Basics of C Lecture 4

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Innopolis University
Eugene Zouev

http://c-faq.com/decl/spiral.anderson.html

[This was posted to comp.lang.c by its author, David Anderson, on **1994-05-06**.]

The "Clockwise/Spiral Rule"

By David Anderson

- How to "bootstrap" C declarations

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Previous classes:

- · C memory model
- · Typical program structure
- · Declarations & types
- · Pointers, arrays
- · Global/local & dynamic objects
- · Static/auto & global/local objects

Today:

- · Structures & unions
- · Memory model: execution stack
- · Scopes & blocks

Structures

ISO C Standard, 6.7.2.1, §6

... A structure is a <u>type</u> consisting of a sequence of <u>members</u>, whose storage is allocated in an ordered sequence

```
struct S
{
  int a, b;
  double c;
  int* p;
};
```

Member declarations

- How to declare structures?
- How to use structures?

Structures: how to declare

Two ways (as usual for C):

- Static
- Dynamic

```
struct S
{
    int a, b;
    double c;
    int* p;
};
```

```
struct S s1;
```

s1 is the object of type struct S created in the stack and accessible from within a local scope or in the global scope.

```
struct S* ps =
    (struct S*)malloc(sizeof(struct S));
```

ps points to the dynamic object of type struct S created in the heap and accessible via pointer.

Structures: how to use

Two ways of accessing structure elements:

- Via name
- Via pointer

```
Via name: dot notation
```

struct-name. member-name

```
struct S
{
  int a, b;
  double c;
  int* p;
};
```

```
struct S s1;
...
s1.a = 777;
s1.b = (int)s1.p;
...
```

Structures: how to use

Two ways of accessing structure elements:

- Via name
- Via pointer

```
Via pointer: arrow notation
```

```
pointer-to-struct -> member-name
```

```
struct S* ps =
        (struct S*)malloc(sizeof(struct S));
...
ps->a = 777;
ps->b = (int)ps->p;
...
```

Structures: details

Design points:

- Notation p->m seems to be unclear: actually pointer p doesn't point to the m member it points to the structure as a whole! ⊙
- Why have two kinds of notation for the same notion?

Mixing of access kinds:

```
struct S
{
  int a, b;
  double c;
  int* p;
};
```

```
struct S s1;
...
s1.a = 7777;
...
struct S* p = &s1;
...
p->a = 777;
```

s1 designates (refers to)
the same object as p
points to.

Nested Structures

```
struct Person
{
   char* name;
   struct { int unique_num, salary; } personal_info;
   int* extra_info;
};
```

```
struct Person john;
...
john.name = "John";
john.personal_info.unique_num = 12345678;
...
struct Person* p = &john;
...
p->personal_info.salary += 100;
```

Structures: Initialization

```
struct SheetOfPaper
  int height;
  int width;
};
struct SheetOfPaper letter;
letter.height = 279;
letter.width = 216;
struct SheetOfPaper A4 =
          { .height = 210, .width = 297 };
```

Structures: Alignment

```
struct S
                            What about the
                            following equation:
  char* m1;
  short m2[3];
                           sizeof(s) ==
  long m3;
                              sizeof(s.m1) + sizeof(s.m2) + sizeof(m3);
};
struct S s;
                            Addressable
                            bytes
                                                  m1 is pointer to char:
   S internal layout:
                                                  4 bytes
                                                  m[0], m[1] are shorts;
                                                  2 bytes each
   This memory
                                                  m[2] is short: 2 bytes
   is not used!
                                                  m3 is long: 4 bytes
```

Structures: bit-fields

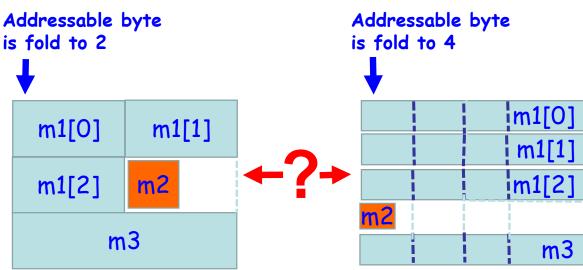
ISO C Standard, 6.7.2.1, §9-11

...A member may be declared to consist of a **specified number of bits** (including a sign bit, if any). Such a member is called a *bit-field*.

A bit-field is interpreted as having a signed or unsigned integer type consisting of the specified number of bits

An implementation may allocate **any addressable storage unit** large enough to hold a bit-field.

```
struct S
{
    short m1[3];
    int m2:5;
    long m3;
};
```



Which layout is used?

