

CSCI-UA.0201

Computer Systems Organization

C Programming – Basics

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Brian Kernighan



Dennis Ritchie

In 1972 **Dennis Ritchie** at Bell Labs writes C and in 1978 the publication of **The C Programming Language** by Kernighan & Ritchie caused a revolution in the computing world.

Why C?

- Mainly because it produces code that runs nearly as fast as code written in assembly language.
Some examples of the use of C might be:
 - Operating Systems
 - Language Compilers
 - Assemblers
 - Text Editors
 - Print Spoolers
 - Network Drivers
 - Language Interpreters
 - Utilities

Interesting Opinion About C

You might never use it professionally, but it contains a lifetime of lessons. And the hardest problems, the ones that the top engineers are asked to solve, will sooner or later hit some foundational C code.

Here are some things that are written in C:

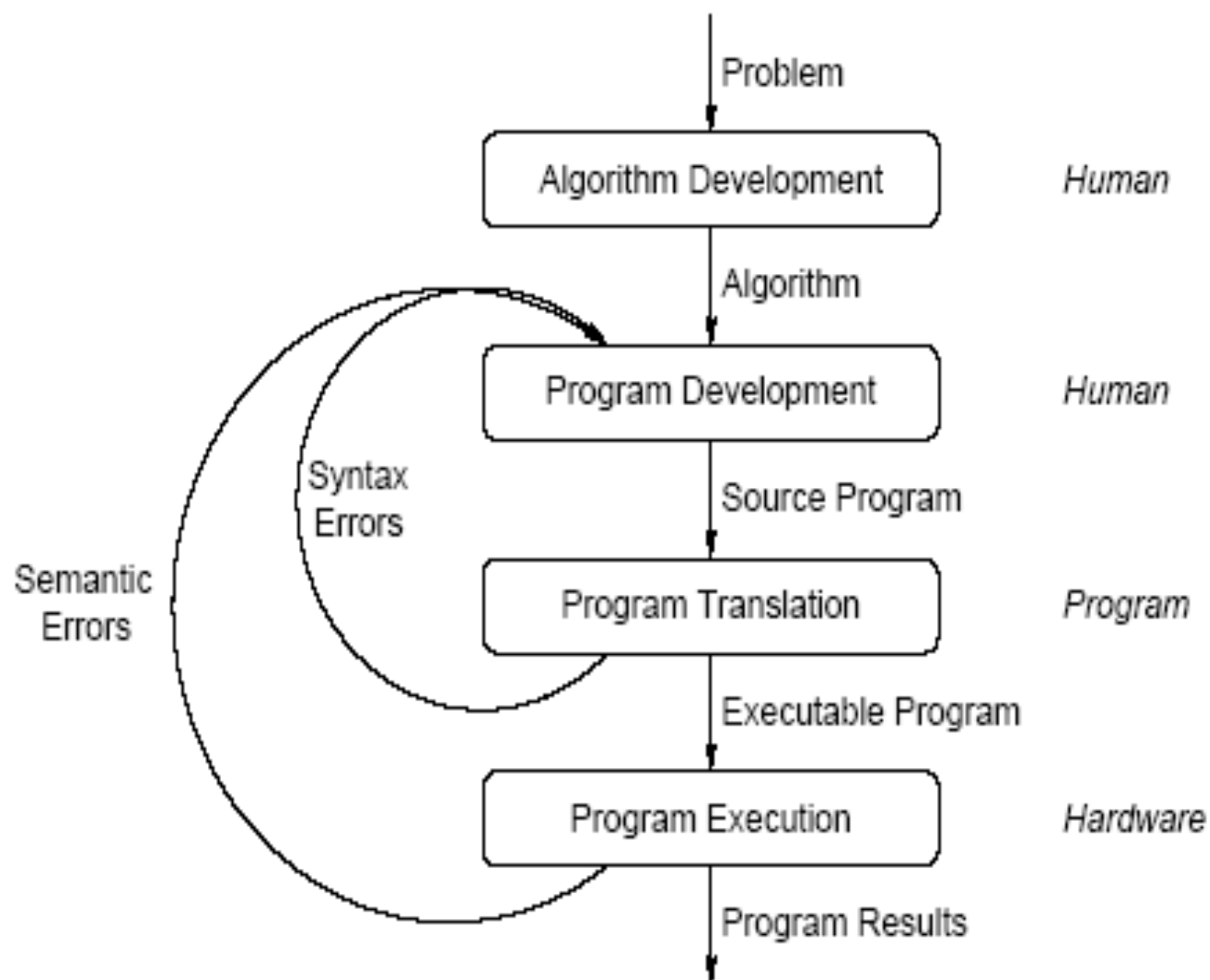
- The Java virtual machine is written in ANSI C
- Linux is written in C (and some assembly, but mostly C)
- Python is written in C
- Mac OS X kernel is written in C
- Windows is written in C and C++
- The Oracle database is written in C and C++
- Cisco routers, those things which connect the Internet, also C

