

# Introduction to C

**Systems Programming**

# History of the C language (1/3)

- ❑ Developed at Bell Laboratories in **1972** by Dennis Ritchie
  - » Many of its principles and ideas were taken from the earlier language **B** and B's earlier ancestors **BCPL** and **CPL**.
- ❑ **CPL** (Combined Programming Language) supported both high level, machine independent programming and control over the behavior of individual bits of information – but was too large for use in many applications.
- ❑ In 1967, **BCPL** (Basic CPL) was created as a scaled down version of CPL
- ❑ In 1970, Ken Thompson, while working at Bell Labs, developed the **B language**, a scaled down version of BCPL written specifically for use in systems programming.
- ❑ Finally in 1972, a co-worker of Ken Thompson, Dennis Ritchie, returned some of the generality found in BCPL to the B language in the process of developing the language we now know as **C**.

# History of the C language (3/3)

- ❑ In 1983, the American National Standards Institute (ANSI) formed a committee, X3J11, to establish a standard specification of C.
  - » In 1989, the standard was ratified as ANSI X3.159-1989 "Programming Language C." This version of the language is often referred to as **ANSI C**, **Standard C**, or sometimes **C89**.
- ❑ In 1990, the ANSI C standard (with a few minor modifications) was adopted by the International Organization for Standardization (**ISO**) as ISO/IEC 9899:1990.
  - » This version is sometimes called **C90**. Therefore, the terms "C89" and "C90" refer to essentially the same language.
- ❑ The "latest" standard to address the C language was ISO 9899:2011, issued in 2011.
  - » This standard is commonly referred to as "**C11**" It was adopted as an ANSI standard in December 2011.
- ❑ C17 is only an error correction of C11 – no relevant changes.  
**We will use C17 in this course.**

# C compared to Assembly

- ❑ One level of abstraction “above” assembly
- ❑ Language constructs that immensely facilitate **structured programming**
  - » E.g. loops
- ❑ Automatic **stack** management
- ❑ Integrated **heap** management
  - » Think of this as a sophisticated version of the memory allocator in the last assembly example
  - » But **memory management** is still the responsibility of the **programmer**!
- ❑ Strongly **typed**
  - » But with **unchecked** type **conversions**!
- ❑ **Source-level portability** between processor architectures and operating systems
- ❑ The **standard C Library**
  - » And many other standards-compliant libraries (e.g. POSIX)

# C compared to Java

- ❑ Both **high-level** and **low-level language**
- ❑ Better control of low-level mechanisms
- ❑ **Performance** better than Java
  - » But this is not a universal truth any more!
- ❑ **Java hides many details** needed for writing OS code

But:

- ❑ Not object oriented
- ❑ **Memory management** responsibility
- ❑ Explicit **initialization** and **error detection**
- ❑ More room for **mistakes**
- ❑ C exposes many details only needed for writing OS code
- ❑ Runs on almost all and even very small/slow CPUs

# Simple example

 hello.c

```
#include <stdio.h>

int main(void) {
    /* print out a message */
    printf("Hello World. \n \t Not again! \n");
    return 0;
}
```

Compile (and link):

```
$ gcc hello.c -o hello
```

Run:

```
$ ./hello
Hello World.
    Not again!
```

# Summarizing the example

- `#include <stdio.h>`
  - » Include header file “stdio.h”
  - » No semicolon at end
  - » Small letters only – C is case-sensitive
- `int main(void) { . . . }`
  - » Program entry point
  - » Is the first (user) code executed
- `printf("/ * message you want printed */");`
  - » Prints a message
  - » `\n` = newline
  - » `\t` = tab
  - » `\` in front of other special characters within printf
    - `printf("Have you heard of \"The Rock\" ? \n");`

# The C Compiler

- ❑ A compiler translates source code directly into assembly language or machine instructions
  - » The eventual end product is a file or files containing **machine code**
- ❑ Some languages (such as C and C++) are designed to allow pieces of a program to be compiled independently
  - » These pieces are eventually combined into a final executable program by a tool called the **linker**
  - » This process is called **separate compilation**
    - Note: This is different from creating/using libraries!
  - » Why is this a useful feature?
- ❑ Modern compilers can insert information about the source code into the executable program. (gcc option **-g**)
  - » This information is called **debug information** and is used by **source-level debuggers**



# The compilation process (1/3)

- ❑ In C, compilation starts by running a **preprocessor** on the source code
  - » The preprocessor is a simple program that replaces patterns in the source code with other patterns the programmer has defined (using **preprocessor directives**)
  - » These directives are used, among other things, to save typing, to increase code readability, to control inclusion of header files, etc
  - » The pre-processed code is often written to an intermediate file
  - » Example (compare to assembly directives): **constant declaration**

```
#define BUFFER_SIZE 256
```



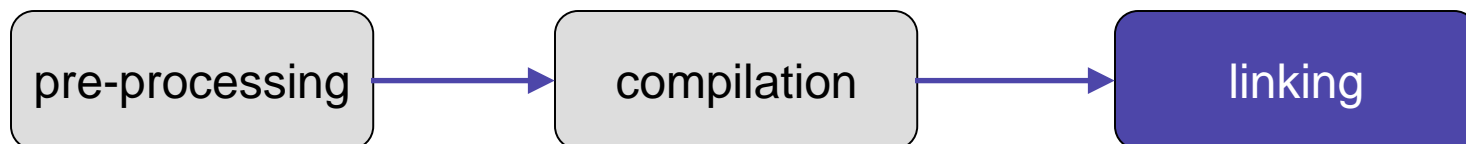
# The compilation process (2/3)

- ❑ Compilers usually do their work in two passes
  - » The first pass **parses** the pre-processed code into a “parse” tree
  - » In the second pass, the **code generator** walks through the parse tree and generates either assembly code or machine code for the nodes of the tree.
  - » If the code generator creates assembly code, the **assembler** must then be run.
  - » The end result in both cases is an **object module** (a file that typically has an extension of `.o` or `.obj`).



