The Design of C: A Rational Reconstruction

Goals of this Lecture

- Help you learn about:
 - The decisions that were available to the designers of C
 - The decisions that were **made by** the designers of C
 and thereby...
 - C!
- Why?
 - Learning the design rationale of the C language provides a richer understanding of C itself
 - ... and might be more interesting than simply learning the language itself !!!
 - A power programmer knows both the programming language and its design rationale
- But first a preliminary topic...

Preliminary Topic

Number Systems

Why Bits (Binary Digits)?

- Computers are built using digital circuits
 - Inputs and outputs can have only two values
 - True (high voltage) or false (low voltage)
 - Represented as 1 and 0
- Can represent many kinds of information
 - Boolean (true or false)
 - Numbers (23, 79, ...)
 - Characters ('a', 'z', ...)
 - Pixels, sounds
 - Internet addresses
- Can manipulate in many ways
 - Read and write
 - Logical operations
 - Arithmetic

Base 10 and Base 2

- Decimal (base 10)
 - Each digit represents a power of 10
 - **4173** = **4** × 10³ + **1** × 10² + **7** × 10¹ + **3** × 10⁰
- Binary (base 2)
 - Each bit represents a power of 2

$$-$$
 10110 = **1** x 2⁴ + **0** x 2³ + **1** x 2² + **1** x 2¹ + **0** x 2⁰ = 22

Decimal to binary conversion:

Divide repeatedly by 2 and keep remainders

$$12/2 = 6$$
 R = 0
 $6/2 = 3$ R = 0
 $3/2 = 1$ R = 1
 $1/2 = 0$ R = 1
Result = 1100

Writing Bits is Tedious for People

- Octal (base 8)
 - Digits 0, 1, ..., 7
- Hexadecimal (base 16)
 - Digits 0, 1, ..., 9, A, B, C, D, E, F

```
0000 = 0
               1000 = 8
                                   Thus the 16-bit binary number
0001 = 1
               1001 = 9
0010 = 2
               1010 = A
                                       1011 0010 1010 1001
0011 = 3
               1011 = B
0100 = 4
               1100 = C
                                         converted to hex is
0101 = 5
               1101 = D
0110 = 6
          1110 = E
                                                B<sub>2</sub>A<sub>9</sub>
0111 = 7
             1111 = F
```

Representing Colors: RGB

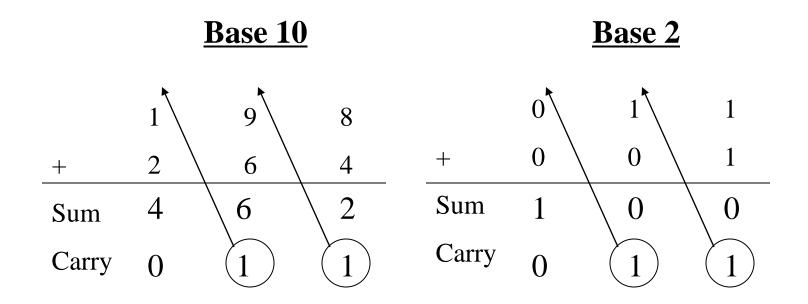
- Three primary colors
 - Red
 - Green
 - Blue
- Strength
 - 8-bit number for each color (e.g., two hex digits)
 - So, 24 bits to specify a color
- In HTML, e.g. Web page
 - Red: De-Comment Assignment Due
 - Blue: Reading Period
- Same thing in digital cameras
 - Each pixel is a mixture of red, green, and blue

Finite Representation of Integers

- Fixed number of bits in memory
 - Usually 8, 16, or 32 bits
 - (1, 2, or 4 bytes)
- Unsigned integer
 - No sign bit
 - Always 0 or a positive number
 - All arithmetic is modulo 2ⁿ
- Examples of unsigned integers
 - 00000001 → 1
 - 00001111 → 15
 - 00010000 → 16
 - 00100001 → 33
 - 111111111 → 255

Adding Two Integers

- From right to left, we add each pair of digits
- We write the sum, and add the carry to the next column



Binary Sums and Carries

a	b	Sum	a	b	Carry
0	0	0	0	0	0
0	1	1	0	1	0
1	0	1	1	0	0
1	1	0	1	1	1
	XC)R		1A	ND
("exclusive OR")					

Modulo Arithmetic

- Consider only numbers in a range
 - E.g., five-digit car odometer: 0, 1, ..., 99999
 - E.g., eight-bit numbers 0, 1, ..., 255
- Roll-over when you run out of space
 - E.g., car odometer goes from 99999 to 0, 1, ...
 - E.g., eight-bit number goes from 255 to 0, 1, ...
- Adding 2ⁿ doesn't change the answer
 - For eight-bit number, n=8 and $2^n=256$
 - E.g., (37 + 256) mod 256 is simply 37
- This can help us do subtraction...
 - Suppose you want to compute a b
 - Note that this equals a + (256 1 b) + 1

