

# Lecture 03

# Build System + Pointers

CS211 – Fundamentals of Computer Programming II  
Branden Ghen a – Fall 2021

Slides adapted from:  
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# Administrivia

- Campuswire access
  - If you do not have access to campuswire, email me ASAP
- Homework submissions
  - Be sure to make a Gradescope account ASAP
    - You should have gotten an email
  - You may submit your homework any number of times
  - For this assignment, we won't take away points for spaces vs. tabs

# Today's Goals

- Catch up on various C details
  - Compilation steps
  - Pre-processor
  - Make
- Begin introducing pointers in C
  - Why do they exist?
  - What are they useful for?
  - How do we use them?

# Getting files for today's lecture

```
cd ~/cs211/lec/          (or wherever you put stuff)
```

```
tar -xkvf ~cs211/lec/03_pointers.tgz
```

```
cd 03_pointers/
```

# Outline

- **Potpourri**
- Separate Compilation
- C Pre-Processor
- Makefiles
  
- What are pointers?
- Why are pointers?
- Variable lifetimes

# Shell command: sudo

- Superuser do
  - Executes a command with special administrator privilege (superuser)
  - Necessary for installing new programs and modifying the OS
- Run it before a command to execute that command as a superuser
  - Example: `sudo rm -rf /` (don't run this!)
- You can only use `sudo` on computers where you are an admin
  - Only use with caution and care. It can destroy your computer
  - You'll never need it for class stuff
  - You are NOT an admin on the class servers! (neither am I)

# sudo example

```
branden@moore:~% sudo echo "Sorry Pred, I'm testing this for CS211."
```

```
We trust you have received the usual lecture from the local System Administrator. It usually boils down to these three things:
```

- #1) Respect the privacy of others.
- #2) Think before you type.
- #3) With great power comes great responsibility.

```
[sudo] password for branden:
```

# sudo example

```
branden@moore:~% sudo echo "Sorry Pred, I'm testing this for CS211."  
We trust you have received the usual lecture from the local System  
Administrator. It usually boils down to these three things:  
  
#1) Respect the privacy of others.  
#2) Think before you type.  
#3) With great power comes great responsibility.  
  
[sudo] password for branden:  
branden is not in the sudoers file. This incident will be reported.  
branden@moore:~ [1]%
```



# C comments

- `//` means a single-line comment
- `/*` starts a multiline comment, which continues until `*/`
  
- How to use comments effectively
  - Comment “blocks” of code with their purpose
    - Every line is too much
    - Often helpful to write the comments before the code as planning
  - Comment tricky bits of code so you know what it means
    - You + several weeks = “what does that code mean?!”

# Signed vs unsigned variables

- All “integer” types in C can be signed or unsigned
  - char, short, int, long, etc.
  - Unsigned: only zero or positive
  - Signed: negative, zero, or positive
  - Signed is the default! If it doesn't say, it's usually signed
    - An exception is `size_t` which is unsigned
- Comparing signed and unsigned numbers generates a warning
  - Should make sure they're the same before comparing

# Temporarily changing types while comparing

- You can cast a variable to another type during an expression
  - To cast, put a type in parentheses before the variable name

- **Example**

```
int i = 0;           //int is signed by default
size_t length = 5;  //size_t is unsigned

if (i > length) {    // warning here!
    printf("Too big!\n");
}
```

# Temporarily changing types while comparing

- You can cast a variable to another type during an expression
  - To cast, put a type in parentheses before the variable name

- **Example**

```
int i = 0;           //int is signed by default
size_t length = 5;  //size_t is unsigned

if (i > (int)length) { // no warning anymore!
    printf("Too big!\n");
}
```

