Introduction to C Programming

Jan Faigl

Department of Computer Science
Faculty of Electrical Engineering
Czech Technical University in Prague

Lecture 01

BE5B99CPL – C Programming Language
Overview of the Lecture

- Part 1 – Course Organization
  - Course Goals
  - Means of Achieving the Course Goals
  - Evaluation and Exam
- Part 2 – Introduction to C Programming
  - Program in C
  - Values and Variables
  - Expressions
  - Standard Input/Output

K. N. King: chapters 1, 2, and 3
Part I

Part 1 – Course Organization
Course and Lecturer

**BE5B99CPL – C Programming Language**

- **Course web page**
  
  https://cw.fel.cvut.cz/wiki/courses/be5b99cpl

- **Submission of the homework**
  
  *Individually during the labs*

- **Lecturer:**
  
  - doc. Ing. **Jan Faigl**, Ph.D.

- **Department of Computer Science** – http://cs.fel.cvut.cz

- **Artificial Intelligence Center (AIC)**
  
  http://aic.fel.cvut.cz

- **Center for Robotics and Autonomous Systems (CRAS)**
  
  http://robotics.fel.cvut.cz

- **Computational Robotics Laboratory (ComRob)**
  
  http://comrob.fel.cvut.cz
Course Goals

- **Master** (yourself) programming skills
  
  *Labs, homeworks, exam*

- **Acquire** knowledge of C programming language

- **Acquire experience** of C programming to use it efficiently
  
  *Your own experience!*

- **Gain experience** to read, write, and understand small C programs

- **Acquire** programming habits to write
  
  - easy to read and understandable source codes;
  - reusable programs.

- **Experience** programming with
  
  - Workstation/desktop computers – using services of operating system
    
    *E.g., system calls, read/write files, input and outputs*
  
  - Multithreading applications;
  
  - Embedded applications – **Nucleo F401RE**
Course Organization and Evaluation

- BE5B99CPL– C Programming Language
- Extent of teaching: 2(lec)+2(lab)+5(hw);
- Completion: Z,ZK; Credits: 6;
  
  Z – ungraded assessment, ZK – exam

- Ongoing work during the semester – homeworks and test
- Exam: test and implementation exam
  
  Be able to independently work with the computer in the lab (class room)

- Attendance to labs and submission of homeworks
Resources and Literature

■ **Textbook**

„C Programming: A Modern Approach“ (King, 2008)


The main course textbook

■ Lectures – support for the textbook, slides, comments, and **your notes**

*Demonstration source codes are provided as a part of the lecture materials!*

■ Laboratory Exercises – gain practical skills by doing homeworks (yourself).
Further Books

Further Resources


Lectures – Winter Semester (WS) Academic Year 2017/2018

- Schedule for the academic year 2017/2018
  

- Lectures:
  - Karlovo náměstí, Room No. KN:E-307, Wednesday, 9:15–10:45

- 14 teaching weeks

  13 lectures
Teachers

- doc. Ing. Pavel Pačes, Ph.D.

- Department of Computer Science Measurements – http://www.pacespavel.net/

- Center for Advanced Simulation and Technology
Communicating Any Issues Related to the Course

- Ask the lab teacher or the lecturer
- Use e-mail for communication
  - Use your faculty e-mail
  - Put CPL or BE5B99CPL to the subject of your message
  - Send copy (Cc) to lecturer/teacher
Computers and Development Tools

- **Network boot with home directories (NFS v4)**
  Data transfer and file synchronizations – ownCloud, SSH, FTP, USB

- **Compilers** gcc or clang
  https://gcc.gnu.org or http://clang.llvm.org

- **Project building** make (GNU make)
  Examples of usage on lectures and labs

- **Text editor** – gedit, atom, sublime, vim

- **C/C++ development environments** – WARNING: Do Not Use An IDE
  http://c.learncodethehardway.org/book/ex0.html

  - Debugging – gdb, cgdb, ddd
  - Code::Blocks, CodeLite

  - NetBeans 8.0 (C/C++), Eclipse–CDT
  - CLion – https://www.jetbrains.com/clion

- **Embedded development for the Nucleo** – System Workbench for STM32
  based on Eclipse
Services – Academic Network, FEE, CTU

- Cloud storage ownCloud – https://owncloud.cesnet.cz
- Sending large files – https://filesender.cesnet.cz
- FEL Google Account – access to Google Apps for Education
  See http://google-apps.fel.cvut.cz/
- Gitlab FEL – https://gitlab.fel.cvut.cz/
- Information resources (IEEE Xplore, ACM, Science Direct, Springer Link)
  https://dialog.cvut.cz
- Academic and campus software license
  https://download.cvut.cz
- National Super Computing Grid Infrastructure – MetaCentrum
Homeworks

- Six homeworks for the workstation and embedded Nucleo platform
  [https://cw.fel.cvut.cz/wiki/courses/be5b99cpl/hw/start](https://cw.fel.cvut.cz/wiki/courses/be5b99cpl/hw/start)
  
  The final homework HW 06 combines an application running on the Nucleo board that communicates with the workstation program.

