Chapter 18: Declarations

Chapter 18

Declarations



- Declarations furnish information to the compiler about the meaning of identifiers.
- Examples:

```
int i;
float f(float);
```

- General form of a declaration:
 - declaration-specifiers declarators;
- *Declaration specifiers* describe the properties of the variables or functions being declared.
- *Declarators* give their names and may provide additional information about their properties.

- Declaration specifiers fall into three categories:
 - Storage classes
 - Type qualifiers
 - Type specifiers
- C99 has a fourth category, *function specifiers*, which are used only in function declarations.
 - This category has one member, the keyword inline.
- Type qualifiers and type specifiers should follow the storage class, but there are no other restrictions on their order.



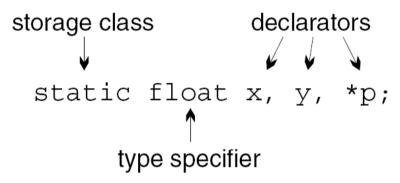
- There are four *storage classes:* auto, static, extern, and register.
- At most one storage class may appear in a declaration; if present, it should come first.
- In C89, there are only two *type qualifiers:* const and volatile.
- C99 has a third type qualifier, restrict.
- A declaration may contain zero or more type qualifiers.



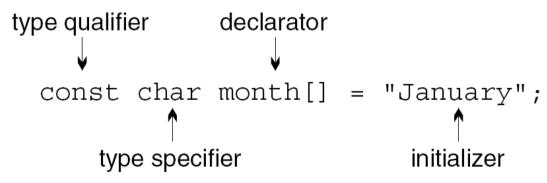
- The keywords void, char, short, int, long, float, double, signed, and unsigned are all type specifiers.
- The order in which they are combined doesn't matter.
 - int unsigned long is the same as long unsigned int.
- Type specifiers also include specifications of structures, unions, and enumerations.
 - Examples: struct point { int x, y; },
 struct { int x, y; }, struct point.
- typedef names are also type specifiers.

- Declarators include:
 - Identifiers (names of simple variables)
 - Identifiers followed by [] (array names)
 - Identifiers preceded by * (pointer names)
 - Identifiers followed by () (function names)
- Declarators are separated by commas.
- A declarator that represents a variable may be followed by an initializer.

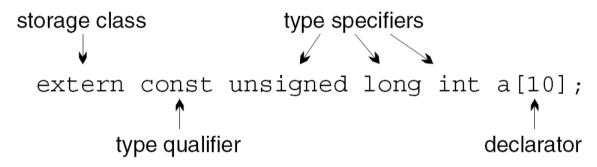
• A declaration with a storage class and three declarators:



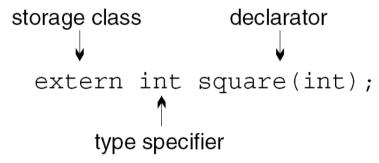
 A declaration with a type qualifier and initializer but no storage class:



• A declaration with a storage class, a type qualifier, and three type specifiers:



• Function declarations may have a storage class, type qualifiers, and type specifiers:





Storage Classes

- Storage classes can be specified for variables and—to a lesser extent—functions and parameters.
- Recall that the term *block* refers to the body of a function (the part in braces) or a compound statement, possibly containing declarations.

- Every variable in a C program has three properties:
 - Storage duration
 - Scope
 - Linkage

- The *storage duration* of a variable determines when memory is set aside for the variable and when that memory is released.
 - Automatic storage duration: Memory for variable is allocated when the surrounding block is executed and deallocated when the block terminates.
 - Static storage duration: Variable stays at the same storage location as long as the program is running, allowing it to retain its value indefinitely.

- The *scope* of a variable is the portion of the program text in which the variable can be referenced.
 - Block scope: Variable is visible from its point of declaration to the end of the enclosing block.
 - File scope: Variable is visible from its point of declaration to the end of the enclosing file.

- The *linkage* of a variable determines the extent to which it can be shared.
 - External linkage: Variable may be shared by several (perhaps all) files in a program.
 - Internal linkage: Variable is restricted to a single file but may be shared by the functions in that file.
 - No linkage: Variable belongs to a single function and can't be shared at all.

- The default storage duration, scope, and linkage of a variable depend on where it's declared:
 - Variables declared *inside* a block (including a function body) have *automatic* storage duration, *block* scope, and *no* linkage.
 - Variables declared *outside* any block, at the outermost level of a program, have *static* storage duration, *file* scope, and *external* linkage.

