



# 18-600 C Bootcamp

September 3rd, 2017

# Today

- To help you get comfortable with C.
- Ask questions at any time!
- Code samples available at:  
[/afs/andrew.cmu.edu/usr5/akaginal/public/c\\_bootcamp.tar](/afs/andrew.cmu.edu/usr5/akaginal/public/c_bootcamp.tar) (compressed)  
Use `tar xvf c_bootcamp.tar` to extract files from the tarball

# Some basic facts about C

- C was invented to write an operating system called UNIX
- The UNIX OS was completely written in C
- Today C is the most widely used and popular System Programming Language.
- Example use cases of C: Operating Systems, Compilers, Interpreters, Databases, Assemblers, Text editors, Device Drivers
- C is a compiled language. The most frequently used and free available compiler is the GNU C/C++ compiler. Eg: gcc foo.c

# Basic C Program Structure

## Hello World.c

```
#include <stdio.h>

int main(void) {
    /* my first program in C */
    int a = 18600;
    printf("Hello! Welcome to %d \n", a);

    return 0;
}
```

Notice the following components:

- Preprocessor commands
- Functions
- Variables
- Comments
- Statements
- Parameters, return values

# Data Types in C

- Basic Types
  - Integer: char, int, long, double, float (both signed and unsigned)
- Void Types (generic type)
  - Indicate no value: Eg: void main(void) {...}
- User Defined Data Types / Data Structures
  - Arrays, Structures
- Special Data Types
  - Enum, Unions

# Basic Data Types

Type	Storage size (x86-64 compiler specific)	Range of values	Precision
char	1 byte	0 - 255 (unsigned), -128-127 (signed)	--NA--
int	4 bytes	0 to 4,294,967,295 (unsigned) -2,147,483,648 to 2,147,483,647 (signed)	--NA--
long long	8 bytes	0 to 18,446,744,073,709,551,615 (unsigned) -9,223,372,036,854,775,808 to 9,223,372,036,854,775,807 (signed)	--NA--
float	4 bytes	1.2E-38 to 3.4E+38	6 decimals
double	8 bytes	2.3E-308 to 1.7E+308	15 decimals
long double	10 bytes	3.4E-4932 to 1.1E+4932	19 decimals

# Aggregate Data Types : Arrays/Strings

- Arrays: Fixed size sequential collection of data of the **same** type
  - Array declaration: type arrayName[size]. Eg: int array[10], char array[10]
  - Array definition: int array[5] = {0,1,2,3,4};
  - Accessing an array element: int secElem = array[1]
  - Multi-dimensional array: 2-dimensional arrays are most common
    - 2-dimensional array is a list of 1-dimensional arrays
    - Eg: int array[4][4], char array[3][2]
- Strings: Null terminated ('\0') terminated character array
  - Null-character tells us where the string ends
  - All standard C library functions on strings assume null-termination.

# Aggregate Data Types: Struct

- Collection of values placed under one name in a single block of memory
  - Can put structs, arrays in other structs
  - Can have arrays of structures too
- Given a struct instance, access the fields using the '.' operator
- Given a struct pointer, access the fields using the '->' operator

```
struct foo_s {  
    int a;  
    char b;  
}  
  
struct bar_s {  
    char ar[10];  
    struct foo_s baz;  
}  
  
struct bar_s biz; // bar_s instance  
biz.ar[0] = 'a';  
biz.baz.a = 1;  
struct bar_s* boz = &biz; // bar_s ptr  
boz->baz.b = 'b';
```



# Pointers in C

- A pointer is a variable which stores the address of a value in memory  
Syntax: type \*ptr
  - Eg: int \*ptr, char \*ptr, void \*ptr
- Get the address of a value in memory with the '&' operator
  - Eg: int a = 10; ptr = &a;
- Access the value by dereferencing using the '\*' operator; can be used to read value or write value to given address
  - Eg: int b = \*ptr; \*ptr = 3;
  - Dereferencing NULL causes a runtime error
    - Eg: int \*ptr = NULL; \*p = 0; // Runtime error !!!!

