

Programming in C

- C was designed by Dennis Ritchie at AT&T Bell Labs to use as a systems language to implement Unix. It became operational in 1971.
- Knowing Java before learning C makes C very easy.
- Most of the Java syntax is stolen from C.
- Function and procedure headers are *declared* forward as prototypes and fully *defined* later.
- The function definition can replace its declaration.
- C has pointers which are references or addresses
 - Java cleverly pretends not to have them.
- C does not have *classes*. Its object is a primitive datastructure without methods called a **struct**.
- C either returns a value or what is also a value, i.e., a pointer like a reference to a value or **struct** object:
 - Java pretends to return an object.
- In C all arguments are passed as values. Since it is possible to pass the address of a variable as a value, call by reference is also possible.
- C executables are likely to run faster than their Java equivalents.

Comparing C and Java

- Arithmetic, assignment, boolean relations, **for**, **if**, **while**, **switch**, and function invocation are all similar if not exactly the same.
- Priority of operators is the same.
- Functions and procedures have different headings.
- Strings in C are arrays of characters.
- You need to understand pointers in code like this.

```
1 int *xP;  
2 int x;  
3     x = 123;  
4     xP = &x;  
5     *xP *= 3;  
6  
7     printf ("x_=_%d\n", x);
```

- What is the value of **x** that is printed?

Syntax in common with Java

Operators in priority order:

- Parentheses, brackets, member selection, and postfix `++`, and `--`:
 - (`...`)—function invocation,
 - [`...`]
—subscript evaluation,
 - `.`—element selection,
 - `->`—element selection via pointer,
 - `++`, `--`—as postfix operators,
 - Addressing: `*`, `&`, `sizeof`,
 - Arithmetic: `++`, `--`—as prefix operators,
 - `*`, `/`, `%`—multiplicative operators
 - `+`, `-`—additive operators.
 - Bitwise shift: `<<`, `>>`,
 - Relational: `==`, `!=`, `<`, `>`, `<=`, `>=`
 - Bitwise: `&`, `^`, `|`, Logical: `&&`, `||`, Ternary conditional: `? :`,
 - Assignment: `>>`, `>>=`, `&=`, `|=`, `^=`, `=`, `+=`, `-=`, `*=`, `/=`, `%=`
- Please check.

Further syntax in common with Java

```
1 if( ) {
2     ... ;
3 else {
4     ... ;
5
6 if( ) {
7     ... ;
8
9 while( ) {
10    ... ;
11
12
13 for(i=1; i<=100; i++) {
14    ... ;
15
16 break; continue; return;
```

```
    switch( ) {
    case 1:
        ...; break;
    case 2:
        ...; break;
    default: {
        ... ;
    }
    do {
        ... ;
    } while( )
```

switch also has a similar syntax, including a **default** case.

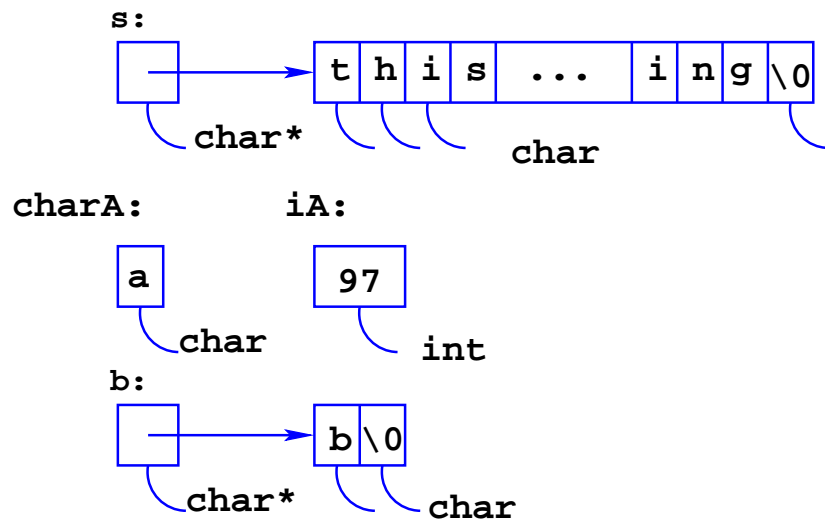
'Strings' in C

String functions are provided by the package **string.h**

In C a 'string' is an array of **char** ending with the character '**\0**'

