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As mentioned, valgrind is good at finding some (but not all!) memory errors

But it's not a mitigation for sloppy programming: you should at least try to get it right yourself!

The first kind of error you will come across is errors in the compilation

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We shall look at a few example error messages

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heap2.c: In function 'add':
heap2.c:9:40: error: 'b' undeclared
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- the function: in question add
- the variable in question: b
- the line number in the file: 9
- which character in that line: 40

Though we don't always get such fine detail



As a contrast, Clang reports:

```
heap2.c:9:40: error: use of undeclared identifier 'b'
printf("b = %d\n", b);
```

```
heap2.c:13:3: error: too many arguments to function 'add'
heap2.c:4:5: note: declared here
```

A call to add on line 13 had too many arguments; as a reference to compare against, add was declared on line 4



```
warn.c: In function 'bar':
warn.c:5:3: warning: 'return' with no value, in function
  returning non-void
```

A warning that a function didn't return a value when it was declared to return a value

And so on



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You will become experienced in reading these kinds of messages!

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```
printf("x is %d\n", x);
x = wibble(x);
printf("after wibble x is %d\n", x);
```

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Exercise. Most library functions set an error message when something goes wrong, e.g., "no permission to write to file". These are described in the "ERRORS" section of their man page. Investigate the error reporting mechanism errno, strerror() and perror()

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If you use an IDE, it will probably have an in-built debugger

For example

```
#include <stdio.h>
int main(void)
  int *a = 0;
  // writing to unmapped memory
  a[0] = 42;
  return 0;
produces
% ./buggyprog
Segmentation fault
```

If we compile with the $\neg g$ option, the compiler puts in extra context information that helps the debugger

```
% cc -Wall -g -o buggyprog buggyprog.c
```

If we compile with the -g option, the compiler puts in extra context information that helps the debugger

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% cc -Wall -g -o buggyprog buggyprog.c
```

We now run the program under the debugger (some messages removed)

```
% gdb ./buggyprog
GNU gdb (GDB) SUSE (7.1-3.12)
Copyright ...
Reading symbols from buggyprog
done.
(gdb)
This is the debugger prompt. We can now run the program
(gdb) run
```

```
Starting program: buggyprog
...
Program received signal SIGSEGV, Segmentation fault.
0x000000000004004f4 in main () at buggyprog.c:9
9     a[0] = 42;
(gdb)
```

It broke at line 9

We can inspect the values of variables

```
(gdb) print a
$1 = (int *) 0x0
```

This is of course the problem; a does not point anywhere sensible

Debuggers can do a lot more. We can

look at general areas of memory

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- inspect variables in other functions: e.g., a function foo calls bar, which breaks; the debugger drops us into bar; we can "move up" and look into foo
- insert values into memory
- continue the program from where it broke (not always a good idea), possibly after patching up the values of some variables or some memory

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- And so on

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Exercise. Experiment with a debugger and explore its capabilities

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To use one of these functions we must

- declare the type of the function, so the compiler knows how to to use it correctly: both the argument types and the return type
- make the code (binary) available to our program so our program can actually run it!



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#include will read in any file you like and can be placed anywhere you like in your source. It is overwhelmingly used for header files (.h files) at the start of C code

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If you look in that file you find something like extern int printf(char *format, ...); (simplified)
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This declares printf to be a function that takes a string (the format string) and a variable number of other arguments of unspecifed types

The extern says the actual code of the function is somewhere else, not right here: this is just a declaration of the type of the function

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In <stdlib.h> we might find
extern void *malloc(long int size);
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```
In <stdlib.h> we might find
extern void *malloc(long int size);
(simplified)
In <math.h> we might find
extern double cos(double x);
(simplified)
```

How do we know while file to include for which function?

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Use the manual pages: man cos



```
COS(3P) POSIX Programmer's Manual COS(3P)
NAME
       cos, cosf, cosl - cosine function
SYNOPSTS
       #include <math.h>
       double cos(double x);
       float cosf(float x);
       long double cosl(long double x);
       Link with -lm.
```

That takes care of the declarations. Now where are the actual implementations of these functions?

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However, other functions, like cos are not automatically picked up; it's not in libc for a start

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The maths library has the very short name "m"

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Multiple libraries are used in the obvious way:

cc ... -lm -lGL



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For example, some programs sources are too big to fit sensibly into one file

Or you need separate people to work on separate parts of the program

```
File prog1.c
#include <stdio.h>
extern int foo(int n, int m);
int g;
int main(void)
  int m;
  g = 23;
 m = foo(7, 11);
 printf("m = %d\n", m);
  return 0;
```

```
File prog2.c
// stdio not really necessary here
#include <stdio.h>

extern int g;
static int hidden = 99;

int foo(int p, int q)
{
   return p*q + g + hidden;
}
```

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When main calls foo, it know it should take two ints and return an int

So it knows to compile code to set up the arguments correctly: and code to receive the result

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C also allows declarations of functions without parameter names:

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```
Further, on functions, the extern is optional:
int foo(int, int);
```

C can tell it is a declaration and not a definition by the lack of a body



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The extern says "here is the type of the thing, but it is actually defined somewhere else"

