

Lecture 3: Introduction to C

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Department of Computer and Mathematical Science
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Tomorrow is
created here.

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Administrivia

- **Assignment 1**
 - Posted & Due: Sunday, Jan 27, 2019 at 11:59PM (SVN)
- **Labs**
 - Lab 1 solution posted
 - Lab 2 posted
- **Piazza**
 - piazza.com/utoronto.ca/winter2019/cscb09h3
- **Midterm**
 - **Monday, February 25** (in-class) both Lec 01 and Lec 30
 - **Make-up (only those approved) – Wednesday February 27th** (in-class)

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Recap

- Shell Programming
 - Shell Scripts (.sh)
 - PATH variable
 - Variables (scope, quotes)
 - Input/Output
 - Command-line Arguments
 - Control flow (if, while, do loops)
 - Functions (scope)

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Recall positional Parameters

What it references

- \$0 Name of the script
- \$# Number of positional parameters
- \$* Lists all positional parameters
- \$@ Same as \$* except when in quotes
- "\$*" Expands to a single argument (" \$1 \$2 \$3")
- "\$@" Expands to separate arguments (" \$1" " \$2" " \$3")
- \$1 .. \$9 First 9 positional parameters
- \${10} 10th positional parameter

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Subroutines

- You can create your own functions or subroutines:

```
myfunc() {
    arg1=$1
    arg2=$2
    echo $globalvar $arg1
    return 100
}
globalvar="I like to eat"
myfunc pizza spaghetti
echo $?
echo $arg2
```

- Notes:

- Arguments are passed through positional parameters.
- Variables defined outside the function are visible within.
- Variables defined inside the function are visible outside
- Return value is stored in \$?



```
I like to eat pizza
100
spaghetti
```

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A subtlety about return values

- What if we switch the last two commands?

```
myfunc() {
    arg1=$1
    arg2=$2
    echo $globalvar $arg1
    return 100
}
globalvar="I like to eat"
myfunc pizza spaghetti
echo $arg2
echo $?
```

- Notes:

- Arguments are passed through positional parameters.
- Variables defined outside the function are visible within.
- Variables defined inside the function are visible outside
- Return value is stored in \$?



```
I like to eat pizza
spaghetti
0
```

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Shell programming

- Shell scripts are useful for automating a series of commands
- But somehow this does not really feel like programming yet...
- What is missing?
 - **Variables**
 - **Input/output**. (e.g. printing to the screen, reading from the screen)
 - **echo**
 - **read**
 - **Command-line arguments**
 - **Control flow**
 - **if statements**
 - **for loops**
 - **while loops**
 - **Functions**

DONE!

Today

- Intro to C
 - Basic structure of a C program
 - Variables and data types
 - Pointers!!!
- Ready for take-off?



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Origins of C

- C is a by-product of UNIX, developed at Bell Laboratories by Ken Thompson, Dennis Ritchie, and others.
- Thompson designed a small language named B.
- B was based on BCPL, a systems programming language developed in the mid-1960s.

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Origins of C

- By 1971, Ritchie began to develop an extended version of B.
- He called his language NB ("New B") at first.
- As the language began to diverge more from B, he changed its name to C.
- The language was stable enough by 1973 that UNIX could be rewritten in C.

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Why should you learn C?

The Tiobe index for the popularity of programming languages:

Position Sep 2012	Position Sep 2011	Delta in Position	Programming Language	Ratings Sep 2012	Delta Sep 2011	Status
1	2	↑	C	19.250%	+1.29%	A
2	1	↓	Java	16.267%	-2.49%	A
3	6	↑↑↑	Objective-C	9.770%	+3.61%	A
4	3	↓	C++	9.147%	+0.30%	A
5	4	↓	C#	6.596%	-0.22%	A
6	5	↓	PHP	5.614%	-0.98%	A
7	7	→	(Visual) Basic	5.528%	+1.11%	A
8	8	→	Python	3.861%	-0.14%	A
9	9	→	Perl	2.267%	-0.20%	A
10	11	↑	Ruby	1.724%	+0.29%	A
11	10	↓	JavaScript	1.328%	-0.14%	A
12	12	→	Delphi/Object Pascal	0.993%	-0.32%	A
13	14	↑	Lisp	0.969%	-0.07%	A
14	15	↑	Transact-SQL	0.875%	+0.02%	A

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Why should you learn C?