Note that **(int)'0'** \Rightarrow **48**

```
1 char s[] = "this_is_a_string";  
2 char charA = 'a'; /* but */  
3 char b[] = "b";  
4 int iA = 'a';
```



‘Strings’ in C: the package `string.h`

Include the package `string.h` with

```
1 #include <string.h>
```

For `char * dest, src, string` and for `const char * s1, s2, s` and for `int c` and for `size_t n` this provides the functions

```
int strcmp(s1, s2); int strncmp(s1, s2, n); char *strcpy(dest, src);  
char *strcat(dest, src); char *strchr(s, int c); int strcmp(s1, s2);  
char *strdup(s); char *strcpy(dest, src); char *strncpy(dest, src, n);  
char *strfry(string); size_t strlen(s); char *strncat(dest, src, n);  
size_t strcspn(s, reject);
```

`strcmp` and `strncmp` compare strings `s1` and `s2`, yielding an `int` which is `-1` if `s1 < s2`, `0` when `s1 == s2`, and `1` when `s1 > s2`. `strncmp` only compares the first `n` characters.

`strcat` and `strncat` concatenate their arguments. `strlen` returns the length of a string. `strcpy` and `strncpy` copy their arguments.

`strdup(s)` returns a pointer a malloced duplicate of its argument string `s`.

Why do we prefer C?

- C was designed to avoid using assembly language for systems programming
- C is a high-level language that does low level things:
 - Supports *bit manipulation* with $\ll, \gg, \&, |, \sim, \hat{=}, \ll=, \gg=, \hat{=}, \&=, |=$
 - can *access registers* or memory
 - struct** supports *methodless* complex data type
 - supports *separate compilation* of parts
- Low-level control of machine
 - memory management by *programmer*
 - programmer* detects and handles run time errors
 - programmer* controls everything
- Performs better than Java
- C a popular choice for *systems programming*.
- Algol was used by Burroughs, C used by Unix, C++ by Linux.

Goals of Tutorial

- Learn what is ‘new’ in C:
 - one *learns* C one is not taught to program in C
- Warning about errors that can be avoided:
 - C not very type strict, use **lint**
 - room for mistakes
 - C programming requires disciplined programming
- Useful information and example files
 - use `Makefile`
 - compile modules separately
 - compile and execute with `Makefile`
 - printf** for debugging
 - conditional code inclusion using

```
1 #ifdef DEBUG
2 ... Code omitted when no #define DEBUG
3 #endif
```


Hello World

The file `hello.c`

```
1 /* Hello World program */
2 #include <stdio.h>
3
4 int main(void){
5     printf("Hello_World.\n");
6     return 0;}
```

The Makefile

```
1 P = hello
2 all:
3     g++ $(P).c -o $(P)
4     ./$(P)
5 clean:
6     -rm -rf $(P) *.o core
```

Run by typing **make** or **make all**,
and **make clean** gets rid of the rubbish.

Primitive types

- Integer types:
 - char**: for representing characters or one byte data
 - Java can use 16 bits
 - Beware: Solaris the owners of Java sometimes use 8 bit characters
 - short, int, long, unsigned int**:
are similar to Java's versions of **int** also architecture dependent
 - are implicitly defined as signed or explicitly defined as **unsigned**
- Floating point types:
float and **double** as in Java.
- Boolean is done by using **short, char** or **int**

$\neq 0 \Rightarrow \mathbf{true}$
 $= 0 \Rightarrow \mathbf{false}$

Primitive types: examples

```
1 char c = 'z';
2 char M = 1000;
3 short biggest = 32767;
4 int i = -2345432;
5 unsigned int ui = 1000000000;
6 float pi = 3.141593; /* 7 digits are exact */
7 double _pi = 0.3141592653589793e+1; /* 15 digits are exact
```

Some of the older C compilers do not allow assignment in a definition.

