

Systems 3

C Basics

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

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.¹
 - C is simple & powerful
— Damien Katz (CouchDB). The Unreasonable Effectiveness of C.²
- Programming Languages Rankings
 - 2nd place in TIOBE³ (October 2015)
 - 9th place in RedMonk⁴, with C++ ranking 5th (June 2015)

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

²http://damienkatz.net/2013/01/the_unreasonable_effectiveness_of_c.html

³<http://www.tiobe.com/index.php/content/paperinfo/tpci/index.html>

⁴<http://redmonk.com/sograpy/2015/07/01/language-rankings-6-15/>

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.

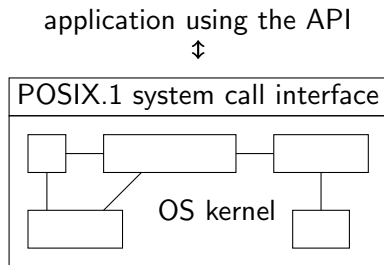
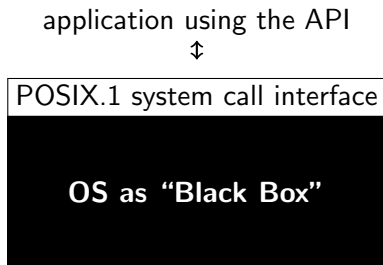


Figure: Black Box vs. White Box View of a UNIX System

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
	hello.c	source code
preprocessor	hello.i	source w/ preproc. directives expanded
compiler	hello.s	assembler code
assembler	hello.o	object code ready to be linked
linker	a.out	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.⁵

- 1st 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.

⁵Not 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 power⁶ of n .

A function definition has the form:

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

⁶Only 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**⁷ **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 }
```

⁷*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 ℓ

- 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?

More on Types

Structures, unions, enumerations

Defining types

Unscrambling C declarations

Type Conversions

Type Conversions

■ Type ranking

- `_Bool` \rightarrow `char` \rightarrow `short` \rightarrow `int` \rightarrow `long` \rightarrow `long long`
 \rightarrow
- `float` \rightarrow `double` \rightarrow `long double`

■ Typing constants

- `L` (`long`), `LL` (`long long`)
- `U` (`unsigned`), `UL` (`unsigned long`), `ULL` (`unsigned long long`)
- `F` (`float`), `L` (`long double`)

■ Automatic promotion to (`unsigned`) `int`

- The signedness of the higher-ranked type takes precedence
- For equal ranks, `unsigned` takes precedence

Structures

Declaring structures

- A structure allows a group of variables to be accessed via one name.
- To this end, a structure introduces a **new type**.

The definition has four parts:

```
1 struct tag {  
2     /* list of member declarations */  
3     type name...;  
4     type name...;  
5 } variable...;
```

- the keyword **struct**
- an optional *structure tag*
- brace-enclosed list of declarations for the **members**
- list of variables of the new structure type (optional)

Declaration examples:

```
1 struct point {  
2     double x, y;  
3 };  
4 /* now "struct tag" serves as type name */  
5 struct point p, q;
```

or equivalent

```
1 struct {  
2     double x, y;  
3 } p, q; /* directly name variables */  
4 /* But you cannot reuse this struct! */
```

Using structures

- A list of constant member values in the right order initialises a structure. Or use individual members by name, in any order.

```
1 struct point p1 = { 320, 200 };
```

```
1 struct point p2 = { .x = 320 };
```

- Structures can be assigned as a unit, or be returned from a function.

```
1 struct point p = q;           /* copy all members */  
2 struct point mkpoint();      /* declares function returning a point structure */
```

- Members can be accessed using [name.member](#)

```
1 struct point center;  
2 printf("%f, %f\n", center.x, center.y);
```

- There is a shortcut for handling pointers to structs: [ptr->name](#)

```
1 struct point origin, *pp;  
2 pp = &origin;                /* so you can get the address of a structure */  
3 printf("origin is (%f,%f)\n", (*pp).x, (*pp).y);  
4 printf("origin is (%f,%f)\n", pp->x, pp->y); /* this is equivalent */
```


■ Structures can contain other structures

```
1 struct rect {  
2     struct point ul;  
3     struct point lr;  
4 } square;  
5  
6 square.ul.x = 0; square.ul.y = 1;  
7 square.lr.x = 2; square.lr.y = 0;
```

■ Structures can be self-referential **via pointers**.

```
1 struct tnode {                /* the tree node: */  
2     int value;                /* node label */  
3     struct tnode *left;      /* left child */  
4     struct tnode *right;     /* right child */  
5 };
```

■ The **size** of a struct may be *larger* than the sum of its members!

```
1 struct demo {  
2     int i;  
3     char c;  
4 };
```

```
1 /* prints 8 on my machine */  
2 printf("%zu\n", sizeof(struct demo));
```

■ Structures can be array elements

```
1 struct point {  
2     int x;  
3     int y;  
4 } points[] = {  
5     { 0, 1 },  
6     { 2, 3 },  
7     { 3, 5 }  
8 };
```

■ Structures are passed to functions **by value**!

```
1 struct point add(struct point p1, struct point p2)  
2 {  
3     p1.x += p2.x;  
4     p1.y += p2.y;  
5  
6     return p1;  
7 }
```

- The **whole struct** is copied!
- This also works for the **return** value!

Unions

- A *union* is a **variable** that may hold (at different times) objects of **different types** and sizes.
- Unions provide a way to manipulate different kinds of data in a **single area of storage**.

The syntax is similar to structures:

```
1 union tag {  
2     /* list of member declarations */  
3     type name...;  
4     type name...;  
5 } variable...;
```

- the keyword `union`
- an optional *union tag*
- brace-enclosed list of declarations for the **members**
- list of variables of the new union type (optional)
- Union variables will be large enough to hold the **largest** of the member types. (the specific size is implementation-dependent)
- It is the programmer's responsibility to keep track of which member currently holds a value. **Only one** can be used at any time.