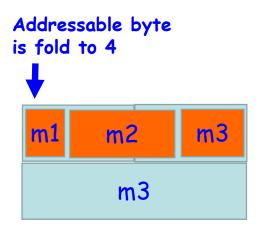
- Implementation-defined!

Structures: bit-fields

ISO C Standard, 6.7.2.1, §11

...If enough space remains, a bit-field that immediately follows another bit-field in a structure shall be packed **into adjacent bits of the same unit**.

```
struct MyLayout
  unsigned int m1:2;
  unsigned int m2:10;
  unsigned int
  long m3;
};
             Unnamed
            bit-field
```



Structures: bit-fields

ISO C Standard, 6.7.2.1, §6

...**Union** is a type consisting of a sequence of members whose storage **overlap**.

```
int x;
union U u;
...
u.m2 = &x;
...
unsigned y = u.m1;
```

```
union U1
{
  int m1a, m1b;
  int* m2;
};
m2
m1a m1b
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```

Memory Model: Stack

- In C as well as in most modern languages the execution is centered around the execution stack.
- All algorithms are organized into functions (sometimes called procedures, methods, routines etc.)
- The order of execution of functions is LIFO, i.e. the last function called is the first to terminate (this behavior is obtained using the stack)

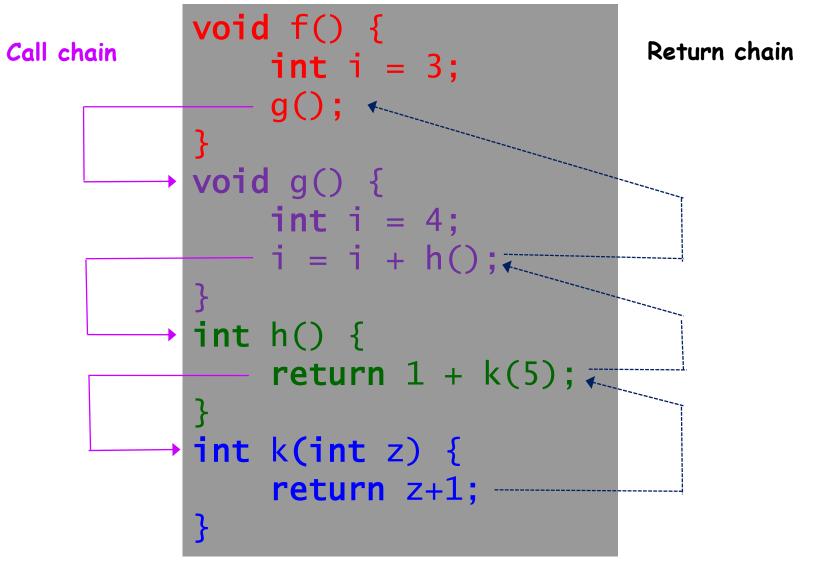
 Typical operations on stack:

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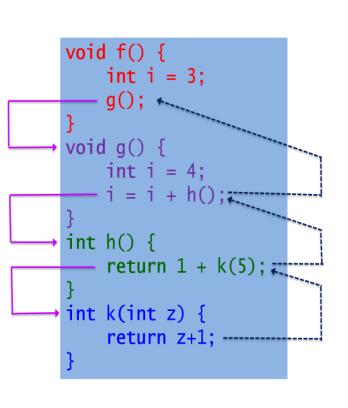
 push, pop, empty
 push, pop, empty

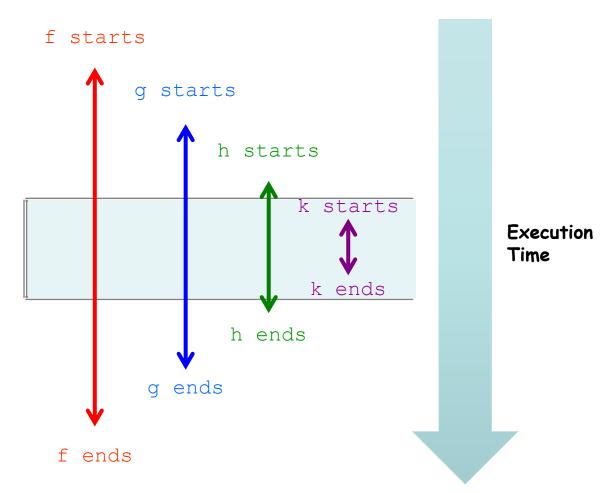
Memory Model: Stack





Code

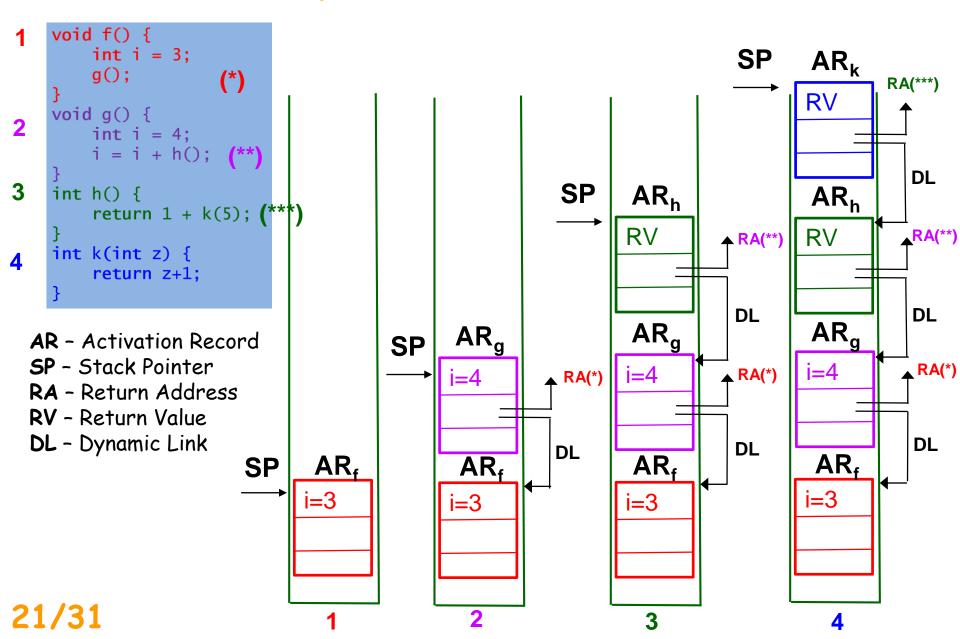




- Each time a function is called, all the information specifically needed for the function execution are put on the stack
- That information is collectively called the activation record (AR) of the function call
- This allows recursion, since for each call there will be a separate activation record on the stack
- When the call is completed (the function "returns") the corresponding AR is destroyed ("popped out" of the stack)
- Activation records are organized from bottom to top in memory diagram

The information stored in the AR (also known as Stack Frame) for one call are the following:

- Information to restart the execution at the end of the call, i.e. after the function "returns"; these usually are:
 - Return address
 - Pointer to the Stack portion devoted to the calling function
 - Return value (if any)
- Information needed to perform the computation (usually the actual arguments passed to the function in the call - if any)
