

SYSTEM SOFTWARE

Part 1: C = Language + Environment

Part 2: Linux Programming Interface

Course Material

- Slides & code on Toledo
- Linux man/info-pages!!
- References to online material: see slides
 - E.g.: “The C Programming Language”, Kernighan, Ritchie
 - publications.gbdirect.co.uk/c_book/
 - E.g. GNU C Reference Manual
 - www.gnu.org/software/gnu-c-manual/gnu-c-manual
- Do 'interactive C programming'
 - <http://www.learn-c.org>
 - <http://fresh2refresh.com/c-tutorial-for-beginners/>
 - http://www.tutorialspoint.com/cprogramming/c_useful_resources.htm

HIGHLY RECOMMENDED

subscribe to the newsletter of www.cprogramming.com!

Course Material

■ Book references

□ Beginner

- C for Programmers (with an introduction to C11) (P. Deitel, H. Deitel)
- Understanding and Using C Pointers (R. Reese)
- C Pocket Reference (P. Prinz, U. Kirch-Prinz)

□ Intermediate

- 21st Century C: C Tips from the New School (B. Klemens)
- Learn c the Hard Way (Zed A. Shaw)
- Intermediate C Programming (Yung-Hsiang Lu)
- Mastering Algorithms with C (K. Loudon)
- C Interfaces and Implementations: Techniques for Creating Reusable Software (D. R. Hanson)

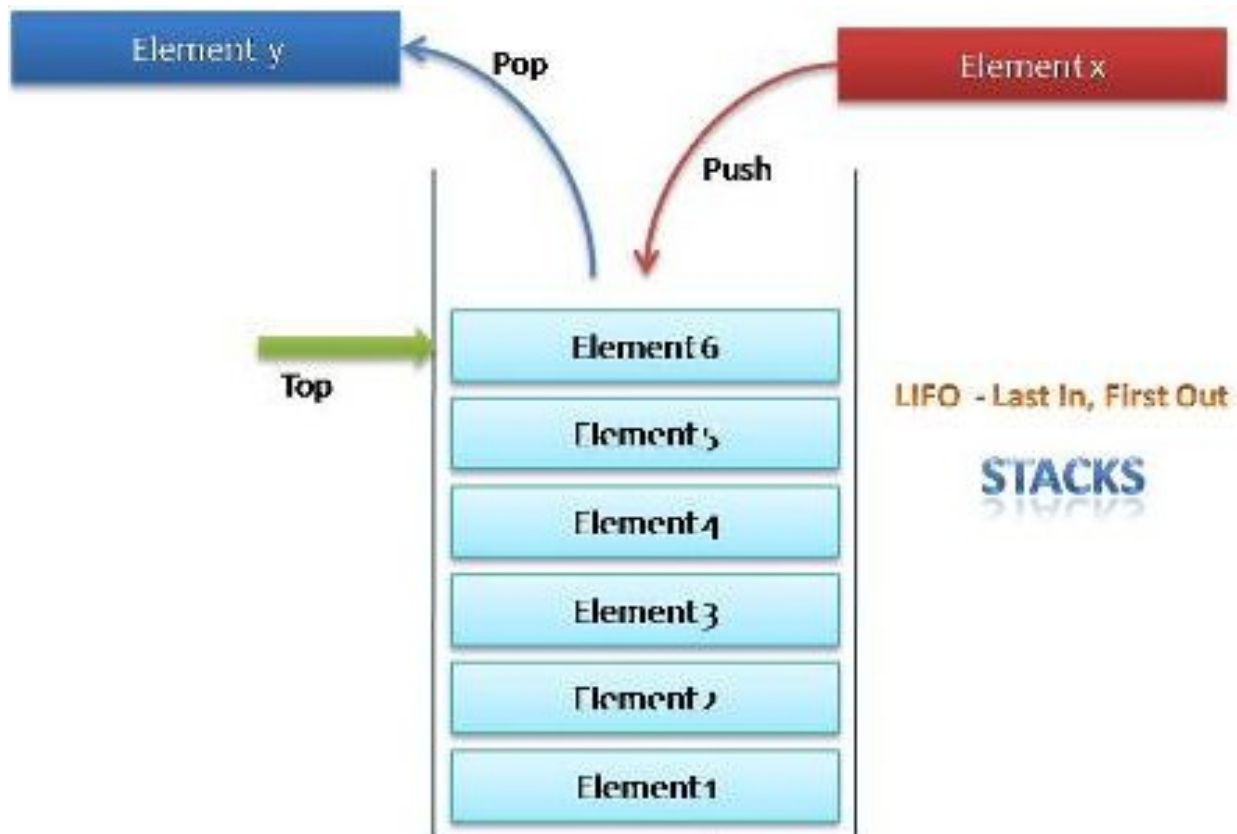
□ Advanced

- Expert C Programming – Deep C Secrets (P. Van Der Linden)

LECTURE C1

The basics of C programming

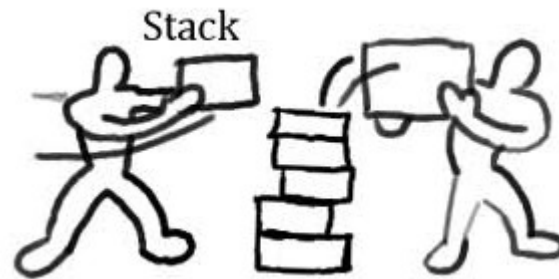
A Stack Example



A Stack Example

■ Study the code ...

[Toledo: **StackV1**]



■ Build and run the code

☐ Gcc -Wall main.c

■ ./a.out

☐ Gcc main.c -o prog.exe

■ ./prog.exe

C Is Not Object-Oriented!

- Data is accessible via variables (local or global) and modified in functions
 - There are no classes nor objects
 - No constructor: **you need to manage memory!**
 - No garbage collector: **you need to clean up!**
 - No inheritance
 - No polymorphism
 - Access to data / functions cannot be controlled as public, private or protected

C Is Not Object-Oriented!

- C program is a collection of functions calling each other

- Functions cannot be 'nested'!

- Use function prototypes to avoid dependency problems

- Program starts with 'main' function

C is a 'medium-high' programming language!

Assembler < C < Java, Python,...

The Standard Library

- Collection of functions defined by ANSI but not part of the C language
- Functions are grouped in 'header' files
 - E.g. `math.h`, `string.h`, `time.h`, ...
- Usage: `#include<libname.h>`

The Standard Library

■ A few references to the standard library & example code

- <http://cplusplus.com/reference/clibrary/>

 - www.java2s.com/Code/C/CatalogC.htm

- Reference with full details

 - www.gnu.org/software/libc/manual

Prerequisites Lecture 2 (Homework!)

■ Master the C programming basics

☐ C data types

- Atomic: int, char, float, double, void
- Type qualifiers: short, long, long long, unsigned, signed
- Structured: array, enum, struct

☐ Variables

☐ Arithmetic expressions

- Typecasting, e.g. convert int x to float: (float)x

☐ Selection

- If, if else, switch, conditional statement

☐ Looping

- Do-loop, while-loop, for-loop
- Break and continue

☐ Functions

- Arguments / return values / local and global variables

☐ Standard library basics

Prerequisites Lecture 2 (**Homework!**)

■ Suggestions

□ Read a C programming tutorial

- E.g. On Toledo "Starting guide to C programming"
- E.g. publications.gbdirect.co.uk/c_book/
 - Chapter 1, 2, 3, 4 (section 4.1, 4.2, 4.3), 5 (section 5.1, 5.2), 6 (section 6.2 but not 6.2.1, 6.5)
 - http://en.wikibooks.org/wiki/C_Programming

Prerequisites Lecture 2 (**Homework!**)

■ Even better: program simple C code

□ Your Linux environment is up and running

■ Use some editor (kate, gedit, geany, vim, ...)

■ Compile in a terminal with 'gcc'

□ Your Linux is not ok

■ Do 'online programming'

– <http://www.learn-c.org>

– <http://fresh2refresh.com/c-tutorial-for-beginners/>

– http://www.tutorialspoint.com/cprogramming/c_useful_resources.htm

– <https://ideone.com/>

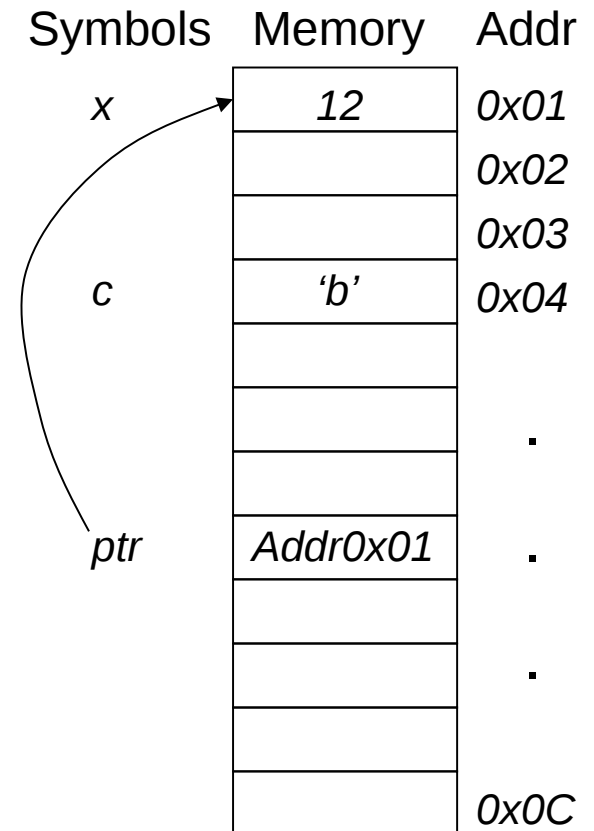
– <http://www.codingame.com> : game-style c programming

LECTURE C2

Pointers and Dynamic Memory

What Are Pointers in C?

- Pointer = variable that contains a memory address
 - Data type: 'address'
- A pointer often contains the address of another variable
 - Pointer 'points' or 'references' to that variable
- Example
 - `int x; x = 12;`
 - `char c; c = 'b';`
 - `int *ptr; ptr = &x;`
 - `Printf("%d", *ptr);`



What Are Pointers in C?

■ &-operator

- ☐ Used to obtain the address of a variable
- ☐ E.g. `char c;`
`&c` is the address of the memory allocation that stores `c`

■ *-operator

- ☐ Used to declare a pointer
- ☐ E.g. `char *cptr;`
- ☐ `cptr` is a pointer to a memory location that can contain a char

■ *-operator



- ☐ Also used to dereference a pointer, i.e. to access the variable to which the pointer references
- ☐ E.g. `*cptr = 'b';`

■ NULL is a special 'address' (0x0000) to initialize pointers

- ☐ E.g. `float *p = NULL;` ==> `*p` is NOT allowed!

What Are Pointers in C?

■ Example and graphical representation

```
int x, y;  
int *p, *q = NULL;
```



```
x = 1; y = 0;  
p = &x; // *p is 1
```



```
y = *p + x;  
*p = 0;
```



```
q = p;
```



What Are Pointers in C?

■ Example: using pointers to change variables

```
int x;  
int *p = NULL;
```

```
x = 7;  
p = &x;  
*p = 9;
```

```
printf("value of x = %d", x);
```



Pointers Quiz!

■ Possible or not possible? Draw a memory layout!

```
Int x;  
Int *p = NULL;  
Int *q = &x;
```

1. x = NULL;



2. p = x;



3. x = *p;

4. *q = 7;

5. *q = &x;

6. q = p;



7. &x = q;

Pointers to pointers

- Pointers to all kinds of data types

- Pointers to int, float, char, double, ...

- Pointers to structs, ...

- Pointers to pointers? Oh YES!

```
int ***p;
```

```
int **q;
```

```
int *r;
```

```
int x;
```

```
r = &x; q = &r; p = &q;
```

Pointers

- A nice explanation on pointers and memory drawings can be found in the following paper (Toledo)
 - “Pointers and Memory”, section 1, Nick Parlante, Stanford University

Why Pointers?

- Pointers allow flexible manipulation of data and code

- Pointers and function parameter passing

- Pointers and arrays

- Static arrays, dynamic arrays (dynamic memory)

- Pointers and dynamic memory / structures

- Linked lists, trees, heaps, ...

- Pointers and functions

See later!

Pointers and Parameter Passing

■ The function (/application/system) stack

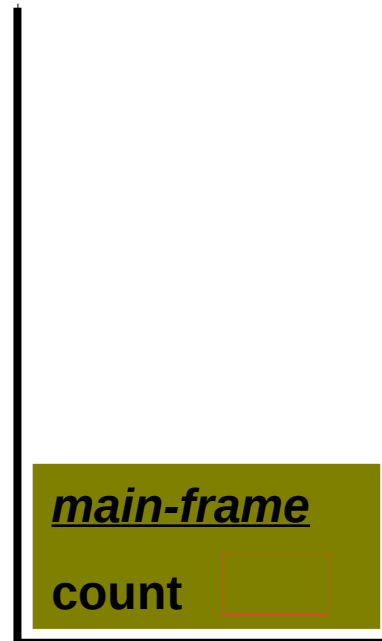
□ C requires a 'stack' for the evaluation of functions



```
void add( int x )
{
    int total = 10;
    x += total;
}

→ void main()
{
    int count = 0;
    add( count );
    printf("Count = %d",
        count);
}
```

Function stack



A function call results in a new frame on the function stack

- parameters
- local vars
- NO global vars!

Pointers and Parameter Passing

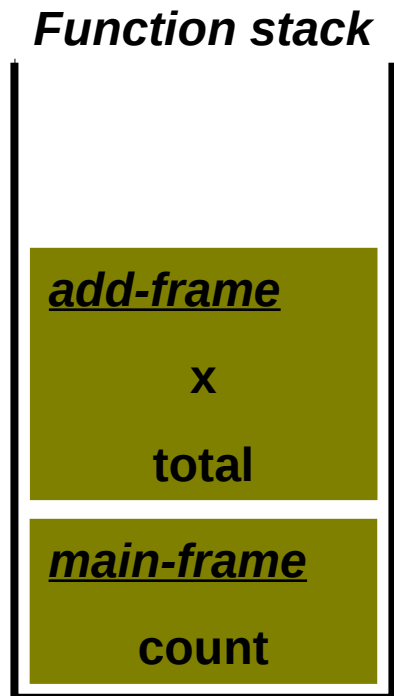
■ The function (/application/system) stack

□ C requires a 'stack' for the evaluation of functions



```
void add( int x )
{
    int total = 10;
    x += total;
}

void main()
{
    int count = 0;
    → add( count );
    printf("Count = %d",
        count);
}
```



A function call results in a new frame on the function stack

- parameters
- local vars
- return address!
- NO global vars!