# The compilation process (3/3)

- ❑ The linker combines a list of object modules into an **executable program** that can be loaded and run by the OS
  - » When a function in one object module makes a reference to a function or variable in another object module, the linker **resolves these references**
  - » The linker also makes sure that all the external functions and data you claimed existed during compilation **do exist** exactly **once**
  - » Linker also adds a special object module to perform start-up activities
- ❑ The linker can search through special files called **libraries** in order to resolve all its references
  - » A library contains **a collection of object modules** in a single file



# Outline of further topics

- ❑ Built-in data types and literals
- ❑ Control flow
- ❑ Operators and precedence
- ❑ Type conversion
- ❑ Arrays
- ❑ Strings
- ❑ Composite data types

# Hello World revisited

 hello.c

```
#include <stdio.h>

int main(void) {
    /* print out a message */
    printf("Hello World. \n \t Not again! \n");
    return 0;
}
```

**Which data types can you find in this example?**

- » Number: **0**
  - Integer
  - Literal
- » String: **"Hello World. \n \t Not again! \n"**
  - Sequence of characters (like in assembly)
  - Literal
- » (Type of the) Return value: **int**

# C data types (1/3)

- Five important data types in C90
  - » **void** associated with no data type
  - » **char** character
  - » **int** integer
  - » **float** floating-point number
  - » **double** double precision floating-point number
- » Added in C99
  - » **long long** (min. 64 Bits)
  - » **uint8\_t/int32\_t** and similar types with defined sizes
  - » **bool** (boolean type)
    - » Also adds **true**, **false** as boolean literals
    - » requires **#include <stdbool.h>**
- » Added in C11
  - » **char16\_t, char32\_t** (Unicode UTF-16/-32 text)

# C data types (2/3)

## □ Type modifiers

- » Several of the basic types can be modified using **signed**, **unsigned**, **short**, and **long**
- » When one of these type modifiers is used **by itself**, a data type of **int** is assumed.
- » A complete list of **possible data types** follows:

**char**

unsigned char

signed char

**int**

unsigned int

signed int

short int

unsigned short int

signed short int

long int

unsigned long int

signed long int

**float**

**double**

long double

Type	Bytes	Range
char, signed char	1	-128 .. 127
unsigned char	1	0 .. 255
short, short int, signed short, signed short int	2 ( $\geq 2$ )	-32768 .. 32767
unsigned short, unsigned short int	2 ( $\geq 2$ )	0 .. 65535
int, signed, signed int	4 ( $\geq 2$ )	-2147483648 .. 2147483647
unsigned, unsigned int	4 ( $\geq 2$ )	0 .. 4294967295
long, long int, signed long, signed long int	8 ( $\geq 4$ )	-9223372036854775808 .. 9223372036854775807
unsigned long, unsigned long int	8 ( $\geq 4$ )	0 .. 18446744073709551615
long long, long long int, signed long long, signed long long int	8 ( $\geq 8$ )	-9223372036854775808 .. 9223372036854775807
unsigned long long, unsigned long long int	8 ( $\geq 8$ )	0 .. 18446744073709551615
float	4	$1 \times 10^{-37}$ .. $1 \times 10^{37}$
double	8	$1 \times 10^{-308}$ .. $1 \times 10^{308}$
long double	16	$1 \times 10^{-4932}$ .. $1 \times 10^{4932}$
void	1	-
void*	8	0x00..00 – 0xff..ff



# Additional data type facts

- ❑ Integer **lengths** (in bytes) in C follow these rules:
  - » `char ≤ short ≤ int ≤ long`
- ❑ The sizes given in the preceding table are **indicative only** – the actual values are **platform- and compiler-specific**
  - » But there are definitions in the libraries which **are** precise (e.g., `int64_t` designates an exact-width 64-bit integer; see C99)
- ❑ To determine the size of any variable type in bytes you can use the **sizeof** operator:

```
printf("Size of int is %d\n", sizeof(int));
```
- ❑ There was **no boolean primitive until C99**
  - » `0 = false`
  - » Everything else = true
- ❑ There is **no byte primitive** in C, so you have to use `char`, or more usually **unsigned char** instead
- ❑ Divide by zero run-time errors and illegal numbers may be returned as: +/- **INF** (infinity) or **IND** (indetermined) or **NaN** (not a number) depending upon the compiler

# Literals

## ❑ Characters

- » Enclosed in **single** quotes (e.g., 'A')
- » Not zero-terminated, i.e. the example requires one byte for storage

## ❑ Strings

- » Enclosed in **double** quotes (e.g., "str")
- » Zero-terminated, i.e. the example requires **four** bytes for storage

## ❑ Integers

- » Decimal notation: **160**
- » Hexadecimal notation: **0x**100 (starts with “0x”)
- » Octal notation: **0**100 (starts with “0”)
- » Modifiers for **long** and **unsigned long**: 160**L** and 160**UL**

## ❑ Real numbers

- » Like integers, followed by the decimal part: 160.**1**
- » If no decimal part is present, the dot must still be added: 160.

# Before starting

## □ The thousand and one faces of the main function

» `[void] main([void])`

- An explicit void return value is deprecated by most compilers

» `int main([void])`

» `[void] main(int argc, char** argv)`

- As above for explicit void

» `int main(int argc, char** argv)`

» “void” main functions still return an (OS) exit code – but you can’t set it!

» In the slides for brevity we mostly use “`main(void)`” – the actual source files use “`int main(void)`” instead

» Using `-Wall` when compiling also reveals potential problems with the signature of `main`.

## □ All examples are available as separate programs you should compile and test by yourselves!

# Typical includes

- ❑ The following files are often/typically included
  - ❑ `stdio.h`: Standard input/output, e.g. `FILE`, `stdin`, `printf`
  - ❑ `stdlib.h`: Standard library, e.g. `malloc`
  - ❑ `unistd.h`: POSIX standard library, e.g. system call wrappers
    - ❑ `read`, `write`, `chdir`, `fork`
  - ❑ `errno.h`: “`errno`” “variable”, error numbers and names
    - ❑ `errno` is today mostly a macro and no longer a variable
  - ❑ `string.h`: String functions, like `strcpy`, `strcat`, `memset`, `atoi`
  - ❑ `sys/types.h`: Various data types, e.g. `size_t`, `time_t`
  - ❑ `stdint.h`: Data types of fixed/guaranteed length, e.g. `uint8_t`

# Preprocessor



preprocessor.c

```
#include <stdio.h>

#define DANGERLEVEL 5
    /* C Preprocessor - substitution on appearance.
       Somewhat like Java 'final' */

int main(void) {

    float level = 1;
    /* if-then-else as in Java */
    if (level <= DANGERLEVEL) { /* replaced by 5 */
        printf("Low on gas!\n");
    } else {
        printf("Good driver!\n");
    }
}
```

What if we wrote `#define DANGERLEVEL 5;` ?

