

Real-Time and Embedded Systems @ SIT

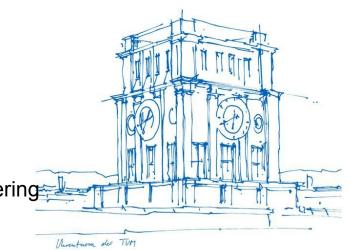
C Programming Language

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Outline

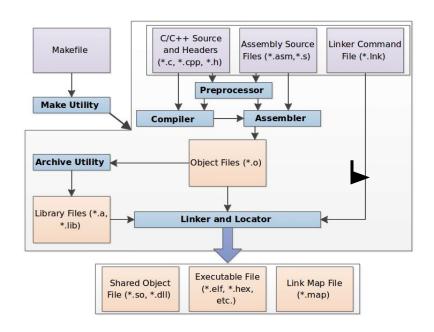


- Recap
- C introduction
- Hello World Example
- Basic Syntax
- Memory Layout
- Data Types
- Variables
- Operators

- Conditional Operators
- Loops
- Functions
- Arrays
- Strings
- Pointers/Strings
- Memory Management
- Structures



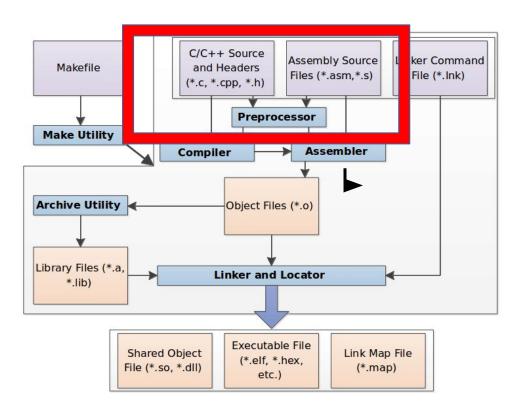
Recap - Compilation



Check out a TUM tutorial that explains compilation in depth -> here

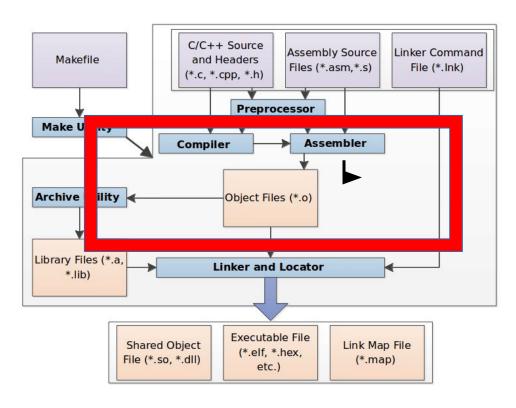


Recap - Compilation - Preprocessing



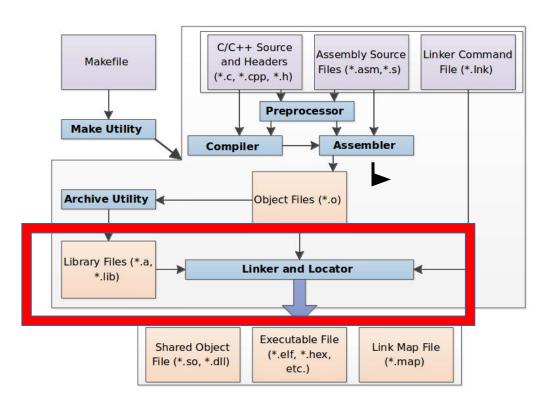


Recap - Compilation - Compiling





Recap - Compilation - Linking





C Programming Language

- General-purpose language (portable)
- Developed in 1972 by Bell Telephone Laboratories
- Highly structured language
- Very efficient (low overhead) and extremely fast (if used properly)
- Compiled language unlike interpreted languages (Python)
- Can handle low-level applications
 - Good for embedded systems (direct manipulation of hardware peripherals and memory)
 - OS kernels and device drivers (Linux/UNIX)
- My favourite language;)