  1. HW 01 (5 points) – Processing input data and computing statistics
  2. HW 02 (5 points) – First program on embedded platform
  3. HW 03 (10 points) – Reading/writing (files and other communications)
  4. HW 04 (10 points) – Readings and visualization on the embedded platform
  5. HW 05 (10 points) – Multi-thread computation
  6. HW 06 (20 points) – A complex multi-threaded application with communication Workstation/Nucleo

  *Some adjustments are expected*

- All homeworks must be submitted to award an ungraded assessment
- Late submission will be penalized!
## Course Evaluation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Points</th>
<th>Maximum Points</th>
<th>Required Minimum Points</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Homeworks</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Test</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exam test</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Implementation exam</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>100 points</strong></td>
<td><strong>40 points is F!</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- 30 points from the semester are required for awarding ungraded assessment
- The course can be passed with **ungraded assessment** and exam
- All homeworks must be submitted
Grading Scale

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grade</th>
<th>Points</th>
<th>Mark</th>
<th>Evaluation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>≥ 90</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Excellent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>80–89</td>
<td>1,5</td>
<td>Very Good</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>70–79</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Good</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>60–69</td>
<td>2,5</td>
<td>Satisfactory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td>50–59</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Sufficient</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>&lt;50</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Fail</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- **Expected results**
  - All homeworks work and have been submitted before the deadlines (**60 points**)
  - Test (**10 points**)
  - Exam (test) (**20 points**)
  - Exam (implementation) (**10 points**)
  - **95 points** and more (A – Excellent) – with small imperfection
  - **76 points** (C – Good) for 20% loss

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76 and more points represents a solid background for further development of your programming skills.
Overview of the Lectures

1. Course information, Introduction to C programming
   
   K. N. King: chapters 1, 2, and 3

2. Writing your program in C, control structures (loops), expressions
   
   K. N. King: chapters 4, 5, and 6

3. Data types, arrays, pointer, memory storage classes, function call
   
   K. N. King: chapters 7, 8, 9, 10, and 11

4. Data types: arrays, strings, and pointers
   
   K. N. King: chapters 11, 12, and 13

5. Data types: Struct, Union, Enum, Bit fields. Preprocessor and Large Programs.
   
   K. N. King: chapters 14, 15, and 16

6. Input/Output – reading/writing from/to files and other communication channels
   
   - Standard C Library – selected functions and libraries

7. Parallel and multi-thread programming – methods and synchronizations primitives

8. Multi-thread application models, POSIX threads and C11 threads


10. ANSI C, C99, C11 – differences and extensions

11. Differences between C and C++: Introduction to object oriented programming in C++

12. Object oriented programming in C++: classes, objects, encapsulation, and polymorphism
Part II

Part 2 – Introduction to C Programming
C Programming Language

- Low-level programming language
- System programming language (operating system)

  Language for (embedded) systems — MCU, cross-compilation

- A user (programmer) can do almost everything

  Initialization of the variables, release of the dynamically allocated memory, etc.

- Very close to the hardware resources of the computer

  Direct calls of OS services, direct access to registers and ports

- Dealing with memory is crucial for correct behaviour of the program

  One of the goals of the CPL course is to acquire fundamental principles that can be further generalized for other programming languages. The C programming language provides great opportunity to became familiar with the memory model and key elements for writing efficient programs.

It is highly recommended to have compilation of your program fully under control.

It may look difficult at the beginning, but it is relatively easy and straightforward. Therefore, we highly recommend to use fundamental tools for your program compilation. After you acquire basic skills, you can profit from them also in more complex development environments.
Writing Your C Program

- Source code of the C program is written in text files
  - Header files usually with the suffix `.h`
  - Sources files usually named with the suffix `.c`

- Header and source files together with declaration and definition (of functions) support
  - **Organization** of sources into several files (modules) and libraries
  - **Modularity** – Header file declares a visible interface to others
    
    A description (list) of functions and their arguments without particular implementation

- **Reusability**
  - Only the “interface” declared in the header files is need to use functions from available binary libraries
Valid Characters for Writing Source Codes in C