Name anything that is foundational, complex, and performance critical. It was written in C, with a sprinkling of assembly thrown in.

C will make you a better Java programmer. You'll know when the JVM is using the stack and when it's using the heap, and what that means. You'll have a more intuitive sense of what garbage collection does. You'll have a better sense of the relative performance cost of objects versus primitives.

Your first goal: Learn C!

- Resources
 - KR book: “The C Programming Language”
 - These lectures
 - Additional online resources (some links on the course website)
- Learning a Programming Language
 - The best way to learn is to write programs



Writing and Running Programs

```
#include <stdio.h>
/* The simplest C Program */
int main(int argc, char **argv)
{
    printf("Hello world\n");
    return 0;
}
```

1. Write text of program (**source code**) using a text editor, save as text file e.g. my_program.c

2. Run the compiler to convert program from source to an “**executable**” or “binary”:

```
$ gcc -Wall -g -o my_program my_program.c
```

3-Compiler gives errors and warnings; edit source file, fix it, and re-compile

Run it and see if it works ☺

```
$ ./my_program
```

```
Hello World
```

```
$ █
```

```
$ gcc -Wall -g -o my_program my_program.c
```

generate all
warnings

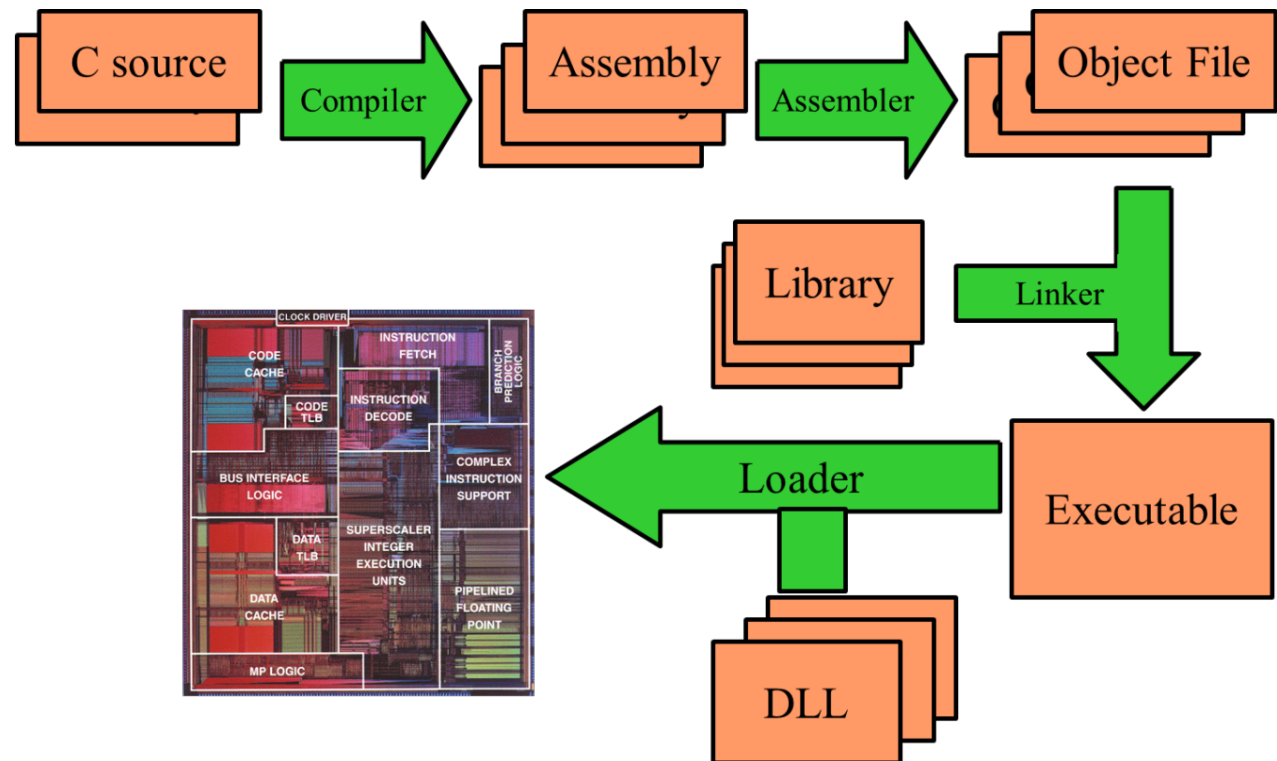
keep debugging
information

name the generated
executable
(default: a.out)

one or more
C files

About C

- **Procedural language**
 - Functions calling each other, starting with `main()`.
- **Case-sensitive**



C Syntax and Hello World

#include inserts another file. “.h” files are called “header” files. They contain stuff needed to interface to libraries and code in other “.c” files.

This is a comment. The compiler ignores this.

```
#include <stdio.h>
/* The simplest C Program */
int main(int argc, char **argv)
{
    printf("Hello world\n");