C Program Structure

- Is made up of:
 - Preprocessor directives
 - *#define
 - `#include`
 - Functions
 - Variables
 - Statements & Expressions
 - Comments (never forget the comments!)



```
#include <stdio.h>
int main() {
   /* my first program in C */
   printf("Hello, World! \n");
   return 0;
```



```
#include <stdio.h>
int main() {
   /* my first program in C */
   printf("Hello, World! \n");
   return 0;
}
```

- Include directive (preprocessor)
 - Preprocessor effectively copy and pastes `stdio.h` into the line before compilation



```
#include <stdio.h>
int main() {
    /* my first program in C */
    printf("Hello, World! \n");
    return 0;
}
```

- Main function
 - Entry point into program (called by operating system)
 - Every program must have one





```
#include <stdio.h>
int main() {
    /* My first program in C.
    And this is a block comment */
printf("Hello, World! \n", // This is an in-line comment
    return 0;
}
```

Comments

- Document code and functions
- Block comments (function explanations) or in-line comments (explaining a single line/logic)
- Should not explain the how but the WHY
- Helps other users use your code



```
#include <stdio.h>
int main() {
    /* My first program in C.
        And this is a block comment */
    printf("Hello, World! \n"); // This is an in-line comment

return 0;
}
```

- Function call
 - Function is `printf`, found in `stdio.h`
 - O Takes the input "Hello, World! \n"



```
#include <stdio.h>
int main() {
    /* My first program in C.
    And this is a block comment */
    printf("Hello, World! \n"); // This is an in-line comment
    return 0;
```

- Return value of `main`
 - Main returns an integer (int)
 - 0 represents success (usually)
 - !0 represents failure/error



C Syntax

- C interprets tokens, unlike languages like Python where spacing and whitespace are important
- Tokens can be:
 - Keywords C programming language semantic
 - Eg. return 0; return
 - Identifiers name used to refer to variable, function etc.
 - Constants values that can not be modified
 - o Strings
 - Eg. "Hello, World! \n" Both a constant and a string
 - Special symbols C syntax to implement desired functionality, Eg. {}
 - Operators trigger actions to variables and objects, Eg. +, -, ==
 - Comments*



C Tokens - Example

```
#include <stdio.n>
      int main
          /* My first program in C.
             And this is a block comment */
          printf( Hello, World! \n"); // This is an in-line comment
Keyword
Defines da
          return
                                 Special symbol
```



C Syntax - Keywords

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



C Data Types

- Looking at keywords: int, char, short, double, float, void
- Determines how much memory should the variable will consume
 - Size can vary depending on compiler
 - Compiler implementation depends on: OS (if used) and hardware
 - Eg. `int` almost always the size of the platform, le. 64-bit x86 laptop has 64 bit `int`, 32 bit ARM microcontroller has 32-bit `int`
- Types classified into
 - Basic types arithmetic types, Eg. `int` and `floats`
 - Enumerated types `enum`
 - `void` no value
 - Derived types pointers, structures, functions etc.



C Data Types - Arithmetic Types

Type	Storage size	Value range
char	1 byte	-128 to 127 or 0 to 255
unsigned char	1 byte	0 to 255
signed char	1 byte	-128 to 127
int	2 or 4 bytes	-32,768 to 32,767 or -2,147,483,648 to 2,147,483,647
unsigned int	2 or 4 bytes	0 to 65,535 or 0 to 4,294,967,295
short	2 bytes	-32,768 to 32,767
unsigned short	2 bytes	0 to 65,535
long	8 bytes	-9223372036854775808 to 9223372036854775807
unsigned long	8 bytes	0 to 18446744073709551615

[`]sizeof` operator returns size in bytes



C Data Types - Void Types

- Void functions
 - Do not return any value, ~return a void value which has no value
- Function arguments
 - Means the function takes no arguments

```
void my_function(void){
...
    // Do not need return statement
}
```

 `void` pointers - References an object but doesn't define a type. More on this later



C Variables

- Simply a human readable name given to a region in memory where some data is stored
- Variable type defines:
 - Size and layout in memory
 - Range of possible values
 - Operations that can be applied to variable



