



# Introduction to C



# 1.6 Machine Languages, Assembly Languages and High-Level Languages

- ▶ Programmers write instructions in various programming languages, some directly understandable by computers and others requiring intermediate **translation** steps.
- ▶ Computer languages may be divided into three general types:
  - Machine languages
  - Assembly languages
  - High-level languages
- ▶ Any computer can directly understand only its own **machine language**.
- ▶ Machine language is the “natural language” of a computer and as such is defined by its hardware design.



## 1.6 Machine Languages, Assembly Languages and High-Level Languages (Cont.)

- ▶ Machine language is often referred to as object code.
- ▶ Machine languages generally consist of strings of numbers (ultimately reduced to 1s and 0s) that instruct computers to perform their most elementary operations one at a time.
- ▶ Machine languages are **machine dependent** (i.e., a particular machine language can be used on only one type of computer).



## 1.6 Machine Languages, Assembly Languages and High-Level Languages

- ▶ Such languages are cumbersome for humans, as illustrated by the following section of an early machine-language program that adds overtime pay to base pay and stores the result in gross pay:
  - +1300042774  
+1400593419  
+1200274027
- ▶ Instead of using the strings of numbers that computers could directly understand, programmers began using English-like abbreviations to represent elementary operations.
- ▶ These abbreviations formed the basis of **assembly languages**.



## 1.6 Machine Languages, Assembly Languages and High-Level Languages

- ▶ **Translator programs** called **assemblers** were developed to convert early assembly-language programs to machine language at computer speeds.
- ▶ The following section of an assembly-language program also adds overtime pay to base pay and stores the result in gross pay:
  - load        basepay  
  add        overpay  
  store      grosspay
- ▶ Although such code is clearer to humans, it's incomprehensible to computers until translated to machine language.



## 1.6 Machine Languages, Assembly Languages and High-Level Languages

- ▶ Computer usage increased rapidly with the advent of assembly languages, but programmers still had to use many instructions to accomplish even the simplest tasks.
- ▶ To speed the programming process, **high-level languages** were developed in which single statements could be written to accomplish substantial tasks.
- ▶ Translator programs called **compilers** convert high-level language programs into machine language.
- ▶ High-level languages allow programmers to write instructions that look almost like everyday English and contain commonly used mathematical notations.



## 1.6 Machine Languages, Assembly Languages and High-Level Languages

- ▶ A payroll program written in a high-level language might contain a statement such as
  - `grossPay = basePay + overTimePay;`
- ▶ C, C++, Microsoft's .NET languages (e.g., Visual Basic, Visual C++ and Visual C#) and Java are among the most widely used high-level programming languages.
- ▶ **Interpreter** programs were developed to execute high-level language programs directly (without the delay of compilation), although slower than compiled programs run.





## 1.7 History of C

- ▶ C evolved from two previous languages, BCPL and B.
- ▶ BCPL was developed in 1967 by Martin Richards as a language for writing operating-systems software and compilers.
- ▶ Ken Thompson modeled many features in his B language after their counterparts in BCPL, and in 1970 he used B to create early versions of the UNIX operating system at Bell Laboratories.
- ▶ Both BCPL and B were “typeless” languages—every data item occupied one “word” in memory, and the burden of typing variables fell on the shoulders of the programmer.





## 1.7 History of C (Cont.)

- ▶ The C language was evolved from B by Dennis Ritchie at Bell Laboratories and was originally implemented on a DEC PDP-11 computer in 1972.
- ▶ C initially became widely known as the development language of the UNIX operating system.
- ▶ Today, virtually all new major operating systems are written in C and/or C++.
- ▶ C is available for most computers.
- ▶ C is mostly hardware independent.
- ▶ With careful design, it's possible to write C programs that are **portable** to most computers.



## 1.7 History of C (Cont.)

- ▶ By the late 1970s, C had evolved into what is now referred to as “traditional C.” The publication in 1978 of Kernighan and Ritchie’s book, *The C Programming Language*, drew wide attention to the language.
- ▶ The rapid expansion of C over various types of computers (sometimes called **hardware platforms**) led to many variations that were similar but often incompatible.
- ▶ In 1989, the C standard was approved; this standard was updated in 1999.
- ▶ C99 is a revised standard for the C programming language that refines and expands the capabilities of C.