# Control flow

- Branches – identical to Java (actually: Java copied from C!)
  - » **if** clause (including statements blocks, **else**, and nesting)
  - » **switch** clause (including **case**, **break**, and **default**)
  - » Ternary operator (e.g., `(num > 5) ? [true branch] : [false branch];`)
- Loops – again, identical to Java
  - » **for** loop
  - » **while** loop
  - » **do** loop
- **continue** and **break** – **different** from Java
  - » Same syntactic rules as in Java
  - » But **no labels**!
- **goto**
  - » Mostly evil –but some people use it for some specific things

# Operators and precedence

Operator type	Operator	Precedence										
Primary Expression Operators	() [] . -> expr++ expr--	Left to right										
Unary operators	* & + - ! ~ ++expr --expr (typeof) sizeof()	Right to left										
Binary operators	<table><tr><td>* / %</td><td>&amp;</td></tr><tr><td>+ -</td><td>^</td></tr><tr><td>&lt;&lt; &gt;&gt;</td><td> </td></tr><tr><td>&lt; &gt; &lt;= &gt;=</td><td>&amp;&amp;</td></tr><tr><td>== !=</td><td>  </td></tr></table>	* / %	&	+ -	^	<< >>		< > <= >=	&&	== !=		Left to right
* / %	&											
+ -	^											
<< >>												
< > <= >=	&&											
== !=												
Ternary operator	?:	Right to left										
Assignment operators	= += -= *= /= %= >>= <<= &= ^=  =	Right to left										
Comma	,	Left to right										

# Operators and precedence

## □ Precedence/Associativity

- If two operators from the same line occur together, they are evaluated in this sequence
- Example  $a=b=c \rightarrow$  Right-to-left  $\rightarrow a=(b=c)$
- Note: This is **NOT** “order of evaluation”
  - There are different rules for this!
  - Can also be undefined, like  $i = ++i + i++;$

Undetermined!

Undetermined!

## □ The logical operators **&&** and **||** guarantee short-circuit evaluation

- Note: The **binary** operators **&** and **|** do **NOT**!
- If the left operand equals 0, the right operand is not evaluated
  - Important for any side-effects, e.g.  $x++$



# Type conversions (1/2)

## □ Implicit (automatic) type conversions

- » Happens automatically during the course of evaluating an expression
- » Preserve precision (i.e., are always “widening” conversions)
- » If the result value does not “fit” into the result type, it is silently truncated (i.e., no error message!) → inputs are adjusted, not the output!
- » Implicit conversions always follow the arrows  
`bool` → `char` → `int` → `float` → `double`
- » Tiebreaker for types that are otherwise the same width  
`signed` → `unsigned`

# Type conversions (2/2)

## □ Assignment conversions

- » Happen as part of an assignment
- » They **do not** necessarily preserve precision and **no error** is signaled when truncation occurs
- » Example:

```
int num = 312;  
char ch = num; /* what is the value of ch? */
```

## □ Explicit type conversions

- » Like in Java  
(type) expression
- » You can typecast **from any type to any type**

```
char c = (char) some_int;
```

- » So be careful!

# One-dimensional arrays



1darrays.c:

```
#include <stdio.h>

main(void) {

    int number[12]; /* 12 cells, one cell per student */
    int index, sum = 0;

    /* Always initialize array before use */
    for (index = 0; index < 12; index++) {
        number[index] = index;
    }
    /* now, number[index]=index; will cause error: why ?*/

    for (index = 0; index < 12; index = index + 1) {
        sum += number[index]; /* sum array elements */
    }

    printf("sum: %d\n", sum);
}
```

# Arrays

## □ Array

- » Sequence of elements of same type, any type

- `int`, `float`, `double`, `char`...

- » Fixed, constant length

- » 0-based access via integer index

- `array[0]`

- `array[intVar]`

- » **No length information** → have to remember it

- » **No range checking** → silent over-/underwriting or -reading possible

- `int number[12];`

- `printf("%d", number[20]);`

Produces undefined output, may terminate, may not even be detected

- » **Always initialize** before use

- » C99: In functions (and **only** there; not possible for global variables: located in compile-time-sized “data” section !) the length can be set at initialization

- `int vla[strlen(in)];`

# Arrays with higher dimensions

## □ 2-dimensional arrays

```
int weekends[52][2];
```



## □ Array access

```
int points[3][4];  
points[2][3] = 12; /* NOT points[3,4] */  
printf("%d", points[2][3]);
```

# Strings

## □ String

- » Sequence of characters = character array
- » Terminated by the **NUL character** `'\0'`

```
char name[6];  
name = {'C', 'S', '1 ', '0 ', '1 ', '\0'};  
      /* '\0' = end of string */  
  
printf("%s", name); /* print until '\0' */
```

## □ Functions to operate on strings

- » strcpy, strncpy, strcmp, strncmp,  
 strcat, strncat, strstr, strchr
- » `#include <strings.h>` at program's beginning

# Composite type creation – we can compose types

- ❑ Combining variables with **struct**
- ❑ Saving memory with **union**
- ❑ Clarifying programs with **enum**
- ❑ Aliasing names with **typedef**

# Basic structures (1/8)

- ❑ A C **structure** is a compound data object
  - » Consists of a collection of data objects of (possibly) different types
  - » Can be thought of as a private or user defined data type
- ❑ In C we can declare such objects by:
  - » Defining their internal structure via a "**template**" and
  - » Declaring a **tag** to be associated with them
- ❑ Given both the declaration and the associated tag, it is only necessary to use the tag when declaring actual instances of structures
- ❑ The C keyword **struct** is used to indicate that structures are being defined and declared



# Basic structures (2/8)

```
struct date /* the tag */ {  
  
    /* start of template */  
  
    int day;    /* a member */  
    int month; /* a member */  
    int year;   /* a member */  
    char dow;   /* a member */  
  
} dates[MAXDAT], today, *next; /* instances */
```

- In the example, **dates** is an aggregate of instances of `struct date`, **today** is a simple instance of a `struct date` and **next** is simply a pointer to a `struct date`.
- Further instances of `struct date` can be declared in the following manner.

```
struct date my_birthday;  
struct date end_of_term;
```