# Pointer Arithmetic

- Can add/subtract from an address to get a new address
  - Only perform when absolutely necessary (i.e., malloc)
  - Result depends on the pointer type
- Pointer to type 'a' references a block of sizeof(a) bytes. Any arithmetic operations therefore moves in steps of these block sizes
- Examples:
  - $A+i$ , where A is a pointer = 0x100, i is an int (x86-64)
    - $\text{int}^* A: A+i = 0x100 + \text{sizeof}(\text{int}) * i = 0x100 + 4 * i$
    - $\text{char}^* A: A+i = 0x100 + \text{sizeof}(\text{char}) * i = 0x100 + i$
    - $\text{int}^{**} A: A + i = 0x100 + \text{sizeof}(\text{int}^*) * i = 0x100 + 8 * i$
- Rule of thumb: cast pointer explicitly to avoid confusion. More on this in later slides
  - Prefer  $(\text{char}^*)(A) + i$  vs  $A + i$ , even if  $\text{char}^* A$

# Pointers: Let's try some examples...

```
#include <stdio.h>

int main ()
{
    int  var;
    int  *ptr;
    int  **pptr; // Pointer to a pointer
    // Array of pointers
    char *names[] = {"Tom", "Dick", "Harry"};

    var = 3000;

    /* take the address of var */
    ptr = &var;

    /* take the address of ptr using address of operator & */
    pptr = &ptr;

    printf("Value of var = %d\n", var );
    printf("Value available at *ptr = %d\n", *ptr );
    printf("Value available at pointer after increment = %d\n", ++*ptr);
    printf("Value available at **pptr = %d\n", **pptr);
    printf("First student is %s\n", names[0]);

    return 0;
}
```

# Functions in C

- Call-by-value: Changes made to arguments passed to a function aren't reflected in the calling function
- Call-by-reference: Changes made to arguments passed to a function are reflected in the calling function

```
#include <stdio.h>

/* function declaration */
void swap(int x, int y);

int main () {

    /* local variable definition */
    int a = 100;
    int b = 200;

    printf("Before swap, value of a : %d\n", a );
    printf("Before swap, value of b : %d\n", b );

    /* calling a function to swap the values */
    swap_by_val(a, b);

    printf("After swap, value of a : %d\n", a ); // 100
    printf("After swap, value of b : %d\n", b ); // 200

    swap_by_ref(&a, &b);

    printf("After swap, value of a : %d\n", a ); // 200
    printf("After swap, value of b : %d\n", b ); // 100

    return 0;
}
```

```
/* function definition to swap the values */
void swap_by_val(int x, int y) {

    int temp;

    temp = x; /* save the value of x */
    x = y;    /* put y into x */
    y = temp; /* put temp into y */

    return;
}

/* function definition to swap the values */
void swap_by_ref(int *x, int *y) {

    int temp;
    temp = *x; /* save the value at address x */
    *x = *y;   /* put y into x */
    *y = temp; /* put temp into y */

    return;
}
```

# Function calls in C

Ensure that the called function is defined (see func\_call1.c) or at least declared (see func\_call2.c) before the calling function. Else, the compiler will complain about an undefined reference to that function.

```
#include <stdio.h>
// Definition of a function
int sum(int a, int b)
{
    return a+b;
}
void main() {

    int a = 3, b=4;

    printf("%d", sum(a, b));
}
```

func\_call1.c

```
#include <stdio.h>

// Declaration of a function
int sum(a, b);

main() {

    int a = 3, b=4;

    printf("%d", sum(a, b));
}

// Definition of a function
int sum(int a, int b)
{
    return a+b;
}
```

func\_call2.c

# Typedef in C

- The C programming language provides a keyword called **typedef**, which you can use to give a type, a new name.
- Typedefs are used to give a more meaningful/readable/shorter name to the data type used.
- Simple Example: typedef unsigned char BYTE; BYTE b1, b2;

```
struct list_node {  
    int x;  
};
```

```
/* You can typedef basic data types */  
typedef int pixel;  
typedef unsigned char BYTE;
```

```
/* You can typedef structures */  
typedef struct list_node node;
```

```
/* You can typedef function prototypes */  
typedef int (*cmp)(int e1, int e2);
```

```
pixel x;           // int type  
BYTE b1;           // char type  
node foo;          // struct list_node type  
cmp int_cmp;       // int (*cmp)(int e1, int e2) type
```

# Variable Scope and Qualifiers

- Every variable is associated with a scope and storage duration
- Scope determines where a variable can be accessed and storage duration determines when a variable is created and destroyed
  - Global Variables are defined outside functions. Use 'extern' to use global variables in other files
    - Scope: Across all files, Storage: Start and end of a program
  - Local variables are defined within functions
    - Scope: Within a function, Storage: Entry and exit of a function
- Variable qualifiers
  - Const Variables: For variables that won't change
  - Static Variables:
    - Globals: usable/viewable only from within the current file: More on this next slide
    - Locals: For locals, keeps value between invocations
  - Volatile Variables: Variable values subject to change

