



Course organization

- Course introduction (Week 1)
 - Code editor: Emacs
- Part I: Introduction to C programming language (Week 1 - 12)
 - **Chapter 1: Overall Introduction (Week 1-4)**
 - C
 - Unix/Linux
 - Chapter 2: Types, operators and expressions (Week 5)
 - Chapter 3: Control flow (Week 6)
 - Chapter 4: Functions and program structure (Week 7-8)
 - Chapter 5: Pointers and arrays (Week 9)
 - Chapter 6: Structures (Week 10)
 - Chapter 7: Input and Output (Week 11)
- Part II: Skills others than programming languages (Week 12- 14)
 - Debugging tools (Week 12-13)
 - Keeping projects documented and manageable (Week 14)
 - Source code managing (Week 14)
- Part III: Reports from the battle field (student forum) (Week 15 – 16)



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Brief Introduction to the C Programming Language

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Introduction

- The C programming language was designed by Dennis Ritchie at Bell Laboratories in the early 1970s
- Influenced by
 - ALGOL 60 (1960),
 - CPL (Cambridge, 1963),
 - BCPL (Martin Richard, 1967),
 - B (Ken Thompson, 1970)
- Traditionally used for systems programming, though this may be changing in favor of C++
- Traditional C:
 - *The C Programming Language*, by Brian Kernighan and Dennis Ritchie, 2nd Edition, Prentice Hall
 - Referred to as *K&R*



Standard C

- Standardized in 1989 by ANSI (American National Standards Institute) known as ANSI C
 - International standard (ISO) in 1990 which was adopted by ANSI and is known as **C89**
 - As part of the normal evolution process the standard was updated in 1995 (**C95**) and 1999 (**C99**)
 - **C++ and C**
 - C++ extends C to include support for Object Oriented Programming and other features that facilitate large software development projects
 - C is not strictly a subset of C++, but it is possible to write “*Clean C*” that conforms to both the C++ and C standards.
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Elements of a C Program

- A C development environment includes
 - *System libraries and headers*: a set of standard libraries and their header files. For example see `/usr/include` and `glibc`.
 - *Application Source*: application source and header files
 - *Compiler*: converts source to object code for a specific platform
 - *Linker*: resolves external references and produces the executable module
- User program structure
 - there must be one main function where execution begins when the program is run. This function is called main
 - `int main (void) { ... },`
 - `int main (int argc, char *argv[]) { ... }`
 - UNIX Systems have a 3rd way to define `main()`, though it is not POSIX.1 compliant
 - `int main (int argc, char *argv[], char *envp[])`
 - additional local and external functions and variables



A Simple C Program

- ④ Create example file: `try.c`
- ④ Compile using `gcc`:
`gcc -o try try.c`
- ④ The standard C library *libc* is included automatically
- ④ Execute program
`./try`
- ④ Note, I always specify an absolute path
- ④ Normal termination:
`void exit(int status);`
 - calls functions registered with `atexit()`
 - flush output streams
 - close all open streams
 - return status value and control to host environment

```
/* you generally want to
 * include stdio.h and
 * stdlib.h
 * */
#include <stdio.h>
#include <stdlib.h>

int main (void)
{
    printf("Hello World\n");
    exit(0);
}
```



Source and Header files

- Just as in C++, place related code within the same module (i.e. file).
- Header files (* .h) export interface definitions
 - function prototypes, data types, macros, inline functions and other common declarations
- Do not place source code (i.e. definitions) in the header file with a few exceptions.
 - inline'd code
 - class definitions
 - const definitions
- *C preprocessor* (cpp) is used to insert common definitions into source files
- There are other cool things you can do with the preprocessor



Another Example C Program

/usr/include/stdio.h

```
/* comments */  
#ifndef _STDIO_H  
#define _STDIO_H  
  
... definitions and protoypes  
  
#endif
```

/usr/include/stdlib.h

```
/* prevents including file  
 * contents multiple  
 * times */  
#ifndef _STDLIB_H  
#define _STDLIB_H  
  
... definitions and protoypes  
  
#endif
```

`#include` directs the preprocessor to "include" the contents of the file at this point in the source file.