    return 0;
}
```

The main() function is always where your program starts running.

Blocks of code are marked by { ... }

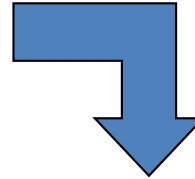
Return '0' from this function

Print out a message. '\n' means “new line”.

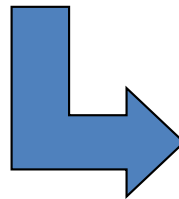
Preprocessing

```
#include <stdio.h>
/* The simplest C Program */
int main(int argc, char **argv)
{
    printf("Hello World\n");
    return 0;
}
```

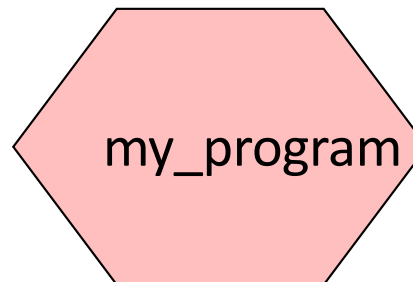
Preprocess



```
__extension__ typedef unsigned long long int  __dev_t;
__extension__ typedef unsigned int    __uid_t;
__extension__ typedef unsigned int    __gid_t;
__extension__ typedef unsigned long int  __ino_t;
__extension__ typedef unsigned long long int  __ino64_t;
__extension__ typedef unsigned int    __nlink_t;
__extension__ typedef long int    __off_t;
__extension__ typedef long long int  __off64_t;
extern void flockfile (FILE *__stream) ;
extern int  ftrylockfile (FILE *__stream) ;
extern void funlockfile (FILE *__stream) ;
int main(int argc, char **argv)
{
    printf("Hello World\n");
    return 0;
}
```



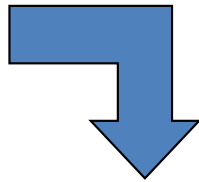
Compile



Preprocessing

```
#include <stdio.h>
/* The simplest C Program */
int main(int argc, char **argv)
{
    printf("Hello World\n");
    return 0;
}
```

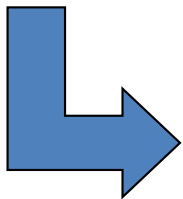
Preprocess



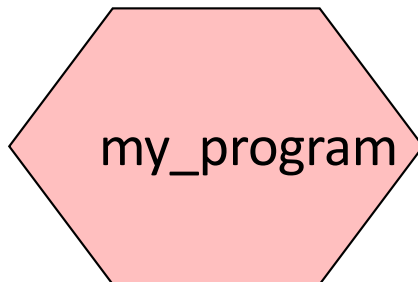
```
__extension__ typedef unsigned long long int __dev_t;
__extension__ typedef unsigned int __uid_t;
__extension__ typedef unsigned int __gid_t;
__extension__ typedef unsigned long int __ino_t;
__extension__ typedef unsigned long long int __ino64_t;
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extern void flockfile (FILE *__stream) ;
extern int ftrylockfile (FILE *__stream) ;
extern void funlockfile (FILE *__stream) ;
int main(int argc, char **argv)
{
    printf("Hello World\n");
    return 0;
}
```

