.2e%9.2e%9.2e )\n",x[0],x[1],x[2]);

    mag = unit_vector(x);

    printf("Magnitude of vector: %9.2e\n",mag);

    printf("Unit vector: (%9.2e%9.2e%9.2e )\n",x[0],x[1],x[2]);

}
```

Exercise: By value (cont.)

```
double unit_vector(double *v)
{
    double magnitude;

    magnitude = sqrt(v[0]*v[0]+v[1]*v[1]+v[2]*v[2]);

    v[0] = v[0]/magnitude;
    v[1] = v[1]/magnitude;
    v[2] = v[2]/magnitude;

    return (magnitude);
}
```

- Type this in and compile using
`cc by_value.c -lm -o by_value`
- Look at the output and convince yourself that the by reference route works

Arrays (1)

- ◆ Arrays are defined using the notation:
 - `type name[size];`where `type` is `int`, `float`, etc.; `name` is self-explanatory; and `size` is the number of elements in the array
- ◆ Examples:
 - `int a[10];`
 - `float radii[5];`
- ◆ In C, arrays start with index 0
 - `a[0] = 1; to a[9] = 44;`

Arrays (2)

- ◆ An alternative way of declaring and initialising an array in one go:
 - `int array[] = { 1, 2, 5, 7, 11, 13};`
will create an array with six elements
- ◆ The six integers are located contiguously in memory
 - There is an interesting (and useful) relationship between arrays and pointers

Arrays and Pointers (1)

- ◆ We can access the elements of `array` using pointers

```
int *ptr;
ptr = &array[0];
```
- ◆ `ptr` is set to the address of the zeroth element in the array
 - More simply done by `ptr = array;`
- ◆ We can access the i^{th} element of the array as
 - `*(ptr+i)`

Exercise: Pointer2

- ◆ Save as pointer2.c, compile and execute it

```
#include <stdio.h>
int array[] = {1, 23, 17, 4, -5, 100};
int *ptr;
int main(void)
{
    int i;
    ptr = &array[0]; /* Pointer points to first element of array */

    printf("\n\n");
    for (i=0; i<6; i++)
    {
        printf("array[%d] = %3d    ", i, array[i]);
        printf("ptr + %d = %3d\n", i, *(ptr+i));
    }
    return 0;
}
```

Exercise: Pointer 2 (cont.)

- ◆ Modify the program by changing

```
ptr = &array[0];
```

to

```
ptr = array;
```

and verify that the results are the same

Structures (1)

- ◆ A structure is a user-defined data type
- ◆ It is a combination of a number of previous declared types
- ◆ Usually appears near the start of a program

```
typedef struct
{
    double real;
    double imag;
} Complex; /* types usually capitalised */

Complex c1, c2;
```

Structures (2)

- The individual elements of the structure are accessed as follows:

```
double x, y;
x = c1.real - c2.imag;
y = c1.imag + c2.real;
```
- You can define a pointer to a structure in the usual way
 - `complex *c_ptr;`
- Referencing the elements of a structure when using a pointer is achieved thus:
 - `c_ptr->real;`which is equivalent to
 - `(*c_ptr).real;`...but much easier to use!
- Passing pointers to structures to functions is a good way of passing data to and from
 - Careful of big structures though!

Exercise: Structure1

```
#include <stdio.h>

int main(void)
{
    Struct
    {
        char initial;    /* last name initial    */
        int age;         /* child's age        */
        int grade;       /* child's grade in school */
    } boy, girl;

    boy.initial = 'R';   boy.age = 15;   boy.grade = 75;

    girl.age = boy.age - 1; girl.grade = 82; girl.initial = 'H';

    printf("%c is %d years old and got a grade of %d\n",
           girl.initial, girl.age, girl.grade);
    printf("%c is %d years old and got a grade of %d\n",
           boy.initial, boy.age, boy.grade);
}
```

Expressions and Statements

◆ Arithmetic expressions in C look like F77

```
a = 1.0+(b-c)*d/4.0;    /* Note decimal points for floats.*/
pi = 3.141592654;      /* All statements end with a semicolon. */
area = pi*radius*radius;
```

◆ Functions which return values can be used in assignments

```
b = myfunc(a); /* The function myfunc() is defined elsewhere */
x = pow(x,y);  /* Functions can also be used without assignments
```

