

# Systems 3

## C Basics

Marcel Waldvogel

(Handout)

Department of Computer and Information Science  
University of Konstanz

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These slides are based on previous lectures held by Alexander Holupirek, Roman Byshko, and especially Stefan Klinger.

# Chapter Goals

- What are the reasons, goals and organization of learning C in this course?
- What are the C compilation steps?
- What did Java borrow from C? How do they differ?
- How does character I/O work in C?
- How are functions defined and called? How are parameters passed?
- How are arrays laid out in memory? What does the compiler (not) know about arrays?

# C popularity

- Requirements that make C mandatory:
  - embedded systems (close to hardware, scarce resources)
  - extreme performance (better usage of resources)
  - the world is built on C and C++ (with C++ being a superset of C)
    - Herb Sutter. C++ and Beyond.<sup>1</sup>
  - C is simple & powerful
    - Damien Katz (CouchDB). The Unreasonable Effectiveness of C.<sup>2</sup>
- Programming Languages Rankings
  - 1st/2nd place in TIOBE<sup>3</sup> (1989—2019)
  - 8th/9th place in RedMonk<sup>4</sup>, with C++ ranking 5th—7th (2012—2019)

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<sup>1</sup><https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=xcwxGzbTyms>

<sup>2</sup>[http://damienkatz.net/2013/01/the\\_unreasonable\\_effectiveness\\_of\\_c.html](http://damienkatz.net/2013/01/the_unreasonable_effectiveness_of_c.html)

<sup>3</sup><https://www.tiobe.com/tiobe-index/>

<sup>4</sup><https://redmonk.com/kfitzpatrick/2019/07/31/>

# What is this course about?

## System Programming

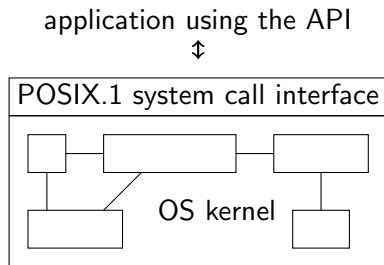
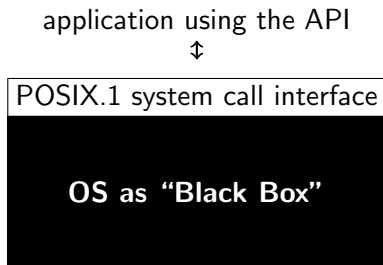
- With **system** we mean *operating system*.
- With **programming** we mean *using the interface* an operating system (OS) provides.
- With OS we mean UNIX-like OSs, *i.e.*, Linux.

## Operating System

- Layer of software on top of bare hardware
- Shields programmers from the complexity of the hardware
- Presents an interface (of a virtual machine) that is easier to understand and program

# Systems vs. Kernel programming

- Black Box Model is suitable for systems programming.
- However, knowledge about the system's internals is beneficial to use the system properly and to not work against it.
- Providing the system services is (mostly) kernel programming.



**Figure:** Black Box vs. White Box View of a UNIX System

# Gentle introduction to C

# C standardization

- ISO/IEC 9899:1990 Programming Language C, (C89 or C90)
- ISO/IEC 9899:1999 Programming Language C, (C99)
- ISO/IEC 9899:2011 Programming Language C, (C11)

**Note** We will focus on C99, *i.e.*, use `-std=c99` as compiler flag.

# First C Program

Print the sentence: “Hello world!”

```
1 #include <stdio.h>
2
3 int main()
4 {
5     printf("Hello world!\n");
6     return 0;
7 }
```



# Compiler

- Before executing a program, we have to translate it to machine code. The most popular compiler is `gcc`.
- We want to get all compiler errors and warnings:
  - Compile (we will) your code with

```
1 $ gcc -std=c99 -g -Wall -Wextra -Wpedantic -Wbad-function-cast \  
2 > -Wconversion -Wwrite-strings -Wstrict-prototypes source.c
```
  - This will provide you helpful information from the compiler
  - You will gain **no points at all** for a programming exercise if the compiler stops with an **error**.
  - We will subtract **3 points** for every **compiler warning**.
- The tutors will show you on Thursday how to use the compiler.

# Compilation on a UNIX-like OS

```
1 $ gcc hello.c
2 $ ls
3 a.out  hello.c
4 $ ./a.out
5 Hello world!
```

engine	filename	description
editor	<a href="#">hello.c</a>	source code
preprocessor	<a href="#">hello.i</a>	source w/ preproc. directives expanded
compiler	<a href="#">hello.s</a>	assembler code
assembler	<a href="#">hello.o</a>	object code ready to be linked
linker	<a href="#">a.out</a>	executable

(Use [-save-temps](#) to preserve these files)

# Basic instructions

There are many instructions which you already know from Java.

```
1  if ()
2  else
3  switch ()
4
5  while ()
6  do while ();
7  for (;;)
8
9  i++; ++i; i += 1; ...
```