Using a 32-bit int

```
1 unsigned int smallEnough = 4294967295;
2 unsigned int tooBig = 4294967296;
```

Using a 16-bit int

```
1 unsigned int justFits = 65535;
2 unsigned int justTooBig = 65536;
```

printf function

- Syntax: `printf(format, arg1, arg2, ...)`
- Format: text to be displayed and % tokens to be filled by arguments

`%d` **int** `%i` **int** `%x` **hex** `%u` **unsigned**

`%s` **string** `%%` **for a %** `%ld` **long** `%lld` **long long**

`%c` **char** `%f` **float** `%e` **float** `%lf` **double**

Examples:

```
printf("%s_has_%d_students.\n", "CSC311", 57);
```

⇒ `CSC311 has 57 students.`

Produce output in neat columns:

```
printf("%5d%12s%9.2f\n", 29, "nectarines", 27.35);
```

⇒ `29 nectarines 27.35`

`12345123456789+12123456.12`

`| 5 || 12 ||9=6+1+2|`

- Use **printf** liberally while debugging.

enum: enumerated data-types—back in Java

- `enum months{jan, feb, mar, apr, may, jun, jul, aug, sep, oct, nov, dec};`
- Each element of `enum` gets an `int` value, such that `jan` \equiv 0, `feb` \equiv 1, ..., `dec` \equiv 11
- `enums` are manipulated as `ints`
- `months theMonth = feb;`
`theMonth = (theMonth + n) % 12;`
`theMonth` becomes the `n`th month after `theMonth`, i.e., `feb` is turned into `aug` if `n` is 6,
and `aug` is turned into `may` when `n` is 9.
- The bad news is that `theMonth` prints as an integer.
- In `enum months{jan=1, feb=3, mar, apr};`
the value assigned to `apr` is 5
- `enum` thrown out by James Gosling but later reinstated in Java
- An unintended use for `enum` is to define `int` constants

Pointers

- Similar to references in Java.
- An address of a variable is the location in memory where that variable is stored
- A pointer is a variable containing an address
- **type*** means *pointer* to variable of type **type**.
- Example

```
1 int x; /* Declares int variable x */
2 int* xPointer; /* xPointer points to rubbish */
3   xPointer = &x; /* xPointer points to int x */
4   *xPointer = 7; /* Now, same as 'x = 7;' */
```

- **&** *address* operator
&x is the address of **x**
- ***** *dereference* operator
***xPointer** is the *value* of the thing **xPointer** points to, i.e., **x**'s value, when we have set **xPointer = &x;**

Pointers in C

```
1 int * xPointer;
```

xPointer:

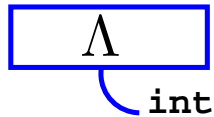


```
1 int x;
```

xPointer:



x:

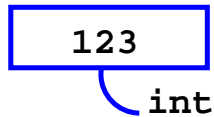


```
1 x = 123;
```

xPointer:



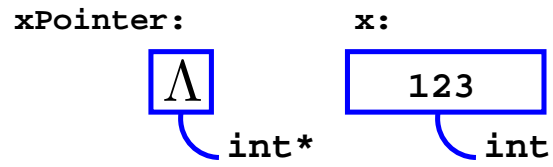
x:



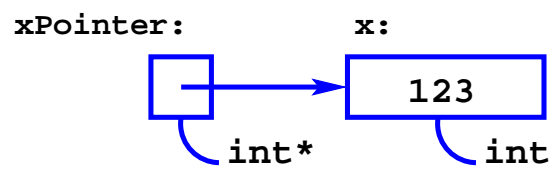
Pointers in C

```
1 int * xPointer;  
2 int x;  
3   x = 123;  
4   xPointer = &x;  
5   *xPointer *= 3;
```