- Lowercase and uppercase letters, numeric characters, symbols and separators
  - 
  - Lowercase and uppercase letters, numeric characters, symbols and separators
    - ASCII – American Standard Code for Information Interchange
      - a–z A–Z 0—9
      - ! " # % & ' ( ) * + , - . / : ; < = > ? [ \ ] ^ _ { | } ~
      - space, tabular, new line
    - Escape sequences for writing special symbols
      - \' – ’,
      - " – “,
      - ? – ?,
      - \ – \”
    - Escape sequences for writing numeric values in a text string
      - \o, \oo, where o is an octal numeral
      - \xh, \xhh, where h is a hexadecimal numeral
      ```c
      int i = 'a';
      int h = 0x61;
      int o = 0141;
      printf("i: %i h: %i o: %i c: %c\n", i, h, o, i);
      printf("oct: \141 hex: \x61\n");
      E.g., \141, \x61 lec01/esqdho.c
      ```
  - \0 – character reserved for the end of the text string (null character)
Writing Identifiers in C

- Identifiers are names of variables (custom types and functions)
  
  Types and functions, viz further lectures

- Rules for the identifiers
  - Characters a–z, A–Z, 0–9 a _
  - The first character is not a numeral
  - Case sensitive
  - Length of the identifier is not limited
    
    First 31 characters are significant – depends on the implementation / compiler

- Keywords

  auto  break  case  char  const  continue  default  do  double  else  enum  extern  float  for  goto  if  int  long  
  register  return  short  signed  sizeof  static  struct  switch  typedef  union  unsigned  void  volatile  while

C99 introduces, e.g., inline, restrict, _Bool, _Complex, _Imaginary
C11 further adds, e.g., _Alignas, _Alignof, _Atomic, _Generic, _Static_assert, _Thread_local
Writing Codes in C

- Each executable program must have at least one function and the function has to be `main()`

- The run of the program starts at the beginning of the function `main()`, e.g.,

```
#include <stdio.h>

int main(void)
{
    printf("I like BE5B99CPL!\n");
    return 0;
}
```

- The form of the `main()` function is prescribed

  See further examples in this lecture
**Simple C Program**

```c
#include <stdio.h>

int main(void)
{
    printf("I like BE5B99CPL!\n");
    return 0;
}
```

- Source files are compiled by the compiler to the so-called **object files** usually with the suffix `.o`

  *Object code contains relative addresses and function calls or just references to function without known implementations.*

- The final executable program is created from the object files by the **linker**
Program Compilation and Execution

- Source file program.c is compiled into runnable form by the compiler, e.g., clang or gcc
  
  `clang program.c`

- There is a new file a.out that can be executed, e.g.,
  
  `.a.out`

  *Alternatively the program can be run only by a.out in the case the actual working directory is set in the search path of executable files*

- The program prints the argument of the function `printf()`
  
  `.a.out`

  I like BE5B99CPL!

- If you prefer to run the program just by a.out instead of ./a.out you need to add your actual working directory to the search paths defined by the environment variable PATH
  
  `export PATH="$PATH:‘pwd‘"`

  *Notice, this is not recommended, because of potentially many working directories.*

- The command `pwd` prints the actual working directory, see `man pwd`
Structure of the Source Code – Commented Example

- Commented source file program.c

```c
/* Comment is inside the markers (two characters) 
and it can be split to multiple lines */

// In C99 - you can use single line comment

#include <stdio.h> /* The #include direct causes to 
include header file stdio.h from the C standard 
library */

int main(void) // simplified declaration 
{ // of the main function
    printf("I like BE5B99CPL!\n"); /* calling printf() 
function from the stdio.h library to print string 
to the standard output. \n denotes a new line */
    return 0; /* termination of the function. Return 
value 0 to the operating system */
}
```

Jan Faigl, 2017
Program Building: Compiling and Linking

The previous example combines three steps of building the program into a single call of the command (\texttt{clang} or \texttt{gcc}). The particular steps can be performed individually

1. Text preprocessing by the \texttt{preprocessor}, which utilizes its own macro language (commands with the prefix \texttt{#})

   \textit{All referenced header files are included into a single source file}

2. Compilation of the source file into the object file

   \textit{Names of the object files usually have the suffix .o}

   \texttt{clang -c program.c -o program.o}

   \textit{The command combines preprocessor and compiler.}

3. Executable file is linked from the particular object files and referenced libraries by the linker (linking), e.g.,

   \texttt{clang program.o -o program}
Compilation and Linking Programs

- Program development is editing of the source code (files with suffixes .c and .h);
  
  *Human readable*

- Compilation of the particular source files (.c) into object files (.o or .obj);
  
  *Machine readable*

- Linking the compiled files into executable binary file;

- Execution and debugging of the application and repeated editing of the source code.
Steps of Compiling and Linking

- **Preprocessor** – allows to define macros and adjust compilation according to the particular compilation environment
  
  *The output is text ("source") file.*

- **Compiler** – Translates source (text) file into machine readable form
  
  *Native (machine) code of the platform, bytecode, or assembler alternatively*

- **Linker** – links the final application from the object files
  
  *Under OS, it can still reference library functions (dynamic libraries linked during the program execution), it can also contains OS calls (libraries).*

- Particular steps **preprocessor**, **compiler**, and **linker** are usually implemented by a “single” program that is called with appropriate arguments.