• Example:

```
static storage duration
int i; file scope
external linkage

void f(void)
{
         automatic storage duration
         int j; block scope
         no linkage
}
```

• We can alter these properties by specifying an explicit storage class: auto, static, extern, or register.

The auto Storage Class

- The auto storage class is legal only for variables that belong to a block.
- An auto variable has automatic storage duration, block scope, and no linkage.
- The auto storage class is almost never specified explicitly.

- The static storage class can be used with all variables, regardless of where they're declared.
 - When used *outside* a block, static specifies that a variable has internal linkage.
 - When used *inside* a block, static changes the variable's storage duration from automatic to static.

• Example:

```
static storage duration
static int i; file scope
internal linkage

void f(void)
{
    static storage duration
    static int j; block scope
    no linkage
}
```

• When used outside a block, static hides a variable within a file:

```
static int i; /* no access to i in other files */
void f1(void)
{
   /* has access to i */
}

void f2(void)
{
   /* has access to i */
}
```

• This use of static is helpful for implementing information hiding.

- A static variable declared within a block resides at the same storage location throughout program execution.
- A static variable retains its value indefinitely.
- Properties of static variables:
 - A static variable is initialized only once, prior to program execution.
 - A static variable declared inside a function is shared by all calls of the function, including recursive calls.
 - A function may return a pointer to a static variable.



- Declaring a local variable to be static allows a function to retain information between calls.
- More often, we'll use static for reasons of efficiency:

```
char digit_to_hex_char(int digit)
{
  static const char hex_chars[16] =
    "0123456789ABCDEF";

  return hex_chars[digit];
}
```

• Declaring hex_chars to be static saves time, because static variables are initialized only once.

- The extern storage class enables several source files to share the same variable.
- A variable declaration that uses extern doesn't cause memory to be allocated for the variable:

extern int i;

In C terminology, this is not a definition of i.

- An extern declaration tells the compiler that we need access to a variable that's defined elsewhere.
- A variable can have many *declarations* in a program but should have only one *definition*.

- There's one exception to the rule that an extern declaration of a variable isn't a definition.
- An extern declaration that initializes a variable serves as a definition of the variable.
- For example, the declaration

```
extern int i = 0;
is effectively the same as
int i = 0;
```

• This rule prevents multiple extern declarations from initializing a variable in different ways.

- A variable in an extern declaration always has static storage duration.
- If the declaration is inside a block, the variable has block scope; otherwise, it has file scope:

```
static storage duration
extern int i; file scope
? linkage

void f(void)
{
    static storage duration
    extern int j; block scope
? linkage
}
```

- Determining the linkage of an extern variable is a bit harder.
 - If the variable was declared static earlier in the file (outside of any function definition), then it has internal linkage.
 - Otherwise (the normal case), the variable has external linkage.

- Using the register storage class in the declaration of a variable asks the compiler to store the variable in a register.
- A *register* is a high-speed storage area located in a computer's CPU.
- Specifying the storage class of a variable to be register is a request, not a command.
- The compiler is free to store a register variable in memory if it chooses.



- The register storage class is legal only for variables declared in a block.
- A register variable has the same storage duration, scope, and linkage as an auto variable.
- Since registers don't have addresses, it's illegal to use the & operator to take the address of a register variable.
- This restriction applies even if the compiler has elected to store the variable in memory.



- register is best used for variables that are accessed and/or updated frequently.
- The loop control variable in a for statement is a good candidate for register treatment:

```
int sum_array(int a[], int n)
{
  register int i;
  int sum = 0;

  for (i = 0; i < n; i++)
    sum += a[i];
  return sum;
}</pre>
```

- register isn't as popular as it once was.
- Many of today's compilers can determine automatically which variables would benefit from being kept in registers.
- Still, using register provides useful information that can help the compiler optimize the performance of a program.
- In particular, the compiler knows that a register variable can't have its address taken, and therefore can't be modified through a pointer.

The Storage Class of a Function

- Function declarations (and definitions) may include a storage class.
- The only options are extern and static:
 - extern specifies that the function has external linkage, allowing it to be called from other files.
 - static indicates internal linkage, limiting use of the function's name to the file in which it's defined.
- If no storage class is specified, the function is assumed to have external linkage.