Jan 2016	Jan 2015	Change	Programming Language	Ratings	Change
1	2	▲	Java	21.455%	+5.84%
2	1	▼	C	19.839%	-6.87%
3	4	▲	C++	6.914%	+0.21%
4	5	▲	C#	4.707%	-0.34%
5	8	▲	Python	3.854%	+1.24%
6	6	→	PHP	2.706%	-1.08%
7	16	▲	Visual Basic .NET	2.582%	+1.51%
8	7	▼	JavaScript	2.565%	-0.71%
9	14	▲	Assembly language	2.095%	+0.92%
10	15	▲	Ruby	2.047%	+0.92%
11	9	▼	Perl	1.841%	-0.42%
12	20	▲	Delphi/Object Pascal	1.786%	+0.95%
13	17	▲	Visual Basic	1.684%	+0.61%
14	25	▲	Swift	1.363%	+0.62%
15	11	▼	MATLAB	1.228%	-0.16%
16	30	▲	Pascal	1.194%	+0.52%
17	82	▲	Groovy	1.182%	+1.07%
18	3	▼	Objective-C	1.074%	-5.88%
19	18	▼	B	0.946%	-0.21%

Why should you learn C?

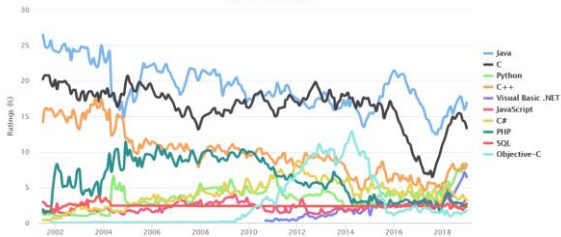
May 2018	May 2017	Change	Programming Language	Rating	Change
1	1		Java	16.360%	+1.74%
2	2		C	14.000%	+7.80%
3	3		C++	7.668%	+2.92%
4	4		Python	5.192%	+1.64%
5	5		C#	4.402%	+0.95%
6	6		Visual Basic .NET	4.124%	+0.73%
7	9	▲	PHP	3.321%	+0.63%
8	7	▼	JavaScript	2.923%	-0.16%
9	-	▲	SQL	1.987%	+1.99%
10	11	▲	Ruby	1.182%	-1.25%
11	14	▲	R	1.180%	-1.01%
12	18	▲	Delphi/Object Pascal	1.012%	-1.03%
13	8	▼	Assembly language	0.998%	-1.86%
14	16	▲	Go	0.970%	-1.11%
15	15		Objective-C	0.939%	-1.16%
16	17	▲	MATLAB	0.929%	-1.13%
17	12	▼	Visual Basic	0.915%	-1.43%
18	10	▼	Perl	0.909%	-1.69%
19	13	▼	Swift	0.907%	-1.37%
20	31	▲	Scala	0.900%	+0.18%

Why should you learn C?

Jan 2019	Jan 2018	Change	Programming Language	Rating	Change
1	1		Java	16.904%	+2.69%
2	2		C	13.337%	+2.30%
3	4	▲	Python	8.294%	+3.62%
4	3	▼	C++	8.158%	+2.55%
5	7	▲	Visual Basic .NET	6.459%	+3.20%
6	6		JavaScript	3.302%	-0.16%
7	5	▼	C#	3.284%	-0.47%
8	9	▲	PHP	2.680%	+0.15%
9	-	▲	SQL	2.277%	+2.28%
10	16	▲	Objective-C	1.781%	-0.08%
11	18	▲	MATLAB	1.502%	-0.15%
12	8	▼	R	1.331%	-1.22%
13	10	▼	Perl	1.225%	-1.19%
14	15	▲	Assembly language	1.196%	-0.86%
15	12	▼	Swift	1.187%	-1.19%
16	19	▲	Go	1.115%	-0.45%
17	13	▼	Delphi/Object Pascal	1.100%	-1.28%
18	11	▼	Ruby	1.092%	-1.31%

TIOBE Programming Community Index

Source: www.tiobe.com



C-Based Languages

- **C++** includes all the features of C, but adds classes and other features to support object-oriented programming.
- **Java** is based on C++ and therefore inherits many C features.
- **C#** is a more recent language derived from C++ and Java.
- **Perl** has adopted many of the features of C.