# Basic structures (3/8)

- ❑ In the previous simple example the **structure tag** is **date**
  - » Tag names conform to the same rules as variable names but belong to a **separate namespace**
  - » Because of this, a variable and a tag can have the same name:  
`struct date date;`
- ❑ The **template** tells the compiler how the structure is laid out in memory and gives details of the member names
  - » A (tagged) template does not automatically reserve any instances
- ❑ Structure **member** declarations:
  - » Same syntax as ordinary variable declarations
  - » Member names like variable names, but in a **separate namespace** (one namespace per structure)
  - » I.e. the same name could be used for a structure tag, an instance of the structure and a member of the structure (+of course in other structures)

# Basic structures (4/8)

- Structures may be **initialised** in the same fashion as aggregates using initialisers:

```
struct date Christmas = {25,12,1988,3};
```

- Individual **members** of a structure may be referred to, as shown in the following examples

```
dates[k].year
```

```
today.month
```

```
(*next).day
```

- The **. (dot) operator** selects a particular member from a structure. It has the same precedence as `()` and `[]` which is higher than that of any unary or binary operator. Like `()` and `[]` it associates left to right. The basic syntax is

```
<structure name>.<member name>
```

# Basic structures (5/8)

## □ Another example:

```
#include <stdio.h>

struct birthday {
    int month;
    int day;
    int year;
};

main(void) {
    struct birthday birth; /* - no 'new' needed */
                          /* then, it's just like Java! */

    birth.day = 1;
    birth.month = 1;
    birth.year = 2003;
    printf("I was born on %d/%d/%d",
           birth.day, birth.month, birth.year);
}
```

# Basic structures (6/8)

## □ Member offsets

- » Whenever we access structure members, we are actually accessing a typed variable, whose memory location is defined as an *offset*, **relatively to the address of the structure** variable itself
- » The offset of structure members can be obtained using the `offsetof` macro, from `<stddef.h>`, as the following example demonstrates:

```
#include <stddef.h>

struct date {
    int day;
    int month;
    int year;
};

main () {
    printf("offset of date.day: %d\n", offsetof(struct date, day));
    printf("offset of date.month: %d\n", offsetof(struct date, month));
    printf("offset of date.year: %d\n", offsetof(struct date, year));
}
```

```
offset of date.day: 0
offset of date.month: 4
offset of date.year: 8
```

# Basic structures (7/8)

- ❑ Structures may be assigned, used as formal **function parameters**, and **returned as function return values**
  - » Such operations cause the compiler to generate sequences of load and store instructions that might pose efficiency problems
  - » This can be avoided by using pointers to structures
- ❑ There are few actual operations that can be performed on structures as distinct from their members
  - » The only operators that can be validly associated with structures are "=" (simple assignment) and "&" (take the address)
  - » **It is not possible to compare structures for equality using "==", nor is it possible to perform arithmetic on structures**
  - » Such operations need to be explicitly coded in terms of operations on the individual members of the structure

# Basic structures (8/8)

```
struct person {
    char name[41];
    int age;
    float height;
    struct {           /* embedded structure (anonymous) */
        int month;
        int day;
        int year;
    } birth;           /* name of anonymous struct instance */
};

struct person me;

me.birth.year = 1972;
...

struct person class[34];
                /* array of info about everyone in class */

class[0].name = "bar";
class[0].birth.year = 1982;
...
```

# Unions (1/3)

- ❑ A **union** is **syntactically** identical to a **struct**
  - » Except that the keyword `union` is used instead of `struct`
- ❑ The difference between a struct and a union is that **in a union** the **members overlap each other**
  - » The name of a structure member represents the offset of that member from the start of the structure
  - » In a union **all members start at the same location** in memory
- ❑ The members of a union may themselves be structs and the members of a struct may themselves be unions



# Unions (2/3)

- A typical **application** is illustrated by the following fragment.
  - » If data, in the form of floating point numbers in internal form, is stored in a file, then it is difficult to read the file since all the standard C file handling functions operate character by character
  - » The fragment shown below resolves the difficulty by using a union whose two members consist of a character array and a floating point number. It is assumed that a floating point number occupies 8 characters (1 char = 1 byte).

```
union ibf {  
    char c[8];  
    double d;  
} ibf;  
  
...  
double values[...];  
  
...  
for (i=0; i<8; i++)  
    ibf.c[i] = getc(ifp);  
values[j] = ibf.d;
```

# Unions (3/3)

## Example

```
#include <stddef.h>

union variable {
    char character;
    int number_int;
    float number_float;
    double number_double;
};

int main (void) {
    union variable var;
    printf("size of union variable: %d\n", sizeof(union variable));
    printf("size of double: %d\n", sizeof(double));

    printf("offset of variable.character: %d\n", offsetof(union variable, character));
    printf("offset of variable.number_int: %d\n", offsetof(union variable, number_int));
    printf("offset of variable.number_float: %d\n", offsetof(union variable, number_float));
    printf("offset of variable.number_double: %d\n", offsetof(union variable, number_double));

    var.number_double = 30.7;
    printf("value of variable.double: %f\n", var.number_double);
    printf("value of variable.character: %d\n", var.character);

    return 0;
}
```

```
size of union variable: 8
size of double: 8
offset of variable.character: 0
offset of variable.number_int: 0
offset of variable.number_float: 0
offset of variable.number_double: 0
value of variable.double: 30.700000
value of variable.character: 51
```

# Enums (1/4)

- ❑ **enum** data types are data items whose values may be any member of a symbolically declared **set of values**
- ❑ A typical declaration would be:

```
enum days {Mon, Tues, Weds, Thurs, Fri, Sat, Sun};
```

- » This declaration means that the values `Mon...Sun` may be assigned to a variable of type **enum days**
- » The actual values are `0...6` in this example and it is these values that must be associated with any input or output operations
  - » You can compare to “Mon” or assign “Tue” to something, but printing such a variable will only produce a number, never a string!
    - » Names are resolved on compilation and don’t exist anymore in the executable (and therefore also not at runtime!)
      - » Except if compiling with debug support...