The Storage Class of a Function

• Examples:

```
extern int f(int i);
static int g(int i);
int h(int i);
```

- Using extern is unnecessary, but static has benefits:
 - *Easier maintenance*. A static function isn't visible outside the file in which its definition appears, so future modifications to the function won't affect other files.
 - **Reduced "name space pollution."** Names of static functions don't conflict with names used in other files.

The Storage Class of a Function

- Function parameters have the same properties as auto variables: automatic storage duration, block scope, and no linkage.
- The only storage class that can be specified for parameters is register.

Summary

• A program fragment that shows all possible ways to include—or omit—storage classes in declarations of variables and parameters:

```
int a;
extern int b;
static int c;

void f(int d, register int e)
{
  auto int g;
  int h;
  static int i;
  extern int j;
  register int k;
}
```

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Summary

Name	Storage Duration	Scope	Linkage
а	static	file	external
b	static	file	†
С	static	file	internal
d	automatic	block	none
е	automatic	block	none
g	automatic	block	none
h	automatic	block	none
i	static	block	none
j	static	block	†
k	automatic	block	none

†In most cases, b and j will be defined in another file and will have external linkage.



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Summary

- Of the four storage classes, the most important are static and extern.
- auto has no effect, and modern compilers have made register less important.

Type Qualifiers

- There are two type qualifiers: const and volatile.
 - C99 has a third type qualifier, restrict, which is used only with pointers.
- volatile is discussed in Chapter 20.
- const is used to declare "read-only" objects.
- Examples:

```
const int n = 10;
const int tax_brackets[] =
  {750, 2250, 3750, 5250, 7000};
```

Type Qualifiers

Advantages of declaring an object to be const:

- Serves as a form of documentation.

- Allows the compiler to check that the value of the object isn't changed.
- Alerts the compiler that the object can be stored in ROM (read-only memory).

Type Qualifiers

- It might appear that const serves the same role as the #define directive, but there are significant differences between the two features.
- #define can be used to create a name for a numerical, character, or string constant, but const can create read-only objects of any type.

const objects are subject to the same scope rules as variables; constants created using #define 完美量: 接着是位置敌处理

aren't. 供他和 海底的交通对指入上数 不仅用对不多用内存。今完 考虑者是:不证门我处理。多次 你不好 年明年用内存。——)考查 河南海及使用,但不

为轻很低.

Type Qualifiers

- The value of a const object, unlike the value of a macro, can be viewed in a debugger.
- Unlike macros, const objects can't be used in constant expressions:

```
const int n = 10;
int a[n]; /*** WRONG ***/
```

• It's legal to apply the address operator (&) to a const object, since it has an address; a macro doesn't have an address.

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Type Qualifiers

- There are no absolute rules that dictate when to use #define and when to use const.
- #define is good for constants that represent numbers or characters.

• In the simplest case, a declarator is just an identifier:

```
int i;
```

- Declarators may also contain the symbols *, [], and ().
- A declarator that begins with * represents a pointer:

```
int *p;
```

- A declarator that ends with [] represents an array: int a[10];
- The brackets may be left empty if the array is a parameter, if it has an initializer, or if its storage class is extern:

```
extern int a[];
```

• In the case of a multidimensional array, only the first set of brackets can be empty.

- C99 provides two additional options for what goes between the brackets in the declaration of an array parameter:
 - The keyword static, followed by an expression that specifies the array's minimum length.
 - The * symbol, which can be used in a function prototype to indicate a variable-length array argument.
- Chapter 9 discusses both features.

• A declarator that ends with () represents a function:

```
int abs(int i);
void swap(int *a, int *b);
int find_largest(int a[], int n);
```

• C allows parameter names to be omitted in a function declaration:

```
int abs(int);
void swap(int *, int *);
int find_largest(int [], int);
```

• The parentheses can even be left empty:

```
int abs();
void swap();
int find_largest();
```

This provides no information about the arguments.

- Putting the word void between the parentheses is different: it indicates that there are no arguments.
- The empty-parentheses style doesn't let the compiler check whether function calls have the right arguments.

- Declarators in actual programs often combine the
 *, [], and () notations.
- An array of 10 pointers to integers:

```
int *ap[10];
```

• A function that has a float argument and returns a pointer to a float:

```
float *fp(float);
```

• A pointer to a function with an int argument and a void return type:

```
void (*pf)(int);
```



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Deciphering Complex Declarations

• But what about declarators like the one in the following declaration?

```
int *(*x[10])(void);
```

• It's not obvious whether x is a pointer, an array, or a function.

