

Chapter 6

Program Management

Program Building

`gcc xcopy.c`

Source File

`xcopy.c`

Compile

Object File

`xcopy.o`

Link

Executable
File

`a.out`

Compiling Object Code

`gcc -c main.c`

`gcc -c error.c`

`main.c`

`error.c`

`main.o`

`error.o`

`gcc main.o error.o`

`a.out`

Linking Libraries

```
gcc -c main.c
```

main.c

main.o

Notice path to libraries

```
ldd a.out
```

```
ldconfig -v -N | grep '^/'
```

libc.a

```
gcc main.o
```

a.out

Libraries

Consider looking at the following library.

```
ls -all /usr/lib/libc.a  
ar t /usr/lib/libc.a  
ar t /usr/lib/libc.a | grep print  
ar t /usr/lib/libc.a | grep string
```

What's the difference between these two statements?

```
gcc main.c  
gcc -static main.c
```

Linking

What are the differences between dynamic and static linking of libraries?

- **Dynamic linking produces smaller code.**
- **Static linking produces faster code.**

Compiling a Program

`gcc main.c`

Source File

`main.c`

Preprocess

Temp File

`temp.c`

Compile

Assembly
File

`main.s`

Assemble

Object File

`main.o`

Link

Executable

`a.out`

Preprocessing

You can ask the compiler to stop after preprocessing and show the results using the **-E** switch.

```
gcc -E preprocess.c
```

or

```
gcc -E preprocess.c -o temp.c
```

What are some advantages of preprocessing?

Preprocessing Example

```
#define BIT_0    0x01
#define BIT_1    0x02
#define BIT_2    0x04
#define BIT_3    0x08
#define BIT_4    0x10
#define BIT_5    0x20
#define BIT_6    0x40
#define BIT_7    0x80
```

define.c

Notice: Macros



```
#define SetBit(x, y) x |= (0x01 << y)
#define ClrBit(x, y) x &= ~(0x01 << y)
#define TglBit(x, y) x ^= (0x01 << y)
#define TstBit(x, y) (x & (0x01 << y))
```

```
int main(void)
{ unsigned char a = 0x5A;

  printf("a = 0x%02X\n", a);

  SetBit(a, 0);
  printf("a = 0x%02X\n", a);
```

Assembly Code

You can ask the compiler to stop after compiling stage using the **-S** switch. The output has a **.s** extension.

```
gcc -S main.c
```

Object Code

You can ask the compiler to stop after assembly stage without linking using the `-c` switch. The output has a `.o` extension.

```
gcc -c main.c
```

Display Version

You can ask the compiler to display all the commands used to compile the file and provide the compiler and assembler versions by using the `-v` switch.

```
gcc -v main.c
```

6.2 Organizing Code

There are several methods for structuring and modularizing code in order to make it more readable and easier to debug.

- Breaking up Code into Functions.
- Breaking up Code into Multiple Files.
- Commenting Code.
- Use Naming Conventions.
- Using Preprocessing Directives.
- Using **typedefs**.

Multiple Modules

When breaking up code into multiple files, one must understand the various properties of variables.

Type – `char`, `int`, `float`, `double`, *etc...*

Modifier – `signed`, `short`, `long`, *etc...*

Qualifier – `const`, `volatile`, `register`, *etc...*

Storage Class – `auto`, `static`, `extern`,
affecting the scope of a variable.

Variable Scope - auto

auto – Default storage class, visible within function, i.e. “local” variable.

```
float hypsin(float y)
{ auto float x, z;
  ...
}
```

```
float hypcos(float x)
{ auto float y, z;
  ...
}
```

```
int main(void)
{ auto int i, float x, y;
```

auto.c

Variable Scope – static 1

static – (1) When used globally, the variable is visible to all functions within the file. (i.e. “global,” but only to that file.)

```
static int i;  
void hypsin(int i)  
{ printf("%f\n", (exp(i) - exp(-i))/2);  
}
```

```
int main(void)  
{ for(i=0; i<10; i++)  
  { hypsin(i); }  
}
```

static1a.c
static1b.c

Variable Scope – static 2

static – (2) When used locally, the variable retains its value between function calls. (i.e. stored “globally” but only visible to the function.)

```
void hypsin(void)
{ static int j;
  j++;
  printf("%f\n", (exp(j) - exp(-j))/2);
}
```

```
int main(void)
{ int i;
  for(i=0; i<10; i++) hypsin();
}
```

static2.c

static3.c

static4.c

Variable Scope – extern

extern – Variable is visible across all files.

The keyword **extern** can be used in header files to allow the user to have knowledge of variables and functions used in other modules.

External and static variables are initialized to zero by default (automatic variables are not)

```
gcc extern1.c extern2.c -o extern
```

Preprocessing Directives

The `#define` directive can be used to aid programming in many ways.