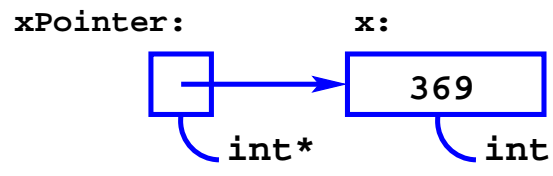
```
1 x = 123;
```



```
1 xPointer = &x;
```



```
1 *xPointer *= 3;
```



More on pointers

It is wrong to use pointers that are uninitialized
—program will crash with a **segmentation fault**
—so, always initialize pointers at declaration,
—either with **NULL** or with a reference to some object.
—before using test if a pointer is not **NULL**

```
1 int* xPointer = NULL;
2   . . .
3   if (xPointer == NULL){
4       printf("xPointer_is_NULL.\n");
5       exit(1);}
```

Structures

- The record type of C, like Java classes with only members: no methods.

```
1 enum months{jan=1,feb, mar, apr, may, jun,
2           jul, aug, sep, oct, nov, dec};
3 months theMonth;
4 struct birthday {
5     char* name;
6     int year;
7     enum months month;
8     int day; }; /* Note the ;s */
9 struct birthday mybirthday =
10           {"Wills",1980, mar, 21};
11 char FirstLetter = mybirthday.name[0];
12     /* is a W */
13 theMonth = mybirthday.month;
14     /* is mar */
```

More on structures

- Structures can hold any element with a defined type
- Structures may refer to themselves:

```
1 struct list_node{
2     int data;
3     struct list_node* next;};
```

- Use `->` for dereference and take element:

```
1 struct list_node n = {10, NULL};
2 struct list_node* nPointer = &n;
3 printf("The_data_is_%d\n", nPointer->data);
```

`nPointer->data` is the same as `(*nPointer).data`, which is the same as `n.data`

Data-type synonyms

- Syntax: `typedef type alias;`
- Example:

```
1 typedef int boole; boole b;  
2 typedef int* intPointer;  
3 intPointer p; /* p is a pointer to int */  
4 typedef struct list_node list_Node;  
5 /* list_Node = alias of struct list_node */  
6 struct list_node{  
7     int data;  
8     list_Node* next; /* quite legal */};
```

- Advantage: easier to remember, cleaner code.

void* and type conversion

- Type conversion syntax:
`(new_type)expression_old_type`
- Examples:

```
1 float f = 1.2;  
2 int i = (int)f; /* i assigned value 1 */  
3 char c = i; /* implicit conversion from int to char */  
4 float g = i; /* implicit conversion; g=1.0 */
```

- Extremely useful conversion is to and from void*—pointer to unspecified type:

```
1 #include <string.h>  
2 char str1[100]; char str2[100];  
3 memcpy((void*) str2, (void*) str1, 100);
```

- Always do explicit conversions.

Memory allocation and deallocation

Global variables:

- Declared outside a function.
- Memory allocated statically before execution.
- Initialization done before program execution.
- Deallocated when program terminates.
- Name is unique for the whole program
 - C has flat name space.

More memory allocation and deallocation

Local variables:

- Declared in the body of a function.
- Space allocated when entering the function.
- Initialization before function starts executing.
- Space automatically deallocated when function returns:
Referring to a local variable by means of a pointer after the function returned leads to unwanted results.
- Names are local to the function.

More memory allocation and deallocation

Heap variables:

- Allocate / free memory explicitly

Allocate memory: the function `void* malloc(int)` behaves like `new` in Java, e.g. allocate an integer to which a pointer points

```
iPointer = (int*) malloc(sizeof(int));
```

Free memory: the function `void free(void*)` frees memory, e.g. free the memory that the pointer `iPointer` points to

```
free(iPointer);
```

- The programmer must deallocate memory when it is not in use any more to prevent memory overflow. Java does this for you.
- If you are looking for trouble the deallocate the same memory more than once.