  *E.g., clang or gcc*
Compilers of C Program Language

- In CPL, we mostly use compilers from the families of compilers:
  - gcc – GNU Compiler Collection
    - https://gcc.gnu.org
  - clang – C language family frontend for LLVM
    - http://clang.llvm.org

*Under Win, two derived environments can be utilized: cygwin https://www.cygwin.com/ or MinGW http://www.mingw.org/

- Basic usage (flags and arguments) are identical for both compilers
  - clang is compatible with gcc

- Example
  - compile: gcc -c main.c -o main.o
  - link: gcc main.o -o main
Functions, Modules, and Compiling and Linking

- Function is the fundamental building block of the **modular** programming language

  Modular program is composed of several modules/source files

- **Function definition** consists of the
  - Function header
  - Function body

  Definition is the function implementation.

- **Function prototype** (declaration) is the function header to provide information how the function can be called

  It allows to use the function prior its definition, i.e., it allows to compile the code without the function implementation, which may be located in other place of the source code, or in other module.

- **Declaration** is the function header and it has the form

  type function_name(arguments);
Functions in C

- Function definition inside other function is not allowed in C.
- Function names can be exported to other modules
  
  \textit{Module is an independent file (compiled independently)}

- Function are implicitly declared as \texttt{extern}, i.e., visible
- Using the \texttt{static} specifier, the visibility of the function can be limited to the particular module

- Function arguments are \texttt{local variables} initialized by the values passed to the function

- \texttt{C allows recursions} – local variables are automatically allocated at the stack

- Arguments of the function are not mandatory – void arguments

- The return type of the function can be \texttt{void}, i.e., a function without return value – \texttt{void \textit{fnc(\textit{void})}};
Example of Program / Module

```c
#include <stdio.h> /* header file */
#define NUMBER 5 /* symbolic constant */

int compute(int a); /* function header/prototype */

int main(int argc, char **argv)
{ /* main function */
    int v = 10; /* variable declaration */
    int r;
    r = compute(v); /* function call */
    return 0; /* termination of the main function */
}

int compute(int a)
{ /* definition of the function */
    int b = 10 + a; /* function body */
    return b; /* function return value */
}
```
Program Starting Point – main()

- Each executable program must contain at least one definition of the function and that function must be the main()
- The main() function is the starting point of the program
- The main() has two basic forms
  1. Full variant for programs running under an Operating System (OS)
     ```c
     int main(int argc, char *argv[])
     {
       ...
     }
     ```
     It can be alternatively written as
     ```c
     int main(int argc, char **argv)
     {
       ...
     }
     ```
  2. For embedded systems without OS
     ```c
     int main(void)
     {
       ...
     }
     ```
Arguments of the `main()` Function

- During the program execution, the OS passes to the program the number of arguments (`argc`) and the arguments (`argv`). 
  
  *In the case we are using OS*

- The first argument is the name of the program.

```c
1  int main(int argc, char *argv[]) {
2    int v;
3    v = 10;
4    v = v + 1;
5    return argc;
6  }
```

- The program is terminated by the `return` in the `main()` function.
- The returned value is passed back to the OS and it can be further use, e.g., to control the program execution.
Example of Compilation and Program Execution

- Building the program by the `clang` compiler – it automatically joins the compilation and linking of the program to the file `a.out`
  
  ```
  clang var.c
  ```

- The output file can be specified, e.g., program file `var`
  
  ```
  clang var.c -o var
  ```

- Then, the program can be executed
  
  ```
  ./var
  ```

- The compilation and execution can be joined to a single command
  
  ```
  clang var.c -o var; ./var
  ```

- The execution can be conditioned to successful compilation
  
  ```
  clang var.c -o var && ./var
  ```

*Programs return value — 0 means OK*

*Logical operator && depends on the command interpret, e.g., sh, bash, zsh*
Example – Program Execution under Shell

- The return value of the program is stored in the variable ` $?`  
  \( sh, bash, zsh \)