Ones' and Two's Complement

- Ones' complement: flip every bit
 - E.g., b is 01000101 (i.e., 69 in decimal)
 - Ones' complement is 10111010
 - That's simply 255-69
- Subtracting from 11111111 is easy (no carry needed!)

```
- 1111 1111

- 0100 0101 ← b

1011 1010 ← one's complement
```

- Two's complement
 - Add 1 to the ones' complement
 - E.g., $(255 69) + 1 \rightarrow 1011 1011$

Putting it All Together

- Computing "a b"
 - Same as "a + 256 b"
 - Same as "a + (255 b) + 1"
 - Same as "a + onesComplement(b) + 1"
 - Same as "a + twosComplement(b)"
- Example: 172 69
 - The original number 69: 0100 0101
 - One's complement of 69: 1011 1010
 - Two's complement of 69: 1011 1011
 - Add to the number 172: 1010 1100
 - The sum comes to:
 - Equals: 103 in decimal

 $1010 \ 1100 \ 1010 \ 1100 \ 0110 \ 0111 \ + \ 1011 \ 1011$

1 0110 0111

Signed Integers

- Sign-magnitude representation
 - Use one bit to store the sign
 - Zero for positive number
 - One for negative number
 - Examples
 - E.g., 0010 1100 → 44
 - E.g., 1010 1100 → -44
 - Hard to do arithmetic this way, so it is rarely used
- Complement representation
 - Ones' complement
 - Flip every bit
 - E.g., 1101 0011 → -44
 - Two's complement
 - Flip every bit, then add 1
 - E.g., 1101 0100 → -44

Overflow: Running Out of Room

- Adding two large integers together
 - Sum might be too large to store in the number of bits available
 - What happens?
- Unsigned integers
 - All arithmetic is "modulo" arithmetic
 - Sum would just wrap around
- Signed integers
 - Can get nonsense values
 - Example with 16-bit integers
 - Sum: 10000+20000+30000
 - Result: -5536

Bitwise Operators: AND and OR

• Bitwise AND (&)

&	0	1
0	0	0
1	0	1

- Mod on the cheap!
 - E.g., 53 % 16
 - ... is same as 53 & 15;
- 53 0 0 1 1 0 1 0 1
- & 15 0 0 0 0 1 1 1 1 1
 - 5 0 0 0 0 0 1 0 1

• Bitwise OR (|)

	0	1
0	0	1
1	1	1

Bitwise Operators: Not and XOR

- One's complement (~)
 - Turns 0 to 1, and 1 to 0
 - E.g., set last three bits to 0
 - $x = x \& \sim 7$;
- XOR (^)
 - 0 if both bits are the same
 - 1 if the two bits are different

٨	0	1
0	0	1
1	1	0

Bitwise Operators: Shift Left/Right

- Shift left (<<): Multiply by powers of 2
 - Shift some # of bits to the left, filling the blanks with 0

- Shift right (>>): Divide by powers of 2
 - Shift some # of bits to the right
 - For unsigned integer, fill in blanks with 0
 - What about signed negative integers?
 - Can vary from one machine to another!

Example: Counting the 1's

- How many 1 bits in a number?
 - E.g., how many 1 bits in the binary representation of 53?

- Four 1 bits
- How to count them?
 - Look at one bit at a time
 - Check if that bit is a 1
 - Increment counter
- How to look at one bit at a time?
 - Look at the last bit: n & 1
 - Check if it is a 1: (n & 1) == 1, or simply (n & 1)

Counting the Number of '1' Bits

```
#include <stdio.h>
#include <stdlib.h>
int main(void) {
  unsigned int n;
  unsigned int count;
  printf("Number: ");
  if (scanf("%u", &n) != 1) {
      fprintf(stderr, "Error: Expect unsigned int.\n");
     exit(EXIT FAILURE);
   for (count = 0; n > 0; n >>= 1)
      count += (n \& 1);
  printf("Number of 1 bits: %u\n", count);
  return 0;
```

Summary

- Computer represents everything in binary
 - Integers, floating-point numbers, characters, addresses, ...
 - Pixels, sounds, colors, etc.
- Binary arithmetic through logic operations
 - Sum (XOR) and Carry (AND)
 - Two's complement for subtraction
- Bitwise operators
 - AND, OR, NOT, and XOR
 - Shift left and shift right
 - Useful for efficient and concise code, though sometimes cryptic

The Main Event

The Design of C

Goals of C

Designers wanted C to support:

- Systems programming
 - Development of Unix OS
 - Development of Unix programming tools

But also:

- Applications programming
 - Development of financial, scientific, etc. applications

Systems programming was the primary intended use

The Goals of C (cont.)