Pointers and Parameter Passing

- The function (/application/system) stack
 - C requires a 'stack' for the evaluation of functions

```
void add( int x )  
{  
    int total = 10;  
    x += total;  
}  
  
void main()  
{  
    int count = 0;  
    add( count );  
→ printf("Count = %d",  
        count);  
}
```



Pointers and Parameter Passing

- The function (/application/system) stack
 - Call-by-value parameter passing

```
void add( int x )
{
    int total = 10;
    x += total;
}

void main()
{
    int count = 0;
    add( count );
    printf("Count = %d",
        count);
}
```


PC
→

Function stack

main-frame
count=0

Pointers and Parameter Passing

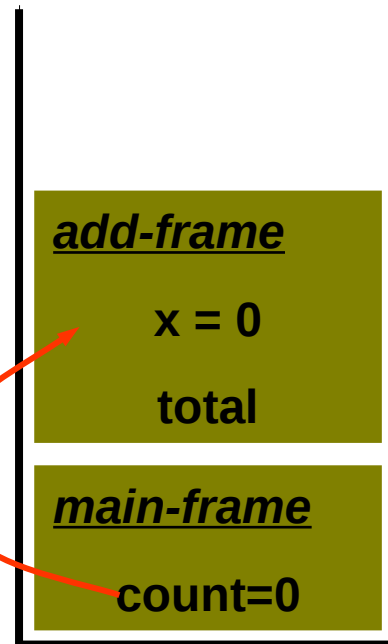
```
void add( int x )  
{  
    int total = 10;  
    x += total;  
}
```

```
void main()   
{  
    int count = 0;  
    add( count );  
    printf("Count = %d",  
        count);  
}
```

PC
→

*Copy value of
count to x!*

Function stack



Pointers and Parameter Passing

PC
→

```
void add( int x )  
{  
    int total = 10;  
    x += total;  
}  
  
void main()  
{  
    int count = 0;  
    add( count );  
    printf("Count = %d",  
        count);  
}
```

Function stack

add-frame

x = 0

total=10

main-frame

count=0

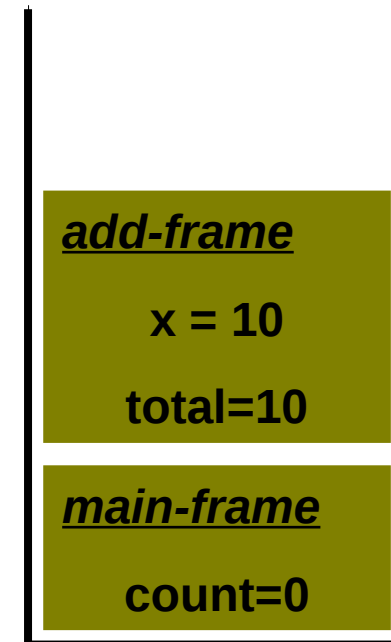
Pointers and Parameter Passing

PC →

```
void add( int x )
{
    int total = 10;
    x += total;
}

void main()
{
    int count = 0;
    add( count );
    printf("Count = %d",
        count);
}
```

Function stack



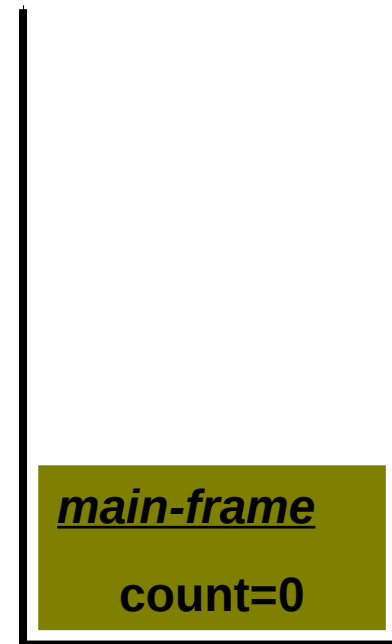
Pointers and Parameter Passing

```
void add( int x )  
{  
    int total = 10;  
    x += total;  
}
```

```
void main()  
{  
    int count = 0;  
    add( count );  
    printf("Count = %d",  
        count);  
}
```



Function stack



Pointers and Parameter Passing

- The function (/application/system) stack
 - Call-by-reference parameter passing

```
void add( int *x )  
{  
    int total = 10;  
    *x += total;  
    x = &total;  
    (*x)++;  
}
```

```
PC → void main() {  
    int count = 0;  
    add( &count );  
    printf("Count = %d",  
        count);  
}
```

Function stack

main-frame

count=0

Pointers and Parameter Passing

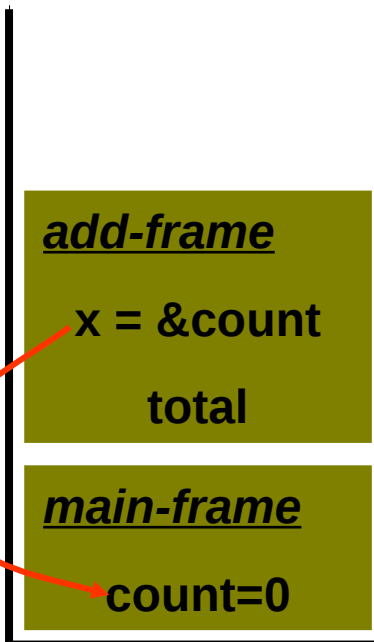
```
void add( int *x )  
{  
    int total = 10;  
    *x += total;  
    x = &total;  
    (*x)++;  
}
```

```
void main() {  
    int count = 0;  
    add( &count );  
    printf("Count = %d",  
        count);  
}
```

PC
→

*Copy address of
count to x, hence,
x points to the
same memory as
'count'!*

Function stack



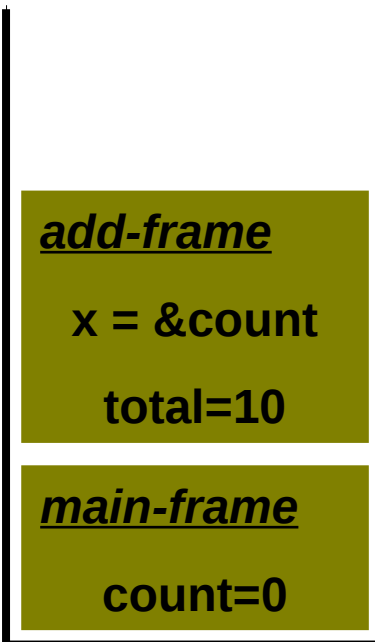
Pointers and Parameter Passing

PC →

```
void add( int *x )
{
    int total = 10;
    *x += total;
    x = &total;
    (*x)++;
}

void main() {
    int count = 0;
    add( &count );
    printf("Count = %d",
        count);
}
```

Function stack



Pointers and Parameter Passing

```
void add( int *x )  
{  
    PC → int total = 10;  
        *x += total;  
        x = &total;  
        (*x)++;  
}  
  
void main() {  
    int count = 0;  
    add( &count );  
    printf("Count = %d",  
        count);  
}
```

Function stack

add-frame

x = &count

total=10

main-frame

count=10

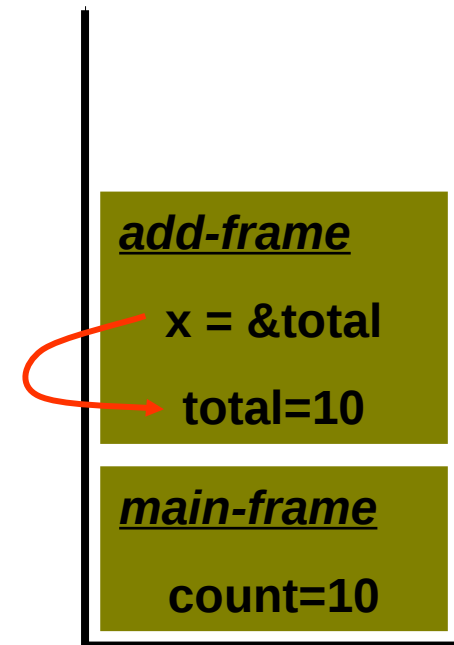
Pointers and Parameter Passing

```
void add( int *x )
{
    int total = 10;
    *x += total;
    x = &total;
    (*x)++;
}

void main() {
    int count = 0;
    add( &count );
    printf("Count = %d",
        count);
}
```

PC →

Function stack

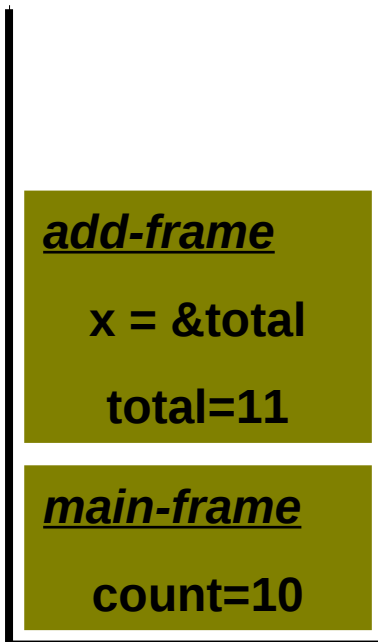


Pointers and Parameter Passing

```
void add( int *x )  
{  
    int total = 10;  
    *x += total;  
    x = &total;  
    (*x)++;  
}  
  
void main() {  
    int count = 0;  
    add( &count );  
    printf("Count = %d",  
        count);  
}
```

PC →

Function stack



Pointers and Parameter Passing

```
void add( int *x )  
{  
    int total = 10;  
    *x += total;  
    x = &total;  
    (*x)++;  
}
```

```
void main() {  
    int count = 0;  
    add( &count );  
    printf("Count = %d",  
        count);  
}
```

PC
→

Function stack

main-frame

count=10

Pointers and Parameter Passing

- A nice explanation on the stack and parameter passing can be found in the following paper (Toledo)
 - “Pointers and Memory”, section 2 and 3, Nick Parlante, Stanford University

Const and Pointers

■ Const-keyword defines constants

- E.g. `const int x = 3;`
- Or: `int const x = 3;`

■ Const and pointers



- `const int * x;` → variable ptr to a constant int

□ Example

- `int a = 0;`
- `const int * x = &a;`
- `*x = 10;` => NOT allowed!
- `a = 10;` => allowed - `*x` is now also changed



□ Remark:

- `int const *x;` is the same as `const int *x;`

Const and Pointers

■ Const and pointers

□ `int * const x;` → constant ptr to a variable int

□ Example:

■ `int a = 0, b = 10;`

■ `int * const x = &a;` 

■ `x = &b;` ⇒ NOT allowed!

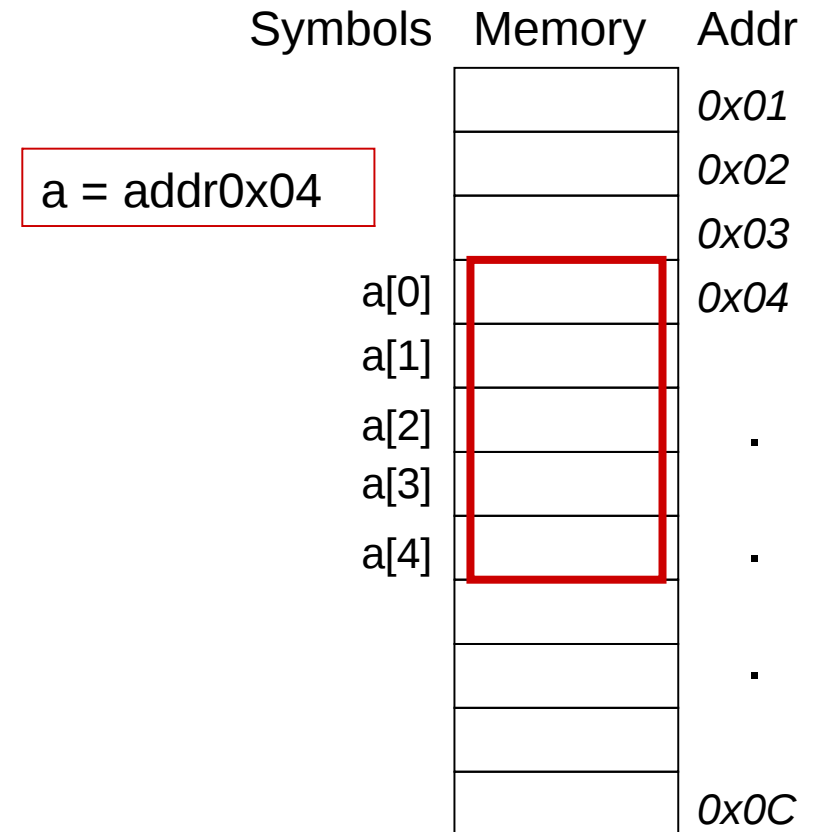
■ `*x = b;` ⇒ allowed – a is also changed

□ `const int * const x;` → constant ptr to a constant int

Pointers and Arrays

■ `int a[5];`

- `a` contains the address of `a[0]`
- `*a` is the same as `a[0]`
- BUT: `a` is NOT a pointer!



Pointers and Arrays

■ 'pointer' arithmetic

□ `int *p, *q;`

■ `p+3` : address of '3rd' integer

■ `*(p+3)` : '3rd' integer

■ `p[3]` or `*(p+3)`

■ `++p` equivalent to `p+1`



□ If `p` and `q` point into same array, `p - q` is number of elements between `p` and `q`

Pointers and Arrays

■ Nice to know ...

□ Initialize an array

■ `Int a[] = {1, 2, 3, 4, 5};`

■ `Int a[5] = {0};`

■ `Int a[5] = {[2]=100, [4]=200};`

Pointers and Arrays

■ Nice to know ...

□ Typedef array

■ `typedef int array_t[MAX];`

□ Array of pointers

■ `int * a[MAX];`

□ Pointer to array

■ `int (*a) [MAX];`

Pointers and Arrays

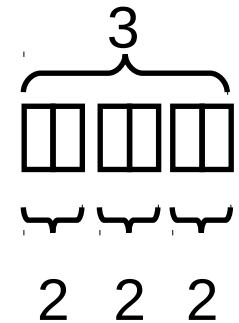


■ Multi-dimensional arrays and pointers

□ Example: `int a[3][2];`

■ `a[i]` \Rightarrow `int *a_ptr = (int *)a[i];`

■ `a[i][j]` \Rightarrow `*(a_ptr + j)`



□ Or: look at **a** as a 1-dim. array: `int a_1d[3*2];`

■ `Int *a_ptr = (int *)a_1d;`

■ `a[i][j]` \Rightarrow `a_1d[2*i+j]` \Rightarrow `*(a_ptr+2*i + j)`

Pointers and Arrays

■ Example: command line arguments

```
> test.exe -g inp_file
```

The arguments to the program are:

1 = test.exe

2 = -g

3 = inp_file

```
int main(int argc, char *argv[])
```

argc = #args

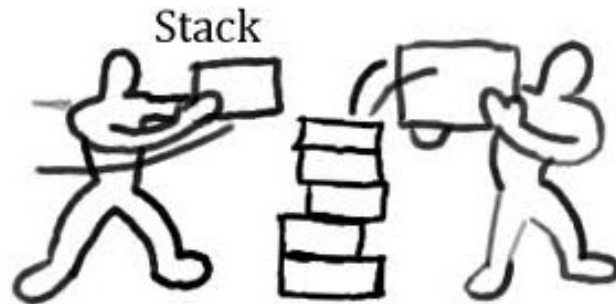
argv = pointer array to args

= NULL terminated array of strings

Pointers and Arrays

□ Study the code ...