`#define` directs preprocessor to define macros.

example.c

```
/* this is a C-style comment  
 * You generally want to palce  
 * all file includes at start of file  
 * */  
#include <stdio.h>  
#include <stdlib.h>  
  
int  
main (int argc, char **argv)  
{  
    // this is a C++-style comment  
    // printf prototype in stdio.h  
    printf("Hello, Prog name = %s\n",  
          argv[0]);  
  
    exit(0);  
}
```

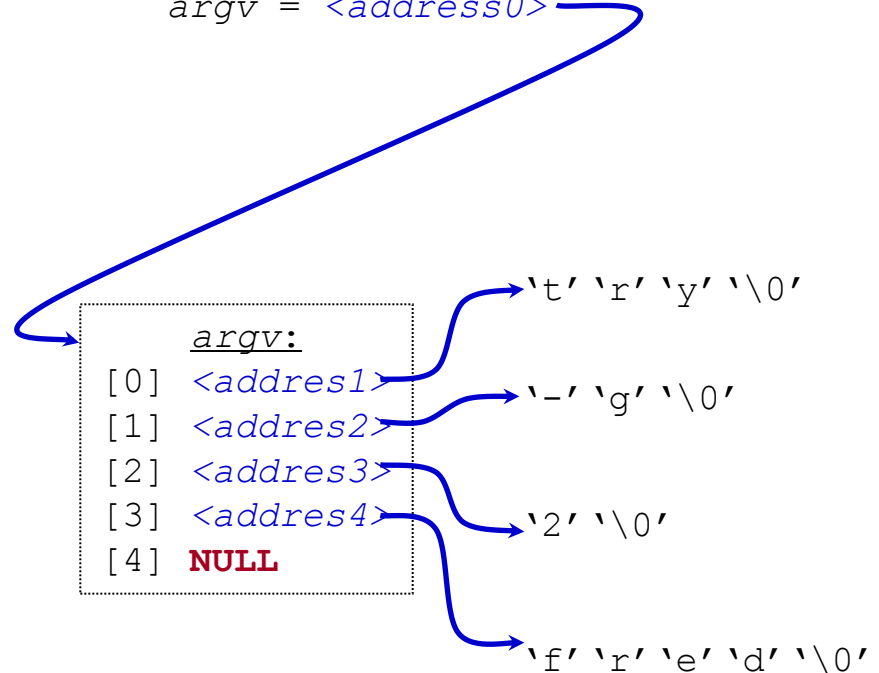


Passing Command Line Arguments

- When you execute a program you can include arguments on the command line.
- The run time environment will create an argument vector.
 - `argv` is the argument vector
 - `argc` is the number of arguments
- Argument vector is an array of pointers to strings.
- a *string* is an array of characters terminated by a binary 0 (NULL or `'\0'`).
- `argv[0]` is always the program name, so `argc` is at least 1.

```
./try -g 2 fred
```

```
argc = 4,  
argv = <address0>
```



C Standard Header Files you may want to use

- Standard Headers you should know about:
 - `stdio.h` – file and console (also a file) IO: *perror*, *printf*, *open*, *close*, *read*, *write*, *scanf*, **etc.**
 - `stdlib.h` - common utility functions: *malloc*, *calloc*, *strtol*, *atoi*, **etc**
 - `string.h` - string and byte manipulation: *strlen*, *strcpy*, *strcat*, *memcpy*, *memset*, **etc.**
 - `ctype.h` – character types: *isalnum*, *isprint*, *isupport*, *tolower*, **etc.**
 - `errno.h` – defines *errno* used for reporting system errors
 - `math.h` – math functions: *ceil*, *exp*, *floor*, *sqrt*, **etc.**
 - `signal.h` – signal handling facility: *raise*, *signal*, **etc**
 - `stdint.h` – standard integer: *intN_t*, *uintN_t*, **etc**
 - `time.h` – time related facility: *asctime*, *clock*, *time_t*, **etc.**