- Local variables (if any)



Scope of a Variable

- The scope of a variable is a portion of the (source) code in which that variable is visible
 - the scope is where in the code we can refer to the variable declared
- Scoping rules (of some language) define the scope of a variable
- Scoping rules may vary from language to language and also among different declaration types in the same language
 - i.e. scoping rules for variable declarations may be different from those for function declarations

Blocks

- In most structured high-level languages the notion of block is central to scope identification
- A block is a portion of code enclosed between two special symbols, which mark the beginning and the end of the block.
 - In C (in Java, C++ etc.) blocks are marked by curly braces:

{ this is a block }

- In some other languages blocks are marked by begin and end keywords or in some other manner (e.g. implicitly).
- Usually, blocks can be nested; but some languagedependent limitations are possible.

Scopes & Blocks

- Variable is visible
 - In the block it is defined
 - Starting from the line of definition
 - In all inner bocks unless a variable of the same name is declared within
- Global variables (if exist in the language)
 - Defined outside the scope of any block
- Hiding a variable
 - A homonymous variable declared within a block makes a variable of the same name declared outside invisible

Scopes & Blocks

- Scope is a rule determining existence and visibility of variables.
- Block is a compound language construct where variables (and other program entities) are declared.
- Declared entities are valid only within their scope, e.g. a variable exists only in its scope. The system is unaware of these entities in other parts of the code.

Scopes & Blocks: an Example

Function body is the block

The scope of i starts from its declaration until the end of the block except inner scope where local i is declared

The loop body is the block. i and k are declared in the block that is the scope for them

The scope of inner i is this block. The local i hides the i from the outer block The scope of inner is this block. The

block

Function body is the block. The scope for z and i is the body. g's i is not related to f's i.