[Toledo: `cmdargs`]



Dynamic Memory

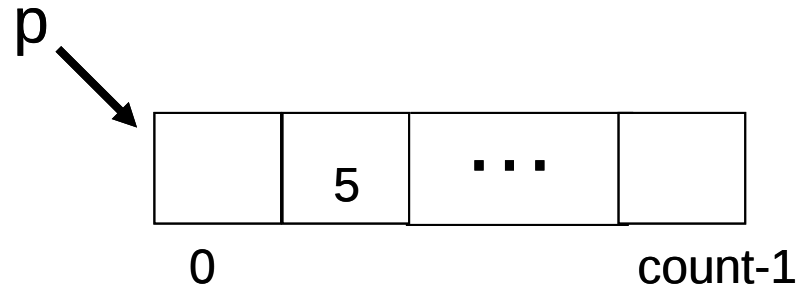
■ `void *malloc(size_t size);`

□ Allocates 'size' bytes of dynamic memory

□ Malloc returns a 'void pointer'

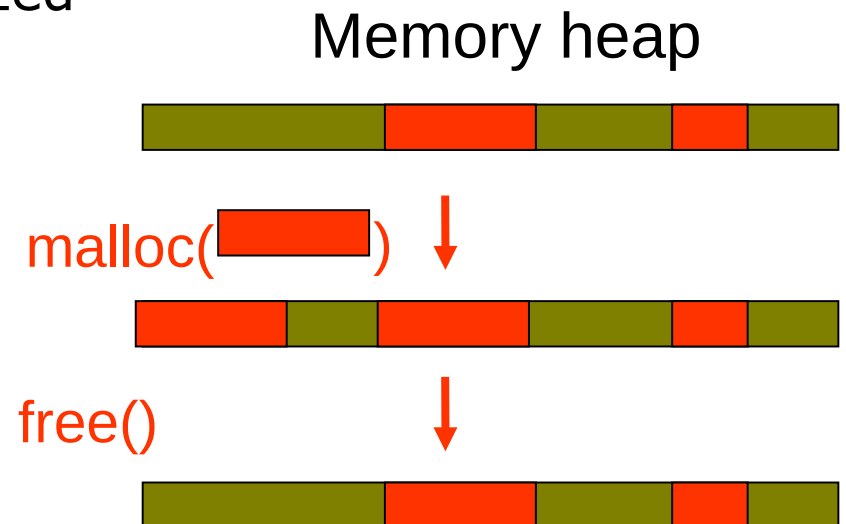
■ Example

```
int count;
int *p;
scanf("%d", &count);
p = (int *) malloc( count * sizeof(int) );
if ( p == NULL ) printf("\nout of memory!");
...
p[1] = 5;
...
free(p);
```



Dynamic Memory

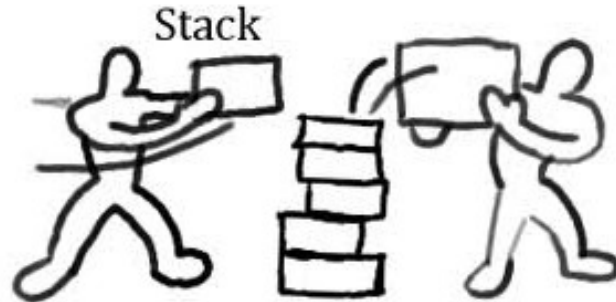
- The STL function 'malloc' is used for allocation of dynamic memory;
- The STL function 'free' is used for de-allocation of dynamic memory
- The STL function 'realloc' changes the memory size allocated to p to a new size
 - Additional memory is not initialized



Dynamic Memory

□ Study the code ...

[Toledo: **StackV3**]



Pointers and Arrays

■ Safer printf() functions

- `int snprintf (str, n, format, arg1, arg2, ..., argn)`
 - Same as `sprintf()` but at most `n` bytes (including `\0`) are printed to the string `str`
- `int asprintf (&str, format, arg1, arg2, ..., argn)`
 - Same as `sprintf()` but allocates enough memory to contain the output (including `\0`)

Pointers and Parameter Passing

■ Everything you need to know about pointers in C:

□ “Understanding and Using C Pointers”, Richard Reese, O’Reilly, ISBN: 978-1-449-34418-4

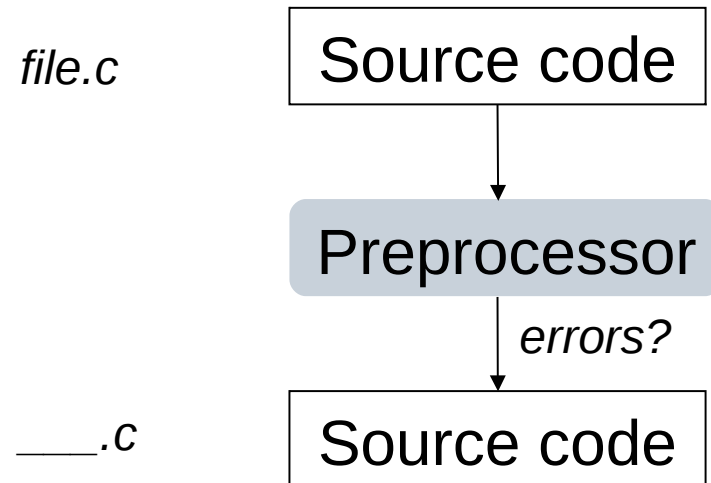
LECTURE C3

The Preprocessor

Preprocessor

■ Tasks

- ☐ Removes comments
- ☐ Interprets pre-processor directives denoted by #
 - #define
 - #include



- `'gcc main.c'` calls preprocessor automatically, but the output of the preprocessor can also be obtained with `'gcc -E main.c'`

Conditional Compilation

- Preprocessor directives allow to 'conditionally select' code given to the compiler

```
#define LARGE
main()
{
    /* do something */
#ifdef LARGE
    int a[1000];
#else
    int a[100];
#endif
    /* do something */
}
```

Conditional Compilation

```
#ifndef LARGE
    /* compile this */
#else
    /* compile this */
#endif
```

```
#if defined(LARGE)
    /* compile this */
#else
    /* compile this */
#endif
```

```
#if CHOICE == 1
    /* compile this */
#elif CHOICE == 2
    /* compile this */
#elif CHOICE == 3
    /* compile this */
#else
    /* compile this */
#endif
```


Conditional Compilation

■ How to define a preprocessor symbol?

- `#define name`

- `#define name value`

- Compiler option

 - `Gcc -D name=value ...`

■ `#undef name`

Conditional Compilation

■ Example: add debug code

```
#ifdef DEBUG
    printf("status ok!\n");
#endif
```

```
#undef DEBUG    // no debug info anymore
```

```
#ifdef DEBUG
    printf("status ok!\n");
#endif
```

```
> gcc -D DEBUG ...
```

Conditional Compilation

■ Example: make code more portable

```
#if (OS==WINDOWS) || (OS==windows)
    /* compile this */
#elif (OS==MAC) || (OS==mac)
    /* compile this */
#elif (OS==LINUX) || (OS==linux)
    /* compile this */
#else
    #error "unsupported OS"
#endif
```

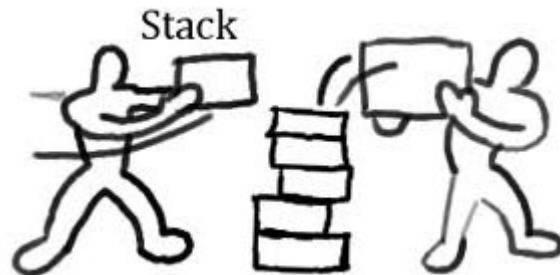
```
> gcc -D OS=linux ...
```

Conditional Compilation

■ Build and run

- ☐ With/without debug info
- ☐ With STACKSIZE 35
- ☐ With stack element type 'double'

[Toledo: **StackV4A**]



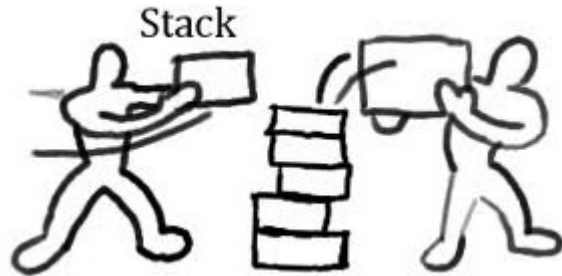
Header Files

- Organize your code in logical 'modules' using multiple files
 - Implementation of a module in .c file (source)
 - Interface of a module in .h file (header)
 - Contains all 'publicly visible' information of that component
 - Constants, type definitions, function prototypes, ...
 - BUT: no implementation code!
 - Other files: #include "component.h"

Header Files

■ Study the code ...

[Toledo: [Stack_V4B](#)]



[Demo: - assert()
 - preprocessor result
 - gcc compilation]

Header Files

■ Compilation

□ All files at once

> gcc file1.c file2.c -o prog.exe

□ One-by-one

> gcc -c file1.c

– Creates object code for file1: file1.o

> gcc -c file2.c

– Creates object code for file2: file2.o

■ Build executable

> gcc file1.o file2.o -o prog.exe

Header Files

■ Header files

□ Not allowed to create circular dependencies:
file X includes file Y which includes file X

■ By convention, C programmers surround each header file with one of the following conditionals:

Header guards!

```
#ifndef __MYHEADER_H__  
#define __MYHEADER_H__  
  
/*header file content*/  
  
#endif
```

```
#if !defined( __MYHEADER_H__ )  
#define __MYHEADER_H__  
  
/*header file content*/  
  
#endif
```


Scope and Storage Class

- 'Scope' determines where each variable can be used (is 'visible') in the program

Scope <> storage class!

```
Int x, y;
```

```
Int main ( void )  
{
```

```
    x = 10;
```

```
    y = 10;
```

```
    Func();
```

```
    ...
```

```
}
```

```
Void Func ( void )
```

```
{
```

```
    Int x;
```

```
    x = 1;
```

```
    y = 1;
```

```
    ...
```

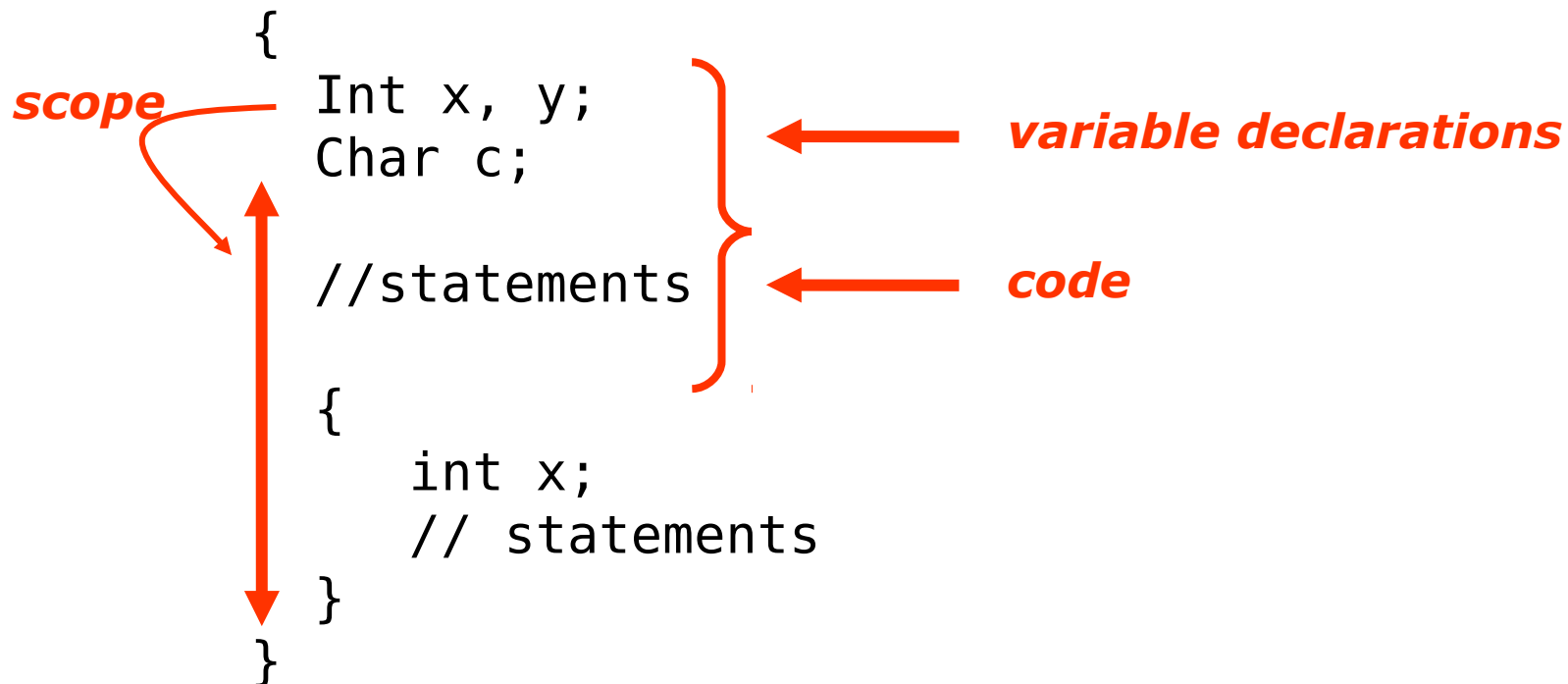
```
}
```



Scope and Storage Class

■ Local variables

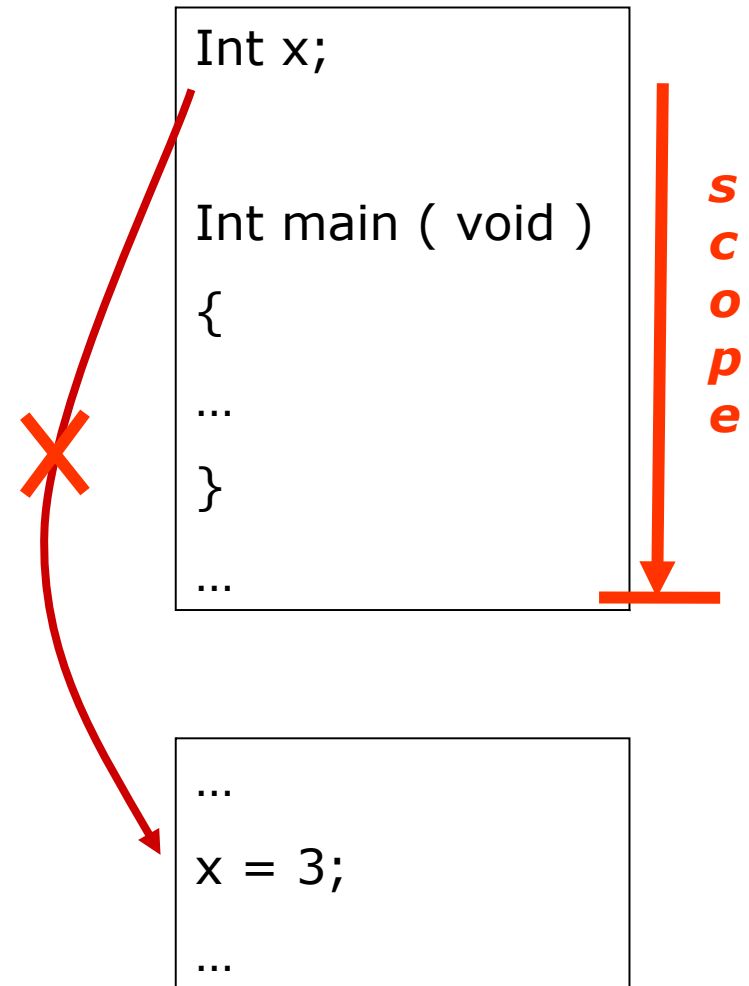
- Declared within a scope block {...}
- MUST be declared at the beginning of the scope block!
- Are only visible and exist within this block



Scope and Storage Class

■ Global variables

- Declared outside all scope blocks
 - Sometimes also called 'external' variable
 - A global variable is visible from its point of declaration to the end of the file, but using external linkage ('extern': see further) can make them visible in other files too



Scope and Storage Class

■ Automatic storage class

- Auto = default storage class of a variable
- Auto doesn't change the scope rules
- Memory allocation and de-allocation (= variable exist) of an automatic variable is done 'automatically' by the system
 - Automatic local variables exist only within their scope block
 - Automatic global variables exist during the full execution of the program

Scope and Storage Class

■ Extern storage class

- A source file can reference to a global variable that exists in another source file by declaring that variable using 'extern'
 - No memory allocation is done (variable must exist already)

Variable declaration <> definition !

- Function can be 'extern' too: cf. global variables
 - Function prototypes are by default 'extern'

Scope and Storage Class

■ Static storage class

- Static global variables exist during the execution of the program but are only visible within their own source file
 - External linkage of these variables is prevented
- Static local variables exist the whole time the program is executing
 - The scope is the same as automatic variables
- Static variables are initialized only the first time (by default it is initialized to 0)

Scope and Storage Class

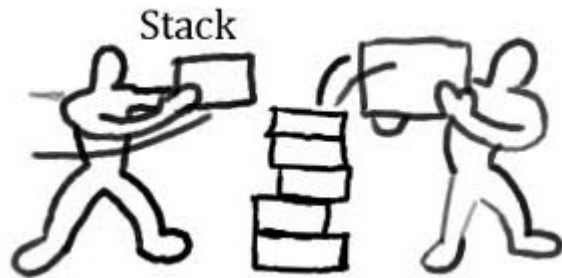
■ Static storage class

- A function can be 'static' which prevents external linkage of the function (cf. global var)

Scope and Storage Class

■ Study the code ...