In Preprocessing, source code is “expanded” into a larger form that is simpler for the compiler to understand. Any line that starts with ‘#’ is a line that is interpreted by the Preprocessor.

- Include files are “pasted in” (#include)
- Macros are “expanded” (#define)
- Comments are stripped out (/* */, //)
- Continued lines (i.e. very long lines) are joined (\)



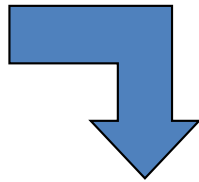
Compile



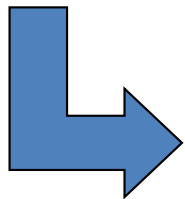
Compiling

```
#include <stdio.h>
/* The simplest C Program */
int main(int argc, char **argv)
{
    printf("Hello World\n");
    return 0;
}
```

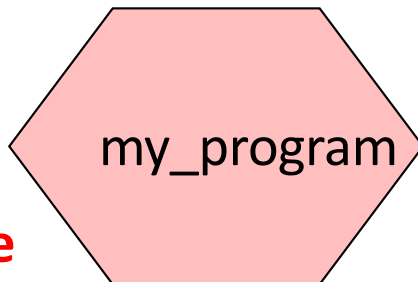
Preprocess



```
__extension__ typedef unsigned long long int __dev_t;
__extension__ typedef unsigned int __uid_t;
__extension__ typedef unsigned int __gid_t;
__extension__ typedef unsigned long int __ino_t;
__extension__ typedef unsigned long long int __ino64_t;
__extension__ typedef unsigned int __nlink_t;
__extension__ typedef long int __off_t;
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extern void flockfile (FILE *__stream) ;
extern int ftrylockfile (FILE *__stream) ;
extern void funlockfile (FILE *__stream) ;
int main(int argc, char **argv)
{
    printf("Hello World\n");
    return 0;
}
```



Compile



- The compiler then converts the resulting text into binary code the CPU can run directly.
- The compilation process involves really several steps:
 - **Compiler:** high level language → assembly
 - **Assembler:** assembly → machine code
 - **Linker:** links all machine code files and needed libraries into one executable file.
- When you type *gcc* you really invoke the compiler, assembler, and linker.

What is “Memory”?

- Is like a big table of numbered slots.
- Each slot stores a byte.

- The number of a slot is its **Address**.
- One byte **Value** can be stored in each slot.

Some “logical” data values span more than one slot, like the character string “Hello\n”

A **Type** names a logical meaning to a span of memory. Some simple types are:

char
char [10]
int
float

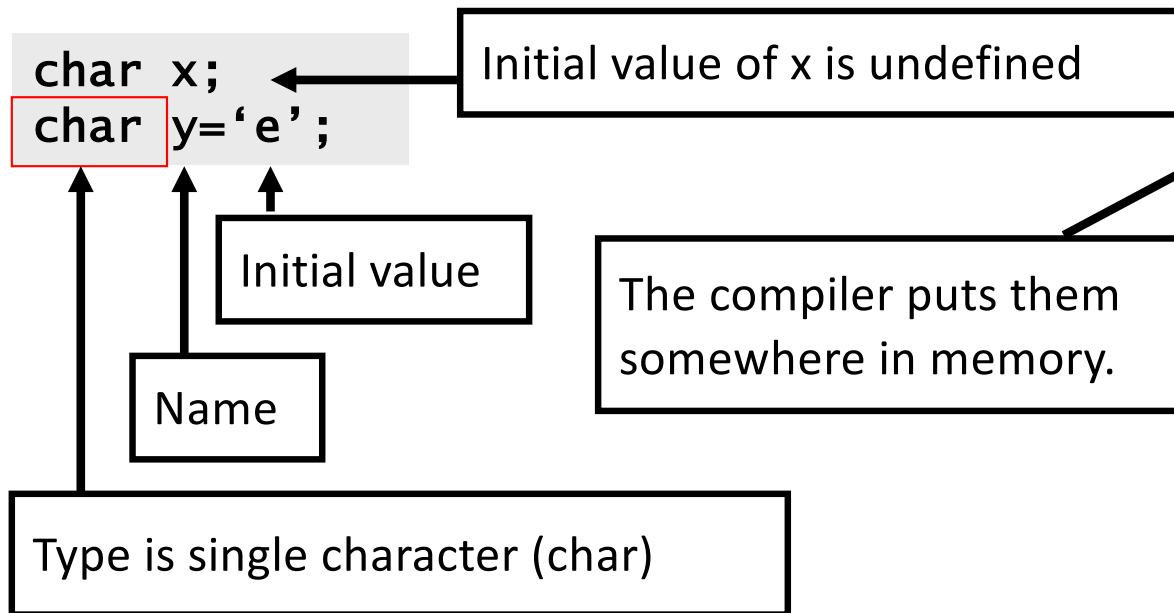
a single character (1 slot)
an array of 10 characters
signed 4 byte integer
4 byte floating point

Addr	Value
0	
1	
2	
3	
4	'H' (72)
5	'e' (101)
6	'l' (108)
7	'l' (108)
8	'o' (111)
9	'\n' (10)
10	'\0' (0)
11	
12	

What is a Variable?

A **Variable** names a place in memory where you store a **Value** of a certain **Type**.

You first **Define** a variable by giving it a name and specifying the type, and optionally an initial value



Symbol	Addr	Value
	0	
	1	
	2	
	3	
x	4	?
y	5	'e' (101)
	6	
	7	
	8	
	9	
	10	
	11	
	12	

Multi-byte Variables

Different types consume different amounts of memory. Most architectures store data on “word boundaries”, or even multiples of the size of a primitive data type (int, char)

```
char x;  
char y='e';  
int z = 0x01020304;
```

0x means the constant is written in hex

padding

An int consumes 4 bytes

Symbol	Addr	Value
	0	
	1	
	2	
	3	
x	4	?
y	5	'e' (101)
	6	
	7	
z	8	4
	9	3
	10	2
	11	1
	12	

Scope

Every Variable is Declared within some scope. A Variable cannot be referenced from outside of that scope.

Scopes are defined with curly braces { }.

→ The scope of Function Arguments is the complete body of the function.

→ The scope of Variables defined inside a function starts at the definition and ends at the closing brace of the containing block

→ The scope of Variables defined outside a function starts at the definition and ends at the end of the file. Called **Global** Vars.

```
void p(char x)
{
    char y;
    char z;
}
char z;

void q(char a)
{
    char b;

    {
        char c;
    }

    char d;
}
```

Now that we know about variables,
let's combine them to form
expressions!

Diagram illustrating the relationship between an expression and a statement in the code `X = 2 * Y + Z;`:

- The code `X = 2 * Y + Z;` is shown.
- A bracket above the code spans the expression `2 * Y + Z` and is labeled "Expression".
- A bracket below the code spans the entire line `X = 2 * Y + Z;` and is labeled "Statement".

How Expressions Are Evaluated?

Expressions combine **Values** using **Operators**, according to **precedence**.


$1 + 2 * 2$	$\rightarrow 1 + 4$	$\rightarrow 5$
$(1 + 2) * 2$	$\rightarrow 3 * 2$	$\rightarrow 6$

Comparison operators are used to compare values.

In C: 0 means “false”, and *any other value* means “true”.


<code>int x=4;</code>		
<code>(x < 5)</code>	$\rightarrow (4 < 5)$	$\rightarrow <\text{true}>$
<code>(x < 4)</code>	$\rightarrow (4 < 4)$	$\rightarrow 0$
<code>((x < 5) (x < 4))</code>	$\rightarrow (<\text{true}> (x < 4))$	$\rightarrow <\text{true}>$

Not evaluated because
first clause was true



Precedence

- **Highest to lowest**

- 
- $()$
 - $*, /, \%$
 - $+, -$

When in doubt, use parenthesis.