Memory allocation and deallocation: example

```
1 #include <stdio.h>
2 #include <stdlib.h>
3 int counter; /* global allocation counter */
4 void main(void){
5     int* iPointer; /* local variable of type int* */
6     /* allocate space to hold an int */
7     iPointer = (int*) malloc(sizeof(int));
8     counter++; /* check if successful */
9     if (iPointer == NULL)
10         exit(1); /* not enough memory available, exiting */
11     *iPointer = 4; /* store 4 into memory */
12     free(iPointer); /* deallocate memory */
13     counter--; }
```

Functions

- Functions provide modules that easy to code and debug. These modules are reusable. They can be invoked recursively.
- Technically C passes its arguments only by *by value*: a copy of the argument is handed to the function, but we can get *by reference* by handing a pointer argument to the function
- So Strictly speaking, C only passes arguments by value, and since a pointer can be passed by value while its corresponding parameter in the invoked function is marked as a pointer, we say C also handles *call by reference*.
- Strictly speaking, only a value is ever returned
 - but this value may be a pointer
 - this is quite dangerous because the object that the pointer points to may be destroyed when the function is exited

Functions—simple example

```
1 #include <stdio.h>
2 /* sum and psum's function declaration or prototype */
3 int sum(int a, int b);
4 int psum(int* a, int* b);
5
6 /* definition of main() */
7 void main(void){
8     /* call sum with arguments 4 and 5 */
9     int total=sum(2+2, 5);
10    printf("The_total_is_%d.\n", total); }
11
12 /* definition of function sum;
13    has to match declaration signature */
14 int sum(int a, int b){ /* arguments passed by value */
15     return (a+b); /* return by value */ }
16
17 /* definition of function psum;
18    matches declaration signature */
19 int psum(int* a, int* b){
20 /* arguments passed by reference */
21     return ((*a)+(*b)); }
```

Why pass by reference?

```
1 #include <stdio.h>
2 void swap(int, int);
3 int main(void){
4     int a = 7, b = 11;
5     swap(a, b);
6     printf("a = %d and b = %d\n", a, b);
7     return 0;}
8
9 void swap(int x, int y){ /* pass by value */
10    int temp;
11    temp = x;
12    x = y;
13    y = temp; }
14
15 $ ./swaptest
16 a = 7 and b = 11
```

swap has *no* effect.

Why pass by reference?

```
1 #include <stdio.h>
2 void swap(int*, int*);
3 int main(void){
4     int a = 7, b = 11; // X
5     int* pa = &a, *pb = &b // int * pa=&a, pb=&b;
6     swap(pa, pb); /* same as swap(&a, &b); */
7     printf("a_=_%d_and_b_=_%d\n", a, b);
8     return 0;}
9
10 void swap(int* pX, int* pY){/* pass as */
11     int temp; /* references */
12     temp = *pX;
13     *pX = *pY;
14     *pY = temp; }
15
16 ./swaptest2
17 a = 11 and b = 7      swap works.
```

Pointer to Function—functions as variables

```
1 #include <stdio.h>
2 void callee(int p){ printf("callee(%d)\n", p); }
3 void g(int x) { printf("g(%d)\n", x); }
4 void f(int x) { printf("f(%d)\n", x); }
5
6 void invoke(void (*f)(int), int q){
7     printf("invoking_f(%d)\n", ++q);
8     f(q); } /* invoke f with q as argument */
9
10 int main(void){
11     f(1);
12     callee(2);
13     invoke(callee, 3); /* invoke callee(3) */
14     invoke(f, 4); /* invoke f(4) */
15     invoke(g, 5); /* invoke g(5) */
16     return 0; }
```

The Preprocessor

Module support

```
1 /* include standard I/O library declaration */
2 #include <stdio.h>
3 /* include my declarations */
4 #include "myheader.h"
```

Symbol definition—behaves like final in Java

```
1 #define DEBUG 0
2 #define MAX_LIST 100
3 if (DEBUG)
4     printf("Max_length_of_list_is_%d.\n", MAX_LIST);
```

Conditional compilation

```
1 #ifdef DEBUG
2     printf("DEBUG: reached_line_%d.\n", _LINE_);
3 #endif
```

If `DEBUG` is defined with *any* value the `printf` will be compiled.