[Toledo: [Stack_V4C](#)]



Macros

No spaces!



```
#define identifier(param-list) (replacement-text)
```

■ Example

□ Macro: `#define min(x,y) x<y?x:y`

□ Function: `int min_func(int a, int b)`
 `{`
 `return ((a < b)? a : b);`
 `}`

Macros

■ BUT: be aware that a macro uses text substitution!

□ Example

$2 * \min(a,b) \implies 2*a < b ? a : b$

□ Better

```
#define min(x,y) ((x)<(y)?(x):(y))
```

Macros

■ # in macro

- Makes a string of a macro-parameter

- Example:

```
#define PRINTSUM(x,y)
```

```
    printf("#x " + " #y " = %d\n", x+y);
```

```
PRINTSUM(1+2,4);
```

==>> 1+2 + 4 = 7

Macros

■ Macro with multiple statements

□ Example: after a free(), the pointer should be set to NULL

■ C statements

```
free( ptr );
```

```
ptr = NULL; <== often forgotten!
```

■ Define a macro: version 1

```
#define FREE(p) free(p);p=NULL;
```

But not always correct ...

```
if ( ... )  
    FREE(ptr);
```

```
If (...)  
    free(p);p=NULL;
```

Which is the same as:

```
If(...)  
    free(p);  
p=NULL;
```

Macros

■ Macro with multiple statements

□ Define a macro: version 2


```
#define FREE(p) { free(p); p=NULL; }
```

But not always correct ...

```
if ( ... )  
    FREE(some_ptr);  
else  
    do_something_else;
```

... will fail on 'else'

```
If (...) {free(p);p=NULL;};  
Else  
do_something_else;
```



Macros

■ Macro with multiple statements

□ Define a macro: version 3 – classical trick

```
#define FREE(p) do { free(p);p=NULL;} while(0)
```

– Do-while makes one statement of it!

Macros

■ Macro with multiple statements

□ A debug macro

```
#define DEBUG_PRINT(...) \
    Do { \
        printf("In %s in function %s at line %d: ", \
            __FILE__, __func__, __LINE__); \
        printf(__VA_ARGS__); \
    } while(0)
```

In code: `DEBUG_PRINT("error: stack is full (maxsize = %d)", MAXSIZE);`

Macros

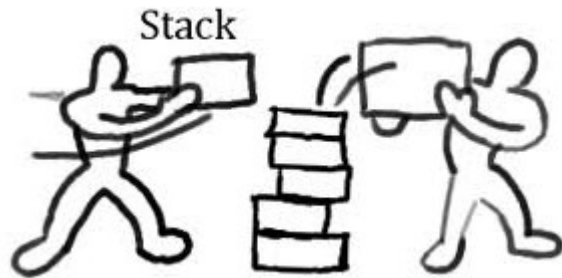
■ #pragma

- Used to define directives for the compiler
 - Always implementation/compiler-dependent
- Pragma directive is ignored if the compiler doesn't recognize it
- Example
 - #pragma GCC poison printf

Macros

■ Study the code ...

[Toledo: [Stack_V4D](#)]



Macros

■ Why using macros?

- Macro is kind of 'type-less function'

- Eliminate function call overhead

- Counter-argument: use 'inline' function (since C99)

- E.g.: inline my_func(...);

- But: inline is only a 'request' to the compiler to inline the function ...

- Token passing

```
#define STACK_DEF(stack_type)      \  
    typedef struct stack_type##_stack {  \  
        stack_type data[SIZE];          \  
        int top;                          \  
    } stack_type##_stack_t
```

```
STACK_DEF(int);  
STACK_DEF(double);
```

- Use compile-time info at run-time

- E.g. __FILE__, __LINE__, __func__, ...

LECTURE C4

Low-Level Operations

Representation

■ Constant and literals

□ Examples

- Unsigned: `printf("%u\n", 13u);`
- Long: `printf("%ld\n", 12345L);`
- Long long: `printf("%lld\n", 123456789LL);`
- Long double: `printf("%Lg\n", 11.2L);`
- Octal: `printf("\\o%o\n", 077);`
- Hex.: `printf("0x%x\n", 0x7B2F);`

■ C has no data type 'byte'

□ Typedef unsigned char byte_t;

- Assuming `sizeof(char) = 1`

Representation

- Size of int, float, double, etc. is *system-dependent*

- = differences in byte size, endianness, bit representation, ...

- Check `<limits.h>`, `<float.h>`, etc.

- Use `sizeof(...)` operator

- E.g. `sizeof(int)` : return #bytes used for int on this system

Portable Integer Types

■ C99 standard defines `<inttypes.h>`

□ Contains also macros for printf/scanf of these new types

<code>int8_t</code>	8-bit signed integer
<code>uint8_t</code>	8-bit unsigned integer
<code>int16_t</code>	16-bit signed integer
<code>uint16_t</code>	16-bit unsigned integer
<code>int32_t</code>	32-bit signed integer
<code>uint32_t</code>	32-bit unsigned integer
<code>int64_t</code>	64-bit signed integer
<code>uint64_t</code>	64-bit unsigned integer

<code>intptr_t</code>	signed integer which can hold the value of a pointer
<code>uintptr_t</code>	unsigned integer which can hold the value of a pointer

`INT8_MAX`, `INT16_MIN`, `UINT32_MAX`, etc. define constants holding min/max values

Bit Operators

■ `&` : and

■ `|` : or

■ `~` : one's complement

■ `^` : xor

■ `<<` : left-shift

$$\square x \ll 1 = 2 * x$$

■ `>>` : right-shift

□ Unsigned: 0's are inserted

□ Signed: 0's or 1's might be inserted (machine dependent)

□ The result of a left/right shift of a negative number or of data size or more bits is undefined in C

Arguments are integers:
short, long, long long,
signed, unsigned
>> machine dependent!

Check Bit

```
#define IRQ_FLAG 0x10 /* bit mask */  
  
typedef unsigned char Byte;  
  
Byte byte;  
  
if (byte & IRQ_FLAG) {  
    HandleIRQ();  
}
```

*Works also for a group
of bits!*

Byte:	10111001
Bit mask:	00010000
&:	00010000

Select Bit

```
#define MASK 0x10
```

```
d = (byte & MASK) >> 4;
```

byte:	10111001
Bit mask:	00010000
	<hr/>
& + >>:	00000001

Set Bit

```
#define MASK 0x10
```

```
byte |= MASK; /* Set bit */
```

*Works also for a group
of bits!*

byte:	10101001
-------	----------

Bit mask:	00010000
-----------	----------

:	10111001
---	----------

Reset Bit

```
#define MASK 0x10
```

```
byte &= ~MASK;    /* Clear bit */
```

*Works also for a group of
bits!*

byte:	10111001
Bit mask:	00010000
~ + &:	10101001

XOR Swap

```
int x,y,temp;  
temp = x;  
x = y;  
y = temp;
```

$x \oplus= y;$

$y \oplus= x;$

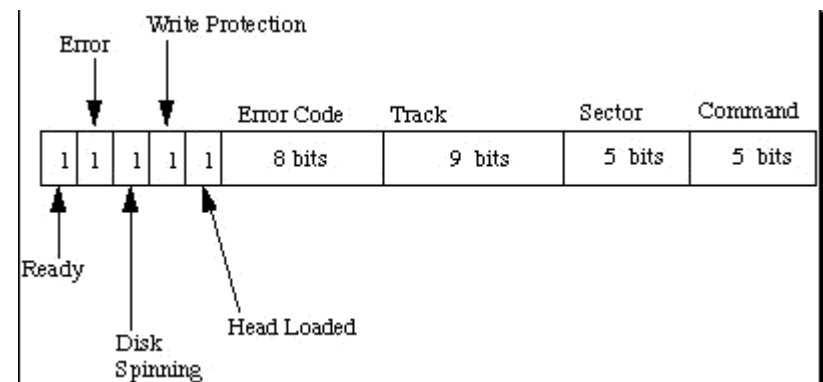
$x \oplus= y;$

Bit Fields in Structs

- Only for unsigned and int
- Machine-dependent behaviour!

```
struct DISK_REGISTER {  
    unsigned ready:1;  
    unsigned error_occured:1;  
    unsigned disk_spinning:1;  
    unsigned write_protect:1;  
    unsigned head_loaded:1;  
    unsigned error_code:8;  
    unsigned track:9;  
    unsigned sector:5;  
    unsigned command:5;  
};
```

```
struct DISK_REGISTER reg;  
...  
if (reg.ready) { ... }
```



Unions

```
Union int_or_float {  
    int i;  
    float f;  
} n;
```

```
n.i = 4444;
```

```
Printf("i = %d - f = %e\n", n.i, n.f  
);
```

→ $i = 4444 - f = 0.622737e-41$

```
n.f = 4444.0;
```

```
Printf("i = %d - f = %e\n", n.i, n.f  
);
```

→ $i = 1166729216 - f = 4.444e+3$

Bit fields can also be used in unions

Unions

■ Example: bytes and bits

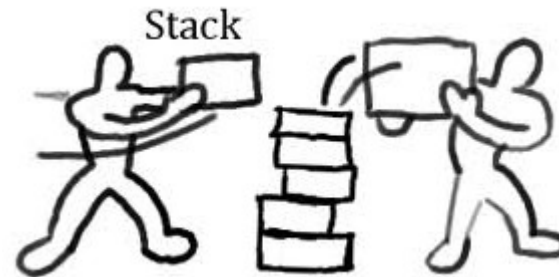
```
struct bits {  
    unsigned char b1:1, b2:1, b3:1, b4:1, b5:1, b6:1, b7:1, b8:1;  
};
```

```
union myByte {  
    unsigned char byte;  
    struct bits bit;  
};
```

```
union myByte by;
```

```
by.byte = 0xFF;  
by.bit.b1 = 0;  
by.bit.b2 = 0;
```

[DEMO: StructUnion]

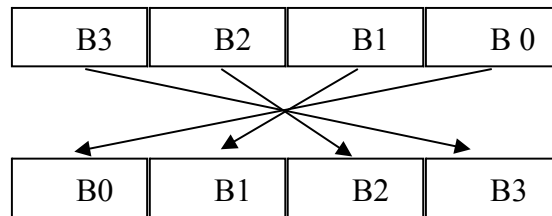


Unions

■ Example: little/big endian

□ unsigned = B0 B1 B2 B3

□ Little endian:



□ Big endian:

```
union {  
    unsigned value; //assuming 32bit unsigned  
    unsigned char byte[4];  
} x;  
x.value = 0x11223344;  
printf( "b0=0x%x \tb1=0x%x \tb2=0x%x \tb3=0x%x \n",  
        x.byte[0], x.byte[1], x.byte[2], x.byte[3] );
```


Storage Class: Register

■ Register

- Example: `register int x;`
- Request to store the variable in a register to optimize speed
 - It is not guaranteed that the variable is indeed mapped on a register – often ignored by compiler
- Register variables have the same scope and existence properties as automatic variables

Qualifier: Volatile

■ Qualifier in variable declarations

- Example: `volatile int x;`

■ Indicates to the compiler that a variable might change due to some “external” action, e.g.:

- Variable is changed by an ISR
- Variable is shared with other threads
- Variable is memory-mapped to a peripheral register of some device

>> prevents compiler to apply optimizations on this variable

Qualifier: Volatile

■ Example

```
#define REGADDR 0xFF670EB2

typedef unsigned char Byte;

Byte volatile *p = REGADDR;
//or: volatile Byte *p = REGADDR

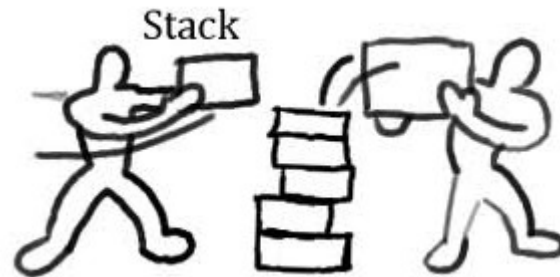
while ( *p == 0 ) {
    // busy loop: wait until data in register
}

// now do something with *p
```

Qualifier: Volatile

■ Study the code ...

[DEMO: Volatile]



Calling Assembly

- Gcc, x86: www.ibm.com/developerworks/library/l-ia.html

```
int main() {
    int arg1, arg2, add ;

    printf( "Enter two integer numbers : " );
    scanf( "%d%d", &arg1, &arg2 );

    /* Perform Addition */
    asm("addl %%ebx, %%eax;":"=a" (add) : "a" (arg1), "b" (arg2));

    printf( "%d + %d = %d\n", arg1, arg2, add );
    return 0 ;
}
```

Calling Assembly

■ Gcc, x86:

□ Assembly template

```
asm ( "statement" ... "statement"  
      : output operands (optional)  
      : input operands (optional)  
      : list of clobbered registers (optional)  
      );
```

Calling Assembly

■ Gcc, x86:

□ Volatile: no (compiler) optimizations allowed

```
asm ( "assembly code" );  
__asm__ ( "assembly code" );  
__asm__ volatile ( "assembly code" );  
__asm__ __volatile__ ( "assembly code" );
```

Calling Assembly

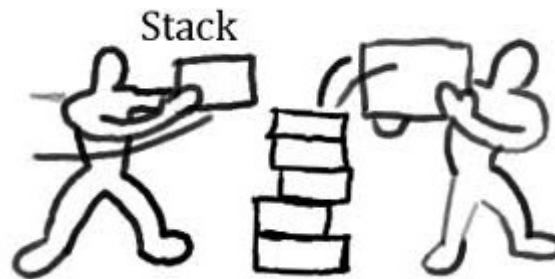
■ Compiling C code to assembly:

□ `Gcc -S file.c`

■ Compiling C and assembly code:

□ `Gcc file.c assembly.s`

[DEMO]



LECTURE C5

Dynamic Memory and Structures

Dynamic structures

■ Example

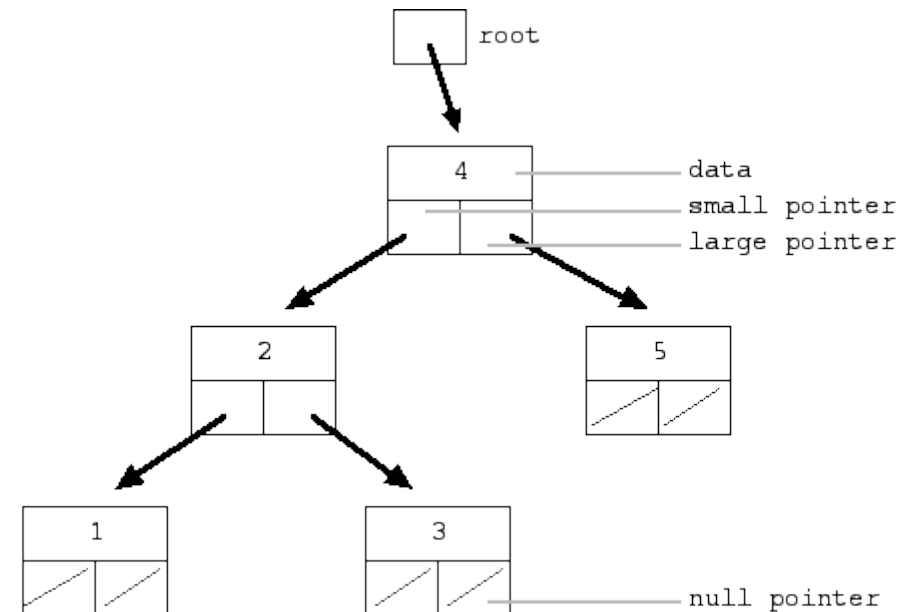
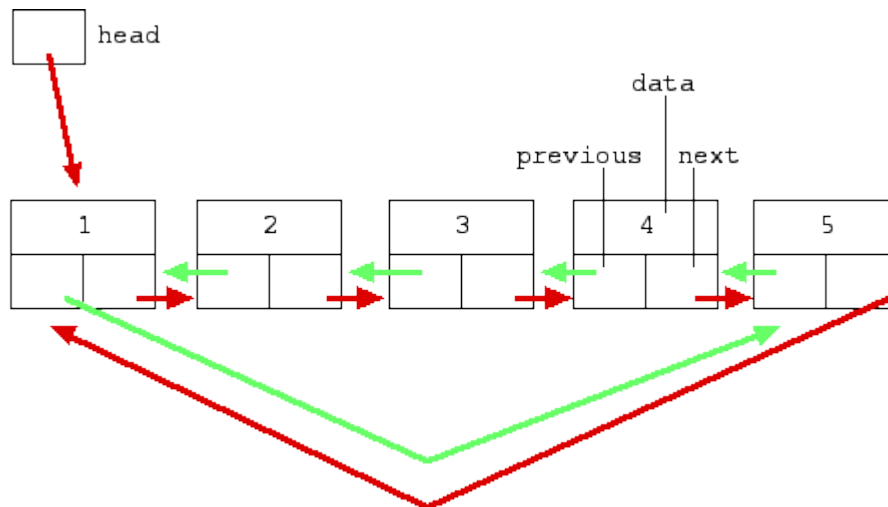
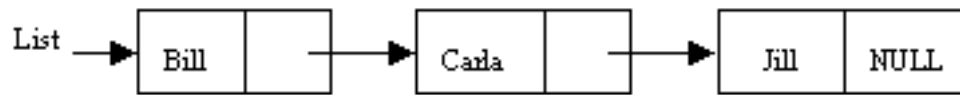
```
typedef struct {
    int x;
    int y;
    float f;
} my_struct_t;

my_struct_t *p;
p = (my_struct_t *)malloc( sizeof(my_struct_t) );
if ( p != NULL ) {
    p->x = 1;           // not: (*p).x = 1;
    p->y = 2;
    p->float = 0.5;
}
```

Dynamic structures

■ Easy to create complicated dynamic data structures using pointers to structs

□ Linked lists, binary trees, graphs, ...