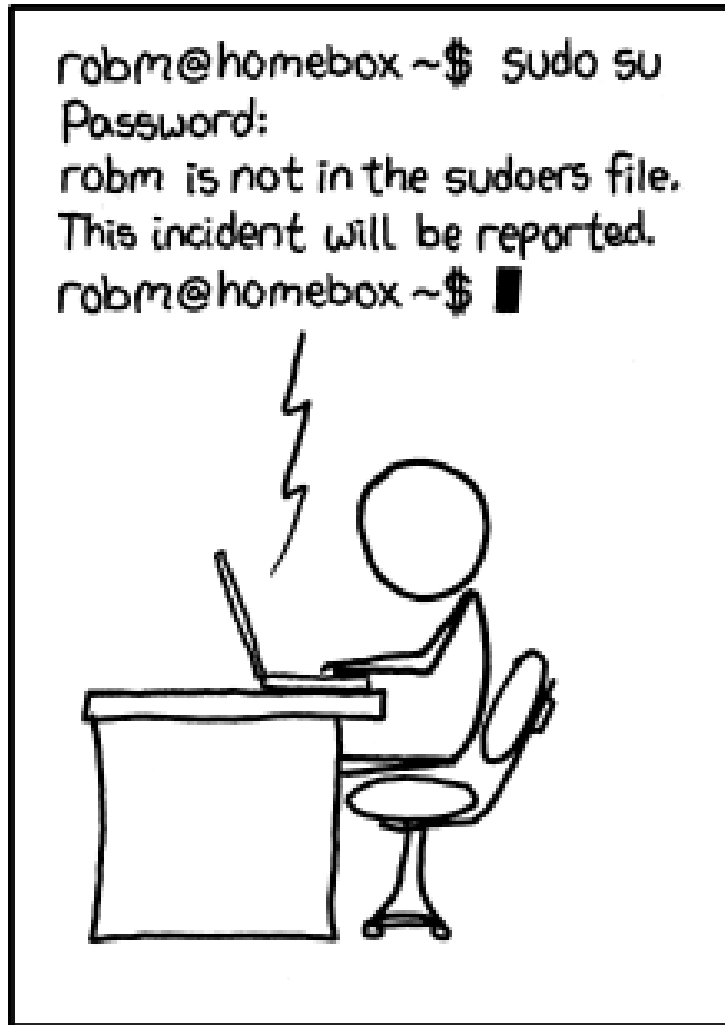
## `typedef` can be used to make new C type names

- `typedef` creates a new type name that is a copy of an existing type
- `typedef` keyword is followed by two types
  - First type: the original type name
  - Second type: the new type name

- **Example:**

```
typedef int x_coordinate_t;  
x_coordinate_t my_variable = 5;
```

# Break + relevant xkcd

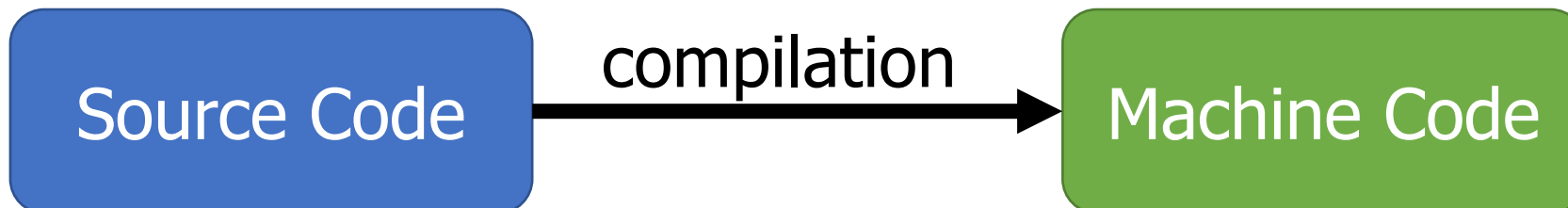


# Outline

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- **Separate Compilation**
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- Makefiles
  
- What are pointers?
- Why are pointers?
- Variable lifetimes

# Problems with compilation

- Two issues
  - Big programs take a very long time to compile
  - How can we reuse our functions in multiple programs?
- Let's focus on that second issue. It would be nice to:
  1. Write some functions in one file
  2. Call those functions from multiple programs (other files)





