

ECE 2400 Computer Systems Programming

Fall 2017

T03 C Types

School of Electrical and Computer Engineering
Cornell University

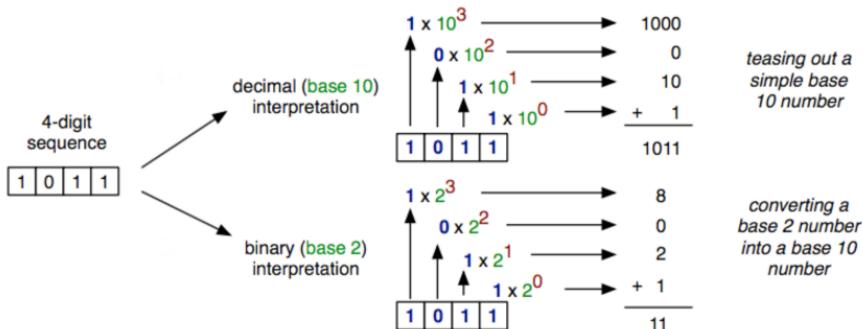
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- The **type** of a variable specifies
 - the meaning of the variable's value
 - how the variable's value should be stored in the computer
 - what operations are allowed on the variable
- Critical to keep concept of **types** separate from concept of **values**
- C is a **statically typed** language, meaning that the type of a variable must be known at compile time
- Keep in mind that no matter how complex the type, everything is ultimately stored as a binary number in the computer

1. Binary and Hexadecimal Numbers

Let's review decimal, binary, and hexadecimal number representations.



Convert the following decimal number into a binary and hexadecimal number:

300

Convert the following binary number into a hexadecimal and decimal number:

01101110

2. Basic Data Types

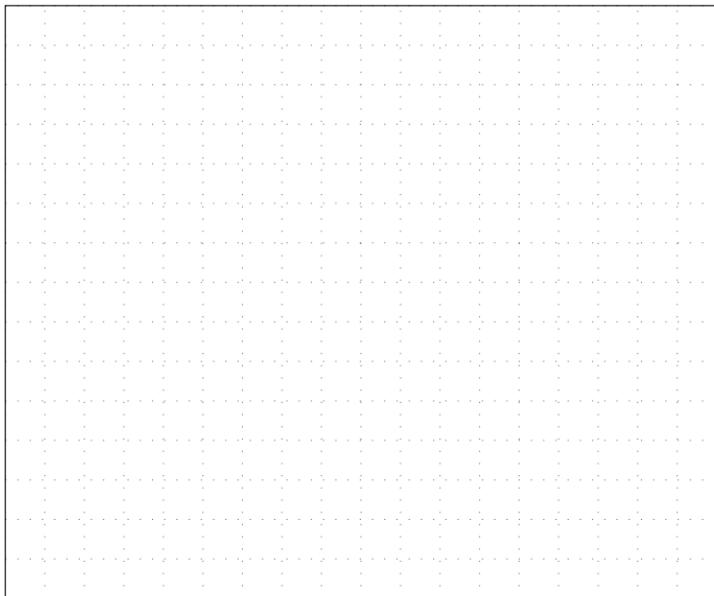
We will primarily use the following primitive C types:

- **int**: For representing signed and unsigned integer numbers
- **char**: For representing characters
- **float/double**: For representing real numbers

2.1. int Type

- **Meaning?** Integer whole number
- **Stored?** 32-bit two's complement binary representation
- **Operations?** Basic integer arithmetic

```
1 int avg( int x, int y )
2 {
3     int sum = x + y;
4     return sum / 2;
5 }
6
7 int main()
8 {
9     int a = 10;
10    int b = 20;
11    int c = avg( a, b );
12    return 0;
13 }
```

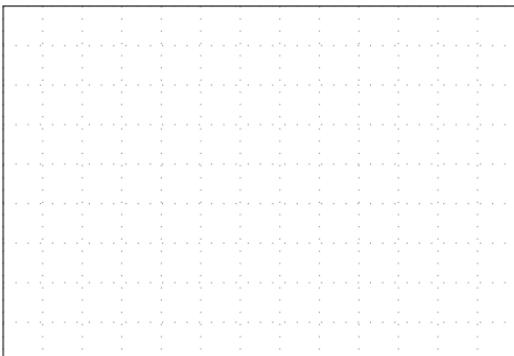


Signed vs. Unsigned Integers

- By default, an `int` is short-hand for the type `signed int` which can represent both positive and negative integers
- `unsigned int` can only represent positive integers

| Bits | Un-signed | Two's Comp |
|------|-----------|------------|
| 0000 | 0 | 0 |
| 0001 | 1 | 1 |
| 0010 | 2 | 2 |
| 0011 | 3 | 3 |
| 0100 | 4 | 4 |
| 0101 | 5 | 5 |
| 0110 | 6 | 6 |
| 0111 | 7 | 7 |
| 1000 | 8 | -8 |
| 1001 | 9 | -7 |
| 1010 | 10 | -6 |
| 1011 | 11 | -5 |
| 1100 | 12 | -4 |
| 1101 | 13 | -3 |
| 1110 | 14 | -2 |
| 1111 | 15 | -1 |

```
1 signed int a = 4;
2 signed int b = -1;
3 unsigned int a = 4;
4 unsigned int b = 4294967295;
```