Dynamic structures

■ Example: single linked list structure

```
typedef struct node {  
    int data;  
    struct node * next;  
} node_t;  
  
typedef node_t * list_t;  
  
list_t head;  
  
// an empty list  
head = NULL;
```

head 

Dynamic structures

■ Example: single linked list structure

```
// add the first element  
head = (list_t) malloc( sizeof( node_t ) );  
assert( head );
```

```
head->data = 1;  
head->next = NULL;
```



Dynamic structures

■ Example: single linked list structure

```
// add a second element  
head->next = (list_t) malloc(sizeof(node_t));  
assert( head->next );
```

```
head->next->data = 2;  
head->next->next = NULL;
```



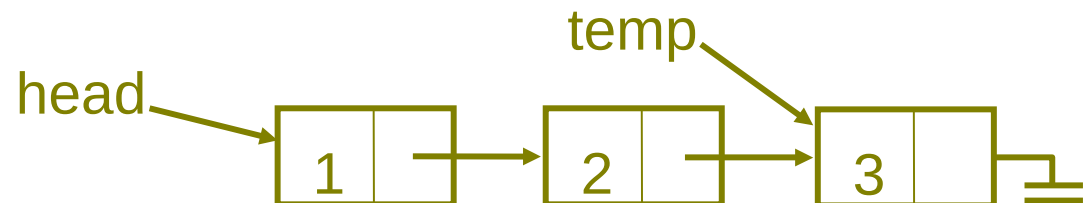
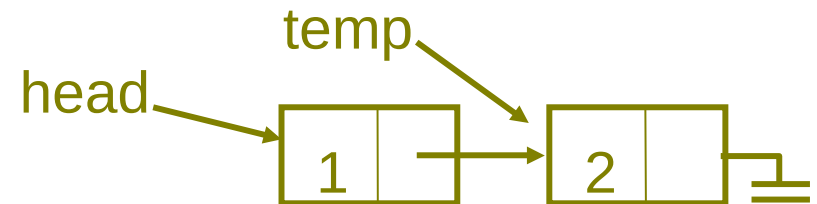
Dynamic structures

■ Example: single linked list structure

```
// add a third element  
list_t temp;  
temp = head->next;  
temp->next = (list_t) malloc(sizeof(node_t));  
assert( temp->next );
```

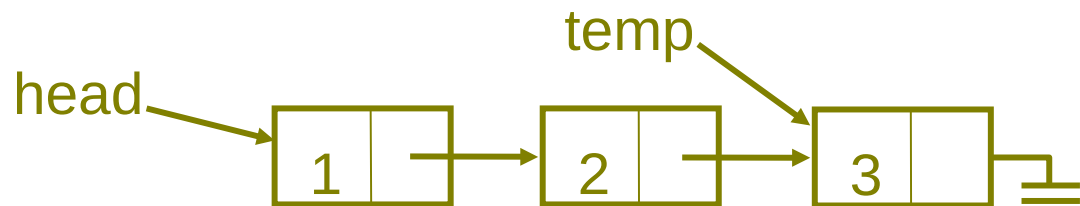
```
temp->next->data = 3;  
temp->next->next = NULL;
```

```
// to insert the next element  
temp = temp->next;
```



Dynamic structures

■ Example: single linked list structure



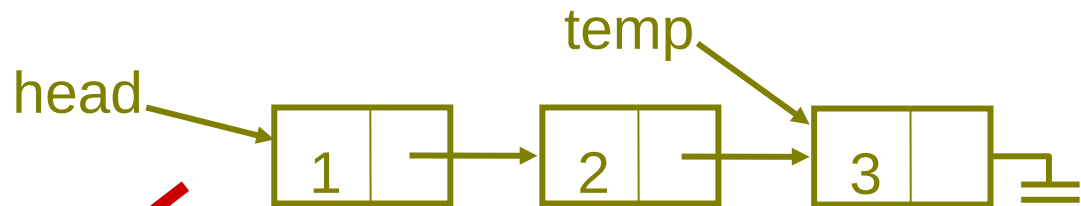
```
// delete the third element  
free(temp);
```

```
// BUT end-of-list needs to be indicated by NULL!  
// This is not possible anymore!
```



Dynamic structures

■ Example: single linked list structure



~~// delete element
free(temp)~~

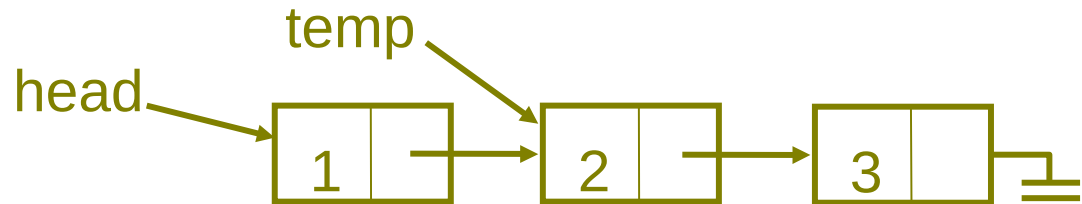
WRONG!

~~// BUT end-of-list needs to be indicated by NULL!
// This is not possible anymore!~~



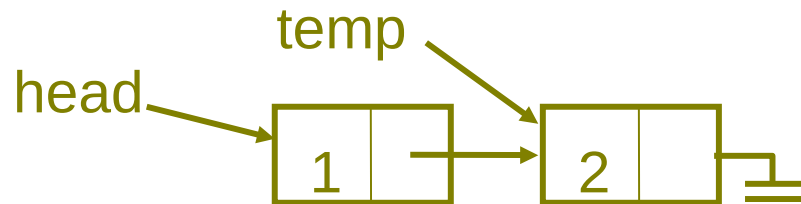
Dynamic structures

■ Example: single linked list structure



```
// delete the third element  
temp = head->next
```

```
free( temp->next );  
temp->next = NULL;
```

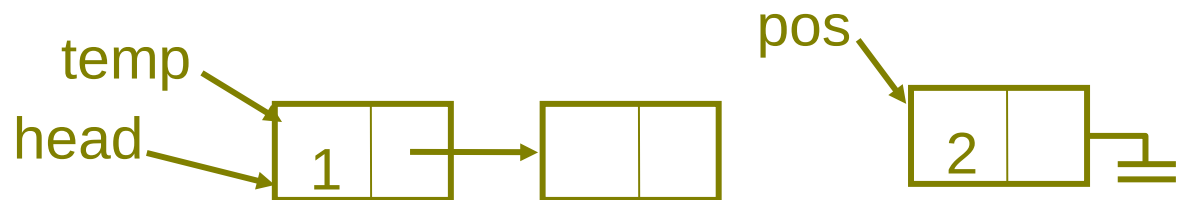


Dynamic structures

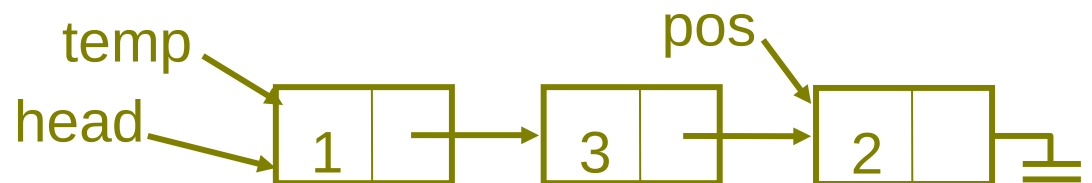
■ Example: single linked list structure

```
// inserting an element at 'pos'
```

```
temp = head;  
temp->next = (list_t) malloc(sizeof(node_t));  
assert( temp->next );
```



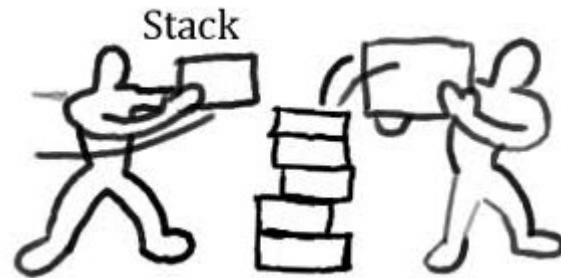
```
temp->next->data = 3;  
temp->next->next = pos;
```



Dynamic structures

■ Study the code ...

[Toledo: [StackV6](#)]



Dynamic structures

- More examples, memory drawings and solutions can be found in the following papers (Toledo)
 - “Linked List Basics”, Nick Parlante, Stanford University
 - “Linked List Problems”, Nick Parlante, Stanford University

More Memory Functions

■ More memory-related functions

□ `void *calloc(size_t nmemb, size_t size);`

- Allocate memory for an array of 'nmemb' elements of size 'size' and initializes memory to zero

□ `void *memcpy(void *dest, const void *src, size_t n);`

□ `void *memmove(void *dest, const void *src, size_t n);`

□ `int memcmp(const void *s1, const void *s2, size_t n);`

□ `void *memchr(const void *s, int c, size_t n);`

- Search c in first n bytes of memory s

□ `void *memset(void *s, int c, size_t n);`

- Set the first n bytes of memory s to byte c

Check C manual reference for more possibilities!

Common Memory Errors

■ Common errors

- Pointer points to no or not enough allocated memory

- Example

```
int *ptr;
```

```
...
```

```
*ptr = x;
```

```
char str[] = "luc";
```

```
...
```

```
strcpy(str, "peter");
```

==> strncpy, strdup, ...

Common Memory Errors

■ Common errors: dangling pointers

- Pointing to memory that no longer exists

- Using freed memory

```
char *ptr, *str;  
str = malloc(...);  
strcpy(str, "luc");  
...  
ptr = str;  
...  
free(ptr);  
...  
printf("%s\n", str);
```

```
int *p; // global var  
  
Void func(void){  
    int a;  
    p = &a;  
}  
...  
func();  
printf("%d\n", *p);
```


Common Memory Errors

■ Common errors

□ Memory leaks

- Neglecting to free disused blocks
- Eventually the system will run out-of-memory

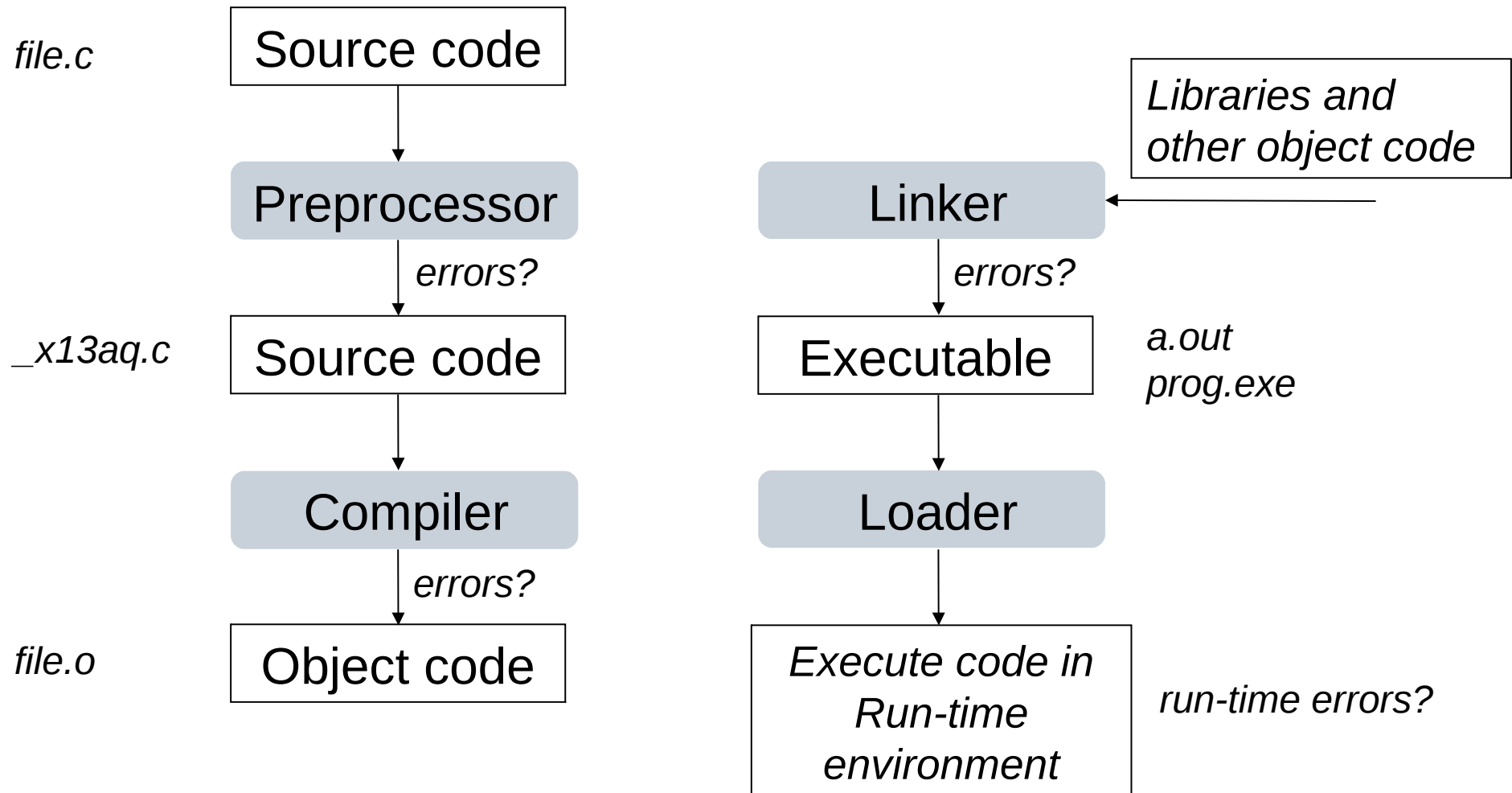
=> Use memory debugging tools such as Valgrind