# Enums (2/4)

- For example the following program:

```
enum days { Mon, Tues, Weds, Thurs, Fri, Sat, Sun };

main() {
    enum days start, end;
    start = Weds;
    end = Sat;
    printf ("start = %d end = %d\n", start, end);
    start = 42;
    printf ("start now equals %d\n", start);
}
```

produces the following output:

```
start = 2 end = 5
start now equals 42
```

Notice that it is possible to assign a normal integer to an enum data type and there is **no check** made that an integer assigned to an enum data type is within “range”/”defined”

# Enums (3/4)

- Few programmers use enum data types
  - A similar result can be achieved by use of `#define`, although the scoping rules are different
- A **difference** between the two approaches is, that it is possible to associate numbers other than the sequence starting at zero with the names in the enum data type by including a specific initialisation in the name list; this also effects all following names.

```
enum coins { p1=1, p2, p5=5, p10=10, p20=20, ...};
```

All the names except `p2` are initialised explicitly. `p2` is initialised to value immediately after that used for `p1`, i.e. `.2`.

# Enums (4/4) - Limitations

- Enums are not real datatypes, but only a kind of integer
  - This means they will be silently cast to each other
  - Perfectly valid and working:

```
enum e1 {A, B, C};  
enum e2 {D, E, F};  
void f1(enum e1 param);  
void f2(enum e2 param);  
enum e1 one = A;  
f2(one);
```
- Enums do not have their own namespace (unlike structs) so...
  - two enums cannot have elements of the same name:

```
enum e1 {A, B, C};  
enum e2 {C, D, E, F}; /* Impossible: C reused*/
```
  - variables/functions “shadow” enum elements

```
enum e1 A = B; /* Works: variable A*/  
A=A;          /* Impossible */
```

# Type definitions

- With **typedef** we can create synonyms for types

```
typedef int Employees;  
Employees my_company; /* same as int my_company; */  
  
typedef struct person Person;  
Person me; /* same as struct person me; */  
  
typedef struct person *Personptr;  
Personptr ptrtome; /* same as struct person *ptrtome;  
                    (we'll explain the '*' above soon) */
```

- **Benefits**

- » Easier to remember
- » Cleaner code
- » Very useful for “building up” expressions (coming later)

# Outline of further topics

- ❑ Variables in memory
- ❑ Pointers
- ❑ Functions and parameters
- ❑ Command line parameters
- ❑ Dynamic memory allocation

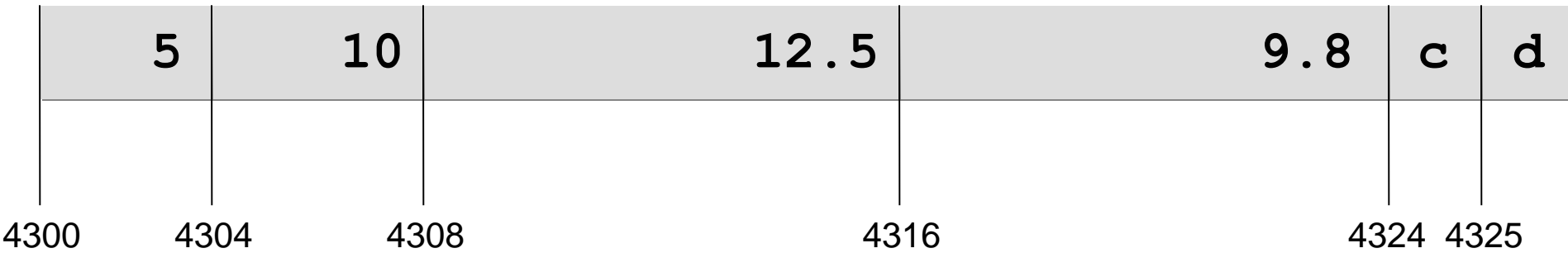


# Memory layout and addresses

```
int    x = 5,  
       y = 10;
```

```
double g = 12.5,  
       h = 9.8;
```

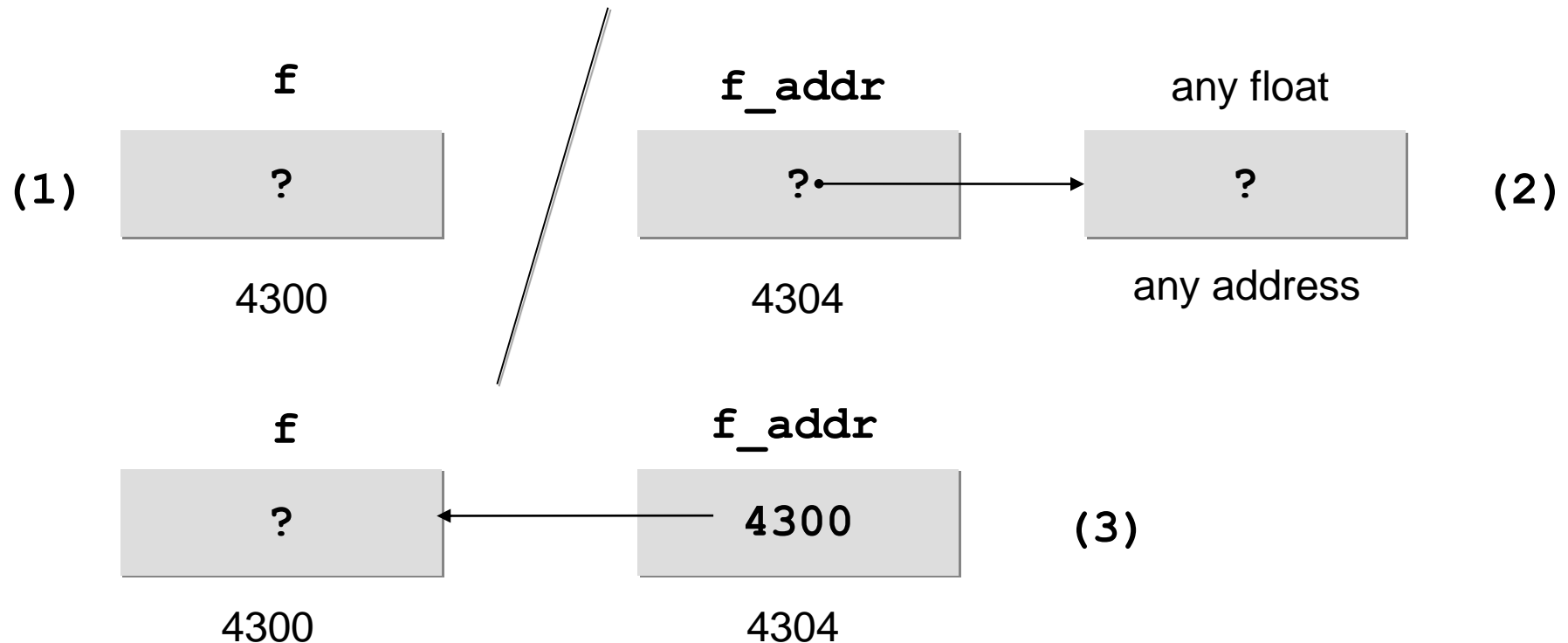
```
char   c = 'c',  
       d = 'd';
```