Overflow and Underflow

- Assume we have a signed 4-bit binary number
- Can store values from -8 to 7
- Adding one to 7 in a four-bit binary number = **overflow**
- Subtracting one from -8 in a four-bit binary number = **underflow**

- An int is a signed 32-bit binary number
- Can store values between -2,147,483,648 to 2,147,483,647
- What happens if you add one to 2,147,483,647?
- What happens if you subtract one from -2,147,483,648?
- An unsigned int is an unsigned 32-bit binary number
- Can store values from 0 to 4,294,967,295
- What happens if you add one to 4,294,967,295?
- What happens if you subtract one from 0?

```
1 #include <stdio.h>
2
3 int main()
4 {
5     int a = 2147483647;
6     int b = a + 1;
7     printf("%d (%x)\n",b,b);
8
9     int c = -2147483648;
10    int d = c - 1;
11    printf("%d (%x)\n",d,d);
12
13    unsigned int e = 4294967295;
14    unsigned int f = e + 1;
15    printf("%u (%x)\n",f,f);
16
17    unsigned int g = 0;
18    unsigned int h = g - 1;
19    printf("%u (%x)\n",h,h);
20
21    return 0;
22 }
```

<http://cpp.sh/92fvq>

- New format specifiers for hexadecimal (%x) and unsigned int (%u)

2.2. char Type

- **Meaning?** Character in a “word”
- **Stored?** 8-bit binary representation using ASCII standard
- **Operations?** Basic integer arithmetic

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|----|---|----|----------|----|----------|----|----------|----|----------|----|----------|-----|----------|-----|----------|
| 40 | (| 50 | 2 | 60 | < | 70 | F | 80 | P | 90 | Z | 100 | d | 110 | n |
| 41 |) | 51 | 3 | 61 | = | 71 | G | 81 | Q | 91 | [| 101 | e | 111 | o |
| 42 | * | 52 | 4 | 62 | > | 72 | H | 82 | R | 92 | \ | 102 | f | 112 | p |
| 43 | + | 53 | 5 | 63 | ? | 73 | I | 83 | S | 93 |] | 103 | g | 113 | q |
| 44 | , | 54 | 6 | 64 | @ | 74 | J | 84 | T | 94 | ^ | 104 | h | 114 | r |
| 45 | - | 55 | 7 | 65 | A | 75 | K | 85 | U | 95 | - | 105 | i | 115 | s |
| 46 | . | 56 | 8 | 66 | B | 76 | L | 86 | V | 96 | _ | 106 | j | 116 | t |
| 47 | / | 57 | 9 | 67 | C | 77 | M | 87 | W | 97 | a | 107 | k | 117 | u |
| 48 | 0 | 58 | : | 68 | D | 78 | N | 88 | X | 98 | b | 108 | l | 118 | v |
| 49 | 1 | 59 | ; | 69 | E | 79 | O | 89 | Y | 99 | c | 109 | m | 119 | w |

```
1 char a = 'e';
2 char b = 'c';
3 char c = 'e';
```

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . |
| . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . |
| . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . |
| . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . |
| . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . |
| . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . |
| . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . |
| . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . |
| . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . |
| . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . |
| . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . |
| . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . |
| . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . |
| . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . |
| . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . |

```
1 #include <stdio.h>
2
3 int main()
4 {
5     char a = 'e';
6     char b = 'c';
7     char c = 'e';
8     printf("%c%c%c\n",a,b,c);
9     return 0;
10 }
```

- New format specifier for char (%c)

2.3. float/double Type

- How can we represent real numbers?
- One option is to use *fixed-point* representation, e.g., 4-bit fixed point with 2-bit integer part and 2-bit fractional part

- Problem with fixed point is it provides a relatively small range; does not enable representing very small nor very large numbers
- An alternative is to use *floating-point* representation, where there is no fixed number of digits before and after the binary point

- C floating-point representation for float/double uses an IEEE standard where each number has three fields: **sign bit** (s), **mantissa** (m), and **exponent** (e)