# Solution: multiple C files

- You can write code in any number of different C files
  - And combine them together while compiling
- But we need some way to tell C code in one file about the existence of C code in another file
  - Solution: header files (.h)
  - Header files list all the publicly available functions and variables from a C file
    - Usually, there is a .c and .h file for various libraries
  - Header files are `#include`-ed at the top of your C file

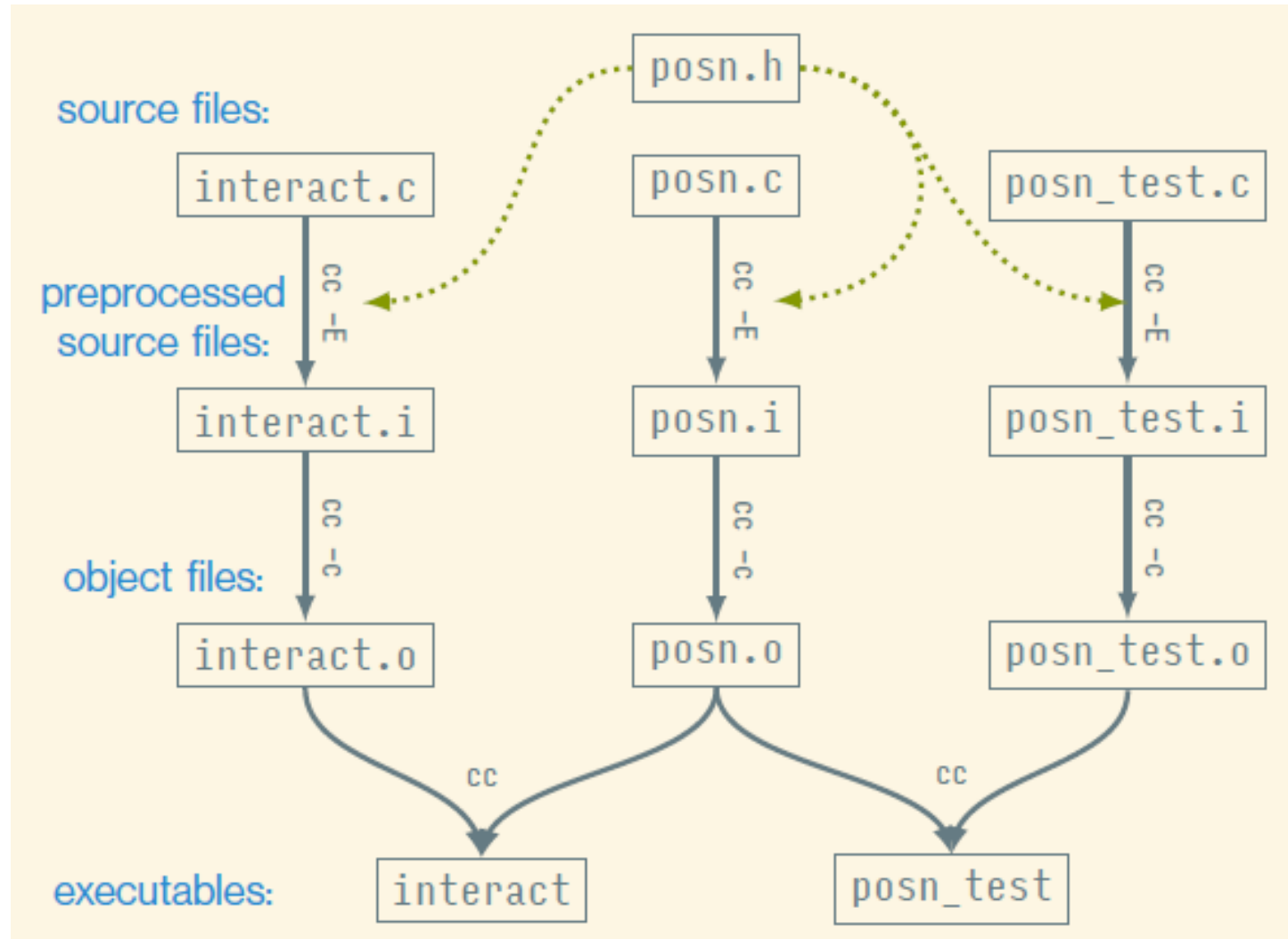
# Compiling multiple C files

- Each C file is compiled separately
- Then combine multiple together into a single program
  