Program with header files

- File symboltable.h:

```
1 enum {tableSize = 127};
2 enum varType {int, real, string, boolean};
3 int insertString(char * s);
4 int insertInt(int i);
5 int delete(char * s);
6 int pos = 0;
7 struct table {
8     char * symbol;
9     varType varT} table[tableSize];
```

- Code belongs to .c files not to .h files.

Program with header files

By convention, function and procedure headers are *declared* first in a header, i.e., a **.h** file—pronounced *dot aich file*.

These headers are known as the *prototypes* of functions and procedures. The body of their code should be fully *defined* in a separate **.c** file with the same name as the header.

- File `symboltable.c`:

```
1 #include <stdio.h>
2 #include "symboltable.h"
3 int insertString (char * s){
4     table.symbol[pos++] = strdup(s);
5     table.varT = string; }
6 int insertInt(int i){
7     . . . }
8 int delete (char * s){
9     . . . }
```

A program with header files

- File `main.c`:

```
1 #include "symboltable.h"
2 void main(void) {
3     . . .
4     insertString(symbol);
5     . . .
6 }
```

- We need to do the following to create and run **primes**

```
1 g++ -cg primes.c makePrimes.c list.c
2 g++ -o primes primes.o makePrimes.o list.o
3 ./primes
```

- Have to compile files `symboltable.c` and `main.c` to produce object files `symboltable.o` and `main.o`.
- Must link `symboltable.o`, `main.o`, and necessary system files to produce executable object.
- Use **make** to compile.

A more complex make file

```
1 CC=gcc
2 CFLAGS=-c -Wall -g
3 LDFLAGS=-g
4 SOURCES=primes.c makePrimes.c list.c
5 OBJECTS=$(SOURCES:.c=.o)
6 P = primes
7
8 all: $(SOURCES) $(P)
9     ./$(P)
10
11 $(P): $(OBJECTS)
12     $(CC) $(LDFLAGS) $(OBJECTS) -o $@
13
14 .c.o:
15     $(CC) $(CFLAGS) $< -o $@
16
17 clean:
18     -rm -rf $(P) a.out core *.o
```

Makefiles

- Read **man make** or the **make** manual.
- **make -n** shows the commands that **make** executes.
- Use **make -f ownMakefile** to run **ownMakefile**
- Learn a great deal about **make** by figuring out what **make -d** produces.

The `$` macro, and special macros in `make`

The `$` macro extracts text from the variable: if

P=anything

then using

`$(P)` ⇒ anything

make has some built in macros called *special macros*

`$(CC)` ⇒ `cc`, unless you assign something else to it.

`$(CFLAGS)` are the options built in for **`$(CC)`**.

`$$` is the full name of the current rule's target.

`$$?` is a list of files for the current rule which need to be built again because they have changed since the last **make** was run

`$(<)` is the source file of the current rule.

make can substitute

Given the rule **`OBJS = list.o makePrimes.o primes.o`** then the rule **`$(OBJS:.o=.c)`** does the substitution of the suffix `.o` with `.c` yielding **`list.c makePrimes.c primes.c`**

Real programmers are always alert

- Initialize variables before use
- Initialize pointers—a **segmentation fault** is often caused by a null pointer especially an uninitialized pointer, or an array that has left its bounds,
- Don't kill pointers while they are still in use
- Do not return local variables of functions by reference
do not dereference pointers before initialization or after deallocation
- C has no exceptions—error handling is explicit

If you get stuck

- RTFM
- Ask Google
- Ask a friend
- Ask one of the lecturers
- Keep a notebook—in a **'notes'** file on the machine—of everything you had to look up before you could do it
- If you are really stuck then ask the question on a linux forum
- RTFM again. Ask Google. Ask a friend. ...

Acknowledgments

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CS 414 / CS 415
by Niranjan Nagarajan
Department of Computer Science
Cornell University
niranjan@cs.cornell.edu
Original Slides: Alin Dobra. ←

I accept the blame for any errors that I have introduced.
References http://publications.gbdirect.co.uk/c_book/.