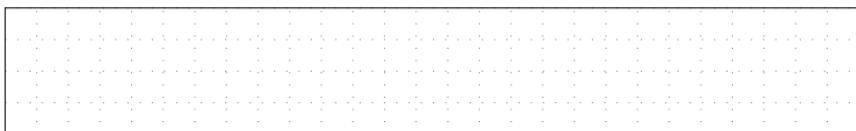
$$(-1)^s \times m \times 2^e$$

- Both very small and very large numbers can be represented

| Number | s | m | e | Floating-Point Representation |
|--------|---|-------|----|-----------------------------------|
| 2.75 | 0 | 1.375 | 1 | $(-1)^0 \times 1.375 \times 2^1$ |
| -2.75 | 1 | 1.375 | 1 | $(-1)^1 \times 1.375 \times 2^1$ |
| 1536 | 0 | 1.5 | 10 | $(-1)^0 \times 1.5 \times 2^{10}$ |
| 0.1875 | 0 | 1.5 | -3 | $(-1)^0 \times 1.5 \times 2^{-3}$ |

- float uses 32 bits and double uses 64 bits to encode real numbers
- Binary encoding of the mantissa and exponent is a little more complex than a straight-forward two's complement encoding
 - The exponent is encoded using a bias, so the stored value is actually $e + 127$ (e.g., to represent 1, store $1 + 127 = 128$)
 - The integer portion of the mantissa is always assumed to be 1 so we only need to store the fractional portion of the mantissa (e.g., a mantissa of 1.375 is allowed, but a mantissa of 2.75 is not allowed)

```
1 float a = 2.75;
```



```
1 float avg( float x, float y )
2 {
3     float sum = x + y;
4     return sum / 2;
5 }
6
7 int main()
8 {
9     float a = 10;
10    float b = 15;
11    float c = avg( a, b );
12    return 0;
13 }
```

<https://www.h-schmidt.net/FloatConverter/IEEE754.html>

- There is an infinite number of values between 0 and 1
- float/double have a finite number of bits (precision)
- float is 32-bit and represents **single-precision floating point**
- double is 64-bit and represents **double-precision floating point**
- Limited bits can cause overflow/underflow, but limited precision can also cause other strange behavior

```
1 #include <stdio.h>
2
3 float avg( float x, float y )
4 {
5     float sum = x + y;
6     return sum / 2;
7 }
8
9 int main()
10 {
11     float a = 0.2;
12     float b = 0.4;
13     float c = avg( a, b );
14     printf(" average of %f and %f is %f\n", a, b, c );
15
16     if ( c == 0.3 )
17         printf(" the average is 0.3\n" );
18     else
19         printf(" the average is not 0.3\n" );
20
21     return 0;                                http://cpp.sh/8n6buk
22 }
```

- New format specifier for float/double (%f)
- Can also use %m.nf with n decimal places and m minimum width

3. Programmer-Defined Types

In addition to the default types that are included as part of the C programming language (e.g., `int`, `unsigned int`, `char`, `float`, `double`), C also enables programmers to define their own new types.

3.1. Typedefs

- A `typedef` actually does *not* define a new type
- A `typedef` simply provides a new alias for an already defined type

```
1  typedef type_name new_type_name;
```

- The following code is perfectly fine

```
1  typedef unsigned int uint_t;
2  uint_t a = 2;
3  uint_t b = 3;
4  unsigned int c = a + b;
```

3.2. struct Types

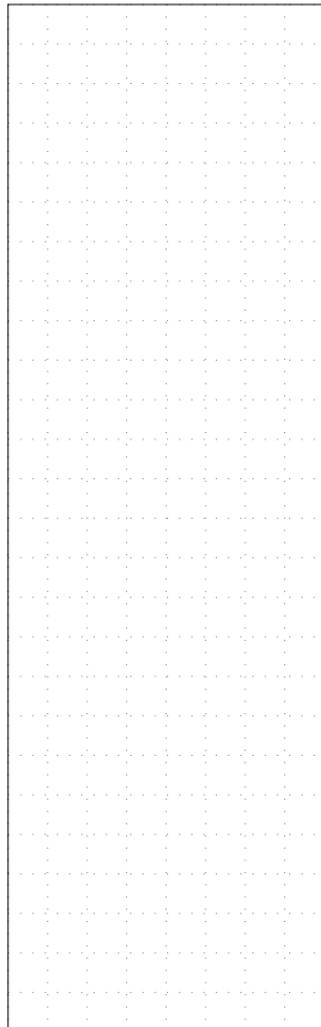
- A `struct` enables bundling multiple variables into a single entity
- A `struct definition` creates a new type and specifies the type and names of the variables contained within the `struct`

```
1  struct _complex_t                                1  typedef struct
2  {                                                 2  {
3    double real;                               3    double real;
4    double imag;                             4    double imag;
5  };                                              5  }
6  typedef struct _complex_t complex_t;          6  complex_t;
```