### **Portability Tip 1.1**

*Because C is a hardware-independent, widely available language, applications written in C can run with little or no modifications on a wide range of different computer systems.*



## 1.8 C Standard Library

- ▶ C programs consist of modules or pieces called **functions**.
- ▶ You can program all the functions you need to form a C program, but most C programmers take advantage of a rich collection of existing functions called the **C Standard Library**.
- ▶ Avoid reinventing the wheel.
- ▶ Instead, use existing pieces—this is called **software reusability**, and it's a key to the field of object-oriented programming, as you'll see when you study C++.
- ▶ When programming in C you'll typically use the following building blocks:
  - C Standard Library functions
  - Functions you create yourself
  - Functions other people have created and made available to you



## 1.8 C Standard Library (Cont.)

- ▶ If you use existing functions, you can avoid reinventing the wheel.
- ▶ In the case of the Standard C functions, you know that they're carefully written, and you know that because you're using functions that are available on all Standard C implementations, your programs will have a greater chance of being portable and error-free.



### **Performance Tip 1.1**

*Using Standard C library functions instead of writing your own comparable versions can improve program performance, because these functions are carefully written to perform efficiently.*



### **Performance Tip 1.2**

*Using Standard C library functions instead of writing your own comparable versions can improve program portability, because these functions are used in virtually all Standard C implementations.*





## 1.15 Typical C Program Development Environment

- ▶ C systems generally consist of several parts: a program development environment, the language and the C Standard Library.
- ▶ C programs typically go through six phases to be executed (Fig. 1.1).
- ▶ These are: **edit**, **preprocess**, **compile**, **link**, **load** and **execute**.
- ▶ Phase 1 consists of editing a file.
- ▶ This is accomplished with an **editor program**.



# 1.15 Typical C Program Development Environment (Cont.)

- ▶ Two editors widely used on Linux systems are `vi` and `emacs`.
- ▶ Software packages for the C/C++ integrated program development environments such as Eclipse and Microsoft Visual Studio have editors that are integrated into the programming environment.
- ▶ You type a C program with the editor, make corrections if necessary, then store the program on a secondary storage device such as a hard disk.
- ▶ C program file names should end with the `.c` extension.



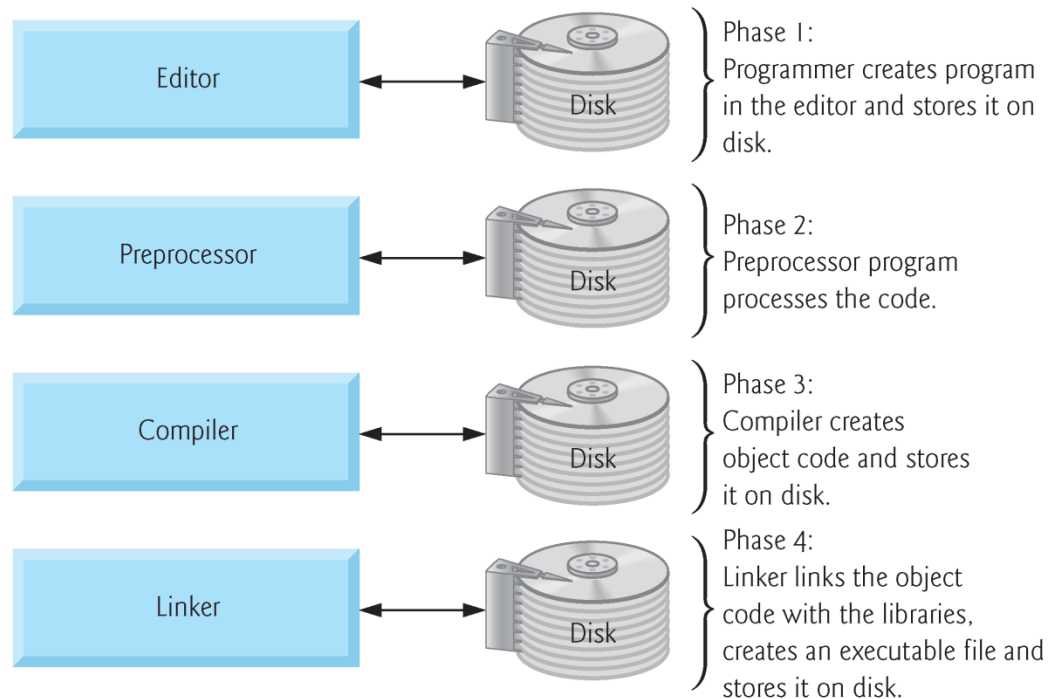
# 1.15 Typical C Program Development Environment (Cont.)