- Example of the program execution with different number of arguments
  
  ./var

  ./var; echo $?  
  1

  ./var 1 2 3; echo $?  
  4

  ./var a; echo $?  
  2
Example – Processing the Source Code by Preprocessor

- Using the **-E** flag, we can perform only the preprocessor step

  gcc -E var.c

  Alternatively clang -E var.c

```c
# 1 "var.c"
# 1 "<built-in>"
# 1 "<command-line>"
# 1 "var.c"
int main(int argc, char **argv) {
  int v;
  v = 10;
  v = v + 1;
  return argc;
}
```

Example – Compilation of the Source Code to Assembler

- Using the `-S` flag, the source code can be compiled to Assembler

```
clang -S var.c -o var.s
```

```c
.file "var.c"
.text
.globl main
.align 16, 0x90
.type main,@function
main:
    # @main
    .cfi_startproc
    # BB#0:
    pushq %rbp
    .Ltmp2:
    .cfi_def_cfa_offset 16
    .Ltmp3:
    .cfi_offset %rbp, -16
    movq %rsp, %rbp
    .Ltmp4:
    .cfi_def_cfa_register %rbp
    movl $0, -4(%rbp)
    movl %edi, -8(%rbp)
    movq %rsi, -16(%rbp)
    movl $10, -20(%rbp)
    movl -20(%rbp), %edi
    addl $1, %edi
    movl %edi, -20(%rbp)
    movl -8(%rbp), %eax
    popq %rbp
    ret
    .Ltmp5:
    .size main, .Ltmp5-main
    .cfi_endproc
```

```
.ident "FreeBSD clang version 3.4.1 (tags/RELEASE_34/dot1-final 208032) 20140512"
.section ".note.GNU-stack","
,@progbits
```
Example – Compilation to Object File

- The source file is compiled to the object file
  
  ```
  clang -c var.c -o var.o
  ```

  ```
  % clang -c var.c -o var.o
  % file var.o
  ```

  var.o: ELF 64-bit LSB relocatable, x86-64, version 1 (FreeBSD), not stripped

- Linking the object file(s) provides the executable file
  
  ```
  clang var.o -o var
  ```

  ```
  % clang var.o -o var
  % file var
  ```

  var: ELF 64-bit LSB executable, x86-64, version 1 (FreeBSD), dynamically linked (uses shared libs), for FreeBSD 10.1 (1001504), not stripped
Example – Executable File under OS 1/2

- By default, executable files are “tied” to the C library and OS services
- The dependencies can be shown by `ldd var`

```
ldd var
var:
  libc.so.7 => /lib/libc.so.7 (0x2c41d000)
```

- The so-called static linking can be enabled by the `-static` compiler option

```
clang -static var.o -o var
% ldd var
% file var
var: ELF 64-bit LSB executable, x86-64, version 1 (FreeBSD), statically linked, for FreeBSD 10.1 (1001504), not stripped
% ldd var
ldd: var: not a dynamic ELF executable
```

*Check the size of the created binary files!*
Example – Executable File under OS 2/2

- The compiled program (object file) contains symbolic names (by default)

```
clang var.c -o var
wc -c var
7240 var
```

*E.g., usable for debugging.*

- Symbols can be removed by the tool (program) `strip`

```
strip var
wc -c var
4888 var
```

*Alternatively, you can show size of the file by the command `ls -l`*
Writting Values of the Numeric Data Types – Literals

- Values of the data types are called **literals**
- C has 6 type of constants (literals)
  - Integer
  - Rational
  - Characters
  - Text strings
  - Enumerated
  - Symbolic – 
    ```
    #define NUMBER 10
    ```

*We cannot simply write irrational numbers*

*Enum*

*Preprocessor*
Integer Literals

- Integer values are stored as one of the integer type (keywords): `int`, `long`, `short`, `char` and their `signed` and `unsigned` variants.

  Further integer data types are possible.

- Integer values (literals)
  - Decimal 123 450932
  - Hexadecimal 0x12 0xFAFF (starts with `0x` or `0X`)
  - Octal 0123 0567 (starts with `0`)
  - `unsigned` 12345U (suffix `U` or `u`)
  - `long` 12345L (suffix `L` or `l`)
  - `unsigned long` 12345ul (suffix `UL` or `ul`)
  - `long long` 12345LL (suffix `LL` or `ll`)

- Without suffix, the literal is of the type `typu` `int`
Literals of Rational Numbers

- Rational numbers can be written
  - with floating point – 13.1
  - or with mantissa and exponent – 31.4e-3 or 31.4E-3

- Floating point numeric types depends on the implementation, but they usually follow IEEE-754-1985
  - float, double

- Data types of the rational literals:
  - double – by default, if not explicitly specified to be another type
  - float – suffix F or f

  ```
  float f = 10f;
  ```

  ```
  long double ld = 10l;
  ```
Character Literals