□ (see lab sessions)

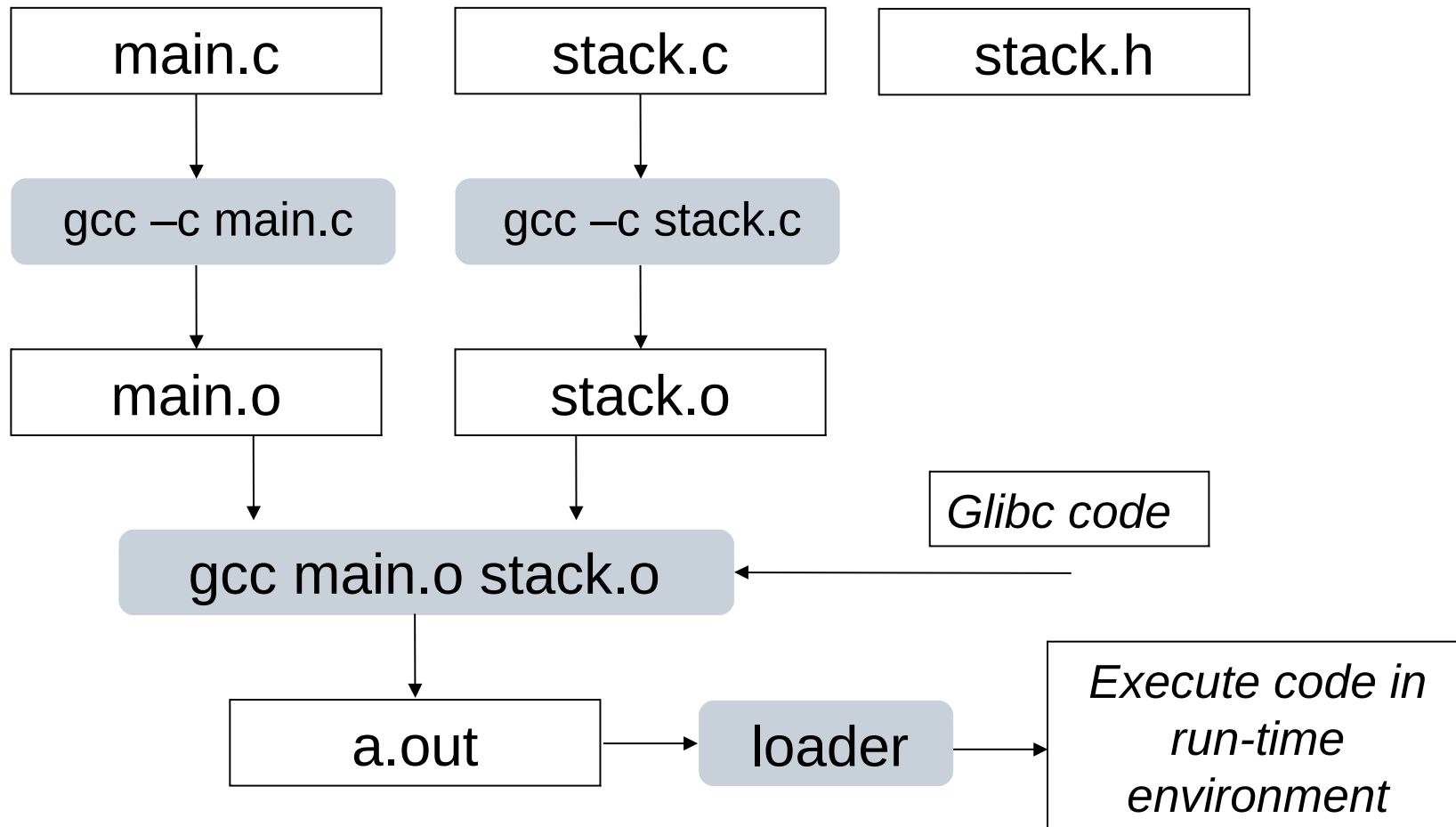
LECTURE C6

When Programs Become Larger

The Build Process



The Build Process



The Build Process

■ Calling the preprocessor

- Gcc -E file.c

- Cpp file.c

■ Calling the compiler

- Gcc -c file.c

■ Calling the assembler

- Gcc -S file.c

- Gcc calls 'as' utility

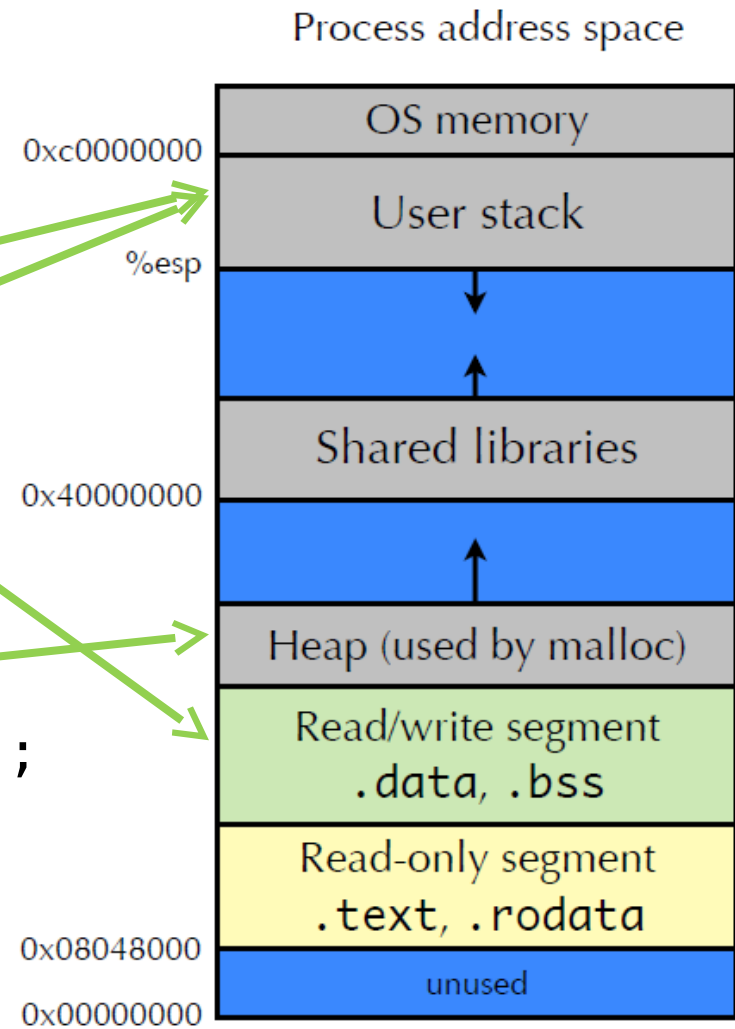
■ Calling the linker

- Gcc file1.o file2.o -lsomelib

- Gcc calls 'ld' utility

Memory Layout

```
int global_static;  
void foo(int auto_param)  
{  
    int auto_i, auto_a[10];  
    double *auto_d =  
        malloc(sizeof(double)*5);  
}
```



Memory layout

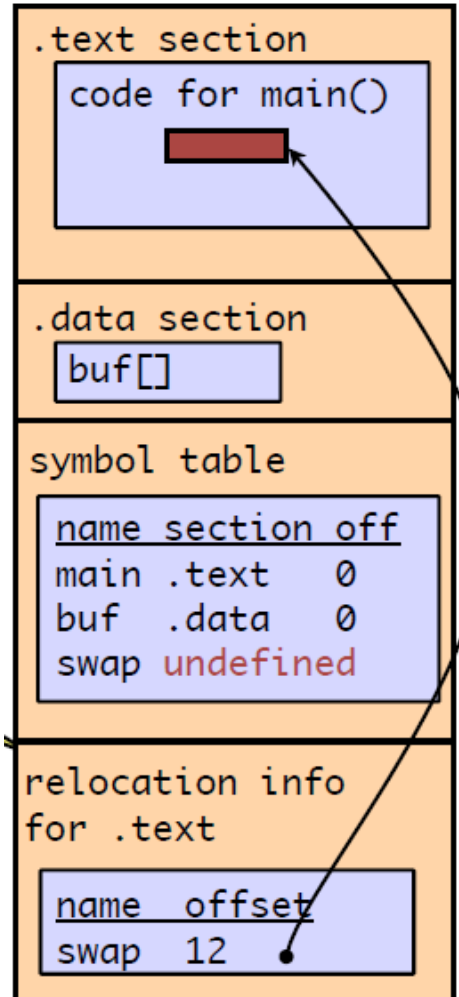
- In Linux: `/proc/<process_id>/maps`
 - Use `'ps aux'` to see processes & their ids
 - Do `'cat /proc/<process_id>/maps'`
 - Overview of memory layout of the process `<process ID>`
 - See `'man proc'` for details

Compiler

■ Compiler

- Translate source code into object code
 - Syntax checking
- Symbol table for global variables and function names
- Several object code formats exist
 - ELF, COFF, PE COFF, ...
- Example:

main.o



main.c

```
int buf[2] = {1,2};

int main()
{
    swap();
    return 0;
}
```


Compiler

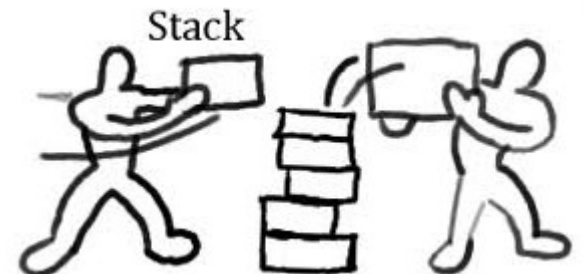
■ Compiler

- ☐ Symbols are mapped to memory regions
 - Text, read-only memory, BSS, uninitialized, ...
 - They have no addresses yet (address 0 or an offset value)
- ☐ Undefined symbols are 'defined' externally (other object code file or library)

■ Nm-tool

- ☐ List symbols from object files
- ☐ Gcc -c main.c
- ☐ Nm main.o

[DEMO]



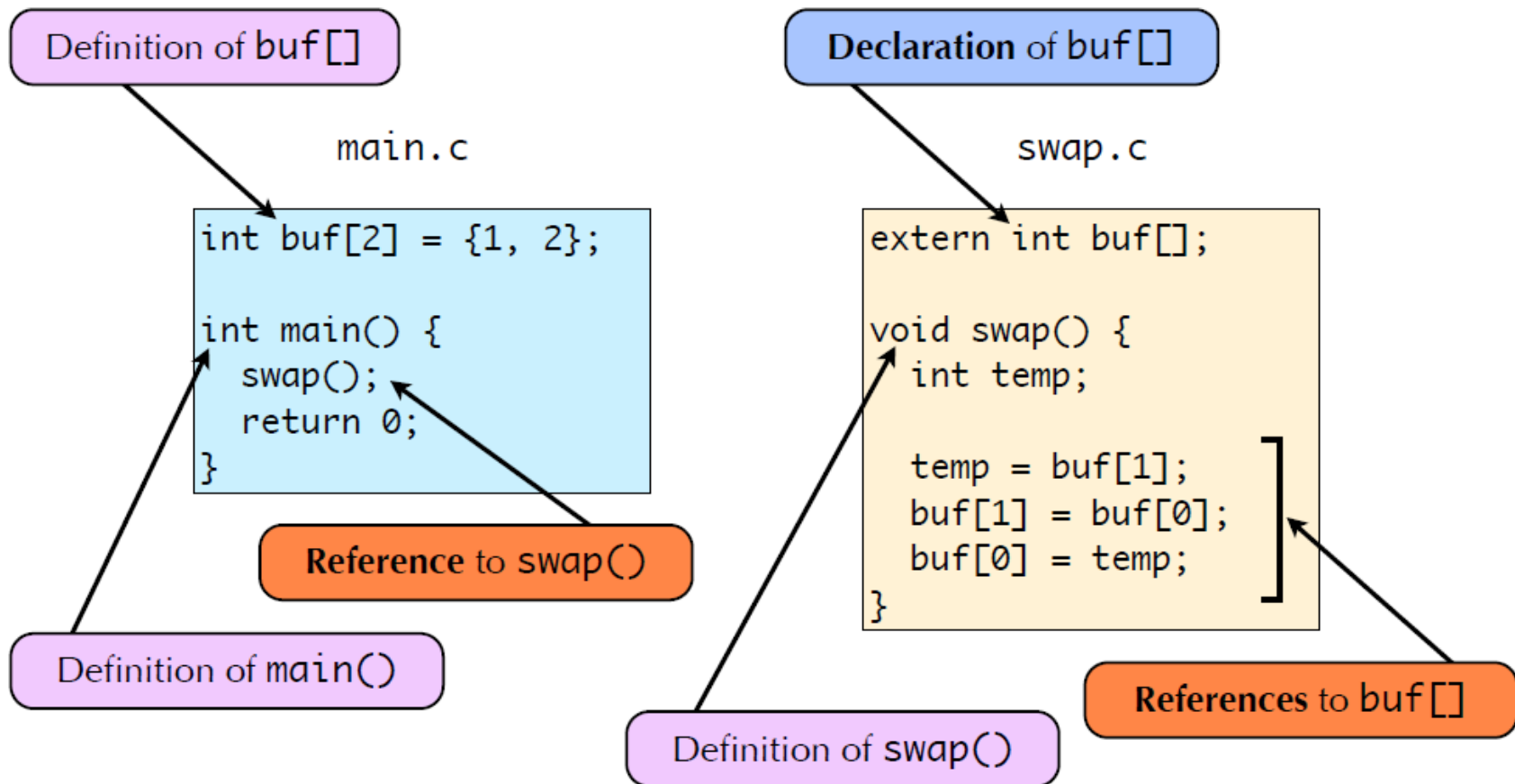
Linker

- Combine multiple object files into an executable that can be loaded in memory and executed

■ Linker tasks

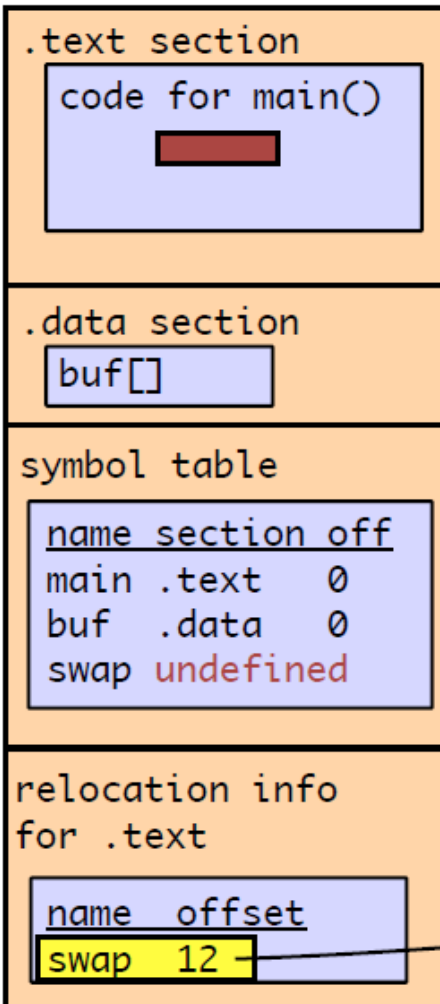
- **Copy** code and data from each object file to the executable
- **Resolve** references between object files
 - Undefined symbols
- **Memory allocation** to defined static symbols
 - Symbols from shared libraries get memory at run-time