# Pointers made easy – almost! (1/2)

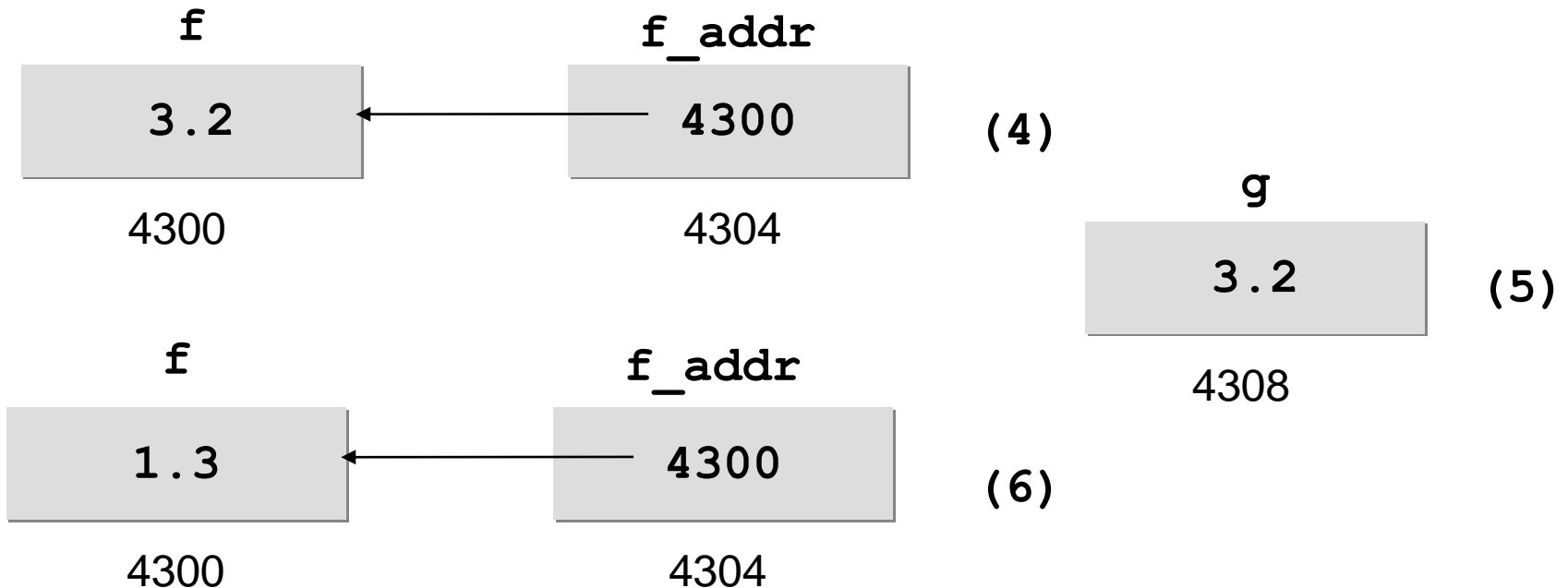
**Pointer** = variable containing address of another variable

```
(1)    float f;           /* data variable */
(2)    float *f_addr;     /* pointer variable */
(3)    f_addr = &f;       /* & = address-of operator */
```



# Pointers made easy – almost! (2/2)

```
(4)    *f_addr = 3.2;      /* * = indirection operator */  
(5)    float g = *f_addr; /* g is now 3.2 */  
(6)    f = 1.3;          /* g is still 3.2 ! */
```



# Why pointer arguments? (1/2)



pointer\_args\_1.c

```
#include <stdio.h>

void swap(int, int);

main(void) {
    int num1 = 5, num2 = 10;
    swap(num1, num2);
    printf("num1 = %d and num2 = %d\n", num1, num2);
}

void swap(int n1, int n2) { /* passed by value */
    int temp;
    temp = n1;
    n1 = n2;
    n2 = temp;
}
```

# Why pointer arguments? (2/2)



pointer\_args\_2.c


```
#include <stdio.h>

void swap(int *, int *);

main(void) {
    int num1 = 5, num2 = 10;
    swap(&num1, &num2);
    printf("num1 = %d and num2 = %d\n", num1, num2);
}

/* passed and returned by reference */
void swap(int *n1, int *n2) {
    int temp;
    temp = *n1;
    *n1 = *n2;
    *n2 = temp;
}
```

# What's wrong with this?

 pointer\_problem.c

```
#include <stdio.h>

void dosomething(int **ptr);

main(void) {
    int *p;
    dosomething(&p);
    printf("%d", *p); /* will this work? */
    printf("%d", *p); /* and now? */
}

void dosomething(int **ptr) { /* passed and returned by reference */
    int temp = 32 + 12;
    *ptr = &temp;
}
```

Compiles correctly, but crashes or results in ... unexpected output.

```
$ gcc pointer_problem.c -o wrong
```

```
$ ./wrong
```

```
44
```

```
6733812
```



# Passing and returning arrays

 pass\_and\_return\_arrays.c

```
#include <stdio.h>

void init_array(int array[], int size);

main(void) {
    int j, list[5];
    init_array(list, 5);

    for (j = 0; j < 5; j++)
        printf("next:%d\n", list[j]);
}

void init_array(int array[], int size) { /* why size ? */
    /* arrays are ALWAYS passed by reference */
    int i;
    for (i = 0; i < size; i++)
        array[i] = 0;
}
```

# The argc and argv parameters



cmd\_line\_args.c

```
#include <stdio.h>

/* program called with command-line parameters */
main(int argc, char *argv[]) {
    int ctr;

    for (ctr = 0; ctr < argc; ctr = ctr + 1) {
        printf("Argument #%d is -> |%s|\n",
               ctr, argv[ctr]);
        /* ex., argv[0] == the name of the program */
    }
}
```



# Passing / returning a structure

```
/* pass struct by value */
void display_year_1(struct birthday mybday) {
    printf("I was born in %d\n", mybday.year);
}                                     /* - inefficient: why ? */

. . .

/* pass struct by reference */
void display_year_2(struct birthday *pmybday) {
    printf("I was born in %d\n", (*pmybday).year);
    /* warning! not just '.',
       after a struct pointer */
}

. . .

/* return struct by value */
struct birthday get_bday(void) {
    struct birthday newbday;
    newbday.year = 1971;              /* '.' after a struct */
    return newbday;
}                                     /* - also inefficient: why ? */
```

# Finally! The pointer operator

- We said before that this is wrong:

```
*pmybday.year    /* wrong */
```

» That's because the . (dot) operator has higher priority than the \* (star) operator, so it's equivalent to: `*(pmybday.year)` */\* same; wrong \*/*

- The correct way of referring to a member of a structure whose address is given is typically:

```
(*next).day    /* correct */
```


- This is so common that the alternative syntax

```
next->day    /* same; correct */
```

is part of the C Programming language. The **-> operator** has the same precedence as the . (dot) operator.