- **Format** – single (or multiple) character in apostrophe
  
  'A', 'B' or '\n'

- **Value of the single character literal** is the code of the character
  
  '0' ~ 48, 'A' ~ 65

  *Value of character out of ASCII (greater than 127) depends on the compiler.*

- **Type of the character constant (literal)**
  
  - character constant is the `int` type
String literals

- Format – a sequence of character and control characters (escape sequences) enclosed in quotation (citation) marks
  "This is a string constant with the end of line character \n"
  - String constants separated by white spaces are joined to single constant, e.g.,
    "String literal" "with the end of the line character\n"

    is concatenate into

    "String literal with end of the line character\n"

- Type
  - String literal is stored in the array of the type char terminated by the null character ’\0’
  
  E.g., String literal "word" is stored as
  
  | 'w' | 'o' | 'r' | 'd' | '\0' |

The size of the array must be about 1 item longer to store \0!

More about text strings in the following lectures and labs
Constants of the Enumerated Type

- **Format**
  - By default, values of the enumerated type starts from 0 and each other item increase the value about one
  - Values can be explicitly prescribed
    ```c
    enum { SPADES, CLUBS, HEARTS, DIAMONDS };
    enum { SPADES = 10, /* the value is 11 */ CLUBS, HEARTS = 15, DIAMONDS = 13 };
    ```
    
    *The enumeration values are usually written in uppercase*

- **Type** – enumerated constant is the `int` type
  - Value of the enumerated literal can be used in loops
    ```c
    enum { SPADES = 0, CLUBS, HEARTS, DIAMONDS, NUM Colors };
    for (int i = SPADES; i < NUM COLORS; ++i) {
      ...
    }
    ```
Symbolic Constant – `#define`

- **Format** – the constant is established by the preprocessor command `#define`
  - It is macro command without argument
  - Each `#define` must be on a new line
    ```
    #define SCORE 1
    ```
    *Usually written in uppercase*

- Symbolic constants can express constant expressions
  ```
  #define MAX_1 ((10*6) - 3)
  ```

- Symbolic constants can be nested
  ```
  #define MAX_2 (MAX_1 + 1)
  ```

- Preprocessor performs the text replacement of the define constant by its value
  ```
  #define MAX_2 (MAX_1 + 1)
  ```

*It is highly recommended to use brackets to ensure correct evaluation of the expression, e.g., the symbolic constant 5*MAX_1 with the outer brackets is 5*((10*6) - 3)=285 vs 5*(10*6) - 3=297.*
Variable with a constant value modifier (keyword) \texttt{(const)}

- Using the keyword \texttt{const}, a variable can be marked as constant. *Compiler checks assignment and do not allow to set a new value to the variable.*

- A constant value can be defined as follows
  \begin{verbatim}
  const float pi = 3.14159265;
  \end{verbatim}

- In contrast to the symbolic constant
  \begin{verbatim}
  #define PI 3.14159265
  \end{verbatim}

- Constant values have type, and thus it supports \texttt{type checking}
Example: Sum of Two Values

```c
#include <stdio.h>

int main(void)
{
    int sum; // definition of local variable of the int type
    sum = 100 + 43; /* set value of the expression to sum */
    printf("The sum of 100 and 43 is %i\n", sum);
    /* %i formatting commend to print integer number */
    return 0;
}
```

- The variable `sum` of the type `int` represents an integer number. Its value is stored in the memory.
- `sum` is selected symbolic name of the memory location, where the integer value (type `int`) is stored.
Example of Sum of Two Variables

```c
#include <stdio.h>

int main(void) {
    int var1;
    int var2 = 10; /* initialization of the variable */
    int sum;
    var1 = 13;
    sum = var1 + var2;
    printf("The sum of \%i and \%i is \%i\n", var1, var2, sum);
    return 0;
}
```

- Variables `var1`, `var2` and `sum` represent three different locations in the memory (allocated automatically), where three integer values are stored.
Variable Declaration

- The variable declaration has general form
  \[
  \text{declaration-specifiers \ declarators;}
  \]

- Declaration specifiers are:
  - **Storage classes**: at most one of the auto, static, extern, register
  - **Type quantifiers**: const, volatile, restrict
    - Zero or more type quantifiers are allowed
  - **Type specifiers**: void, char, short, int, long, float, double, signed, unsigned. In addition, struct and union type specifiers can be used. Finally, own types defined by typedef can be used as well.