# Illustrating Variable Scope

```
#include <stdio.h>

int count ;
static int local_ref;
extern void write_extern();

// there can be only one main function among the compiled
// programs
main() {
    count = 5;
    local_ref = count;
    write_extern();
    local_fn(); // Compile time error
}
```

main.c

gcc main.c support.c

```
#include <stdio.h>

extern int count;

void write_extern(void) {
    printf("count is %d\n", count);
    printf("local_ref is %d\n", local_ref); // Compile time error
}

static void local_fn(void) {
    printf("Scope is restricted to this file\n");
}
```

support.c



# Type Casting

- Type casting is a way to convert a variable from one data type to another data type.
- Typically used when dealing with operations between different data types
- When values of different data types are operated on each other, all variables are converted to a type that is highest among them
- Integer Type Casting:
  - signed <-> unsigned: change interpretation of most significant bit
  - smaller signed -> larger signed: sign-extend (duplicate the sign bit)
  - smaller unsigned -> larger unsigned: zero-extend (duplicate 0)
- Cautions:
  - C implicitly typecasts, which can lead to errors. It is a good practice to explicitly typecast.
  - never cast to a smaller type; will truncate (lose) data
  - never cast a pointer to a larger type and dereference it, this accesses memory with undefined contents

# Void pointers

- `void*` type is C's provision for generic types
  - Raw pointer to some memory location (unknown type)
  - Can't dereference a `void*` (what is type `void`?)
  - Must cast `void*` to another type in order to dereference it
- Used by functions which work only with the pointer and not the contents of the pointer. Eg: `push()` and `pop()` routines below
- Can cast back and forth between `void*` and other pointer types

```
// stack implementation:
```

```
typedef void* elem;
```

```
stack stack_new();
```

```
void push(stack S, elem e);
```

```
elem pop(stack S);
```

```
// stack usage:
```

```
int x = 42; int y = 54;
```

```
stack S = stack_new();
```

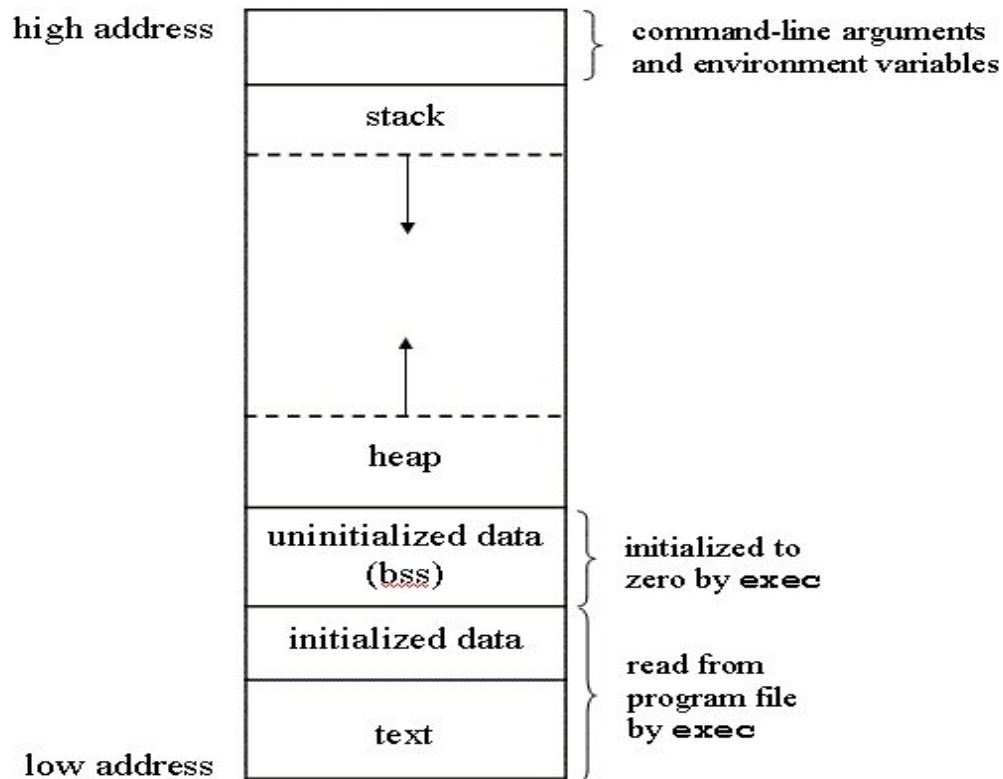
```
push(S, &x);
```

```
push(S, &y);
```

```
int a = *(int*)pop(S);
```

```
int b = *(int*)pop(S);
```