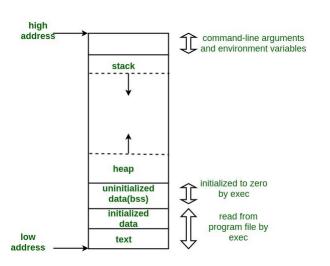
C Variables - Type Modifiers

- const The value of the variable can't be changed after its definition
 - Prevents mistakes due to accidental modification
 - Allows for better optimization
 - Global const variables can be put into read-only memory
 - volatile Reads and writes to those variables have to happen exactly as often and exactly in the order as they happen in the program
 - Used for memory mapped I/O
 - Good for debugging, stops compiler optimizing out values



C Memory Layout

 To understand variables it is important to understand, even abstractly, how memory is structured



Stack: contains temporary data for programs current stack frame

Heap: dynamically allocated variables, le. persistent across scopes in your program. As it is used the heap grows from a lower memory address towards the stack at a higher memory address.

Scope: currently executing block of code, eg. A function, for loop, etc.

[geeksforgeeks.com]



C Memory Layout - Stack

Stack - This is the part of memory where local variables live, whose lifetime is bound to the current scope (e.g. function scope or inside a loop body).

- As scopes are stacked on top of each other, so are the lifetimes of the variables on the stack (the last one created will be the first one to be removed)
- Variable creation on the stack is very cheap (just increment the stack pointer)
- Stacks are often of limited size



C Memory Layout - Heap

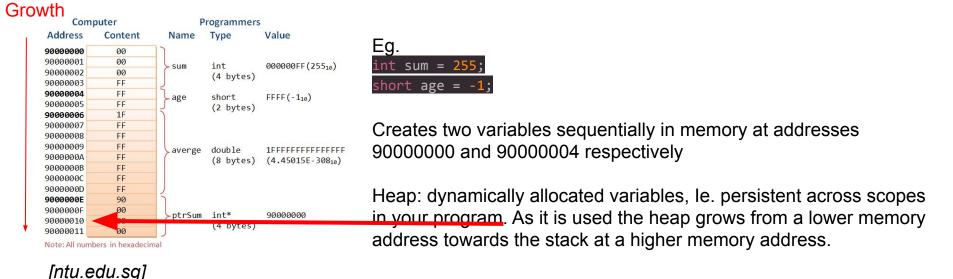
Stack - Memory can be allocated and deallocated at arbitrary times during the program execution (malloc/free)

- Allocator has to nd a free slot in memory -> (almost impossible to predict how long that will take) → rarely used in Real-Time Code
- Not bound to executing scope, le. variable can be used inside of multiple functions when proper methods are used



C Memory Layout Cont.

Variables are stored sequentially (ideally) on the heap



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C Variables - Example on 64-bit x86 laptop

From before

Data type tells us: size and layout, range of values, operators

```
struct my_struct {
   int my_int;
   short my_short;
};
int sum = 255;
struct my_struct = {.my_int = 1, .my_short = 2};
```

`sum` is 32-bit value which can store between -2,147,483,648 to 2,147,483,647 and can use standard arithmetic operators such as `++`



C Variables - Example on 64-bit x86 laptop

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C Structures

Allows for the definition of a variable type that holds several items of different or same types

Definition:

```
struct structure_type_name {
    //member definitions
    int int_member;
    ...
    short short_member;
} structure_instance_names;
```

Creating and accessing:

```
struct structure_type_name my_structure;
my_structure.int_member = 2;
```

- Data type: `struct structure_type_name`
- Variable name: `my_structure`



C Variables - Example on 64-bit x86 laptop

From before

Data type tells us: size and layout, range of values, operators

```
struct my_struct {
   int my_int;
   short my_short;
};
int sum = 255;
struct my_struct = {.my_int = 1, .my_short = 2};
```

`sum` is 64-bit value which can store between -2,147,483,648 to 2,147,483,647 and can use standard arithmetic operators such as `++`



C Variable - Example Cont.

```
struct my_struct {
   int my_int;
   short my_short;
};
int sum = 255;
struct my_struct = {.my_int = 1, .my_short = 2};
```

- Data type `struct my_struct` tells us that the variable takes 6 bytes
 - int`(4 bytes) + `short`(2 bytes)
- Data types of members tell us the ranges for each member
- struct` keyword tell us what operators can be used
 - Eg. `my_struct++` is not possible but `my_struct.my_int` is



