



The Design of C: A Rational Reconstruction

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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 (mostly) review of bits and numbers...

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Number Systems

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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

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But Really, Why Bits?



- **Speed**
 - Some things faster if you know what to do
 - Sometimes the compiler can do it, but not always
- **Control**
 - Knowing what you can do gives you an edge
 - A small edge might provide large gains
- **Example: Web Indexing (in-memory)**
 - Open source: 70 bytes/object
 - Commercial: 24 bytes/object
 - Research: 11 **bits**/object

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Base 10 and Base 2



- **Decimal (base 10)**
 - Each digit represents a power of 10
 - $4173 = 4 \times 10^3 + 1 \times 10^2 + 7 \times 10^1 + 3 \times 10^0$
- **Binary (base 2)**
 - Each bit represents a power of 2
 - $10110 = 1 \times 2^4 + 0 \times 2^3 + 1 \times 2^2 + 1 \times 2^1 + 0 \times 2^0 = 22$

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

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Writing Bits is Tedious for People



- Octal (base 8) – easy to write using a 10-key keypad
 - Digits 0, 1, ..., 7
- Hexadecimal (base 16) – easier to manipulate
 - Digits 0, 1, ..., 9, A, B, C, D, E, F

0000 = 0	1000 = 8
0001 = 1	1001 = 9
0010 = 2	1010 = A
0011 = 3	1011 = B
0100 = 4	1100 = C
0101 = 5	1101 = D
0110 = 6	1110 = E
0111 = 7	1111 = F

Thus the 16-bit binary number

1011 0010 1010 1001

converted to hex is

B2A9

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Representing Colors: RGB



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

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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 2^n
- Examples of unsigned integers
 - 00000001 \rightarrow 1
 - 00001111 \rightarrow 15
 - 00010000 \rightarrow 16
 - 00100001 \rightarrow 33
 - 11111111 \rightarrow 255

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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

	<u>Base 10</u>			<u>Base 2</u>		
	1	9	8	0	1	1
+	2	6	4	0	0	1
Sum	4	6	2	1	0	0
Carry	0	1	1	0	1	1

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Binary Sums and Carries



a	b	Sum
0	0	0
0	1	1
1	0	1
1	1	0

a	b	Carry
0	0	0
0	1	0
1	0	0
1	1	1

XOR
("exclusive OR")

AND

```

0100 0101 ← 69
+ 0110 0111 ← 103
-----
1010 1100 ← 172
    
```

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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 2^n doesn't change the answer
 - For eight-bit number, $n=8$ and $2^n=256$
 - E.g., $(37 + 256) \bmod 256$ is simply 37
- This can help us do subtraction...
 - Suppose you want to compute $a - b$
 - Note that this equals $a + (256 - 1 - b) + 1$

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One's and Two's Complement



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

$$\begin{array}{r}
 1111\ 1111 \\
 - 0100\ 0101 \quad \leftarrow b \\
 \hline
 1011\ 1010 \quad \leftarrow \text{one's complement}
 \end{array}$$

- Two's complement
 - Add 1 to the one's complement
 - E.g., (255 - 69) + 1 → 1011 1011

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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: 0110 0111
- Equals: 103 in decimal

$$\begin{array}{r}
 1010\ 1100 \\
 +1011\ 1011 \\
 \hline
 10110\ 0111
 \end{array}$$

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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**
 - One's complement
 - Flip every bit
 - E.g., 1101 0011 → -44
 - Two's complement
 - Flip every bit, then add 1
 - E.g., 1101 0100 → -44

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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

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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 $53 \& 15$;

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0	0	1	1	0	1	0	1
---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---

& 15

0	0	0	0	1	1	1	1
---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---

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0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---

• Bitwise OR (|)

	0	1
0	0	1
1	1	1

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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

^	0	1
0	0	1
1	1	0

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Bitwise Operators: Shift Left/Right



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

53 0 0 1 1 0 1 0 1

53<<2 1 1 0 1 0 0 0 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!

53 0 0 1 1 0 1 0 1

53>>2 0 0 0 0 1 1 0 1

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Example: Counting the 1's



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

0 0 1 1 0 1 0 1

- 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 $(n \& 1)$

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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;
}
```

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Number Systems 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

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The Main Event



The Design of C

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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

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The Goals of C (cont.)



The designers of 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

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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

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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...

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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 (or even bits in C)
- 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.

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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)

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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



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Integer Data Types (cont.)



- **Decisions**
 - Provide three integer data types: `short`, `int`, and `long`
 - Do not specify sizes; instead:
 - `int` is natural word size
 - $2 \leq \text{bytes in } \text{short} \leq \text{bytes in } \text{int} \leq \text{bytes in } \text{long}$
- **Incidentally, on hats using gcc217**
 - Natural word size: 4 bytes
 - `short`: 2 bytes
 - `int`: 4 bytes
 - `long`: 4 bytes

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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?

Why?

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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

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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?

What decision did the designers of Java make?

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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`

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To be continued...

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