  *Detailed description in further lectures.*
Assignment, Variables, and Memory – Visualization

`unsigned char`

```c
1    unsigned char var1;
2    unsigned char var2;
3    unsigned char sum;
4
5    var1 = 13;
6    var2 = 10;
7
8    sum = var1 + var2;
```

- Each variable allocate 1 byte
- Content of the memory is not defined after allocation
- Name of the variable “references” to the particular memory location
- Value of the variable is the content of the memory location
Assignment, Variables, and Memory – Visualization `int`

```c
int var1;
int var2;
int sum;

// 00 00 00 13
var1 = 13;

// x00 x00 x01
var2 = 500;

sum = var1 + var2;
```

- Variables of the `int` types allocate 4 bytes
  
  *Size can be find out by the operator `sizeof(int)`*

- Memory content is not defined after the definition of the variable to the memory

```
var1

13 0 0 0 0
0xf4 0x01 0x00 0x00

var2

0x1 0x2 0x0 0x0
0xC 0xD 0xE 0xF

sum

500 (dec) is 0x01F4 (hex)
513 (dec) is 0x0201 (hex)
```

*For Intel x86 and x86-64 architectures, the values (of multi-byte types) are stored in the **little-endian** order.*
Expressions

- **Expression** prescribes calculation value of some given input
- Expression is composed of *operands, operators, and brackets*
- Expression can be formed of
  - literals
  - variables
  - constants
  - unary and binary operators
  - function calling
  - brackets
- The order of operation evaluation is prescribed by the operator *precedence* and *associativity*.

**Example**

```
10 + x * y // order of the evaluation 10 + (x * y)
10 + x + y // order of the evaluation (10 + x) + y
```

*has higher priority than +
+ is associative from the left-to-right*
Operators

- Operators are selected characters (or a sequence of characters) dedicated for writing expressions.
- Five types of binary operators can be distinguished:
  - **Arithmetic** operators – additive (addition/subtraction) and multiplicative (multiplication/division).
  - **Relational** operators – comparison of values (less than, greater than, ...).
  - **Logical** operators – logical AND and OR.
  - **Bitwise** operators – bitwise AND, OR, XOR, bitwise shift (left, right).
  - Assignment operator = – a variable (l-value) is on its left side.

-Unary operators:
  - Indicating positive/negative value: + and −.
  - Operator − modifies the sign of the expression.
  - Modifying a variable: ++ and −−.
  - Logical negation: !.
  - Bitwise negation: ∼.

- Ternary operator – conditional expression ? :
Variables, Assignment Operator, and Assignment Statement

- Variables are defined by the type and name
  - Name of the variable are in lowercase
  - Multi-word names can be written with underscore _
    Or we can use CamelCase
  - Each variable is defined at new line
    ```
    int n;
    int number_of_items;
    int numberOfItems;
    ```

- Assignment is setting the value to the variable, i.e., the value is stored at the memory location referenced by the variable name

- Assignment operator
  ```
  \langle l-value \rangle = \langle expression \rangle
  
  Expression is literal, variable, function calling, …
  ```

  - The side is the so-called l-value — location-value, left-value
    It must represent a memory location where the value can be stored.
  - Assignment is an expression and we can use it everywhere it is allowed to use the expression of the particular type.

- Assignment statement is the assignment operator \( \equiv \) and ;
Basic Arithmetic Expressions

- For an operator of the numeric types `int` and `double`, the following operators are defined
  
  \[ \text{Also for char, short, and float numeric types.} \]

  - Unary operator for changing the sign `−`
  - Binary addition `+` and subtraction `−`
  - Binary multiplication `*` and division `/`

- For integer operator, there is also
  
  - Binary module (integer reminder) `%`

- If both operands are of the same type, the results of the arithmetic operation is the same type

- In a case of combined data types `int` and `double`, the data type `int` is converted to `double` and the results is of the `double` type.

  \[ \text{Implicit type conversion} \]
Example – Arithmetic Operators 1/2

```c
int a = 10;
int b = 3;
int c = 4;
int d = 5;
int result;

result = a - b; // subtraction
printf("a - b = %i\n", result);

result = a * b; // multiplication
printf("a * b = %i\n", result);

result = a / b; // integer division
printf("a / b = %i\n", result);

result = a + b * c; // priority of the operators
printf("a + b * c = %i\n", result);

printf("a * b + c * d = %i\n", a * b + c * d); // -> 50
printf("(a * b) + (c * d) = %i\n", (a * b) + (c * d)); // -> 50
printf("a * (b + c) * d = %i\n", a * (b + c) * d); // -> 350
```