- Rules for understanding declarations:
 - Always read declarators from the inside out. Locate
 the identifier that's being declared, and start
 deciphering the declaration from there.
 - When there's a choice, always favor [] and () over
 - *. Parentheses can be used to override the normal priority of [] and () over *.

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Deciphering Complex Declarations

• Example 1:

int *ap[10];

ap is an array of pointers.

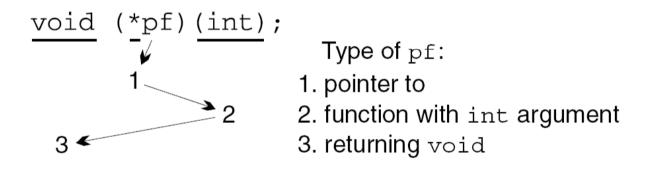
• Example 2:

```
float *fp(float);
fp is a function that returns a pointer.
```

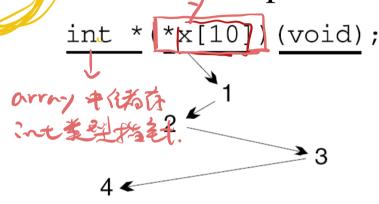
• Example 3: void (*pf)(int);

- Since *pf is enclosed in parentheses, pf must be a pointer.
- But (*pf) is followed by (int), so pf must point to a function with an int argument.
- The word void represents the return type of this function.

• Understanding a complex declarator often involves zigzagging from one side of the identifier to the other:



second example of "zigzagging":



Type of x:

- 1. array of
- 2. pointers to
- 3. functions with no arguments
- 4. returning pointer to int

the array of pointers pointing es a function which has no argument with the recurr type int.

- Certain things can't be declared in C.
- Functions can't return arrays:

• Functions can't return functions:

• Arrays of functions aren't possible, either:

```
int a[10](int);  /*** WRONG ***/
```

- In each case, pointers can be used to get the desired effect.
- For example, a function can't return an array, but it can return a *pointer* to an array.

Using Type Definitions to Simplify Declarations

- Some programmers use type definitions to help simplify complex declarations.
- Suppose that x is declared as follows:

```
int *(*x[10])(void);
```

• The following type definitions make x's type easier to understand:

```
typedef int *Fcn(void);
typedef Fcn *Fcn_ptr;
typedef Fcn_ptr Fcn_ptr_array[10];
Fcn_ptr_array x;
```

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Initializers

- For convenience, C allows us to specify initial values for variables as we're declaring them.
- To initialize a variable, we write the = symbol after its declarator, then follow that with an initializer.

• The initializer for a simple variable is an expression of the same type as the variable:

```
int i = 5 / 2; /* i is initially 2 */
```

• If the types don't match, C converts the initializer using the same rules as for assignment:

```
int j = 5.5; /* converted to 5 */
```

• The initializer for a pointer variable must be an expression of the same type or of type void *:

```
int *p = \&i;
```



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Initializers

• The initializer for an array, structure, or union is usually a series of values enclosed in braces:

```
int a[5] = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\};
```

• In C99, brace-enclosed initializers can have other forms, thanks to designated initializers.

• An initializer for a variable with static storage duration must be constant:

```
#define FIRST 1
#define LAST 100
static int i = LAST - FIRST + 1;
```

• If LAST and FIRST had been variables, the initializer would be illegal.

• If a variable has automatic storage duration, its initializer need not be constant:

```
int f(int n)
{
  int last = n - 1;
  ...
}
```

• A brace-enclosed initializer for an array, structure, or union must contain only constant expressions:

```
#define N 2
int powers[5] =
    {1, N, N * N, N * N, N * N * N * N};
```

- If N were a variable, the initializer would be illegal.
- In C99, this restriction applies only if the variable has static storage duration.

• The initializer for an automatic structure or union can be another structure or union:

```
void g(struct part part1)
{
   struct part part2 = part1;
...
}
```

• The initializer doesn't have to be a variable or parameter name, although it does need to be an expression of the proper type.

Uninitialized Variables

- The initial value of a variable depends on its storage duration:
 - Variables with *automatic* storage duration have no default initial value.
 - Variables with *static* storage duration have the value zero by default.
- A static variable is correctly initialized based on its type, not simply set to zero bits.
- It's better to provide initializers for static variables rather than rely on the fact that they're guaranteed to be zero.