Linker

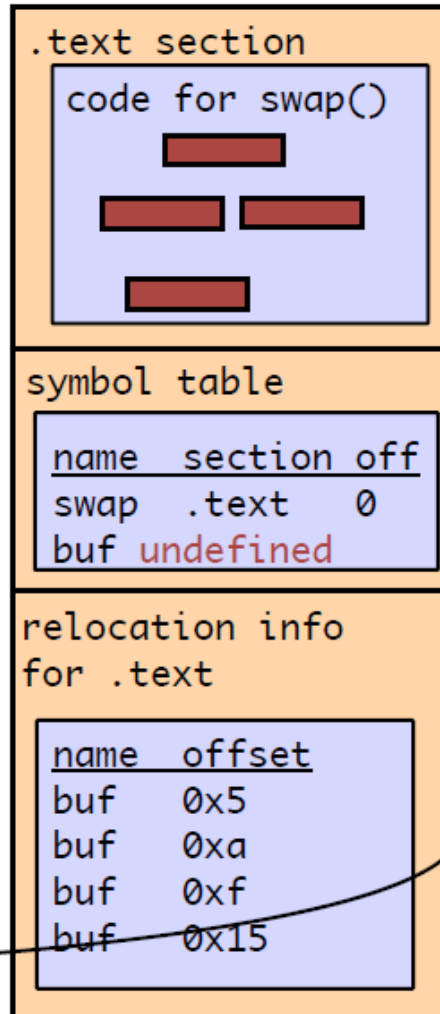


Linker

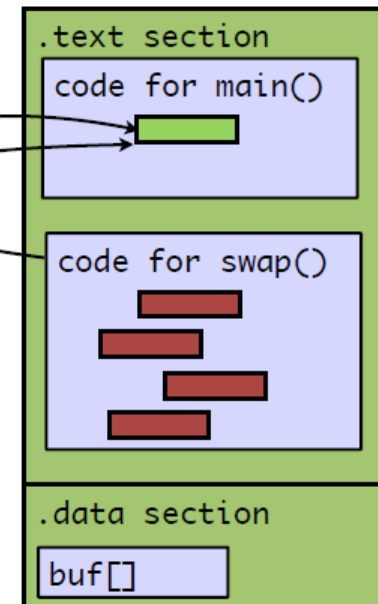
main.o



swap.o



myprog

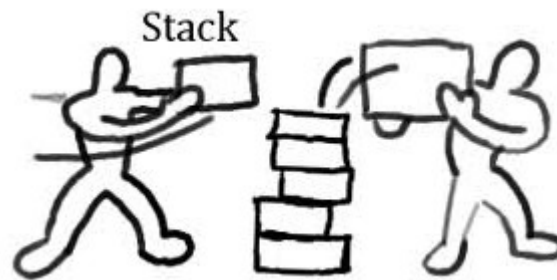


Linker

■ Nm-tool

- ☐ Link stack.o and main.o to a.out
- ☐ Nm a.out

[DEMO]



Linker

■ Typical linker errors

- Duplicate reference to variables or functions
- Undefined symbols

■ Static, extern, register, ... influence the linkage of variables and functions

■ Volatile, const, ... used by the compiler

Linker

■ Why a compilation and linking stage?

□ Time efficiency

■ Faster building large programs

- Only compile files that were changed

■ Use precompiled code (library code)

□ Memory efficiency

■ Allows the use of shared code (libraries)

Loader

- OS starts loading process when program wants to run

- A new process is created (see part 3 – `execve()` syscall!)

- Process execution environment is created

- Memory is allocated

- On modern OS this is virtual memory

- Data and code is copied to memory

- Locate and load shared lib code

- The function stack is initialized

- The processor's program counter (PC) is set to the executable's entry point (calls `main()`)

The Build Process

■ Objdump-tool

- Disassembly of object code

 - Objdump -d swap.o

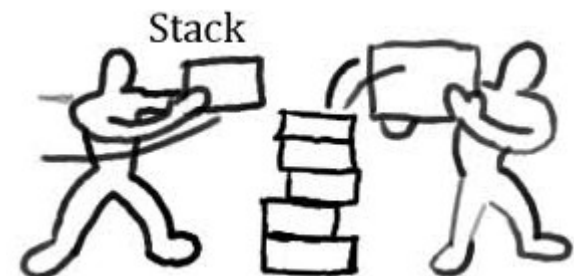
- Disassembly of executable

 - Objdump -t a.out

>> see man objdump for more options

```
$ objdump -d swap.o
...
00000000 <swap>:
0: 55                push    %ebp
1: 89 e5             mov     %esp,%ebp
3: 8b 15 04 00 00 00 mov     0x4,%edx
9: a1 00 00 00 00    mov     0x0,%eax
e: a3 04 00 00 00    mov     %eax,0x4
13: 89 15 00 00 00 00 mov     %edx,0x0
19: 5d                pop     %ebp
1a: c3                ret
```

[DEMO]



Libraries

- Target: allow code reuse and code sharing
 - Solution 1: make source code available
 - But: everybody needs to recompile and relink
 - But: must give source code
 - Solution 2: make .o files available
 - But: everybody needs to relink
 - But: not efficient when code consists of many .o files

Libraries

□ Solution 3: package code together in library

- Static library

- .a files in Linux

- Shared library

- .so files in Linux

- .dll files in Windows

Libraries

■ Static library

- Archive .o files in .a library

- Examples

- libc.a (the C standard library)

- archive of more than 1500 object files.
 - I/O, memory allocation, signal handling, string handling, data and time, random numbers, integer math

- libm.a (the C math library)

- archive of more than 400 object files.
 - floating point math (sin, cos, tan, log, exp, sqrt, ...)

Libraries

■ Static library

□ How? Use ar-tool

- Example: `ar rs libtest.a file1.o file2.o file3.o`
- What's in lib?
 - E.g. `ar t /usr/lib/x86_64-linux-gnu/libc.a`

□ Using static libraries

■ Example

- `gcc main.c file.c libtest.a`
- `Gcc main.c file.c -ltest`
- `Gcc main.c file.c -ltest -L/path_to_lib`

Libraries

■ Shared library

□ Drawbacks of static libraries

■ Code duplication

- E.g. all C programs with 'printf' have own printf-code in the executable

- Big executable files

■ Updates of library require relinking of programs using the library

Libraries

■ Shared library

- Shared library needs to be located at compile-link time
 - Lookup symbols in external libraries
 - Type checking, etc.
- Shared library needs to be located again at run-time for loading
 - Done by run-time linker in 'ld' lib
 - Load symbols from shared library are allocated memory

Libraries

■ Shared library

□ How to create a shared lib

- `Gcc -fPIC -c file1.c file2.c`
 - PIC = position independent code
- `Gcc -shared -o libtest.so file1.o file2.o`

Libraries

■ Shared library

□ How to link program with shared lib?

- `gcc main.c /path_to_lib/libtest.so`
 - Location of lib at compile-link time!

■ Better:

- `Gcc main.c -L/path_to_lib/ -ltest`

Libraries

■ Shared library

□ How to run program with shared lib?

□ Location of lib at run-time loading!

■ Check shared lib dependencies: `ldd prog.exe`

■ Option 1 (ok for testing/debugging): set the run path

– `Gcc main.c -L/path_to_lib/ -Wl,-rpath=/path_to_lib/ -ltest`

■ Option 2 (better, more permanent): copy lib to default lib-folder (admin perm.)

– E.g.: `cp libtest.so /usr/lib`

• Check permissions of `libtest.so`

– Update the cache of the loader

• Run '`ldconfig`'

– `Gcc main.c -ltest`

Libraries

■ Dynamic loading: load shared code **on demand** at runtime

□ Advantages

■ Extend program functionality after compilation and linking

□ Example: browser plugins

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

int main() {
    void *handle;
    void (*somefunc)(int, int);
    char *error;

    /* dynamically load the shared
     * lib that contains somefunc() */
    handle = dlopen("./libvector.so", RTLD_LAZY);
    if (!handle) {
        fprintf(stderr, "%s\n", dlerror());
        exit(1);
    }
    /* get a pointer to the somefunc()
     * function we just loaded */
    somefunc = dlsym(handle, "somefunc");
    if ((error = dlerror()) != NULL) {
        fprintf(stderr, "%s\n", error);
        exit(1);
    }

    /* Now we can call somefunc() just
     * like any other function */
    somefunc(42, 38);

    /* unload the shared library */
    if (dlclose(handle) < 0) {
        fprintf(stderr, "%s\n", dlerror());
        exit(1);
    }

    return 0;
}
```

Libraries

■ Example: dynamic link loader

□ Dynamic link loader can be called to do this

■ 4 functions implement the interface to the loader

- `Dlopen()` : load dynamic library in memory
- `Dlclose()` : unload the lib
- `Dlsym()` : look up and return addresses to symbols (e.g. functions) in lib
- `Dlerror()` : used for error handling

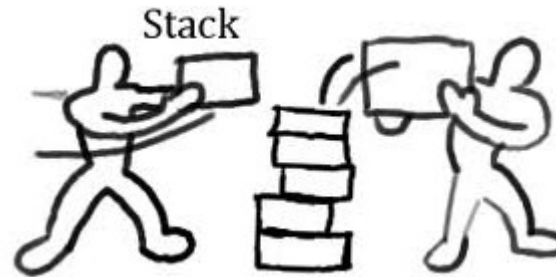
■ Build code with: `gcc ... -ldl`

Libraries

■ Study the code ...

- Build: `gcc main.c -ldl`
-
- Check with `ldd`: no dependency on `libstack.so`!

[Toledo: **Dlopen**]



Library linking: summary

- Linking can be done at
 - Compile time (static linking)
 - Run time (dynamic linking)
 - 'a.out' is incomplete executable
 - On demand at run time (dynamic loading)
- Gcc uses dynamic linking of libraries by default
 - Static linking can be enforced using '-static' flag, e.g. 'gcc -static ...'

Make Files

■ Compilation of large code trees can take a lot of time (e.g. Linux kernel)

- Make utility eases the build process
- Make avoids compiling files that didn't change

```
myprog: main.o stack.o
gcc main.o stack.o -o myprog
```

Tab!

```
main.o: main.c stack.h
gcc -Wall -c main.c
```

```
stack.o: stack.c stack.h
gcc -Wall -c stack.c
```

```
clean:
rm myprog *.o
```

Make rule:

target: dependencies

action(s)

*Idea: check for updates of the dependencies **and** rebuild myprog when the modification timestamp of any of the dependencies is more recent than the modification timestamp of myprog.*

Make Files

■ How to run a make file?

□ Type 'make'

- Make will look for a file 'makefile' and will run the commands of the first rule/target
- If there is no file 'makefile', it will look for the file 'Makefile' and will run the commands of the first rule/target

□ Type 'make -f <someFile>'

- Make will run the commands of the first rule/target in 'someFile'

□ Type 'make <targetName>'

- Make will run the commands of the rule/target <targetName> in the file makefile (or Makefile)
- Example: make -f mymake clean

Make Files

■ Macros in make files

```
EXE = myprog.exe
OBSJS = main.o stack.o ← defintion
CC = gcc
CFLAGS = -Wall -c
LFLAGS = -Wall
```

```
$(EXE): $(OBSJS) ← expansion
    $(CC) $(LFLAGS) $(OBSJS) -o $(EXE)
```

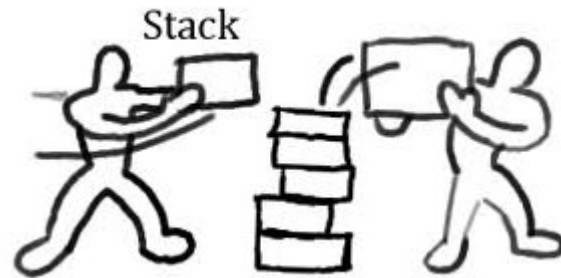
```
main.o: main.c stack.h
    $(CC) $(CFLAGS) main.c
```

```
stack.o: stack.c stack.h
    $(CC) $(CFLAGS) stack.c
```

```
clean:
    rm *.o $(EXE)
```

Make Files

[DEMO: **make file**]



Code Optimization

■ Compiler optimizations

□ Gcc -O0 main.c

- No code optimization at all
- Typically used for compilation in 'debug' mode

□ Gcc -O1 main.c

- Fast compilation with code optimization speed without increasing the code size

□ Gcc -O2 main.c

- More code optimization for speed without increasing the code size but slower compilation
- Often the 'best' choice for code deployment (compiling in 'release' mode)

□ Gcc -O3 main.c

- Applies the most expensive code optimization rules for speed, but code size might increase
- Example: function inlining
- Because the potential increase of code size, the speed might even be slower (instruction cache)

□ Gcc -Os main.c

- Optimize code for size

Code Optimization

■ Use a code profiler

□ Profiler analyses a program by tracking which functions are called and how long each call takes

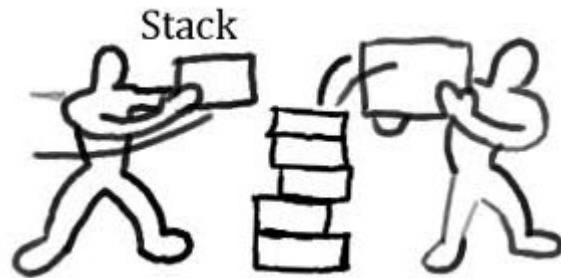
- Find the most interesting pieces of code to optimize

□ Example: gprof

- Build the program with '-pg' options
 - Example: `gcc main.c -o myprog -pg`
- Run the program to collect profile data
 - Generates a file 'gmon.out'
- Analyze profiler data using 'gprof'
 - `Gprof myprog > myOutput`

Code Optimization

[DEMO: **gprof**]



References

■ For much more details on the utilities ...

□ Check the man pages or manuals

- Objdump, nm, ar, ldd, ldconfig

- Gprof

 - <http://sourceware.org/binutils/docs/gprof/index.html>

- Make

 - www.gnu.org/software/make/manual/make.html

■ Background reading

- Shared lib

 - www.cprogramming.com/tutorial/shared-libraries-linux-gcc.html

- Gcc optimization

 - www.linuxjournal.com/article/7269

LECTURE C7

Function Pointers and Data Abstraction

Function Types

```
typedef int Tfunc(float);
```

```
Or: typedef int (*Tfunc)(float);
```

```
int F( float x ) {  
    /* do something */  
}
```

```
int G( float y ) {  
    /* do something else */  
}
```


Function Pointers

```
// define function type variables
```

```
Tfunc *fun;
```

```
// assign a value to a function type variable
```

```
fun = &F; // fun = &G;
```

```
// use the function type variable
```

```
x = (*fun)(1.2)
```

Function Pointers

```
// use a function type argument
float MoreFun( Tfunc *f ) {
    float x;
    x = (*f)( 1.2 );
    return x;
}
```

```
// function call
MoreFun( &F );    //or: MoreFun( &G )
```

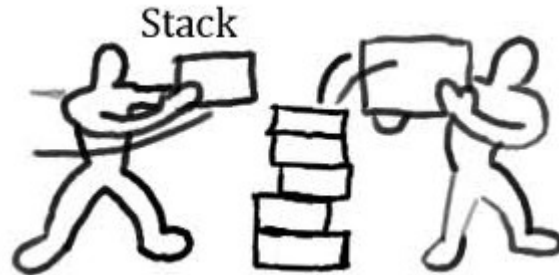
Function Pointers

- Example: use a callback error handler
- stack should be independent of 'element' data type
 - For 'stack' the element data type should be 'void *'
 - Stack should use 'callback-functions' for operations on 'elements'
 - E.g. CopyElement(...), DeleteElement(...), Equal(...), etc.

Function Pointers

- Example: use a callback function for error handling
- Study the code ...

[Toledo: [Stack_V4E](#)]



Function Pointers

■ Example: stack should be independent of
'element' data type

□ For 'stack' the element data type should be
'void *'

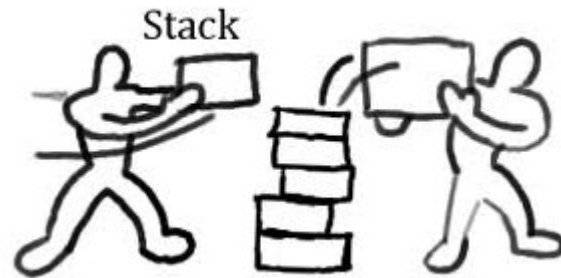
□ Stack should use 'callback-functions' for
operations on 'elements'

■ E.g. CopyElement(...), DeleteElement(...),
Equal(...), etc.

Function Pointers

■ Study the code ...

[Toledo: [Stack_V8a](#)]



Function Pointers

■STDLIB examples

□Quicksort