lec01/arithmetic_operators.c
Example – Arithmetic Operators 2/2

```c
#include <stdio.h>

int main(void)
{
    int x1 = 1;
    double y1 = 2.2357;
    float x2 = 2.5343f;
    double y2 = 2;

    printf("P1 = (\%i, \%f)\n", x1, y1);
    printf("P1 = (\%i, \%i)\n", x1, (int)y1);
    printf("P1 = (\%f, \%f)\n", (double)x1, (double)y1);
    printf("P1 = (\%3f, \%3f)\n", (double)x1, (double)y1);

    printf("P2 = (\%f, \%f)\n", x2, y2);

    double dx = (x1 - x2); // implicit data conversion to float
    double dy = (y1 - y2); // and finally to double

    printf("(P1 - P2)=%\%.3f, %0.3f)\n", dx, dy);
    printf("|P1 - P2|^2=%.2f\n", dx * dx + dy * dy);

    return 0;
}
```

Jan Faigl, 2017

lec01/points.c
Standard Input and Output

- An executed program within Operating System (OS) environments has assigned (usually text-oriented) standard input (stdin) and output (stdout).
  
  `Programs for MCU without OS does not have them`

- The stdin and stdout streams can be utilized for communication with a user.

- Basic function for text-based input is `getchar()` and for the output `putchar()`.
  
  `Both are defined in the standard C library <stdio.h>`

- For parsing numeric values the `scanf()` function can be utilized.

- The function `printf()` provides formatted output, e.g., a number of decimal places.

  `They are library functions, not keywords of the C language.`
Formatted Output – `printf()`

- Numeric values can be printed to the standard output using `printf()`
  
  `man printf` or `man 3 printf`

- The first argument is the format string that defines how the values are printed

- The conversion specification starts with the character `’%’`

- Text string not starting with `%` is printed as it is

- Basic format strings to print values of particular types are
  
  ```
  char          %c
  _Bool         %i, %u
  int           %i, %x, %o
  float         %f, %e, %g, %a
  double        %f, %e, %g, %a
  ```

- Specification of the number of digits is possible, as well as an alignment to left (right), etc.

  Further options in homeworks and lab exercises.
Formatted Input – `scanf()`

- Numeric values from the standard input can be read using the `scanf()` function
  
  ```
  man scanf or man 3 scanf
  ```

- The argument of the function is a format string
  
  ```
  Syntax is similar to `printf()`
  ```

- It is necessary to provide a memory address of the variable to set its value from the `stdin`

- Example of readings integer value and value of the `double` type

```c
#include <stdio.h>

int main(void)
{
    int i;
    double d;

    printf("Enter int value: ");
    scanf("%i", &i); // operator & returns the address of i

    printf("Enter a double value: ");
    scanf("%lf", &d);

    printf("You entered %02i and %0.1f\n", i, d);

    return 0;
}
```

lec01/scanf.c
Example: Program with Output to the stdout 1/2

- Instead of `printf()` we can use `fprintf()` with explicit output stream `stdout`, or alternatively `stderr`; both functions from the `<stdio.h>`

```c
#include <stdio.h>

int main(int argc, char **argv) {
    fprintf(stdout, "My first program in C!\n");
    fprintf(stdout, "Its name is \"%s\"\n", argv[0]);
    fprintf(stdout, "Run with %d arguments\n", argc);
    if (argc > 1) {
        fprintf(stdout, "The arguments are:\n");
        for (int i = 1; i < argc; ++i) {
            fprintf(stdout, "Arg: %d is \"%s\"\n", i, argv[i]);
        }
    }
}
```
Example: Program with Output to the stdout 2/2

Notice, using the header file `<stdio.h>`, several other files are included as well to define types and functions for input and output.

*Check by, e.g., clang -E print_args.c*

```plaintext
clang print_args.c -o print_args
./print_args first second
My first program in C!
Its name is "./print_args"
It has been run with 3 arguments
The arguments are:
Arg: 1 is "first"
Arg: 2 is "second"
```
Extended Variants of the `main()` Function

- Extended declaration of the `main()` function provides access to the environment variables

\[
\text{For Unix and MS Windows like OS}
\]

\[
\text{int main(int argc, char **argv, char **envp) \{ ... \}}
\]

*The environment variables can be accessed using the function `getenv()` from the standard library `<stdlib.h>`.*

- For Mac OS X, there are further arguments

\[
\text{int main(int argc, char **argv, char **envp, char **apple)}
\]

\[
\text{\{ ... \}}
\]
Summary of the Lecture
Topics Discussed

- Information about the Course
- Introduction to C Programming
  - Program, source codes and compilation of the program
  - Structure of the source code and writing program
  - Variables and basic types
  - Variables, assignment, and memory
  - Basic Expressions
  - Standard input and output of the program
  - Formatting input and output

- Next: Expressions and Bitwise Operations, Selection Statements and Loops