C Operators

Symbols that tell compiler to perform specific mathematical or logical operations

- Arithmetic operators: +, -, *, /, %, ++, --
- Relational operators: ==, !=, >, <, >=, <=
- Logical operators: &&, ||, !
- Bitwise operators: &, |, ^, ~, <<, >>
- Assignment operators: =, +=, -=, *=, etc.
- Misc operators: sizeof(), &, *, ?:



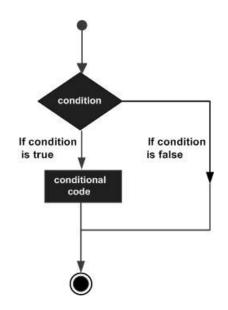
C Operators - Example

```
int foo = 0b001; // Integer holds a value of 1
foo <<= 1; // Shift the value 1 bit to the right, ie. 0b010 == 2
foo++; // Increase value of foo by 1
int bar = (0b010 | 0b001); // Bitwise OR between 1 and 2

if (foo == bar){
    printf("foo equals bar\n")
}
>> foo equals bar
```



C Conditional Operators



[tutorialspoint.com]

Implements the conditional logic (decision making) of the program

C has 5 operators

- if boolean expression
- if...else if statement followed by an else statement
- nested if if, else if,..., else if, optionally else
- switch decide an action given a variable and a number of possible values for the variable
- nested switch switch inside another switch



C Conditional Operators - Nested `if` Example

```
int foo = 2;
if (foo == 1){
   printf("One\n");
 else if (foo == 2){
   printf("Two\n");
   print("Something else\n");
>> Two
```



C Conditional Operators -`switch` Example

```
int foo = 2;
switch (foo) {
case 1:
  printf("One\n");
  break;
case 2:
   printf("Two\n");
  break;
default:
  print("Something else\n");
  break;
>> Two
```



C Conditional Operators -`switch` Example

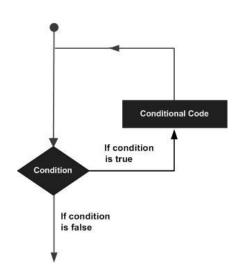
Switch cases "fall through" meaning that without a 'break' statement the case below it will be executed.

`default` is the equivalent to `else`.

```
int foo = 1;
switch (foo) {
   printf("One\n");
case 2:
   printf("Two\n");
   break:
default:
   print("Something else\n");
   break:
>> One
>> Two
```



C Loops

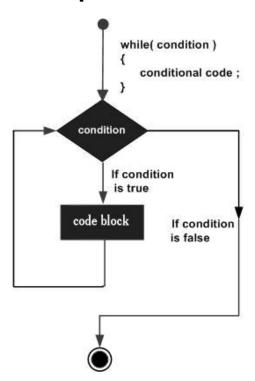


[tutorialspoint.com]

- Used to execute a block of code several times
- Allows for more complex execution paths in a programm
- C offers three types of loops:
 - while repeat while a condition is true, testing condition before executing loop body
 - for execute loop body a specific number of times
 - do...while while loop except the conditional statement happens after the loop body (always executes at least once)



C Loops - `while` Example

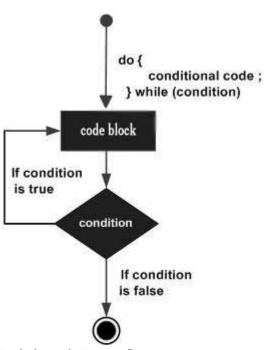


```
int foo = 0;
while (1) {
   printf("%d\n", foo++);
>> 0
>> 1
>> 2
>> 3
```

[tutorialspoint.com]



C Loops - `do...while` Example



```
int foo = 0;

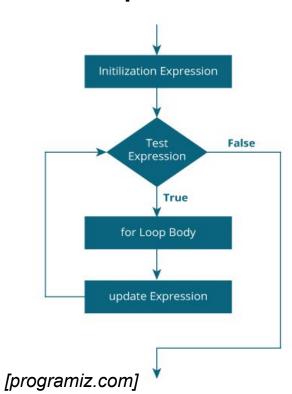
do {
    printf("%d\n", foo++);
} while (foo > 1);

>> 0
```