```
void f()
              int i = 3;
              for ( int j=0; j<20; j++ )
                   int k;
                   if ( condition )
                       int i = 7;
                       ...i+k...q(k)...
                   else
                       int j = g(k+i);
local j hides the j
from the outer
          int g(int z) {
              int i = z+1;
              return i*i;
```

Scope Activation Record 1

- In order to support blocks & scopes the extension to AR based model is used: Scope Activation Record (SAR)
- Every time a new block is encountered in the program flow, the SAR corresponding to this block is put on the stack.
- The SAR of a block is analogous to the AR of a function call, and it holds all the necessary information supporting visibility rules.

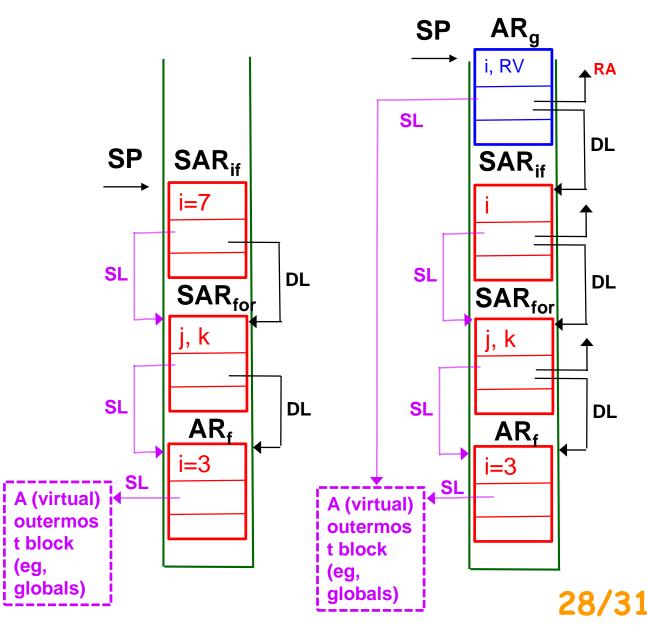
To remind:

the difference between **functions** and (usual) **blocks** is that blocks can be **nested** whereas functions cannot (in C)

Scope Activation Record 2

```
void f()
    int i = 3;
    for ( int j=0; j<20; j++ )
        int k;
        if ( condition )
            int i = 7;
            ...i+k...g(k)...
        else
            int j = g(k+i);
int g(int z) {
    int i = z+1;
    return i*i;
```

In these points, we are interested of how to access to i variables and k variable



Scope Activation Record 3

- SARs contain, at least, two different kinds of information:
 - local variables (local to the block itself)
 - the Static Link (SL also known as SAR link)
- In languages like C (Java, C++) variables defined in a block are always local to that block.
- The SAR link is a pointer to the SAR of the immediate enclosing block and it is used to access local variables of outer blocks (in a recursive fashion) from the current block, thus enforcing scoping rules at implementation level
 - Each time a variable is used in a scope, but there is no definition of such variable in such scope, the system uses the SL to reach out for the next enclosing scope to find that variable.
 - If it is not there, the SL is used to reach the next enclosing scope, and so on, recursively; until reaching the global scope.

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Exercise 1

Consider this (actually, very stupid ©) program:

```
void main()
    int i = 3:
    for ( int j=0; j<20; j++ )
        int k:
        if (j == 10)
            int i = i+k;
            q(k);
        else
            int j = g(k+i);
```

```
int q(int z) {
    int i = z+1;
    f();
    return i*i;
void f()
    int p = 0;
    while ( p <=10 )
        p++;
        g(p); (*)
```

Suppose the execution starts from the main function.

- 1. Draw the stack diagram for the case when the control flow comes to the point (*).
- 2. Find the *logical* problem with the program.

Exercise 2

There are no nested functions in C. However, some other modern languages (eg, Scala) do have nested functions.

Suppose there is nesting for functions in the language. Draw the stack configuration for the following program at the point marked by (*).

```
void main()
    long factorial(long n)
        if ( n <= 1 ) {
            return 1;
        else
            return n*factorial(n-1);
    long testFactorial(long n)
        for ( int j=1; j<n; j++ )
            long i = factorial(j);
            if ( i > 100 )
                signal(i);
                break;
    testFactorial(100);
void signal(long i)
```