- ▶ In Phase 2, the you give the command to **compile** the program.
- ▶ The compiler translates the C program into machine language-code (also referred to as **object code**).
- ▶ In a C system, a **preprocessor** program executes automatically before the compiler's translation phase begins.
- ▶ The **C preprocessor** obeys special commands called **preprocessor directives**, which indicate that certain manipulations are to be performed on the program before compilation.

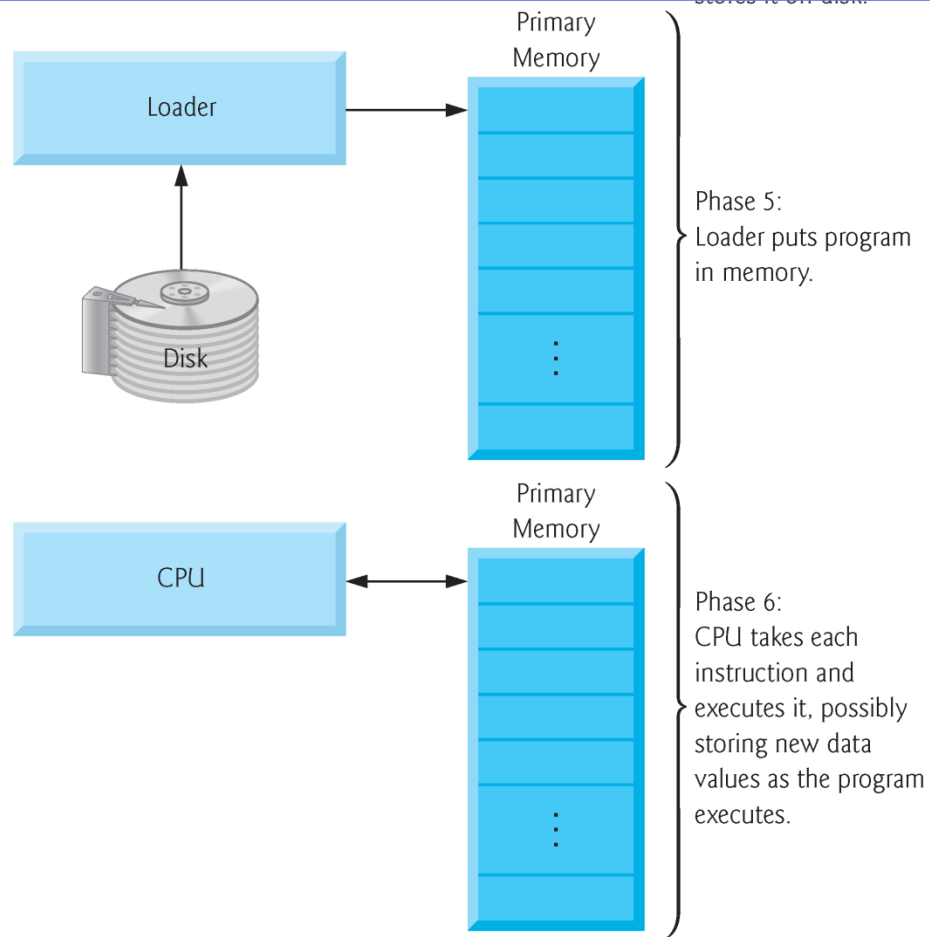


# 1.15 Typical C Program Development Environment (Cont.)

- ▶ These manipulations usually consist of including other files in the file to be compiled and performing various text replacements.
- ▶ In Phase 3, the compiler translates the C program into machine-language code.