The Preprocessor

- The C preprocessor permits you to define simple macros that are evaluated and expanded prior to compilation.
 - Commands begin with a '#'. Abbreviated list:
 - `#define` : defines a macro
 - `#undef` : removes a macro definition
 - `#include` : insert text from file
 - `#if` : conditional based on value of expression
 - `#ifdef` : conditional based on whether macro defined
 - `#ifndef` : conditional based on whether macro is not defined
 - `#else` : alternative
 - `#elif` : conditional alternative
 - `defined()` : preprocessor function: 1 if name defined, else 0
- ```
#if defined(__NetBSD__)
```



# Preprocessor: Macros

- Using macros as functions, exercise caution:
  - flawed example: `#define mymult(a,b) a*b`
    - Source: `k = mymult(i-1, j+5);`
    - Post preprocessing: `k = i - 1 * j + 5;`
  - better: `#define mymult(a,b) (a)*(b)`
    - Source: `k = mymult(i-1, j+5);`
    - Post preprocessing: `k = (i - 1)*(j + 5);`
- Be careful of *side effects*, for example what if we did the following
  - Macro: `#define mysq(a) (a)*(a)`
  - flawed usage:
    - Source: `k = mysq(i++)`
    - Post preprocessing: `k = (i++)*(i++)`
- Alternative is to use inline'd functions
  - `inline int mysq(int a) {return a*a};`
  - `mysq(i++)` works as expected in this case.

# Preprocessor: Conditional Compilation

- ④ Its generally better to use inline'd functions
- ④ Typically you will use the preprocessor to define constants, perform conditional code inclusion, include header files or to create shortcuts
- ④ `#define DEFAULT_SAMPLES 100`
- ④ `#ifdef __linux`  
    `static inline int64_t`  
    `gettime(void) {...}`
- ④ `#elif defined(sun)`  
    `static inline int64_t`  
    `gettime(void) {return (int64_t)gethrtime() }`
- ④ `#else`  
    `static inline int64_t`  
    `gettime(void) {... gettimeofday() ...}`
- ④ `#endif`



# Another Simple C Program

---

```
int main (int argc, char **argv) {
 int i;
 printf("There are %d arguments\n", argc);
 for (i = 0; i < argc; i++)
 printf("Arg %d = %s\n", i, argv[i]);

 return 0;
}
```

- Notice that the syntax is similar to Java
  - What's new in the above simple program?
    - of course you will have to learn the new interfaces and utility functions defined by the C standard and UNIX
    - Pointers will give you the most trouble
-

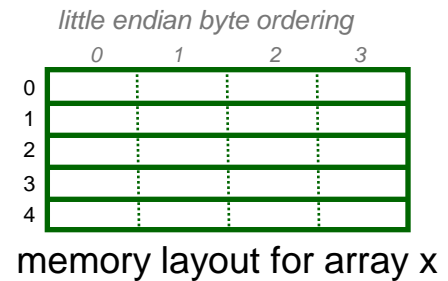


# Arrays and Pointers

- A variable declared as an array represents a contiguous region of memory in which the array elements are stored.

```
int x[5]; // an array of 5 4-byte ints.
```

- All arrays begin with an index of 0



- An array identifier is equivalent to a pointer that references the first element of the array

- ```
int x[5], *ptr;
```

```
ptr = &x[0]
```

 is equivalent to

```
ptr = x;
```

- Pointer arithmetic and arrays:

- ```
int x[5];
```

```
x[2]
```

 is the same as 

```
*(x + 2)
```

, the compiler will assume you mean 2 objects beyond element x.





# Pointers

- For any type T, you may form a pointer type to T.
  - Pointers may reference a function or an object.
  - The value of a pointer is the address of the corresponding object or function
  - Examples: `int *i; char *x; int (*myfunc)();`
- Pointer operators: **\*** dereferences a pointer, **&** creates a pointer (reference to)
  - `int i = 3; int *j = &i;`  
`*j = 4; printf("i = %d\n", i); // prints i = 4`
  - `int myfunc (int arg);`  
`int (*fptr)(int) = myfunc;`  
`i = fptr(4); // same as calling myfunc(4);`
- Generic pointers:
  - Traditional C used (char \*)
  - Standard C uses (void \*) – these can not be dereferenced or used in pointer arithmetic. So they help to reduce programming errors
- Null pointers: use **NULL** or **0**. *It is a good idea to always initialize pointers to NULL.*