# C Program Memory Layout



# Stack vs Heap vs Data

- Local variables and function arguments are placed on the stack
  - deallocated after the variable leaves scope
  - do not return a pointer to a stack-allocated variable!
  - do not reference the address of a variable outside its scope!
- Memory blocks allocated by calls to malloc/calloc are placed on the heap
- Globals, constants are placed in data section
- Example:
  - `// a is a pointer on the stack to a memory block on the heap`
  - `int* a = malloc(sizeof(int));`

# Macros

- Fragment of code given a name; replace occurrence of name with contents of macro
  - No function call overhead, type neutral
- Uses:
  - defining constants (INT\_MAX, ARRAY\_SIZE)
  - defining simple operations (MAX(a, b))
  - 122-style contracts (REQUIRES, ENSURES)
- Warnings:
  - Use parentheses around arguments/expressions, to avoid problems after substitution
  - Do not pass expressions with side effects as arguments to macros

```
#define INT_MAX 0x7FFFFFFF
#define MAX(A, B) ((A) > (B) ? (A) : (B))
#define REQUIRES(COND) assert(COND)
#define WORD_SIZE 4
#define NEXT_WORD(a) ((char*)(a) + WORD_SIZE)
```

# Header Files

- Includes C declarations and macro definitions to be shared across multiple files. Like an 'index' of the functions implemented.
- Only include function prototypes/macros; no implementation code!
- Usage: `#include <header.h>`
  - `#include <lib>` for standard libraries (eg `#include <string.h>`)
  - `#include "file"` for your source files (eg `#include "header.h"`)
- Never include `.c` files (bad practice)

```
// list.h
struct list_node {
    int data;
    struct list_node* next;
};
typedef struct list_node* node;

node new_list();
void add_node(int e, node l);
```

```
// list.c
#include "list.h"

node new_list() {
    // implementation
}

void add_node(int e, node l) {
    // implementation
}
```

```
// stacks.h
#include "list.h"
struct stack_head {
    node top;
    node bottom;
};
typedef struct stack_head* stack

stack new_stack();
void push(int e, stack S);
```

# Header Guards

- Double-inclusion problem: include same header file twice

```
//grandfather.h
```

```
//father.h  
#include "grandfather.h"
```

```
//child.h  
#include "father.h"  
#include "grandfather.h"
```

Error: child.h includes grandfather.h twice

- Solution: header guard ensures single inclusion

```
//grandfather.h  
#ifndef GRANDFATHER_H  
#define GRANDFATHER_H  
  
#endif
```

```
//father.h  
#ifndef FATHER_H  
#define FATHER_H  
#include "grandfather.h"  
  
#endif
```

```
//child.h  
#include "father.h"  
#include "grandfather.h"
```

Okay: child.h only includes grandfather.h once

# Preprocessing in C

- A C Preprocessor is just a text substitution tool and it instructs the compiler to do required pre-processing before the actual compilation
- Handling of header files and macros is done during the preprocessing stage

```
#define MAX_ARRAY_LENGTH 20          // For standard values

#include <stdio.h>                    // include header files

#ifndef __HEADER__                    // Used in header files to avoid duplication
#define __HEADER__
#endif

__FILE__, __LINE__, __func__         // Predefined macros

#define message_for(a, b) \         // When continuing macro definitions on multiple lines
    printf("#a " and " #b ": We love you!\n")

#define square(x) ((x) * (x))        // Parameterized macros: Simulate functions using macros
```



## C - Command Line Arguments

- It is possible to pass some values from the command line to your C programs when they are executed.
- These values are called command line arguments, they allow you to control your program from outside instead of hard coding those values inside the code.

```
#include <stdio.h>

int main( int argc, char *argv[] ) {
    // argc: Number of command line arguments
    // argv: Array of pointers to each argument
    if( argc == 2 ) {
        printf("The argument supplied is %s\n", argv[1]);
    }
    else if( argc > 2 ) {
        printf("Too many arguments supplied.\n");
    }
    else {
        printf("One argument expected.\n");
    }
}
```