# C vs. Java

C	Java
~1970, procedural, low(er)-level	1995, object-oriented, high-level
compiled to machine code	compiled to byte code
suitable for systems programming	—
explicit <code>free()</code>	garbage collection
explicit pointers (+arithmetic)	implicit pointers in object variables
—	native threading
type casting	type checking
preprocessor	method overloading
default public	default private
global variables	—
<code>goto</code> statement	—
<code>struct</code> , <code>union</code> , <code>bitfields</code>	object
<code>varargs</code>	—

# Basic data types

**char** a single byte. By definition, this is the unit of measurement for memory size.

**int** an integer, typically reflecting the natural size of integers on the host machine

**float** single-precision floating point

**double** double-precision floating point

**short** and **long** are *qualifiers* that can be applied to integers:

```
short int i;  
long int f;  
unsigned long d;
```

The qualifiers **signed** and **unsigned** can be applied to **char** and any integer.

# printf revisited

```
#include <stdio.h>
int printf(const char *format, ...);
```

`printf(3)` is a general-purpose output formatting function.<sup>5</sup>

- 1<sup>st</sup> argument is the string of characters to be printed.
  - Each **%** indicates **where** one of the other arguments
  - and **in what form** it is to be printed.
- Each % in the 1st arg is paired with the 2nd, 3rd arg etc.

```
17 printf("%d\t%d\n", fahr, celsius);
```

- `%d`, for instance, specifies an integer argument, so `fahr` and `celsius` are printed with a tab (`\t`) between them.

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<sup>5</sup>Not part of the C language, but defined in ANSI X3.159-1989 ("ANSI C")

# Printing with `printf`

specifier	print as ...
<code>%d</code>	decimal integer
<code>%6d</code>	decimal, at least 6 characters wide
<code>%f</code>	floating point
<code>%6f</code>	floating point, at least 6 characters wide
<code>%.2f</code>	floating point, 2 characters after decimal point
<code>%6.2f</code>	floating point, at least 6 wide and 2 after decimal point

- Further `printf(3)` recognizes `%o` for octal, `%x` for hexadecimal, `%c` for character, `%s` for string, `%p` for address (pointer), ...
- ISO C: 7.19.6 : Formatted input/output functions

# Symbolic constants

- Bad practice to bury “magic numbers” in a program
- Convey little information, hard to change in a systematic way
- A `#define` line defines a *symbolic name*

```
1  /* print fahrenheit-celsius table for fahrenheit = 0, 20, ..., 300 */
2
3  #include <stdio.h>
4
5  #define LOWER 0    /* lower limit of table */
6  #define UPPER 300 /* upper limit */
7  #define STEP 20   /* step size */
8
9  int main(void)
10 {
11     for (int fahr = LOWER; fahr <= UPPER; fahr += STEP)
12         printf("%3d %6.1f\n", fahr, (5.0/9.0)*(fahr-32));
13
14     return 0;
15 }
```



# Character input and output

- Standard library provides e.g. `getchar(3)` and `putchar(3)`.

```
#include <stdio.h>

int getchar(void);
int putchar(int c);
```

- `putchar(3)` prints a character to *stdout* each time it is called.
- `getchar(3)` reads the next input byte from *stdin* stream

Why does `getchar` return an `int` instead of `char`?

- Handle errors (returning distinctive value `EOF`) (end of file; a symbolic name, defined in `<stdio.h>`), which cannot be confused with data.
- The return type must hold `EOF` in addition to any possible `char`.

Why does `putchar` accept an `int` instead of `char`?

- Backward compatibility (smallest parameter used to be `int`).

# File Copying

Given `getchar` and `putchar` we can write a surprising amount of useful code without knowing anything more about input and output.

**Algo** Copying input to output one character at a time

read a character

**while** character is not end-of-file indicator **do**

    output the character just read

    read a character

**end while**

# File Copying, v1

```
1 #include <stdio.h>
2
3 /* copy input to output, v1 */
4 int main(void)
5 {
6     int c = getchar();
7
8     while (c != EOF) {
9         putchar(c);
10        c = getchar();
11    }
12    return 0;
13 }
```

# File Copying, v2

- An assignment, such as `c = getchar()` is an expression and has a value (value of the left hand side after the assignment)
- An assignment can appear as part of a larger expression

```
1 #include <stdio.h>
2
3 /* copy input to output, v2 */
4 int main(void)
5 {
6     int c;
7
8     while ((c = getchar()) != EOF)
9         putchar(c);
10
11     return 0;
12 }
```

# Functions

## power(m,n)

- So far only `printf(3)`, `getchar(3)`, and `putchar(3)`
- Implement `power(m,n)` to raise an integer  $m$  to the power<sup>6</sup> of  $n$ .