The designers wanted C to be:

- Low-level
 - Close to assembly/machine language
 - Close to hardware

But also:

- Portable
 - Yield systems software that is easy to port to differing hardware

The Goals of C (cont.)

The designers wanted C to be:

- Easy for **people** to handle
 - Easy to understand
 - Expressive
 - High (functionality/sourceCodeSize) ratio

But also:

- Easy for computers to handle
 - Easy/fast to compile
 - Yield efficient machine language code

Commonality:

Small/simple

Design Decisions

In light of those goals...

- What design decisions did the designers of C have?
- What design decisions did they make?

Consider programming language features, from simple to complex...

Feature 1: Data Types

- Previously in this lecture:
 - Bits can be combined into bytes
 - Our interpretation of a collection of bytes gives it meaning
 - A signed integer, an unsigned integer, a RGB color, etc.
- A data type is a well-defined interpretation of a collection of bytes
- A high-level programming language should provide primitive data types
 - Facilitates abstraction
 - Facilitates manipulation via associated well-defined operators
 - Enables compiler to check for mixed types, inappropriate use of types, etc.

Primitive Data Types

- Issue: What primitive data types should C provide?
- Thought process
 - C should handle:
 - Integers
 - Characters
 - Character strings
 - Logical (alias Boolean) data
 - Floating-point numbers
 - C should be small/simple
- Decisions
 - Provide integer, character, and floating-point data types
 - Do not provide a character string data type (More on that later)
 - Do not provide a logical data type (More on that later)

Integer Data Types

- Issue: What integer data types should C provide?
- Thought process
 - For flexibility, should provide integer data types of various sizes
 - For portability at application level, should specify size of each data type
 - For portability at systems level, should define integral data types in terms of natural word size of computer
 - Primary use will be systems programming





Integer Data Types (cont.)

- Decisions
 - Provide three integer data types: short, int, and long
 - Do not specify sizes; instead:
 - int is natural word size
 - 2 <= bytes in short <= bytes in int <= bytes in long
- Incidentally, on lab machines using gcc209

Natural word size: 4 bytes

short:2 bytes

int:4 bytes

long:4 bytes

Integer Constants

- Issue: How should C represent integer constants?
- Thought process
 - People naturally use decimal
 - Systems programmers often use binary, octal, hexadecimal
- Decisions
 - Use decimal notation as default
 - Use "0" prefix to indicate octal notation
 - Use "0x" prefix to indicate hexadecimal notation
 - Do not allow binary notation; too verbose, error prone
 - Use "L" suffix to indicate long constant
 - Do not use a suffix to indicate short constant; instead must use cast
- Examples
 - int: 123, -123, 0173, 0x7B
 - long: 123L, -123L, 0173L, 0x7BL
 - short: (short) 123, (short) -123, (short) 0173, (short) 0x7B

Was that a good decision?

Unsigned Integer Data Types

- Issue: Should C have both signed and unsigned integer data types?
- Thought process
 - Must represent positive and negative integers
 - Signed types are essential
 - Unsigned data can be twice as large as signed data
 - Unsigned data could be useful
 - Unsigned data are good for bit-level operations
 - Bit-level operations are common in systems programming
 - Implementing both signed and unsigned data types is complex
 - Must define behavior when an expression involves both

Unsigned Integer Data Types (cont.)

Decisions

- Provide unsigned integer types: unsigned short, unsigned int, and unsigned long
- Conversion rules in mixed-type expressions are complex
 - Generally, mixing signed and unsigned converts signed to unsigned
 - See King book Section 7.4 for details

Was providing unsigned types a good decision?

Do you see any potential problems?

Unsigned Integer Constants

- Issue: How should C represent unsigned integer constants?
- Thought process
 - "L" suffix distinguishes long from int; also could use a suffix to distinguish signed from unsigned
 - Octal or hexadecimal probably are used with bit-level operators
- Decisions
 - Default is signed
 - Use "U" suffix to indicate unsigned
 - Integers expressed in octal or hexadecimal automatically are unsigned
- Examples
 - unsigned int: 123U, 0173, 0x7B
 - unsigned long: 123UL, 0173L, 0x7BL
 - unsigned short: (short)123U, (short)0173,
 (short)0x7B

There's More!

To be continued next lecture!