Comparison and Mathematical Operators

`==` equal to
`<` less than
`<=` less than or equal
`>` greater than
`>=` greater than or equal
`!=` not equal
`&&` logical and
`||` logical or
`!` logical not

`+` plus
`-` minus
`*` mult
`/` divide
`%` modulo

`&` bitwise and
`|` bitwise or
`^` bitwise xor
`~` bitwise not
`<<` shift left
`>>` shift right

Beware in division:

If second argument is integer, the result will be integer (rounded):

$5 / 10 \rightarrow 0$ *whereas* $5 / 10.0 \rightarrow 0.5$

Don't confuse `&` and `&&`

$1 \& 2 \rightarrow 0$ *whereas* $1 \&\& 2 \rightarrow \text{<true>}$

More on these in later lectures when we discuss binary numbers.

Assignment Operators

<code>x = y</code>	assign <code>y</code> to <code>x</code>
<code>x++</code>	post-increment <code>x</code>
<code>++x</code>	pre-increment <code>x</code>
<code>x--</code>	post-decrement <code>x</code>
<code>--x</code>	pre-decrement <code>x</code>

<code>x += y</code>	assign <code>(x+y)</code> to <code>x</code>
<code>x -= y</code>	assign <code>(x-y)</code> to <code>x</code>
<code>x *= y</code>	assign <code>(x*y)</code> to <code>x</code>
<code>x /= y</code>	assign <code>(x/y)</code> to <code>x</code>
<code>x %= y</code>	assign <code>(x%y)</code> to <code>x</code>

Note the difference between `++x` and `x++`:

```
int x=5;
int y;
y = ++x;
/* x == 6, y == 6 */
```

```
int x=5;
int y;
y = x++;
/* x == 6, y == 5 */
```

Don't confuse `=` and `==`

```
int x=5;
if (x==6)    /* false */
{
    /* ... */
}
/* x is still 5 */
```

```
int x=5;
if (x=6)    /* always true */
{
    /* x is now 6 */
}
/* ... */
```

Evaluation Order of Expressions

- Unlike many other languages, the semantics of C does not specify the order in which operands are evaluated.
- So be careful when subexpressions have side effects!

Example:

```
int x = 0;  
x = x++ + (x + 1);
```

Can be evaluated as

```
int x = 0;  
int tmp1 = x++;  
int tmp2 = x + 1;    or  
x = tmp1 + tmp2;  
// x == 2
```

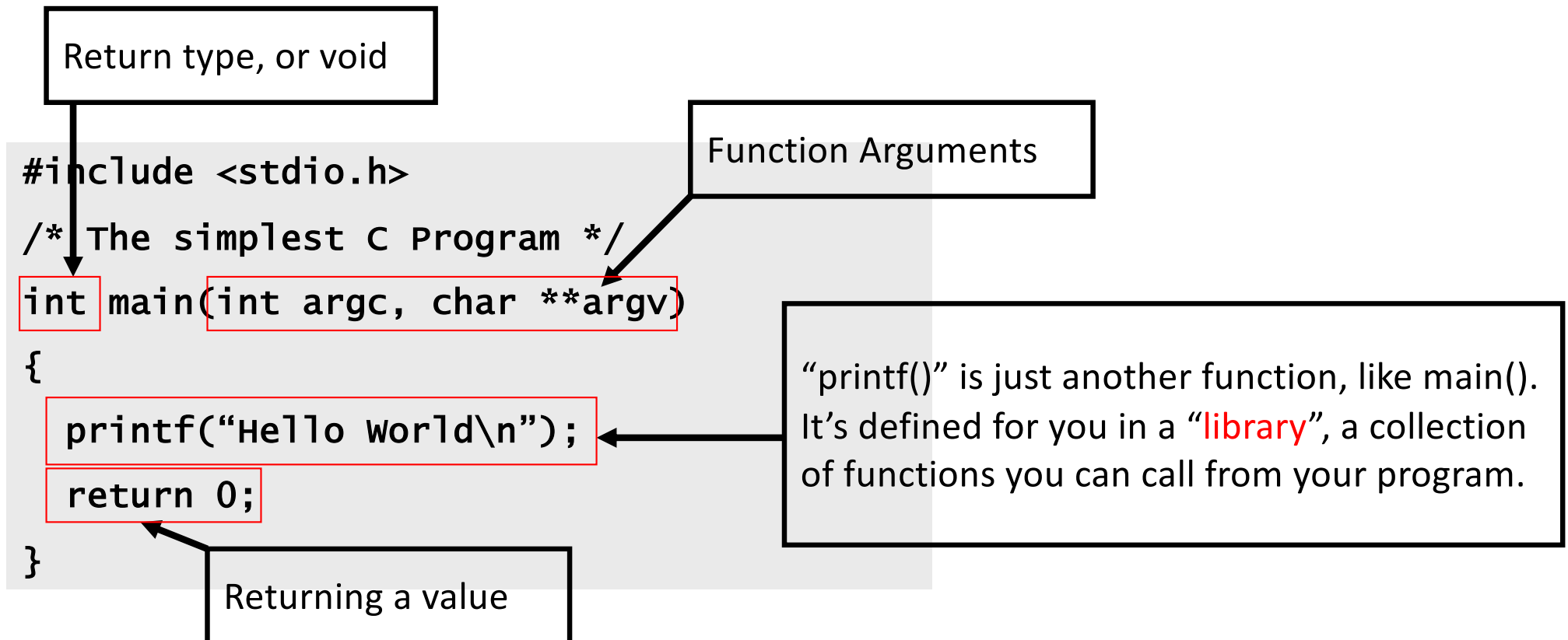
```
int x = 0;  
int tmp1 = x + 1;  
int tmp2 = x++;  
x = tmp2 + tmp1;  
// x == 1
```