Inline Functions (C99)

- C99 function declarations may contain the keyword inline.
- inline is related to the concept of the "overhead" of a function call—the work required to call a function and later return from it.
- Although the overhead of a function call slows the program by only a tiny amount, it may add up in certain situations.
- 三 不完成的为主数仍同。 直接特上数据证明同此执门



inline June -的名数在人之任中,仍用这上类这是红阳图头文件
normal June: 印印对别性数是数的在位置,构门后级到初始位置。
inhe func:在编译对查接特进数内多加入识别处,号为register类似这同
e.f. intre compree (a,b) }
rearn atb;
ζ.
在仍面的如此(1,2) 时,相当于在仍面上推入地下:
inta=1;
?nt b=2;
xxx = atb;

Inline Functions (C99)

- In C89, the only way to avoid the overhead of a function call is to use a parameterized macro.
- C99 offers a better solution to this problem: create an *inline function*.
- The word "inline" suggests that the compiler replaces each call of the function by the machine instructions for the function.
- This technique may cause a minor increase in the size of the compiled program.

Inline Functions (C99)

- Declaring a function to be inline doesn't actually force the compiler to "inline" the function.
- It suggests that the compiler should try to make calls of the function as fast as possible, but the compiler is free to ignore the suggestion.

• An inline function has the keyword inline as one of its declaration specifiers:

```
inline double average(double a, double b)
{
  return (a + b) / 2;
}
```

- average has external linkage, so other source files may contain calls of average.
- However, the definition of average isn't an external definition (it's an *inline definition* instead).
- Attempting to call average from another file will be considered an error.

- There are two ways to avoid this error.
- One option is to add the word static to the function definition:

```
static inline double average(double a, double b)
{
  return (a + b) / 2;
}
```

- average now has internal linkage, so it can't be called from other files.
- Other files may contain their own definitions of average, which might be the same or different.

- The other option is to provide an external definition for average so that calls are permitted from other files.
- One way to do this is to write the average function a second time (without using inline) and put this definition in a different source file.
- However, it's not a good idea to have two versions of a function: we can't guarantee that they'll remain consistent when the program is modified.

• A better approach is to put the inline definition of average in a header file:

```
#ifndef AVERAGE_H
#define AVERAGE_H
inline double average(double a, double b)
{
  return (a + b) / 2;
}
#endif
```

• Let's name this file average.h.

• Next, we'll create a matching source file, average.c:

```
#include "average.h"
```

extern double average (double a, double b);

- Any file that needs to call the average function can include average.h.
- The definition of average included from average.h will be treated as an external definition in average.c.

- A general rule: If all top-level declarations of a function in a file include inline but not extern, then the definition of the function in that file is inline.
- If the function is used anywhere in the program, an external definition of the function will need to be provided by some other file.

- When an inline function is called, the compiler has a choice:
 - Perform an ordinary call (using the function's external definition).
 - Perform inline expansion (using the function's inline definition).
- Because the choice is left to the compiler, it's crucial that the two definitions be consistent.
- The technique just discussed (using the average.h and average.c files) guarantees that the definitions are the same.

Restrictions on Inline Functions (C99)

- Restrictions on inline functions with external linkage:
 - May not define a modifiable static variable.
 - May not contain references to variables with internal linkage.
- Such a function is allowed to define a variable that is both static and const.
- However, each inline definition of the function may create its own copy of the variable.

Using Inline Functions with GCC (C99)

- Some compilers, including GCC, supported inline functions prior to the C99 standard.
- Their rules for using inline functions may vary from the standard.
- The scheme described earlier (using the average.h and average.c files) may not work with these compilers.
- Version 4.3 of GCC is expected to support inline functions in the way described in the C99 standard.



Using Inline Functions with GCC (C99)

- Functions that are specified to be both static and inline should work fine, regardless of the version of GCC.
- This strategy is legal in C99 as well, so it's the safest bet.
- A static inline function can be used within a single file or placed in a header file and included into any source file that needs to call the function.

Using Inline Functions with GCC (C99)

- A technique for sharing an inline function among multiple files that works with older versions of GCC but conflicts with C99:
 - Put a definition of the function in a header file.
 - Specify that the function is both extern and inline.
 - Include the header file into any source file that contains a call of the function.
 - Put a second copy of the definition—without the words extern and inline—in one of the source files.
- A final note about GCC: Functions are "inlined" only when the −○ command-line option is used.