# Dynamic memory allocation

Allocation *and de-allocation* in C is explicit

 memory\_allocation.c

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

int main(void) {
    int *ptr;

    /* allocate space to hold an int */
    ptr = (int*) malloc(sizeof(int));
    if (ptr==NULL) return -1;

    /* do stuff with the space */
    *ptr = 4;

    /* free up the allocated space */
    free(ptr);
    return 0;
}
```

# Dynamic allocation of memory for structures

- ❑ The dynamic allocation of memory intended to contain structures is rather simple: one only has to **reserve enough space** to hold all the members of a structure
- ❑ This, however, contains the implicit assumption that we know how many bytes are required to store a particular structure
  - » Not trivial, because of **alignment constraints**(=restrictions on which kinds of addresses things can begin, e.g. even, multiple of 8/16...)
- ❑ Fortunately, **sizeof** can be used to determine that size, taking any alignment constraints also into consideration
- ❑ Thus it's possible (& recommended!) to use expressions like:

```
struct date *a = (struct date *) malloc(sizeof(struct date));
```

# Outline of further topics

- ❑ Declarations and definitions
- ❑ Source code organization
- ❑ Separate compilation
- ❑ Storage qualifiers
- ❑ Naming rules
- ❑ Reserved words

# Declarations vs. definitions

- ❑ In C declarations and definitions are **not the same thing**
- ❑ **Declaration** introduces a name (= identifier) to the compiler
  - ❑ Creates an entry in the compiler's list of "things to assign an address"
- ❑ **Definition** allocates storage for the name
  - » This meaning applies for both variables and functions
  - » For a variable → space is reserved in memory to hold the data
  - » For a function → the compiler generates code, which ends up occupying storage in memory
- ❑ You can declare a variable or a function in many different places, but there **must be only one definition per item in C** (this is sometimes called the ODR: one-definition rule)
  - » This is checked when the linker is uniting all the object modules
- ❑ A **definition can also be a declaration**. If the compiler hasn't seen the name *x* before and you define `int x`, the compiler sees it as a declaration and allocates storage for it all at once.

# Function declarations

- A **function declaration** in C gives the function name, the argument types passed to the function, and the return value of the function:

```
int func1(int,int);
```

- C declarations attempt to **mimic the form of the item's use**. For example, if *a* is an integer the above function might be used in this way:

```
a = func1(2,3);
```

- **Arguments** in function declarations may have names. The compiler ignores the names but they can be helpful as mnemonic devices for the user what is expected :

```
int func1(int length, int width);
```

# Function definitions

- ❑ **Function definitions** look like function declarations except that they **have bodies**

- ❑ A body is a collection of statements enclosed in braces:

```
int func1(int length, int width) {  
    . . .  
}
```

- ❑ Notice

- » In the function definition the **braces { and }** replace the semicolon
- » The **arguments** in the function definition **must** have names if you want to **use** the arguments in the function body



# (No) Function overloading

- ❑ **Function overloading** is defining a function with the same name again, but with different parameter lists
  - ❑ C does **NOT** support this!
- ❑ So this is not possible (in C):  
`int func(int param);`  
`int func(float param);`
  - ❑ Error: Conflicting types for 'func'
- ❑ Notice:
  - » C++ and many other modern languages **do** support this!

# Variable declarations

- ❑ Variable declarations are not identical to function declarations. For example **this is not a declaration**:  
`int a; /* Wrong! This is a definition */`
- ❑ In the code above is sufficient information for the compiler to create space for an integer called *a* - and that's what happens
- ❑ To resolve this problem, a keyword was necessary for C to say "This is only a declaration; it's defined elsewhere."
- ❑ This keyword is **extern**
  - » Note that **extern** can mean that the definition is **external** to the file, or that the definition occurs **later** in the file
  - » **extern** can also be used for function declaration for consistency
- ❑ Example of a **proper variable declaration**:  
`extern int a; /* Correct! This is a declaration */`

# Externs

```
#include <stdio.h>

extern char user2line[20];    /* global variable defined
                               in another file */

char user1line[30];          /* global for this file */
void dummy(void);

main(void) {
    char user1line[20];      /* different from earlier
                               user1line[30] */
    . . .                    /* restricted to this function */
}

void dummy() {
    extern char user1line[];  /* the global user1line[30] */
    . . .
}
```

# Storage classes

## □ **extern**

- » Just a declaration = reference to variable defined elsewhere
- » Scope: block or file

## □ **static**

- » Lifetime: program's run-time
- » Scope: block or file (limited to this .c file; not visible outside)
- » Initialized to 0
- » Implicit for variables defined outside blocks

## □ **auto**

- » Lifetime: block
- » Implicit in blocks; can be left out
- » Uninitialized

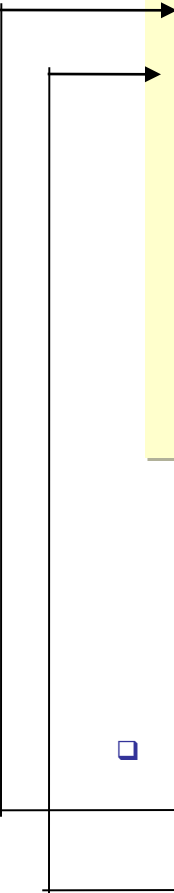
## □ **register**

- » For automatic (i.e., local) variables
- » Hint to compiler: local variable; preferably put it into a register

# Including headers (1/2)

- ❑ Most libraries contain significant numbers of functions and variables. To save work and ensure consistency when making the external declarations for these items, C uses a device called the **header file**.
  - » A header file is a file containing the external declarations for a library, and typically has the extension '.h'
  - » Library header files are provided along with the libraries themselves
- ❑ To declare the functions and external variables in the library, the user simply **includes** the header file. To include a header file, use the **#include** preprocessor directive.
  - » This tells the preprocessor to open the named header file and insert its contents where the **#include** statement appears
  - » **#include** may name a file in two ways: in **angular brackets** (< >) or in **double quotes** (" ")

# Programs with multiple files