```
do_stuff();      /* Function do_stuff() takes no arguments */
printf("x = %f\n",x); /* printf(..) is a standard C library function */
```

Operators (1)

◆ Arithmetic operators

- = assignment
- + addition
- - subtraction
- * multiplication
- / division
- % modulo
- ++ increment
- -- decrement

◆ Logical operators

- < less than
- <= less than or equal to
- > greater than
- >= greater than or equal to
- == equal to
- != not equal to

Operators (2)

◆ There are some shortcuts in C

- `i++`; is the same as `i=i+1`;
- `i++2`; is the same as `i=i+2`;
- Similarly for `--` (`**` and `//` do NOT exist)

- `a +=b`; is the same as `a = a+b`;
- Similarly for `-=` `*=` and `/=`

Control of Flow (1)

◆ if statements

```
if (logical-expression)
{statements}
else if (logical-expression)
statement;
else
{statements}
```

Note

A single statement can be used or multiple statements enclosed in a {} block.

```
if (q != 1)
{a = 0; b = 1;}
```

```
if (x < 0.)
y = x/50.;
else
{y = x/25.; x=-x;}
```

```
IF (X.LT.0.) THEN
Y = X/50.
ELSE
Y = X/25.
X=-X
ENDIF
```

Control of Flow (2)

◆ for loops

```
for (begin ; end ; increment)
{statements}
```

where:

begin; expression which is executed at beginning of loop

end; logical expression which tests for loop termination

increment; expression which is executed at the end of each loop iteration (usually incrementing a counter)

```
/* Print integers 1-10 and
their squares */
```

```
int i, j, n = 10;
for (i = 1 ; i <= n ; i++)
{
j = i*i;
printf("%d %d\n",i,j);
}
```

C Equivalent FORTRAN code

```
INTEGER I,J, N
N = 10
DO I = 1,10
J = I*I
WRITE (*,*) I,J
ENDDO
```

Exercise: Control

- ◆ Write a C program to step through the first 10 integers
- ◆ If the integer is a multiple of 3 then print out the number itself
- ◆ If the integer is a multiple of 4 then print out the number divided by one less than itself (in floating arithmetic)
- ◆ Otherwise add the number to a running total which should be output at the end

File Handling (1)

- ◆ `printf` writes formatted data to the console/screen
- ◆ `fprintf` writes to a file instead
- ◆ `scanf` and `fscanf` are similar functions for reading files

```
#include <stdio.h>
FILE *iofile;
iofile = fopen("test.dat", "w");
fprintf(iofile, "Hello, world\n");
fclose(iofile);
```

```
printf("%d\n", i);
BUT
scanf("%d", &i);
```

Exercise: Write

- ◆ Modify your control program to write the data to an output file called `control.dat`
- ◆ Save this as `write.c` in the usual way

The C Preprocessor (1)

- ◆ Commands preceded by `#` are passed through the C preprocessor (ie before compilation)
 - Header file inclusion
 - Macro definitions
- ◆ File inclusion using the directive `#include`
 - `#include <stdio.h>`
 - `#include "udf.h"`
 - `#include "mystuff.h"`
 - The files named in quotes must reside in your current directory (except for `udf.h` which is read automatically by the solver as noted earlier)

The C Preprocessor (2)

- ◆ Macro substitutions using `#define` name replacement
 - `#define RADIUS 1.2345`
 - `#define DIAM (3.14159*RADIUS)`
- ◆ The preprocessor simply substitutes the characters of name with those of replacement

The C Preprocessor (3)

- Macro substitutions can be made more like simple functions:
 - `#define SQR(A)((A)*(A))`
 - `#define DOT_PROD(A,B)(A[0]*B[0]+A[1]*B[1]\`
`+A[2]*B[2])`
- `SQR(A)` & `DOT_PROD(A,B)` are replaced by everything after the first closing “)”.
- The pattern `A` can be any expression. Note that it is in brackets `(A)` on the definition side of `SQR(A)`.
- This avoids errors when `A` is a complex mathematical expression.
- Note also that there doesn't have to be a space after the first closing “)”.
- The “\” is a continuation character used to split long `#define` lines onto multiple lines.

Exploring C Further

- Some topics not discussed here
 - while and do-while control statements
 - unions
 - recursion
 - many details!
- For more information on C programming, you may consult any general text (there are many available)

A very good set of books are published by O'Reilly, (www.oreilly.com) in particular:

Practical C Programming, 3rd Ed.
by Steve Oualline
O'Reilly, 1997

For the more dedicated, the book by the originators of C can be useful:

The C Programming Language, 2nd Ed.
by Brian Kernighan and Dennis Ritchie
Prentice-Hall, 1988