Functions

What is a Function?

A **Function** is a series of instructions to run.
You pass **Arguments** to a function and it returns a **Value**.

“main()” is a Function. It’s only special because it always gets called first when you run your program.



A More Complex Program: pow

“if” statement

```
/* if evaluated expression is not 0 */
if (expression) {
    /* then execute this block */
}
else {
    /* otherwise execute this block */
}
```

Tracing “pow()”:

- What does pow(5,0) do?
- What about pow(5,1)?

```
#include <stdio.h>
```

```
float pow(float x, unsigned int exp)
{
    /* base case */
    if (exp == 0) {
        return 1.0;
    }

    /* “recursive” case */
    return x*pow(x, exp - 1);
}
```

```
int main(int argc, char **argv)
{
    float p;
    p = pow(10.0, 5);
    printf("p = %f\n", p);
    return 0;
}
```

The “Stack”

Recall scoping. If a variable is valid “within the scope of a function”, what happens when you call that function recursively? Is there more than one “exp”?

Yes. Each function call allocates a “**stack frame**” where Variables within that function’s scope will reside.

float x	5.0	
uint32_t exp	0	Return 1.0
float x	5.0	
uint32_t exp	1	Return 5.0
int argc	1	
char **argv	0x2342	
float p	5.0	

↑
Grows

```
#include <stdio.h>
#include <inttypes.h>

float pow(float x, unsigned int exp)
{
    /* base case */
    if (exp == 0) {
        return 1.0;
    }

    /* “recursive” case */
    return x*pow(x, exp - 1);
}

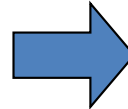
int main(int argc, char **argv)
{
    float p;
    p = pow(5.0, 1);
    printf("p = %f\n", p);
    return 0;
}
```

The “for” loop

The “for” loop is just shorthand for this “while” loop structure.

```
float pow(float x, unsigned int exp)
{
    float result=1.0;
    int i;
    i=0;
    while (i < exp) {
        result = result * x;
        i++;
    }
    return result;
}

int main(int argc, char **argv)
{
    float p;
    p = pow(10.0, 5);
    printf("p = %f\n", p);
    return 0;
}
```



```
float pow(float x, unsigned int exp)
{
    float result=1.0;
    int i;
    for (i=0; i < exp; i++) {
        result = result * x;
    }
    return result;
}

int main(int argc, char **argv)
{
    float p;
    p = pow(10.0, 5);
    printf("p = %f\n", p);
    return 0;
}
```

When to Use?

Different Loop-constructs

- while
- do-while
- for

Conditions

- if-else
- switch-case