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The C Programming Language

- C is a low-level language — machine access
- C is a high-level language — structured
- C is a small language, extendable with libraries
- C is permissive: assumes you know what you're doing
- **Good:** efficient, powerful, portable, flexible
- **Bad:** easy to make errors

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A first program (gcd.c)

```
#include <stdio.h>

int gcd (int x, int y);

int main() {
    int i;
    for (i = 0; i < 20; i++) {
        printf("gcd of 12 and %d is %d\n", i, gcd(12,i));
    }
    return 0;
}
```

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The rest of the file

```
int gcd(int x, int y) {
    int t;
    while (y) {
        t = x;
        x = y;
        y = t % y;
    }
    return (x);
}
```

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Functions

- Every C program needs special function: `main()`
 - Returns an `int`, the exit status
- Functions must be:
 - declared before first use: tells compiler how to use it
 - defined: creates the function
- `#include ...`
 - Adds declaration of external functions
 - E.g. `printf` function is not built-in to C (implemented in external library)

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Control structures

- For-loop, while-loop, if-statement: like Java
 - Body is one statement
 - Braces `{ }` enclose blocks
 - Blocks define scope levels
 - Can't mix declarations and non-declaration in a block
 - `for (int i... -illegal`

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Variables

- Need to be declared
- Have no default value
 - If not initialized, no guarantees about content ...
- Only visible inside the block they were declared in
 - Exception: *global* variables declared outside of `main`
- One function's variables are not visible to other functions (i.e. they are *local*)
- Compile: `gcc -Wall -o gcd gcd.c`

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Data types

• Basic data types

- `char`
 - `int`
 - `long`
 - `float`
 - `double`
- Integers
- Real numbers

- `char`, `int`, `long` use the same representation, but vary in their size/capacity.
- A double has higher floating point precision than float.
- *Typical* (not guaranteed) sizes on a 32-bit machine:
 - `char`: 8 bits
 - `int`: 32 bits
 - `long`: 64 bits
 - `float`: 32 bits
 - `double`: 64 bits

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In an assignment statement make sure that the variable on the left is at least as wide as the expression on the right!

Wait... characters are integers?

- There is an internal mapping between chars and ints, e.g. using the ASCII standard
- E.g. `char c = 'a'` is identical to `char c = 97`

Dec	Hex	Char	Dec	Hex	Char	Dec	Hex	Char	Dec	Hex	Char
0	00	Null	32	20	Space	64	40	@	96	60	`
1	01	Start of heading	33	21	!	65	41	A	97	61	a
2	02	Start of text	34	22	"	66	42	B	98	62	b
3	03	End of text	35	23	#	67	43	C	99	63	c
4	04	End of transmit	36	24	\$	68	44	D	100	64	d
5	05	Enquiry	37	25	%	69	45	E	101	65	e
6	06	Acknowledge	38	26	&	70	46	F	102	66	f
7	07	Audible bell	39	27	'	71	47	G	103	67	g
8	08	Backspace	40	28	(72	48	H	104	68	h
9	09	Horizontal tab	41	29)	73	49	I	105	69	i
10	0A	Line feed	42	2A	*	74	4A	J	106	6A	j
11	0B	Vertical tab	43	2B	+	75	4B	K	107	6B	k
12	0C	Form feed	44	2C	,	76	4C	L	108	6C	l
13	0D	Carriage return	45	2D	-	77	4D	M	109	6D	m
14	0E	Shift out	46	2E	.	78	4E	N	110	6E	n
15	0F	Shift in	47	2F	/	79	4F	O	111	6F	o
16	10	Data link escape	48	30	0	80	50	P	112	70	p
17	11	Device control 1	49	31	1	81	51	Q	113	71	q
18	12	Device control 2	50	32	2	82	52	R	114	72	r

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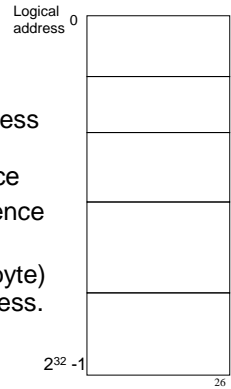
Other data types

- Arrays
- Pointers
- Structs
- (Enumerations – won't cover those)
- (Unions – won't cover those)
- Need some prep work on how memory is used to understand arrays and pointers

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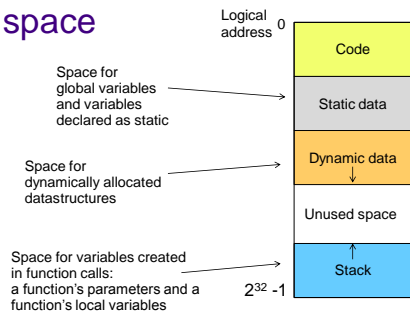
Memory model

- The memory for a process (a running program) is called its address space
- Memory is just a sequence of bytes
- A memory location (a byte) is identified by an address.