[tutorialspoint.com]



C Loops - `for` Example



```
int foo = 0;
for (int i = 0; i < 4; i++) {
   printf("%d\n", foo++);
```



C Loops - Control Statements

Used to change the execution sequence of a loop

- break Breaks the execution of the loop or switch statement
 - Eg. terminate a for loop before the entire sequence has been iterated through
- continue Terminates the execution of the remainder of the loop's body,
 continuing execution from the loop's condition
 - Eg. terminate the current execution of a for loop for a given iterator value, resuming at the next iterator value
- goto Jumps execution to a labeled statement



C Control Statements - Example

```
int foo = 0;
for (int i = 0; i < 4; i++) {
   foo++
   if (i == 2)
      continue;
   printf("%d\n");
>> 1
```

```
int foo = 0;
while (1) {
   printf("%d\n", foo++);
   if (foo == 3)
      break;
>> 0
>> <u>1</u>
>> 2
```



- Group of statements (Eg. math ops, calls to other functions)
- Every program has at least one function, `main`
- Used to provide logical division and reusability to your code
 - Each function should perform one specific task
 - Careful division makes code more readable and easier to maintain
- Built in libraries provide many functions you can call, Eg. `printf`
- May have multiple parameters that are passed from the caller to the called function (the callee)
- Can return a value back to the caller when execution is completed



C programs consist of **functions** that call each other

```
void foo(void)
{
}
```

This minimal function called *foo* takes no parameters ((void)), does nothing ({}) and returns nothing (void).

```
return_type function_name(parameter list){...}
```



C programs consist of **functions** that call each other

```
int foo(void)
{
   return 1;
}
```

foo now still takes no parameters but it now returns an *int* with a value of 1.



C programs consist of **functions** that call each other

```
int foo(int bar)
{
   return bar * 2;
}
```

foo now a parameter bar of int type, still returning an int, only now it returns the parameter bar's value x 2 instead of 1.



C Functions - Parameters

- Parameter variables are variables stored on the function's stack (~temporary memory for function execution)
- They can be manipulated in the function but unless returned using the return keyword (one value) they are lost once the function returns and the stack is discarded
- Passing pointers (discussed later) allows for you to modify variables in a function and have the changes persist after the function returns



Hello World Example - Revisited

```
#include <stdio.h>
int main() {
    /* my first program in C */
    printf("Hello, World! \n");
    return 0;
}
```

- main is a function just like foo
- Every program needs to have exactly one main function
- Cannot be called by other functions in the program
- Entry point into program, called by operating system when starting program
- Return statement is optional, 0 (success) returned by default Technical University of Munich Alex Hoffman alex.hoffman@tum.de



C Functions - Declarations

- Compiler reads files top down
 - If a function is called it needs to of seen the function already to

know it exists

```
#include <stdio.h>
int main(int argc, char* argv[])
      int foo = 3;
      int two foo = get double(foo);
      printf("Foo: %d\n", two_foo);
int get_double(int bar){
      return bar * 2;
>> implicit declaration of function 'get_double'
```



C Functions - Declarations - Function Prototypes

Compiler reads files top down

If a function is called it needs to of seen the function already to

know it exists

```
#include <stdio.h>

int main(int argc, char* argv[])
{
    int foo = 3;
    int two_foo = get_double(foo);
    printf("Foo: %d\n", two_foo);
}

int get_double(int bar){
    return bar * 2;
}
>> implicit declaration of function 'get_double'
```



C Functions - Declarations - Function Prototypes

Place function prototype before function call return_type function_name(parameter list);

```
int get double(int bar);
int main(int argc, char* argv[])
      int foo = 3;
      int two foo = get double(foo);
      printf("Foo: %d\n", two foo);
int get double(int bar){
      return bar * 2;
>> Foo: 6
```



C Functions - Declarations - Function Ordering

Place function before function call

```
int get_double(int bar){
      return bar * 2;
int main(int argc, char* argv[])
      int foo = 3;
      int two_foo = get_double(foo);
      printf("Foo: %d\n", two_foo);
>> Foo: 6
```