**Fig. 1.1** | Typical C development environment. (Part I of 2.)



**Fig. 1.1** | Typical C development environment. (Part 2 of 2.)



# 1.15 Typical C Program Development Environment (Cont.)

- ▶ The next phase is called **linking**.
- ▶ C programs typically contain references to functions defined elsewhere, such as in the standard libraries or in the private libraries of groups of programmers working on a particular project.
- ▶ The object code produced by the C compiler typically contains “holes” due to these missing parts.
- ▶ A **linker** links the object code with the code for the missing functions to produce an **executable image** (with no missing pieces).
- ▶ On a typical Linux system, the command to compile and link a program is called **cc** (or **gcc**).





# 1.15 Typical C Program Development Environment (Cont.)

- ▶ To compile and link a program named `welcome.c` type
  - `cc welcome.c`
- ▶ at the Linux prompt and press the *Enter* key (or *Return* key).
- ▶ [Note: Linux commands are case sensitive; make sure that you type lowercase `C`'s and that the letters in the filename are in the appropriate case.]
- ▶ If the program compiles and links correctly, a file called `a.out` is produced.
- ▶ This is the executable image of our `welcome.c` program.



# 1.15 Typical C Program Development Environment (Cont.)

- ▶ The next phase is called **loading**.
- ▶ Before a program can be executed, the program must first be placed in memory.
- ▶ This is done by the **loader**, which takes the executable image from disk and transfers it to memory.
- ▶ Additional components from shared libraries that support the program are also loaded.
- ▶ Finally, the computer, under the control of its CPU, **executes** the program one instruction at a time.



# 1.15 Typical C Program Development Environment (Cont.)

- ▶ To load and execute the program on a Linux system, type `./a.out` at the Linux prompt and press *Enter*.
- ▶ Programs do not always work on the first try.
- ▶ Each of the preceding phases can fail because of various errors that we'll discuss.
- ▶ For example, an executing program might attempt to divide by zero (an illegal operation on computers just as in arithmetic).
- ▶ This would cause the computer to display an error message.



# 1.15 Typical C Program

## Development Environment (Cont.)

- ▶ You would then return to the edit phase, make the necessary corrections and proceed through the remaining phases again to determine that the corrections work properly.
- ▶ Most C programs input and/or output data.
- ▶ Certain C functions take their input from `stdin` (the **standard input stream**), which is normally the keyboard, but `stdin` can be connected to another stream.
- ▶ Data is often output to `stdout` (the **standard output stream**), which is normally the computer screen, but `stdout` can be connected to another stream.
- ▶ When we say that a program prints a result, we normally mean that the result is displayed on a screen.



# 1.15 Typical C Program Development Environment (Cont.)

- ▶ Data may be output to devices such as disks and printers.
- ▶ There is also a `standard error stream` referred to as `stderr`.
- ▶ The `stderr` stream (normally connected to the screen) is used for displaying error messages.
- ▶ It's common to route regular output data, i.e., `stdout`, to a device other than the screen while keeping `stderr` assigned to the screen so that the user can be immediately informed of errors.



## Common Programming Error 1.1

*Errors like division-by-zero occur as a program runs, so these errors are called runtime errors or execution-time errors. Divide-by-zero is generally a fatal error, i.e., an error that causes the program to terminate immediately without successfully performing its job. Nonfatal errors allow programs to run to completion, often producing incorrect results.*



## Good Programming Practice 1.1

*Write your C programs in a simple and straightforward manner. This is sometimes referred to as KIS (“keep it simple”). Do not “stretch” the language by trying bizarre usages.*





## Portability Tip 1.2

*Although it's possible to write portable C programs, there are many problems between different C compilers and different computers that make portability difficult to achieve. Simply writing programs in C does not guarantee portability. You'll often need to deal directly with computer variations.*



## Software Engineering Observation 1.2

*Read the manuals for the version of C you're using. Reference these manuals frequently to be sure you're aware of the rich collection of C features and that you're using these features correctly.*



## Software Engineering Observation 1.3

*Your computer and compiler are good teachers. If you're not sure how a C feature works, write a program with that feature, compile and run the program and see what happens.*



# Your First C Program

```
# include <stdio.h>
main(void)
{
    printf("Hello, CSCI N305!\n");
}
```

Try it!

# How to Compile A C Program Using Linux



```
gcc first1.c
```

- ▶ C programs end in the “.c” extension
- ▶ The executable file is called *a.out*

```
gcc first1.c
```



# How to Execute Your Program

*./a.out*

- ▶ Type the name of the executable file at the prompt to run your program