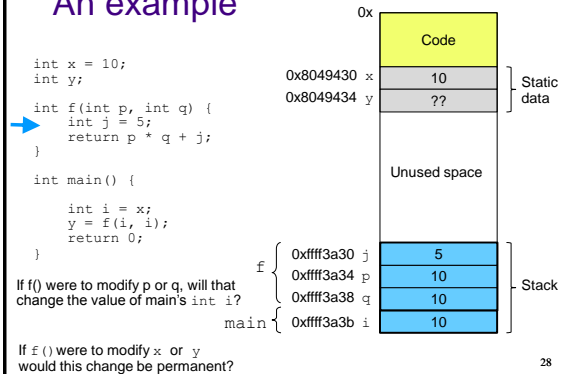
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The address space



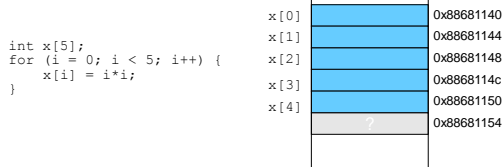
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An example



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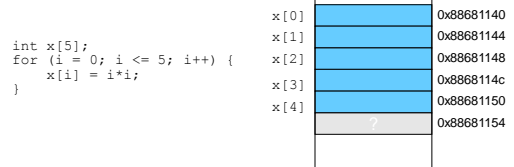
Arrays



- Arrays in C are a contiguous chunk of memory that contain a list of items of the same type.
- If an array of ints contains 10 ints, then the array is 40 bytes. There is nothing extra.
- In particular, the size of the array is not stored with the array. There is *no* runtime checking.

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Arrays



- No runtime checking of array bounds
- Behaviour of exceeding array bounds is "undefined"
 - program might appear to work
 - program might crash
 - program might do something apparently random

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Initializing arrays

Declaration/Definition

```
int a[10]; /*declare a as an
          array of 10 ints*/
```

Initialization loop:

```
for(i = 0; i < N; i++) {
    a[i] = 0;
}
```

Static initialization:

```
int numbers[4] = {1, 2, 3, 4};
char letters[4] = {'a', 'q', 'e', 'r'};
```

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Pointers

- A pointer is a higher-level version of an address.
- Declaring a pointer:
 - `char *cptr;` // declares a pointer to a char
- Assigning a value to a pointer:
 - `char c = 'a';`
 - `cptr = &c;`
 - `cptr` gets the value of the address of `c`
 - the value stored in the variable `cptr` is the address of the memory location where variable `c` is stored;
- Dereferencing a pointer
 - `*cptr = 'b';`
 - Stores 'b' at the memory address that is stored in `cptr`.
 - `char d = *cptr;`
 - Takes the contents of the memory address stored in `cptr` and stores them in the variable `d`

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Pointer example

```
→ char *cptr;
→ char c = 'a';
→ cptr = &c;
→ *cptr = 'b';
```

0x80494dc c

'a'

0x80494e0 cptr

?

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Pointer example

```
→ char *cptr;
→ char c = 'a';
→ cptr = &c;
→ *cptr = 'b';
```

0x80494dc c

'a'

0x80494e0 cptr

0x80494dc

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Pointer example

```
→ char *cptr;
→ char c = 'a';
→ cptr = &c;
→ *cptr = 'b';
```

0x80494dc c

'b'

0x80494e0 cptr

0x80494dc

Let's assume we had defined another `char` called `d`.

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Pointer example

```
→ char *cptr;
→ char d = 'e';
→ char c = 'a';
→ cptr = &c;
→ *cptr = 'b';
→ d = *cptr;
```

0x80494dc c

'b'

0x80494dd d

'e'

0x80494e0 cptr

0x80494dc

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Pointer example

```

→ char *cptr;           0x80494dc c
→ char d = 'e';         0x80494dd d
→ char c = 'a';
→ cptr = &c;
→ *cptr = 'b';          0x80494e0 cptr
→ d = *cptr;

```

'b'
'b'
0x80494dc

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Another example

```

int i = 19;
int *p;
*p = i;

```

0x80493e0 i	
0x80494dc p	

Do you see a problem with the code above?