```
Void qsort ( void *base, size_t n, size_t size,  
int (*cmp)(void *, void *) ) ← callback-function
```

□Binary search

```
Void *bsearch ( void *key, void *base, size_t n,  
size_t size, int (*cmp)( void *, void * ) ) ← callback-function
```

Program Termination

■ Function pointers and atexit()

- How to terminate a program?

- Use 'return <value>' in main-func

- Use 'void abort(void)'

 - Abnormal termination of program!

 - Not really a 'clean' exit

Program Termination

■ Function pointers and atexit()

□ How to terminate a program?

□ Void exit(int status)

- Normal program termination

- Status = EXIT_SUCCESS

- Status = EXIT_FAILURE

- Clean up is done

- Files are flushed and closed, control is returned to the RTE, ...

Program Termination

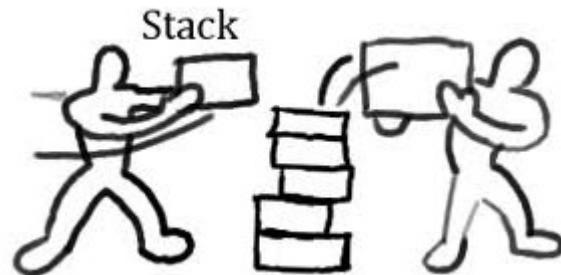
■ Function pointers and atexit()

□ How to terminate a program?

■ Int atexit(void (*func)(void))

- Register function(s) that will be called after exit() or return()
- Study the sample code ...

[Toledo: **AtExit**]



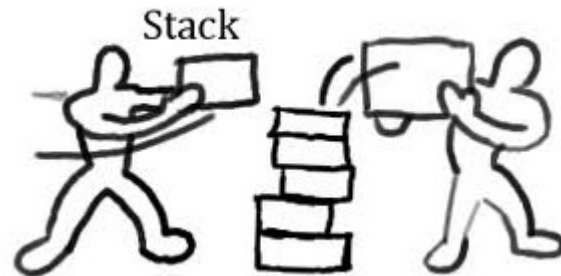
Data Hiding

- Stack user still has access to the stack type definition ...
 - User can access/manipulate the data type without using the operators
 - Solution: “data hiding”
 - Use ‘void *’ to hide definition of stack
 - In ‘stack.h’: `typedef void * Stack;`

Data Hiding

■ Study the code ...

[Toledo: [Stack_V8b](#)]



History and Standards

■ Between 1969 and 1973

- Denis Ritchie, Ken Thompson of AT&T Bell Labs rewrite an assembly implementation of Unix for the PDP-11 in a new language called C
- One of the first OS kernels not implemented in assembly but a 'higher' programming language
- C is derived from B

■ C becomes a very popular programming language

History and Standards

- 1978: Brian Kernighan and Dennis Ritchie publish “The C Programming Language”

- Served as the informal specification of the language: K&R C

- First C standard: C89

- Released in 1989 by the ANSI X3J11 and ISO S22/WG14 C Standard Committees

History and Standards

■ Second C standard: C99

- Ratified in 1999
- New features: complex numbers, variable length arrays, support for 64-bit computing, restricted pointers, ...
- C99 is backward compatible with C89

■ Latest standard C11

- Published Dec. 8th, 2011
- New features: type generic macros, anonymous structures, improved Unicode support, atomic operations, multi-threading, and bounds-checked functions, improved compatibility with C++, ...

Some Additional Features

- Not every compiler supports all C99/C11 features
 - Compile with argument '-std=c99' or '-std=c11'
- Compiler minimum resource limits
 - Support for identifiers with internal linkage of at least 63 chars (i.s.o 31 chars) and at least 31 chars for those with external linkage (i.s.o 6 chars)
 - Support for at least 1023 members in struct, union, enum
 - Support for at least 127 function parameters
 - ...

Some Additional Features

- Designated initializers for arrays, structs and unions

```
int a[5] = { [0] = 0, [2] = 10, [4] = 40 };
```

```
struct point {  
    int x, y;  
};
```

```
Struct point p = { .x = 20, .y = 30 };
```

Some Additional Features

- Type boolean, complex number, ...

```
#include <stdbool.h>
```

```
Bool stop = false; // true and false
```

```
While ( !stop )  
{  
    ...  
}
```

Inline functions

- C99 standard allows inline functions
 - Compiler *may* replace every call to an inline functions with a copy of the function body
 - Only for functions with a short code body and that are called frequently
 - Inline avoids the use of the function stack which could improve performance

```
inline int minimum( int x, int y );
```

```
inline int minimum( int x, int y )  
{  
    return ( x < y ? x : y );  
}
```

Some Additional Features

■ Variable-length arrays

- Arrays must have fixed size but C99 allows that the constant size is evaluated at run-time

```
int size;
```

```
...
```

```
printf("Enter size of array: ");
```

```
scanf("%d", &size);
```

```
int data[size]; //define array 'data'
```

```
// changes to 'size' will not change the array size!
```

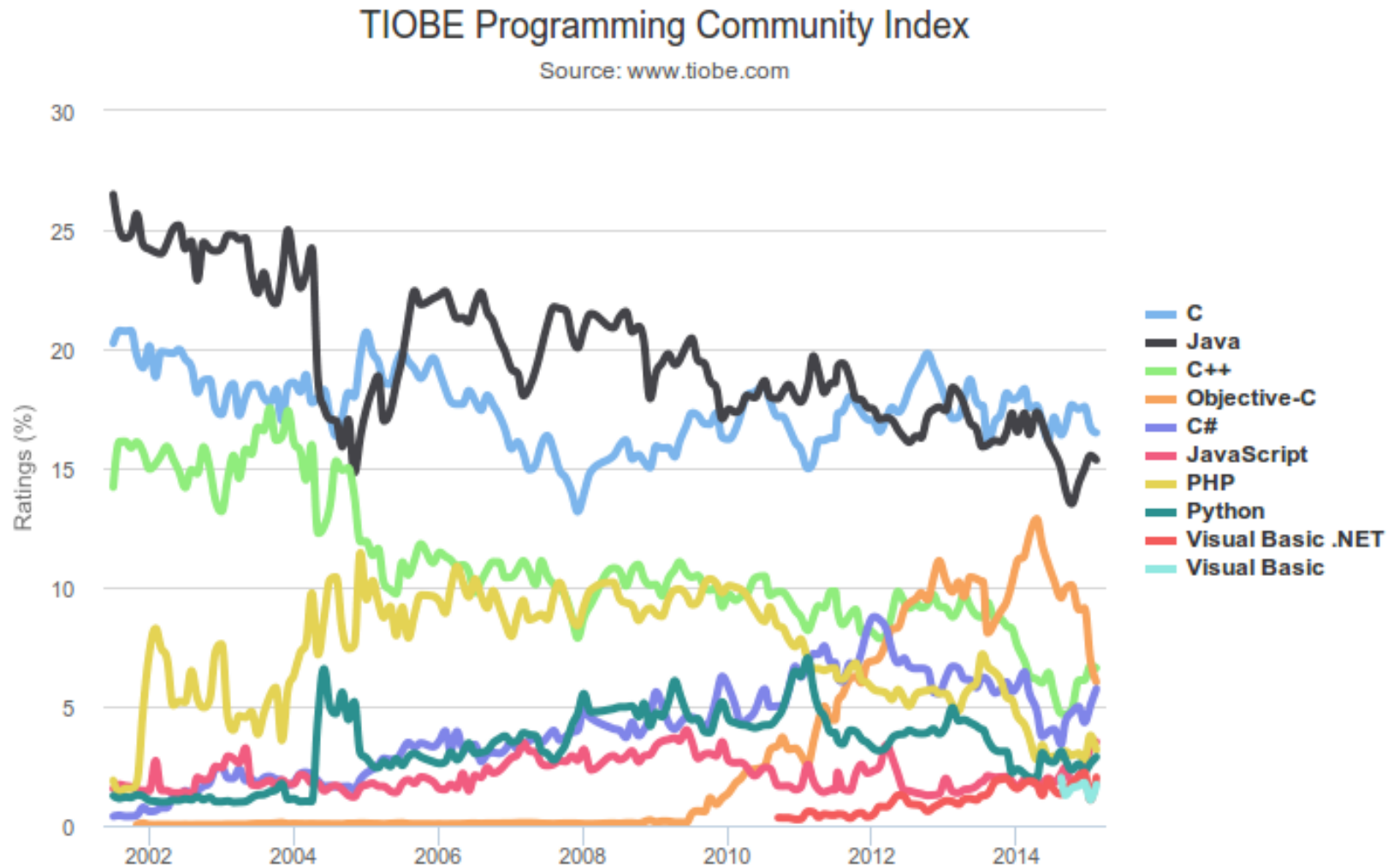
```
printf("Array size in bytes = %d\n", sizeof(data) );
```

```
...
```

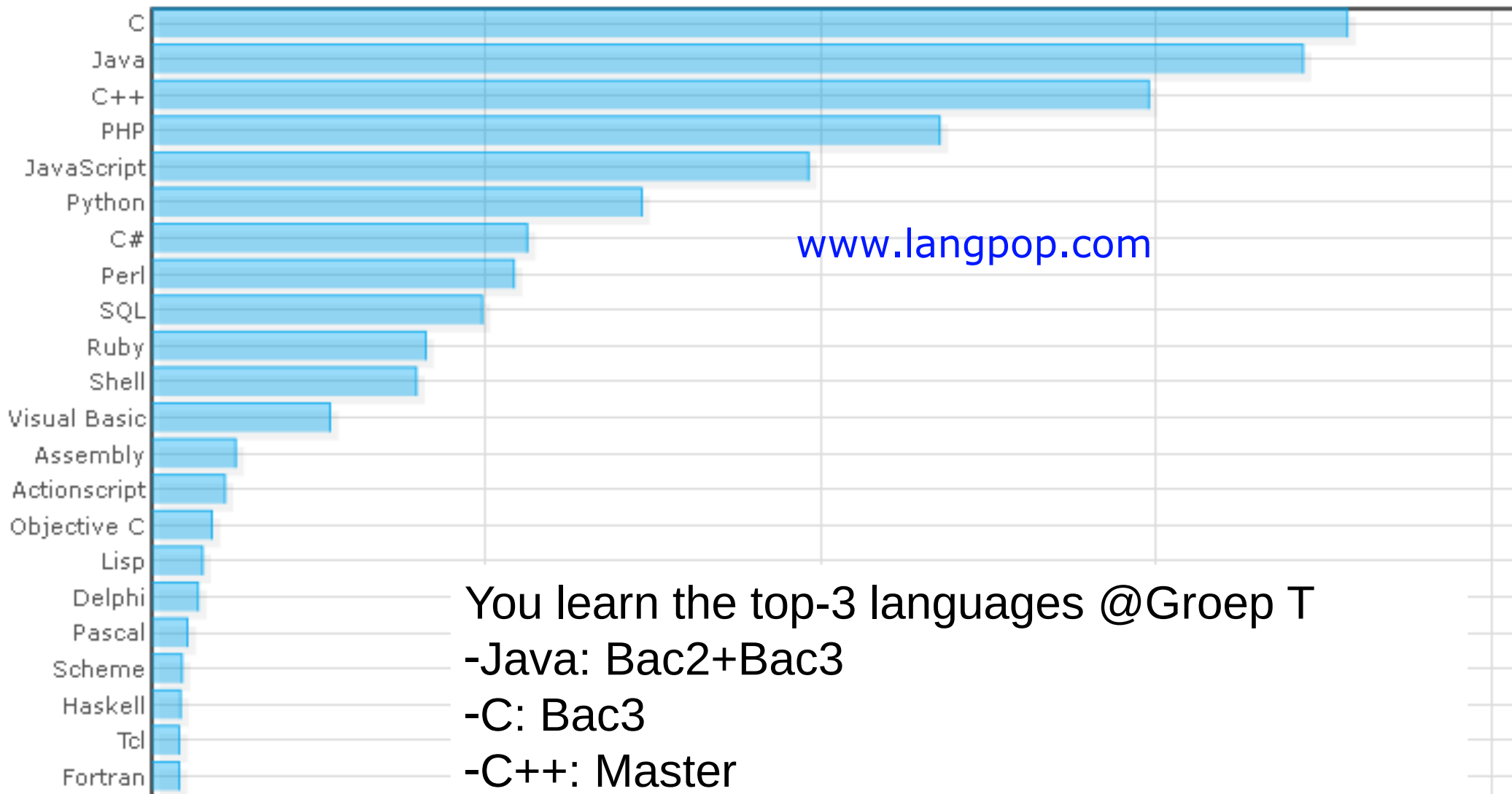
OK, and why ...

... did I need to learn all this?

C Is An Old Language And No Longer In Use! NOT TRUE



C Is An Old Language And No Longer In Use! NOT TRUE



C Is An Old Language And No Longer In Use! NOT TRUE

■ C is the dominant language in embedded software

- C compiler is one of the first compilers available on new computing platforms
- C runs on every computing platform
 - PIC, Arduino, ...
- First choice for programming hardware and their interfaces
- Embedded systems have typically limited computing and memory resources
 - That's the perfect habitat for C!

C Is An Old Language And No Longer In Use! NOT TRUE

- C is designed as 'system language' for OS, especially Unix/Linux

- Large part of Linux, Android, Windows kernel is written in C

- Java Virtual Machines are often written in C

- Drivers are written in C
 - Only other alternative is assembly



C Is An Old Language And No Longer In Use! NOT TRUE

■ Some famous application/tools/libraries written in C

- MySQL, SQLite, ...

 - See source code

- Apache web server

 - See source code

- NginX (high-performance HTTP server powered by Netflix, GitHub, Zynga, WordPress, ...)

- OpenSSL, Wireshark, ...

 - See source code

- Google Big Table: C & C++

- Matlab, GNU scientific library, Gnu multi-precision library, ...

- Compilers/interpreters for programming languages

 - PHP, Perl, Java, ...

- See also: www.lextrait.com/vincent/implementations.html

■ C is not the 'first choice' programming language for (GUI) applications

- Go for C++, Java, Python, ...

- But: if speed matters, if resources are limited, ... C can still be a valid choice

Other Reasons

■ Other languages based on C

- C++, Objective-C, Python, Java, C#, ...
- Google “Timeline of programming languages”

■ Other programming languages are implemented in C

- Python, Lua, ...

Other Reasons

- C is an international standardized and non-proprietary programming language
 - C is highly portable
 - C is supported and maintained by all major computing industry companies
- Read **"Ten Reasons to Teach and Learn Computer Programming in C"**, H. Cheng [Toledo: `Ten_reasons_to_learn_C.pdf`]

Objectives Of This Course Part

- Be able to understand C source code.
- Be able to draw the memory layout (heap, details of the function stack, ...) at an indicated instruction in a C program.
- Understand and be able to use the preprocessor for conditional compilation, header files, macros, ...
- Be able to design and implement software in C.
- Understand and be able to work with pointers in C. This includes, among others,
 - ☐ Pointers to implement call-by-reference parameter passing;
 - ☐ Pointers to implement dynamic memory and dynamic structures;
 - ☐ Function pointers
 - ☐ Void pointers for data hiding and abstraction
- Know and understand the C build process (preprocessor, compiler, linker, loader), be able to work with the gcc build utilities and with make files.
- Know and understand static/dynamic libraries and be able to work with libraries.
- Be able to use tools such as Gprof, objdump, Valgrind, ... to analyse and debug C code.
- Have basic knowledge on Linux and be able to work with the Linux command line (Bash shell, compiling and running programs, directory browsing, file copying, ...).