**A function definition** has the form:

```
1 type name( type parameter [, ...] )    /* or: name(void) */  
2 {  
3 declarations  
4 statements  
5 }
```

---

<sup>6</sup>Only handles positive powers of small integers, in real life take `pow(3)`

# Function Terminology

- A **function definition** gives signature and implementation:

```
4 int power(int base, int n)
5 {
6     int i, p;
7
8     p = 1;
9     for (i = 0; i < n; ++i)
10         p = p * base;
11     return p;
12 }
```

- A **parameter** is a variable named in the argument list, e.g., `base`, `n`.
- An **argument** is a value used in a call of the function.

- A **function declaration** omits the implementation:

```
int power(int base, int n); /* no body! */
```

- A function must be declared *before* it can be used!
- A definition also declares a function.
- We will not need to write declarations for some time...

# Call by value, call by reference

In C, all function arguments are passed **by value**

- The called function is given the values of its arguments in **temporary variables** (lifetime of function's execution) rather than the originals.
- The callee **cannot directly alter** a variable in the calling function.

Call **by reference** is possible

- by passing the **address** of a variable (*aka.* a pointer).
- The callee can access the variable *indirectly* by **dereferencing** the address.
- The pointer itself is passed by value.
- We will discuss pointers in more detail at a later point.

# One Dimensional Arrays

Syntax: `memberType arrayName[ numberOfMembers ];`

- Most simple:

```
int a[2];    /* at this point, the contents are undefined! */  
a[0] = 23;  /* store 23 in 1st cell. */  
a[1] = 42;
```

- Shortcut:

```
int a[2] = {23, 42};    /* initialize right away */
```

- Even shorter:

```
int a[] = {23, 42};    /* Compiler figures out size of array. */
```

- If not all items are given, the rest is initialised to 0.

```
int a[8] = {23, 42};    /* is the same as */  
int a[] = {23, 42, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0};
```

- Use `for` loop to initialize bigger arrays, or `memset(3)` (*cf.* later).



# Multidimensional arrays

## ■ Most simple:

```
int a[2][3];           /* at this point, the contents are undefined */  
a[1][2] = 52;         /* assign to 3rd cell in 2nd array */
```

## ■ Classic:

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

## ■ Shortcut:

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

You may omit *only* the most significant (first, *i.e.*, outer) dimension!

## ■ Stored in memory linearly, *i.e.*:

1	2	3	4	5	6
---	---	---	---	---	---

## ■ Use `for` loop to initialize bigger arrays, or `memset(3)` (*cf.* later)

## ■ If not all items are given, the rest is initialised to 0.

```
int a[3][4] = { {1,2}, {3} }; /* is the same as */  
int a[][4] = { {1, 2, 0, 0}, {3, 0, 0, 0}, {0, 0, 0, 0} };
```

# Fixed- and variable-length arrays

- C90 allows only **constant**<sup>7</sup> **expressions** as array dimensions.
- In C99, **variable-length arrays** (VLAs) have been introduced.
  - They **cannot be initialised** in their declaration.
  - **Caution:** VLAs are rather tricky, and have a bunch of interesting consequences. You will not need them for your exercises.
  - You **cannot change** the size of a VLA once it is declared (*i.e.*, they are not *dynamic*).

```
#define SIZE 1024
int a[42 * SIZE];
```

```
1 #include <stdio.h>
2
3 int func(int c)
4 {
5     /* This is a conditional expression: */
6     return c < 10 ? 10 : c;
7 }
8
9 int main(void)
10 {
11     /* Bounds only known at runtime! */
12     int a[func(getchar())];
13
14     a[2] = 3;
15     printf("%d\n", a[2]);
16     return 0;
17 }
```

<sup>7</sup>*i.e.*, can be computed at compile-time by the compiler

# Character arrays

**Definition** A **string** is an array of characters terminated with a `'\0'` character (nul; numerical value is zero). Yes, that is *nul*, with only one  $\ell$

- So is `"hello\n"` is stored as 

h	e	l	l	o	\n	\0
---	---	---	---	---	----	----
- A string containing  $n$  characters requires  $n + 1$  memory!
- A string does not know its own length.

**Note** You may have an **array of characters**, with none of them being nul.

- Perfectly valid, but **not a string!**
- String manipulating functions probably **will fail** on that data!

# Initialization of character arrays

## ■ Character by character:

```
char str[3];  
str[0] = 'o';  
str[1] = 'k';  
str[2] = '\0';
```

## ■ Shorter:

```
char str[] = {'o', 'k', '\0'};
```

## ■ Initialising from a string literal:

```
char str[20] = "ok";    /* str[2] and onwards are automatically assigned '\0' */
```

## ■ Without giving the dimension:

```
char str[] = "ok";      /* The dimension will be... What? */
```

# Arrays of character arrays

- Initialised from string literals:

```
1 char arr[3][12] = { "University",  
2   "of",  
3   "Konstanz" };
```

- You are only allowed to omit the **outermost** dimension:

```
1 char arr[][12] = { "University",  
2   "of",  
3   "Konstanz" };
```

**Question:** How much memory does `arr` use?