# Pointers in C (and C++)

Step 1:

```
int main (int argc, argv) {
 int x = 4;
 int *y = &x;
 int *z[4] = {NULL, NULL, NULL, NULL};
 int a[4] = {1, 2, 3, 4};
 ...
}
```

Note: The compiler converts `z[1]` or `*(z+1)` to  
*Value at address (Address of `z` + `sizeof(int)`);*

In C you would write the byte address as:  
`(char *)z + sizeof(int);`

or letting the compiler do the work for you  
`(int *)z + 1;`

Program Memory Address

|             |       |       |
|-------------|-------|-------|
|             |       |       |
| <i>x</i>    | 4     | 0x3dc |
| <i>y</i>    | 0x3dc | 0x3d8 |
|             | NA    | 0x3d4 |
|             | NA    | 0x3d0 |
| <i>z[3]</i> | 0     | 0x3cc |
| <i>z[2]</i> | 0     | 0x3c8 |
| <i>z[1]</i> | 0     | 0x3c4 |
| <i>z[0]</i> | 0     | 0x3c0 |
| <i>a[3]</i> | 4     | 0x3bc |
| <i>a[2]</i> | 3     | 0x3b8 |
| <i>a[1]</i> | 2     | 0x3b4 |
| <i>a[0]</i> | 1     | 0x3b0 |
|             |       |       |



- Basic data types
  - Types: *char, int, float and double*
  - Qualifiers: *short, long, unsigned, signed, const*
- Constant: `0x1234, 12, "Some string"`
- Enumeration:
  - Names in different enumerations must be distinct
  - ```
enum WeekDay_t {Mon, Tue, Wed, Thur, Fri};  
enum WeekendDay_t {Sat = 0, Sun = 4};
```
- Arithmetic: `+, -, *, /, %`
 - prefix `++i` or `--i`; increment/decrement before value is used
 - postfix `i++`, `i--`; increment/decrement after value is used
- Relational and logical: `<, >, <=, >=, ==, !=, &&, ||`
- Bitwise: `&, |, ^ (xor), <<, >>, ~(ones complement)`



Structs and Unions

structures

- `struct MyPoint {int x, int y};`
- `typedef struct MyPoint MyPoint_t;`
- `MyPoint_t point, *ptr;`
- `point.x = 0; point.y = 10;`
- `ptr = &point; ptr->x = 12; ptr->y = 40;`

unions

- `union MyUnion {int x; MyPoint_t pt; struct {int 3; char c[4]} S;};`
- `union MyUnion x;`
- Can only use one of the elements. Memory will be allocated for the largest element



Conditional Statements (if/else)

```
if (a < 10)
    printf("a is less than 10\n");
else if (a == 10)
    printf("a is 10\n");
else
    printf("a is greater than 10\n");
```

④ If you have compound statements then use brackets (blocks)

- **if** (a < 4 && b > 10) {
 c = a * b; b = 0;
 printf("a = %d, a\'s address = 0x%08x\n", a, &a);
} **else** {
 c = a + b; b = a;
}

④ These two statements are equivalent:

- **if** (a) x = 3; **else if** (b) x = 2; **else** x = 0;
- **if** (a) x = 3; **else** {**if** (b) x = 2; **else** x = 0;}

④ Is this correct?

- **if** (a) x = 3; **else if** (b) x = 2;
 else (z) x = 0; **else** x = -2;



Conditional Statements (switch)

```
int c = 10;
switch (c) {
    case 0:
        printf("c is 0\n");
        break;

    ...

    default:
        printf("Unknown value of c\n");
        break;
}
```

- ④ What if we leave the break statement out?
 - ④ Do we need the final break statement on the default case?
-



Loops

```
for (i = 0; i < MAXVALUE; i++) {  
    dowork();  
}  
  
while (c != 12) {  
    dowork();  
}  
  
do {  
    dowork();  
} while (c < 12);
```

- flow control
 - **break** – exit innermost loop
 - **continue** – perform next iteration of loop
- Note, all these forms permit one statement to be executed. By enclosing in brackets we create a block of statements.



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