# C Memory Management

- Memory can be **statically** allocated or **dynamically** allocated
- Memory is said to be statically allocated when it is reserved at the time of compilation
- Memory is said to be dynamically allocated when it is reserved at the time of program execution. Eg: Using c library functions such as malloc(), calloc(), realloc()
- Statically allocated memory is freed automatically at the end of a function call or program execution depending on the scope of the variable
- Dynamically allocated memory has to be freed explicitly using the free() system call
- IMPORTANT
  - Number mallocs = Number frees
  - Never free a malloced block twice
  - Free only what you malloc and malloc only what you free

# Why We Need Malloc

- Something that students new to the language often get confused about
- i.e. What is wrong with the following program?

```
/* Very bad program! Will compile and run though! */  
int main(int argc, char *argv[]) {  
    int N;  
    if (argc >= 2) {  
        N = atoi(argv[1]);  
        char mystr[N];          char *mystr = malloc(N*sizeof(char));  
        myfunc(mystr);  
    }  
    return 0;  
}
```

- What is the size of mystr? **Ans: Undefined**
- **Malloc allows us to obtain memory *during* program execution**

# System calls and error conditions

- A System Call is a mechanism in which the **user application requests the service of the kernel** (why do we need to do this?)
- May be called directly or indirectly through C library functions (e.g. `fopen()` calls `open()`)
- System calls **may not always succeed**. It is therefore important to check the status of the return values from these calls before proceeding
- List of commonly used system calls include: **`open()`, `read()/write()`, `pipe()`, `fork()`, `exec()`, `time()`, `waitpid()`**
- A system call **sets the global variable `errno`** with the error code, which can be printed using `strerror()`. The various error codes are defined in `errno.h`

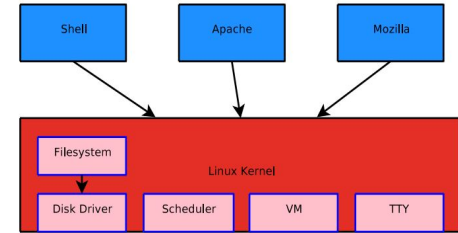


Image src: 15-410, Lecture slides

```

// Program showing how to read error codes
#include <stdio.h>
#include <errno.h>
#include <string.h>

extern int errno ;

int main () {

    FILE * pf;
    int errnum;
    pf = fopen ("unexist.txt", "rb");

    if (pf == NULL) {

        errnum = errno;
        fprintf(stderr, "Value of errno: %d\n", errno);
        perror("Error printed by perror");
        fprintf(stderr, "Error opening file: %s\n", strerror( errnum ));
    }
    else {

        fclose (pf);
    }

    return 0;
}

```

```

// Program demonstrating how to return exit status
#include <stdio.h>
#include <stdlib.h>

main() {

    int dividend = 20;
    int divisor = 5;
    int quotient;

    if( divisor == 0) {
        fprintf(stderr, "Division by zero!
        Exiting...\n");
        exit(EXIT_FAILURE);
    }

    quotient = dividend / divisor;
    fprintf(stderr, "Value of quotient : %d\n",
    quotient );

    exit(EXIT_SUCCESS);
}

```

# C Standard Library

- Many basic housekeeping functions are available to a C program in form of standard library functions.
- To call these, a program must `#include` the appropriate `.h` file.
- You can use 'man' commands on these functions to learn about their usage.
- Most commonly used header files:
  - `stdio.h`:
    - File I/O: `fopen()`, `fclose()`, `fscanf()`, `fprintf()`
    - Command line argument parsing: `getopt()`
  - `string.h` string operations
    - `char * strcpy(char *dst, char *src)`
    - `char * strcat(char *dst, char *src)`
    - `size_t strlen(char *str)`
    - `int strcmp(char *str1, char *str2)`
  - `stdlib.h`
    - Dynamic memory allocation functions: `malloc()`, `calloc()`, `free()`
    - `exit(int status)`: terminate program and return exit status to the parent

# Compilation

## GCC, Make Files

Source: See [http://www.andrew.cmu.edu/course/15-123-kesden/index/lecture\\_index.html](http://www.andrew.cmu.edu/course/15-123-kesden/index/lecture_index.html)