C Functions - Declarations - Headers

- Header files include function prototypes for functions implemented in other .c files
- How you "include" library functions
- Eg.

```
#include <stdio.h>
int main(int argc, char* argv[])
{
   printf("Hello World\n", two_foo);
}
```

Preprocessor "copies and pastes" stdio.h into the #include line



C Functions - Declarations - Headers

Looking into stdio.h we see the following

```
330 This function is a possible cancellation point and therefore not
331 marked with THROW. */
332 extern int printf (const char *_restrict __format, ...);
333 /* Write formatted output to S. */
334 extern int sprintf (char *_restrict __s,
>335 const char *_restrict __format, ...) __THROWNL;
336
```

Along with a LOT of other function prototypes that are prototypes of functions implemented in stdio.c

As include is at top of file our compiler knows that printf exists



C Headers

- Don't have to repeat function prototype over and over and over
- Either:
 - #include "my_header.h" compiler looks in project source files
 - #include <stdio.h> compiler looks into system libraries
- Include file everywhere the functions that it defines are needed, simple!
- Standard libraries, Eg. stdio.h, are usually shipped with a compiler and thus have a target hardware platform
 - stdio.h on your laptop and on an embedded system could have very different functionalities!



C "Advanced" Data Types

Before going into the topics that are the most confusing just remember:

- Everything in C is simply some human-readable identifier that is used to reference some location in memory after compilation
- What is at that location in memory is told to the compiler using data types
 - Compiler can do some loose sanity type checking
- C allows the user to access wherever he/she wants in memory
- C does not keep track of data types, the programmer should know what data type is stored where in memory



C Arrays

- Data structure that tells the compiler "Here is a fixed number of X data type variables stored sequentially in memory"
- Key is that an array is a continuous memory region
- Each item is accessed via an index

```
Declare:
type array_name[array_size];
```

```
Access:
array_name[index];
```



C Arrays - Example

- Can be initialized with values or zeroed out
 - WARNING: if not initialized then values are just random junk from memory!
- Accessed using [] notation

```
int main(int argc, char* argv[])
{
   int my_int_array[20] = {0}; // Set all items to 0
   my_int_array[0] = 1; // Set first element to 1
   my_int_array[19] = my_int_array[0]; // Set last element to equal first

   double my_doubles[5] = { 123.45, 22.22, 1.0, 99.9, 2.0 };
}
```



C Arrays - Example

[] notation is actually just saying:

"From the memory location at the beginning of the array, go index * sizeof(data type) memory locations further and return the value you find there", although this is dependent on the compiler and advanced concepts such as memory alignment. Ignore this for now.

```
int main(int argc, char* argv[])
{
   int my_int_array[20] = {0}; // Set all items to 0
   my_int_array[5] = 1; // Set first element to 1
   // Same as
   *(my_int_array + 5) = 1; // * means were are looking at contents of a memory address, more on this soon
}
```



C Arrays - Strings

- C doesn't have native string types like other languages, Eg. Python's str
- A "string" in C is simply an array of char (1 byte ASCII values) with a termination character `\0` at the end
- Functions that operate on strings just iterate through memory one char/byte
 at a time until they encounter the termination character
- Use array notation to be declared:
 - char my_string[12] = "Hello world"; // Note length accounts for '\0' char
 - char my_string[] = "Hello world"; // Compiler computes require array length



C Arrays - Strings - Example

```
#include <stdio.h>
int main(int argc, char* argv[])
   char hello_string[5] = { 'h', 'e', 'l', 'l', 'o'};
   char world string[] = " world";
   printf("%s %s\n", hello_string, world_string);
>> hello world
```



Now for the most powerful feature of C:

POINTERS

(also that which confuses students the most)



C Pointers

- Remember: variable is simply a data type at some memory location
- A pointer is a variable that stores a memory location
 - Denoted using *
 - Eg. "int *foo" is a pointer (stores memory location) and at the location it points to is an int data type
 - Pointer data type just tells compiler what to expect (size of) at that memory location
- & ampersand operator can be used to get memory location of a variable
 - Eg. "int *foo = &bar" stores the memory location of the variable bar in the pointer foo. bar should be an int.