Readability – Textual substitution can make code much easier to read.

```
#define BIT_0 0x01
```

```
#define BIT_1 0x02
```

...

```
#define HEATER BIT_1
```

```
#define SetBit(x,y) (x |= y)
```

...

```
SetBit(RelayByte, HEATER);
```

Notice: a Macro



Preprocessing Directives 2

The `#define` directive can be used to aid programming in many ways.

Scalability – Textual substitution allows for code to scale up or down easily.

```
#define ROWS 2
#define COLS 16
...
char DisplayValue[ROWS][COLS];
...
for (i=0; i<ROWS; i++)
{ DisplayValue[i][0] = '\0';
```

Preprocessing Directives 3

What is the difference between the `#define` directive and the `const` declaration below?

```
#define ROWS 2
```

```
#define COLS 16
```

```
const int ROWS 2
```

```
const int COLS 16
```

Preprocessing Directives 4

The `#define` directive can be used to aid programming in many ways.

Portability – Non-standard C types to be easily “ported” from one compiler or processor to another.

```
#define UCHAR    unsigned char
#define SINT16   signed short int
#define UINT32   unsigned int
```

```
UCHAR a, b; SINT16 i; UINT32 j;
```

Preprocessing Directives 5

The `#define` directive can be coupled with the `#ifdef` and `#ifndef` directives to do conditional compiling.

```
#ifdef DEBUG
```

```
printf("Value at 1 = %d", i)
```

```
#endif
```

```
#ifdef WINDOWS
```

```
#define sigsetjmp    setjmp
```

```
#define siglongjmp  longjmp
```

```
#endif
```

Preprocessing Example

```
/******
```

```
* Copyright (C) 1999-2006 by ZiLOG, Inc.
```

```
* All Rights Reserved
```

```
*****/
```

```
#ifndef EZ8_H
```

```
#define EZ8_H
```

ez8.h

```
#if defined(_Z8ENCORE_F642X) || defined(_Z8ENCORE_64K_SERIES)
```

```
#define _Z8F642
```

```
#endif
```

```
#if defined(_Z8ENCORE_F640X) || defined(_Z8ENCORE_640_FAMILY)
```

```
#define _Z8F640
```

```
#endif
```

```
...
```

```
#if defined(_Z8F640) || defined(_Z8F642)
```

```
#define EZ8_SPI
```

```
#define EZ8_ADC
```

```
#define EZ8_TIMER3
```

```
#define EZ8_PORT4
```

```
#define EZ8_I2C
```

```
#endif
```


#define Warning

Remember that `#define` is a pre-processing directive which simply does textual substitution before compiling.

Consider the following code. *What is the problem?*

```
#define DEBUG
```

```
#ifdef DEBUG
```

```
{ printf("%d", i); fprintf(fout, "%d", i); }
```

```
#define print(n) printf("%d", n); fprintf(fout, "%d", n);
```

```
#else
```

```
#define print(n) printf("%d", n);
```

```
#endif
```

```
/*...*/
```

```
for (i=0; i<5; i++) print(i)
```

```
for (i=0; i<5; i++) printf("%d", i); fprintf(fout, "%d", i);
```

Two statements

No { }

#define Warning 2

What is the difference between f1 and f2 below?

What is the output?

```
#define f1(x,y) (x*y)/(x+y)
```

```
float f2(float x, float y)
{ return (x*y)/(x+y); }
```

```
int main(void)
{ float a, b, c, d;
  a = 1;
  b = 2;
  c = f1(++a, b);
  printf("a = %f, c = %f\n", a, c);

  a = 1;
  b = 2;
  d = f2(++a, b);
  printf("a = %f, d = %f\n", a, d); }
```

Incremented twice!

$c = (++a * b) / (++a + b)$

Typedefs

The `typedef` statement can also be used to make programs “portable.”

That is, they can be used the same way as `#define` to re-define types.

```
typedef unsigned char    UCHAR;  
typedef signed short int SINT16;  
typedef unsigned int     UINT32;
```

How is the above code different from the `#define` statements?

Typedefs 2

The `typedef` statement can also be used to simply make programs more “readable” reducing text in code.

```
struct T_Person
{ char name[80]; int age;
};

typedef struct T_Person Person;
typedef struct T_Person *pPerson;
...
pPerson John;
John = (pPerson)malloc(sizeof(Person));
```

Comments

Program – Contains program function, authorship, revision history and to-do list.

Function – Contains function usage along with description of parameters and return value.

Block – Describes sub-tasks.

Line – Describes purpose of each line to algorithm.

Variable – Describes purpose and usage of variable.

Variable Names

Variable names should describe the function or purpose of the variable.

In some cases it is acceptable to use arbitrary names like **i** for an index loop. But this should only be done if the usage is obvious and unambiguous.

A programmer should always inform the reader of the function of a variable by naming it properly. Well-chosen names make help make the code “**self-commenting.**”

Function Names

Function names should also describe the function or purpose of the variable.

Names of related functions should be consistent and structured.

LCD_Init()

KB_Init()

LCD_Write()

KB_GetChar()

LCD_Clear()

KB_Flush()

Again, well-chosen names help make the code
“**self-commenting.**”