```
#include <stdio.h>
#include "mypgm.h"

int main(void) {
    myproc();
    printf("%d", data)
}
```

**hw.c**

▣ Library headers

- » Standard: < >
- » User-defined: " "

```
#include <stdio.h>
#include "mypgm.h"

int data;

void myproc(void)
{
    data = 2;
    . . . /* some code */
}
```

**mypgm.c**

```
void myproc(void);
extern int data;
```

**mypgm.h**

# Separate compilation example

- ❑ Compile individual source code files

```
gcc -c mypgm.c
```

```
gcc -c hw.c
```

»Generates mypgm.o and hw.o

- ❑ Link object files to executable

```
gcc -o hw mypgm.o hw.o
```

# Separate compilation

- ❑ Separate compilation is important in **building large projects**
  - » The most fundamental tool for breaking a program up into pieces is the ability to create named subroutines or subprograms
  - » In C, a subprogram is called a function, and functions are the “atomic” units of code
- ❑ To create a program with multiple files, functions in one file must be able to **access functions and data in other files**
  - » When compiling a file, the C compiler must know about the functions and data in the other files, in particular their names and proper usage
  - » The compiler ensures that functions and data are used correctly
  - » This process of “telling the compiler” the names of external functions and data and what they should look like is the **declaration**
  - » Once you declare a function or variable, the compiler knows how to check to make sure it is used properly



# Including headers (2/2)

- File names in **angular brackets**, such as:

```
#include <header.h>
```

cause the preprocessor to search for the file in the “**include search path**”. The mechanism for setting the search path varies between machines, operating systems, and C implementations.

- Typical use: standard/OS libraries location

- File names in **double quotes**, such as:

```
#include "local.h"
```

tell the preprocessor to search for the file in an “implementation-defined way.” What this typically means is to search for the file **relative to the current directory**. If the file is not found, then the include directive is reprocessed as if it had angular brackets instead of quotes.

- Typical use: parts of this project/ program

# Variable type qualifiers

## □ **const**

» **Write-protect** variable


» Enforced by **compiler**

» Integer constant: **const int five = 5;**

» (Variable) pointer to constant integer: **const int \* ptr**

» Constant pointer to (variable) integer: **int \* const ptr**

Only single memory location (but has one!)  
#define → copied to every occurrence



## □ **volatile**

» Value (in memory) **may change** even if not written to in program

» For example by another process or hardware

» Prevents certain optimizations by compiler, where variable is not read again (because it wasn't written to in the meantime)

```
static volatile int flag;
```

```
void check (void) {
```

```
    flag = 1;
```

```
    while (flag) { doSomething(); }
```

```
}
```

# Naming rules

- ❑ **Identifier** = name of
  - » Variable
  - » Function
  - » Parameter
  - » Template tag of structures/unions/enums
  - » Member of structures/unions
  - » Type definition
- ❑ Can **consist of**
  - » Upper- and lower-case ASCII letters
  - » Decimal digits
  - » Underscore character
- ❑ Has to **start** with letter
- ❑ Maximum of **31 characters**
- ❑ Must **not** be one of the **reserved keywords**

# Reserved keywords – ANSI C (C89) and ISO C (C90)

- |            |            |            |
|------------|------------|------------|
| ▣ auto     | ▣ for      | ▣ typedef  |
| ▣ break    | ▣ goto     | ▣ union    |
| ▣ case     | ▣ if       | ▣ unsigned |
| ▣ char     | ▣ int      | ▣ void     |
| ▣ const    | ▣ long     | ▣ volatile |
| ▣ continue | ▣ register | ▣ while    |
| ▣ default  | ▣ return   |            |
| ▣ do       | ▣ short    |            |
| ▣ double   | ▣ signed   |            |
| ▣ else     | ▣ sizeof   |            |
| ▣ enum     | ▣ static   |            |
| ▣ extern   | ▣ struct   |            |
| ▣ float    | ▣ switch   |            |

## **C99**

- ▣ `_Bool` / `bool`
- ▣ `_Complex`
- ▣ `_Imaginary`
- ▣ `inline`
- ▣ `restrict`

# What does this C program do? (1/2)

```
#include <stdio.h>

struct list {
    int data;
    struct list *next;
};

struct list *start, *end;

void add(struct list **head, struct list **tail, int theData)
{
    if (*tail==NULL) {
        *head = *tail = (struct list *)malloc(sizeof(struct list));
        (*head)->data = theData;
        (*head)->next = NULL;
    } else {
        (*tail)->next = (struct list *)malloc(sizeof(struct list));
        *tail = (*tail)->next;
        (*tail)->data = theData;
        (*tail)->next = NULL;
    }
}
```

# What does this C program do? (2/2)

```
void delete (struct list **head, struct list **tail) {
    struct list *temp;
    temp = *head;
    if (*head==*tail) {
        free(*head);
        *head = *tail = NULL;
    } else {
        temp = (*head)->next;
        free(*head);
        (*head) = temp;
    }
}

int main() {
    start = end = NULL;
    printf("Adding '2'\n");
    add(&start, &end, 2);
    printf("Adding '3'\n");
    add(&start, &end, 3);
    printf("First element: %d\n", start->data);
    printf("Deleting one\n");
    delete(&start, &end);
    printf("New first element: %d\n", start->data);
    /* Memory leak - two malloc but only one free! */
}
```

# A few good hints

- ❑ Always **initialize** anything before using it
  - » Especially pointers
- ❑ Don't use memory pointed to by pointers after **freeing** it
- ❑ Don't free pointers **twice**
  - ❑ Might now have been reserved by someone else
  - ❑ Could now be inside a memory block used by someone
- ❑ Don't return a function's **local variables** by reference
- ❑ There are no exceptions – so **check for errors** everywhere
- ❑ The name of an **array** acts like a pointer, but its value (the address) is **immutable**
  
- ❑ We will look at most of these things in more detail in the coming lectures