```
1 union demo {
2     int i;
3     double d;
4     char c;
5 };
6
7 union demo u;
8
9 printf("size: %zu\n", sizeof(u));
10
11 u.i = 23; /* now u.d and u.c contain garbage! */
12 printf("u.i: %-16d    u.d: %-16e    u.c: '%c'\n", u.i, u.d, u.c);
13
14 u.d = 4.2; /* now u.i and u.c contain garbage! */
15 printf("u.i: %-16d    u.d: %-16e    u.c: '%c'\n", u.i, u.d, u.c);
16
17 u.c = 'X'; /* now u.i and u.d contain garbage! */
18 printf("u.i: %-16d    u.d: %-16e    u.c: '%c'\n", u.i, u.d, u.c);
```

```
1 $ ./a.out
2 size: 8
3 u.i: 23                u.d: 6.952931e-310      u.c: ' '
4 u.i: -858993459        u.d: 4.200000e+00      u.c: '□'
5 u.i: -858993576        u.d: 4.200000e+00      u.c: 'X'
```

Use case 1: Saving space

- Usually occur as a part of a larger struct that also has implicit or explicit information about the data.
- Used to save space.

Example Zoological information on certain species. First attempt:

```
1 struct creature {  
2     char has_backbone;  
3     char has_fur;  
4     short num_of_legs_in_excess_of_4;  
5 };
```

However...

- All creatures are either vertebrate or invertebrate.
- Only vertebrates have fur and only invertebrates have more than four legs.
- Nothing has more than four legs and fur.

That is why...

```
1 union secondary_characteristics {
2     char has_fur;
3     short num_of_legs_in_excess_of_4;
4 };
5 struct creature {
6     char has_backbone; /* indicates valid union field! */
7     union secondary_characteristics form;
8 };
9
10 struct creature naked_mole_rat = {
11     .has_backbone = 'y',
12     .form.has_fur = 'n'    /* Note the .form prefix */
13 };
```

Use case 2: Data interpretation

```
1 union bits32_tag {  
2     int whole; /* one 32-bit value */  
3     char byte[4]; /* four 8-bit bytes */  
4 } value;
```

- Take the whole with `value.whole`
- Take 3rd byte with `value.byte[2]`

Notes

- You need to check your compiler's documentation to make proper use of this!
- Generally, structs are about one hundred times more common than unions.

Enumerations

- Enumerations provide a convenient way to associate **constant integer** values with **names**.
- An alternative to `#define` with the advantage that the values can be generated automatically.
- A compiler can warn about missing `cases` in `switch` statements over an enumeration.
- A **debugger** may also be able to print values of enumeration variables in symbolic form.

Definition syntax:

```
1 enum tag {  
2     name,  
3     name = val,  
4     ...  
5 } variable...;
```

- the keyword `enum`
- an optional *enumeration tag*
- brace-enclosed list of *members*, sep. by **comma**, with optional assignment
- optional list of variables of the new type

- Declaring an enumeration is similar to `enum` and `struct`.

```
1 enum answer { no, yes }; /* definition */  
2 enum answer x; /* declaration */
```

```
1 /* shorthand */  
2 enum { no, yes } x;
```

- An enumeration is a list of **constant integer values**.

```
1 enum answer { no, yes };  
2  
3 enum answer x;  
4 int i;  
5  
6 x = no;  
7 x = 42; /* x is just an int */  
8 i = yes;  
9 no = 23; /* invalid — not an lvalue! */
```

- If not assigned explicitly, the names are assigned consecutive integer constants, starting from 0.
- Enumeration continues from an explicit assignment.

```
1 enum months { JAN = 1, FEB, MAR, APR, MAY, JUN,  
2 JUL, AUG, SEP, OCT, NOV, DEC };  
3 /* FEB is 2, MAR is 3 ... */
```

Enumerations

- A **function** itself *is not* a variable.
- But it is possible to define **pointers** to functions.
- Can be **assigned**, placed in **arrays**, **passed** to/**returned** from functions.

Syntax step-by-step examples of declarations:

- `int fun(char c, double x);` nothing new!
 - The expression `fun('Q', 3.14)` is of type `int`.
 - `int *fun(char c, double x);` nothing new!
 - The expression `*fun('Q', 3.14)` is of type `int`.
 - Dereferencing `fun('Q', 3.14)` is of type `int`.
 - `int (*fun)(char c, double x);`
 - The expression `(*fun)('Q', 3.14);` is of type `int`.
 - Dereferencing `fun`, and applying the result to `'Q', 3.14`, is of type `int`.
- ⇒ We have just dereferenced a function!

Example

```
1 size_t strlen(const char *s);    /* available with #include <string.h> */
2
3 size_t (*fp)(const char *);
4 fp = &strlen;
5 printf("result = %zu\n", (*fp)("hello world"));
```

- This can be abbreviated:

```
5 printf("result = %zu\n", fp("hello world"));
```

- Nicer with `typedef`

```
2 typedef size_t (*func)(const char *);
3 func fp = &strlen;
```

Note Function pointers are heavily used in the real world! *E.g.*,

- pass a comparing function to a queue datastructure;
- installing signal handlers (*cf.* OS lecture, and later in this course); and
- abstractions (syscall interface, subclasses, VFS, ...).

Question Can you read `int ((*f)(void))[2] ?`