- Struct definitions are at global scope just like function definitions

- Struct declaration statement simply creates multiple variables on the stack in a single statement

```
1  typedef struct
2  {
3      int x;
4      int y;
5  }
6  point_t;
7
8  point_t point_add( point_t pt1,
9                      point_t pt2 )
10 {
11     point_t pt3;
12     pt3.x = pt1.x + pt2.x;
13     pt3.y = pt1.y + pt2.y;
14     return pt3;
15 }
16
17 int main()
18 {
19     point_t pt_a;
20     pt_a.x = 2;
21     pt_a.y = 3;
22
23     point_t pt_b = { 4, 5 };
24
25     point_t pt_c;
26     pt_c = point_add( pt_a, pt_b );
27
28     return 0;
29 }
```



3.3. enum Types

- An enum enables creating multiple named constants

```
1 #include <stdio.h>
2
3 enum color_t
4 {
5     COLOR_RED,
6     COLOR_ORANGE,
7     COLOR_YELLOW,
8     COLOR_GREEN,
9     COLOR_BLUE,
10    COLOR_PURPLE
11 };
12
13 void print_color( color_t color )
14 {
15     switch ( color ) {
16         case COLOR_RED:    printf("red\n");      break;
17         case COLOR_ORANGE: printf("orange\n");   break;
18         case COLOR_YELLOW: printf("yellow\n");   break;
19         case COLOR_GREEN:  printf("green\n");    break;
20         case COLOR_BLUE:   printf("blue\n");     break;
21         case COLOR_PURPLE: printf("purple\n");  break;
22     }
23 }
24
25 int main()
26 {
27     print_color( COLOR_RED );
28     print_color( COLOR_BLUE );
29     return 0;
30 }
```

4. Working With Types

Types can offer strong static guarantees about correctness, but also need to be carefully managed.

4.1. Type Checking

- Compiler will check to ensure types are consistent
- Inconsistent types will cause a compile-time error

```
1  typedef struct
2  {
3      int x;
4      int y;
5  }
6  point_t;
7
8  point_t point_add( point_t pt1,
9                      point_t pt2 )
10 {
11     point_t pt3;
12     pt3.x = pt1.x + pt2.x;
13     pt3.y = pt1.y + pt2.y;
14     return pt3;
15 }
16
17 int main()
18 {
19     int a = 2;
20     int b = 3;
21     point_t pt_c = point_add( a, b );
22     return 0;
23 }
```

<http://cpp.sh/3ecpv>

4.2. Type Inference

- Compiler uses **type inference** to determine type of an expression

```
1 int a = 2;
2 int b = 3;
3 int c = a + b;           // expr (a + b) has type int
4 int d = a / b;           // expr (a / b) has type int
5
6 float e = 2.0;
7 float f = 3.0;
8 float g = e + f;         // expr (e + f) has type float
9 float h = e / f;         // expr (e / f) has type float
```

4.3. Type Conversion

- Compiler uses **type conversion** if variables have different types
- Compiler must convert types so they match
- Lower precision types can be converted to higher precision types
- Higher precision types can be converted to lower precision types

```
1 signed int a = 147483647;
2 unsigned int b = a;           // no issue
3
4 signed int a = -1;
5 unsigned int b = a;           // careful! b == 4294967295
6
7 int a = 2;                   // no issue, b == 2.0
8 float b = a;
9
10 float a = 2.5;
11 double b = a;               // no issue, b == 2.5
12
13 float a = 2.5;
14 int b = a;                  // careful! b == 2
15
16 double a = 2.5;
17 float b = a;                // ok here, but be careful!
18
19 int a = 2;
20 float b = 3;
21 float c = a + b;             // expr (a + b) has type float
22 float d = a / b;             // expr (a / b) has type float
23
24 unsigned int a = 2;
25 signed int b = -3;
26 unsigned int c = a * b;        // expr (e * f) has type signed int
```

- The following example illustrates automatic type conversion

```
1 #include <stdio.h>
2
3 int avg( int x, int y )
4 {
5     int sum = x + y;
6     return sum / 2;
7 }
8
9 int main()
10 {
11     float a = 10;
12     float b = 15;
13     float c = avg( a, b );
14     printf(" average of %f and %f is %f\n", a, b, c );
15     return 0;
16 }
```

<http://cpp.sh/927j3>

4.4. Type Casting

- Programmers can use **type casting** to explicitly convert types

```
1 #include <stdio.h>
2
3 float avg( int x, int y )
4 {
5     int sum = x + y;
6     return ((float) sum) / 2.0;
7 }
8
9 int main()
10 {
11     float a = 10;
12     float b = 15;
13     float c = avg( a, b );
14     printf(" average of %f and %f is %f\n", a, b, c );
15     return 0;
16 }
```

<http://cpp.sh/8m7oi>

- Type of LHS not part of type conversion rules ...
- ... so just specifying a return type of `float` in `avg` is not enough
- Could specify the type of `sum` to be `float` ...
- ... or use type casting to cast an `int` into a `float`