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C is not strong on modules/namespaces: this is the only hiding mechanism it has

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produces a binary prog
```

Linking resolves all the cross-file references: e.g., it determines the g in prog2.c is the same as the g in prog1.c

```
% ./prog
m = 199
```

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And exactly one definition of each global name (functions and variables)

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Better is to separate the compile and link steps as it separates the errors each stage might report



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This is easier to manage and enables you to keep the various declarations in sync with each other

```
#include <stdio.h>
#include "prog.h"
int g;
int main(void)
{
  int m;
  g = 23;
 m = foo(7, 11);
 printf("m = %d\n", m);
  return 0;
```

```
// stdio not really necessary here
#include <stdio.h>
#include "prog.h"

static int hidden = 99;

int foo(int p, int q)
{
   return p*q + g + hidden;
}
```

```
In prog.h
// Useful declarations
extern int foo(int n, int m);
extern int g;
```

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Just be careful not to create a loop...

Exercise. Find out what would happen if we put the static declaration into the header file or if we left out the definition of g

Exercise. Find out how to collect several .o files together in a single library .a file; then look up the compiler -L option

Exercise. Find out how to make and use shared library .so files

Exercise. Look at make and *Makefiles* as a simple way of managing multi-file programs

Declarations

Exercise. Sometimes functions need to refer to each other

```
int foo(int n)
{
    ... bar(n + 1) ...
}
int bar(int m)
{
    ... foo(m - 1) ...
}
```

The C compiler needs to know the type of bar before compiling foo and the type of foo before compiling bar. What declarations would keep the compiler happy?

We finish with a brief look at C's preprocessing language

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The result of this is then passed on to the C compiler proper

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It doesn't need to be a header file, and the directive doesn't need to be at the start of the C file

But, unless you are doing some devious tricks, this is your most likely use

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Thereafter whenever CPP sees PI it textually replaces it with 3.141

x = 2.0*PI; becomes x = 2.0*3.141;

The replacement text can be anything we like, including other CPP symbols

```
If
#define P2 PI*PI
then
x = 1.0/P2;
becomes
x = 1.0/3.141*3.141;
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Notice any problem?

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#define P2 (PI*PI)
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```
#define P2 (PI*PI)
We now get x = 1.0/P2; \rightarrow x = 1.0/(3.141*3.141);
```

Macros can take arguments #define mul(a, b) a*b

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Now mul(1+2,3+4) -> 1+2*3+4

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So put in the parentheses #define mul(a, b) (a)*(b) $mul(1+2,3+4) \rightarrow (1+2)*(3+4)$

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So put in the parentheses #define mul(a, b) (a)*(b) mul(1+2,3+4) -> (1+2)*(3+4)

What of 1/mul(1+2,3+4)?

```
Macros can take arguments #define mul(a, b) a*b
```

So put in the parentheses
#define mul(a, b) (a)*(b)
mul(1+2.3+4) -> (1+2)*(3+4)

This will be 1/(1+2)*(3+4)

So, to be safe, put parentheses everywhere

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```
#define mul(a, b) ((a)*(b))
```

So, to be safe, put parentheses everywhere

#define mul(a, b)
$$((a)*(b))$$

Now
$$1/\text{mul}(1+2,3+4) \rightarrow 1/((1+2)*(3+4))$$

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In real programs macros are useful tools for naming things and making code easier to read

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Or harder to read...

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For example, math.h defines several symbols starting M_- (to avoid name clashes with user-defined symbols)

- M_PI
- M_E
- M_PI_2 for $\pi/2$
- M_SQRT2
- · and more, all often needed in programs

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- and more, all often needed in programs

Exercise. Find out what symbols are defined in math.h and other common header files

The CPP also has conditional compilation

```
y = 2.0;
#ifdef FAST
x = y - y*y*y/6;
#else
x = sin(y);
#endif
z = x + x;
```

CPP symbols are conventionally all upper-case

If the symbol FAST is #defined the x = y - y*y*y/6; part of the text is kept and the $x = \sin(y)$; is discarded

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The code effectively becomes

```
y = 2.0;
x = y - y*y*y/6;
z = x + x;
```

If FAST is not defined, we get

```
y = 2.0;
x = sin(y);
z = x + x;
```

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Another good source of unreadable code when taken too far

To find out what CPP is doing to your program cc -E myprog.c will run just the preprocessor and show the result

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It is only a problem if you start doing tricks with CPP

See the Obfuscated C Competition

```
Exercise. Look up #if
```

Exercise. Look up stringification and token pasting

```
Exercise. What does #define x y #define y x x++; do (or not do)?
```

Exercise. Browse the Obfuscated C Competition http://www.no.ioccc.org/years.html

NULL

Exercise. Learn about switch, break, enum, const, restrict and other C keywords

Exercise. Learn about defining and using functions that take a variable number of arguments (e.g., printf): varargs

Exercise. Read up on C variants, e.g., C++, Objective C, CUDA, Unified Parallel C, etc.

NULL

Exercise. Write lots of C programs

Exercise. Learn C