# GCC

- Used to compile C/C++ projects
- List the files that will be compiled to form an executable
- Specify options via flags
- Important Flags:
  - -g: produce debug information (important; used by GDB/valgrind)
  - -Werror: treat all warnings as errors (this is our default)
  - -Wall/-Wextra: enable all construction warnings
  - -pedantic: indicate all mandatory diagnostics listed in C-standard
  - -O0/-O1/-O2: optimization levels
  - -o <filename>: name output binary file 'filename'
- Example:
  - `gcc -g -Werror -Wall -Wextra -pedantic foo.c bar.c -o baz`



# Makefile

- Command-line compilation becomes inefficient when compiling many files together
- Solution: use make-files
- Single operation - 'make' to compile files together
- Only recompiles updated files

```
# Makefile for the malloc lab driver
#
CC = gcc
CFLAGS = -Wall -Wextra -Werror -O2 -g -std=gnu99

OBJS = mdriver.o memlib.o

all: mdriver

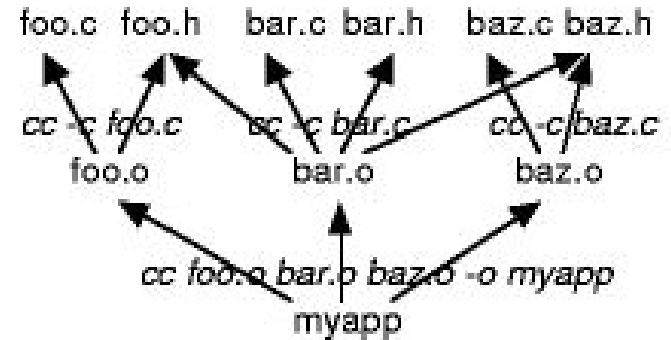
mdriver: $(OBJS)
        $(CC) $(CFLAGS) -o mdriver $(OBJS)

mdriver.o: mdriver.c memlib.h
        $(CC) $(CFLAGS) mdriver.c
memlib.o: memlib.c memlib.h
        $(CC) $(CFLAGS) memlib.c

clean:
        rm -f *~ *.o mdriver
```

# Makefile Rules

- Comments start with a '#', Commands start with a TAB.
- Common Make File Format:
- target: source(s)  
TAB: command  
TAB: command
- Macros: similar to C-macros, find and replace:
- CC = gcc  
CCOPT = -g -DDEBUG -DPRINT  
foo.o: foo.c foo.h  
\$(CC) \$(CCOPT) -c foo.c



Questions?

## Appendix

# Declaration vs Definition in C

- There can be multiple declarations of an external function or variable
- But there can be only one definition of a function or a variable. I.e. function names/variable names cannot be duplicated

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

```
// Unique definition of count
```

```
int count ;
```

```
// Multiple declarations of write_extern()
```

```
extern void write_extern();
```

```
// there can be only one main function among the compiled
```

```
// programs
```

```
main() {
```

```
    count = 5;
```

```
    write_extern();
```

```
}
```

main.c

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

```
// Multiple declaration of count
```

```
extern int count;
```

```
void write_extern(void) {
```

```
    printf("count is %d\n", count);
```

```
}
```

support.c

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

```
# Multiple declarations
```

```
extern int count;
```

```
extern void write_extern();
```

```
// ERROR: Duplicate definitions of write_extern!!!!
```

```
void write_extern(int a) {
```

```
    printf("input var is %d\n", a);
```

```
}
```

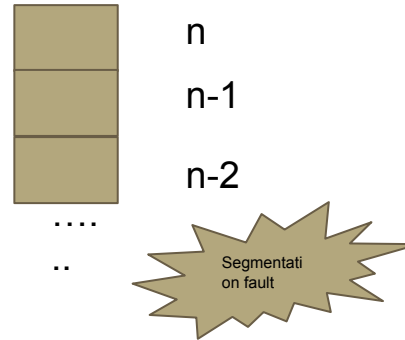
foo.c

gcc main.c support.c foo.c

# Recursive Function calls

- Every function call creates a new stack for the called function
- Always remember to have a base case at which the function call returns
- Avoid recursion when you know that the input parameter can be large

```
void recursive_fn(n)
{
    recursive_fn(n-1);
}
```



```
void recursive_fn(n)
{
    If (n==1)
        return;
    recursive_fn(n-1);
}
```