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Another example

```

int i = 19;
int *p;
*p = i;

```

0x80493e0 i	19
0x80494dc p	?

p is not initialized and there is no memory allocated to store what the pointer points too!

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Important!

- `int *p;`
- Memory is allocated to store the **pointer**
- **No memory is allocated to store what the pointer points to!**
- Also, p is **not** initialized to a valid address or null.
- I.e., `*p = 10;` is wrong unless memory has been allocated and p set to point to it.

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Summary: Pointer Setup & Use

- Step 1: Create a pointer of the proper type
`float *p;`
- Step 2: Assign it to a variable's memory location:
`p = &a;`
- Step 3: Use the pointer
`printf("%.0f", *p);`

Note:

1. Without asterisk, pointer references an address
2. With asterisk, pointer references the value at that address
3. Always use the same type of pointer as the variable it examines (i.e., *ints for ints*, *chars for chars*)
4. Initialize the pointer before using it. Set it to an address of some variable.

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Arrays vs. Pointers

- An array name in expression context decays into a pointer to the zero'th element.
- E.g.

```

int a[3] = {1, 3, 5};
int *p = a; // same as p = &a[0];
p[0] = 10;
printf("%d %d\n", a[0], *p);

```

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Pointer Arithmetic

- The array access operator `[]` is really only a shorthand for pointer arithmetic + dereference
- These are equivalent in C:

$$a[i] == *(a + i)$$
- C translates the first form into the second.
 - `pointers` and `arrays` are nearly the same in C!

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Example

```
int a[4] = {0, 1, 2, 3};
int *p
p = a;
int i = 0;

for(i = 0; i < 4; i++) {
    printf("%d\n", *(p + i));
}
```

$(*p) == a[0]$
 $*(p + 1) == a[1]$
 $*(p + 2) == a[2]$
 $*(p + 3) == a[3]$

Why does adding 1 to `p` move it to the next spot for an int, when an int is 4 bytes?



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Pointer Arithmetic

- Pointer arithmetic respects the type of the pointer.
- E.g.,


```
int i[2] = {1, 2};    char c[2] = {'a', 'z'};
int *ip;              char *cp;
ip = i;               cp = c;
*(ip + 1) += 2;        *(cp + 1) = 'b';
(really puts 4 in i[1]) (really puts b to c[1])
```
- C knows the size of what is being pointed at from the `type` of the pointer.

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Passing Arrays as Parameters

```
int main()
{
    int i[3] = {10, 9, 8};
    printf("sum is %d\n", sum(i)); /*??*/
    return 0;
}

int sum( What goes here? ) {
}
```

- What is being passed to the function is the name of the array which decays to a pointer to the first element – a pointer of type `int`.

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Passing Arrays as Parameters

```
int sum( int *a ) {
    int i, s = 0;
    for(i = 0; i < ??; i++)
        s += a[i]; /* this is legal */
    return s;
}
```

$\text{sizeof}(a) == 4$
 since `a` is just
 a pointer here

- How do you know how big the array is?
- Remember that arrays are not objects, so knowing where the zero'th element of an array is does not tell you how big it is.
- Pass in the size of the array as another parameter.

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Array Parameters

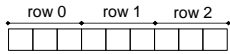
```
int sum(int *a, int size)
```

- Also legal is:
`int sum(int a[], int size)`
 - Many advise against using this form.
 - You really are passing a pointer-to-int not an array.
 - You still don't know how big the array is.
 - Outside of a formal parameter declaration `int a[];` is illegal
- ⇒ `int a;` and `int a[10];` are completely different things

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Multi-dimensional arrays

- Remember that memory is a sequence of bytes.



```
int a[3][3] = { {0, 1, 2},  
                {3, 4, 5},  
                {6, 7, 8}};
```

- Arrays in C are stored in row-major order
- row-major access formula

```
int *x = (int *)a;  
x[i][j] == *(x + i * n + j)  
where n is the row size of x
```

But use array notation!

Summary

- The name of an array can also be used as a pointer to the zero'th element of the array.
- This is useful when passing arrays as parameters.
- Use array notation rather than pointer arithmetic whenever you have an array.

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That's it for today!