C Pointers

- You can access the contents of a pointer using the * operator
 - The operator does the following: "It goes to the memory location and reads/writes the number of bytes given by the data type"
 - Eg. *foo = 2
 Would go to the memory location that foo has stored (the bar variable's address) and stores the int 2 (4 bytes) at that location.



C Pointers - Example

```
int main(int argc, char* argv[])
   int foo = 2; // foo is set to a value of 2
   printf("%d\n", foo);
   int *bar // bar is a pointer that points to an integer value
   bar = &foo; // store the address of the foo variable in bar
   printf("%p\n", &foo);
   printf("%p\n", bar); // Same
   *bar = 4 // The int value at the location bar has stored (foo) is set to 4
   printf("%d\n", foo);
>> 2
>> 0x7ffc0c08d37c
>> 0x7ffc0c08d37c
```



C Pointers

- Allow you to pass variables to functions and have the values remain after the function returns
 - Changed directly in memory (heap) and not on the function's stack
- Only way to allocate memory on the heap using *alloc functions

```
int * p = malloc(10* sizeof(int));
*p = 5;
free(5);
```



C Memory Management

Pointers are how you store references to memory allocated on the heap. But what is this allocation?

- Memory on heap must be allocated before being used
- Memory SHOULD be free'd when no longer needed
- Memory allocation is done using the *alloc functions from stdlib.h
- User needs to specify the number of bytes to be stored
- Accessing allocated memory is done using pointer, pointer data type helps compiler know what is to be accessed at memory location



C Memory Management - Alloc Functions

- void *calloc(int num, int size) allocates an array of num elements, each
 of size bytes
- void *malloc(int num) allocates num bytes
- void *realloc(void *address, int newsize) re-allocates memory at address, extending it up to newsize. Might move memory region.
- void free(void *address) releases the block of memory at address
- All functions return void * meaning they have no type information
- User should type case (give return pointer a type) returned memory pointer. Eg. int *foo = (int *)malloc(sizeof(int));
- Allocation returns NULL is failed.



C Structures - In depth

- A user defined collection of multiple data items
- Allows for well structured data objects
 - Thus enabling programming paradigms such as object orientated programming
- Defined using the struct keyword
- Accessed using the member access operator.
 - o Eg.my_struct.my_int_member = 2;
- Good way to pass in and return lots of data to functions
 - return can only return one variable (put lots in a struct;))



C Structures

Can be allocated dynamically just like other variables

```
Eg.
  struct my struct {
     int int_member;
     short short member;
  struct my struct *my struct pointer =
      (struct my_struct *)malloc(sizeof(struct my_struct));
```



C Structures

- Can be allocated dynamically just like other variables
 - o Eg.

```
struct my_struct {
   int int_member;
   short short_member;
};
struct my_struct *my_struct_pointer =
   (struct my_struct *)malloc(sizeof(struct my_struct));
```

Type casing return value from malloc. So we know what is at memory location

malloc needs the number of bytes to allocate, sizeof
returns the number of bytes that "struct my_struct"
requires (4 (int) + 2 (short)) = 6



C Structure Pointers - Accessing Members

- Tricky!
- Pointer points to structure in memory
- Getting member values requires two steps:
 - Dereferencing pointer to give structure variable
 - Need to use member access operator (.) to get member values from dereferences structure
- Copying my_int_member to another variable equates to:
 int foo = (*my_struct_pointer).int_member;



C Structure Pointers - Accessing Members

int foo = (*my_struct_pointer).int_member;





Dereference pointer FIRST (brackets)

Access member of now dereferenced pointer

Setting variable is similar:



C Structure Pointers - Accessing Members

This method is messy and can get confusing

Luckily C has an easier way!

The (->) operator does these two steps in one. It dereferences the pointer and accesses a member of the dereferenced structure.

```
Eg.
int foo = my_struct_pointer->int_member;
my_struct_pointer->int_member = 5;
```



C Structure Pointers - Accessing Members - Example

```
struct my_struct {
   int int member;
   short short_member;
};
struct my_struct *my_struct_pointer =
    (struct my struct *)malloc(sizeof(struct my struct));
if (my_structure_pointer == NULL)
   return -1; // Allocation failed! Return error code
my structure pointer->short member = 5;
my_structure_pointer->int_member = (int)my_structure_pointer->short_member;
```