- Compilers have a middle step: object files (.o)
  - Still not human readable
  - Meant to be joined together into a single executable

# General C project layout

- `src/`
  - Various code that actually runs your project
- `test/`
  - Various code that tests your files in `src/`
- We separate code in `src/` into two categories
  - The executable, which has a `main()` function and not much else
    - Named whatever your executable is, but with a `.c`
    - Example: `overlapped.c`
  - Libraries which have both `.c` and `.h` files
    - Example: `circle.c` and `circle.h`

# Example of multiple compilation



# Outline

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- **C Pre-Processor**
- Makefiles
  
- What are pointers?
- Why are pointers?
- Variable lifetimes

# C pre-processor

- Reads in the text of your source code
- Does some initial text-based manipulations to the code
  - Prepares everything for the compiler

# C reads files from the top down

- First important thing to know about the pre-processor/compiler
  - They read from the top of the file down
  - Functions that don't exist when you try to call them are an error
- How would we write this code then?

```
void a(void) {  
    b();  
}
```

```
void b(void) {  
    a();  
}
```

# Function declaration

- You can inform the compiler about functions that will later be defined
  - You are telling the C compiler: “here’s what this other function looks like, you’ll get details about how it works later”
  - Very useful for libraries that you are using
- A function **declaration** in C includes the return type, name, and argument types
  - Examples:

```
void a(void);  
struct circle read_circle(void);
```
- A function **definition** in C also includes the body of the function



# Header files are collections of declarations

- You could manually type out the declaration for each function you want to use at the top of your C file
- Instead, we create “Header files” (.h) that hold all the function declarations for functions in the associated .c file
- `#include`-ing a header file tells the pre-processor to paste its contents
  - The same as if you had typed them in the top of the file yourself
  - Leads to weird errors sometimes if you mess up a header file
  - Be sure to only include header files!

# What else can the pre-processor do?

- Macros
  - Text substitutions made by the pre-processor
- Compile-time code inclusion
  - Determine which code is actually compiled based on flags
- Pragma
  - Special commands to the compiler

# C macros

```
#define NAME_OF_MACRO value_of_macro
```

- **Examples:**

```
#define LENGTH 20
```

```
#define FAIL_MESSAGE "There was an error!\n"
```

- The pre-processor pastes the text of the "value" wherever it finds the macro "name" in the source code
  - Useful for defining values that will be used in code
  - Again, be careful about weird bugs here!

# Macro functions

- Macros can be used as functions as well

```
#define DEBUG(msg) printf(msg)
```

```
#define MIN(a, b) ((a < b) ? a : b)
```

- Generally, avoid this
  - You could just write a C function to do the operation instead
    - And the compiler will check this for errors better
  - It can be tricky to get right

# Example of macro function trickiness

```
#define ADD(a, b) a+b
```

```
int x = ADD(3,4)*5; // Expects 7*5=35
```

- The pre-processor will expand this to:

```
int x = 3+4*5; // Expects 7*5=35
```

- Extra parentheses around the macro value prevent this issue

```
#define ADD(a, b) (a+b)
```

# Ifdef in C

- The pre-processor evaluates the statement before compilation and either includes or removes the text
  - Useful because the code literally does not exist if removed

```
#ifdef DEBUG
    printf("Debug message here\n");
#endif
```

- Ifdef hell: when you can't figure out which C code is actually being compiled due to too many `#ifdefs`

# Pragma examples

- Pragmas tell the C compiler to do something
  - Turn on/off warnings
  - Various compiler tricks that are important for low-level OS code
- Most common example: `#pragma` once at the top of each header
  - Tells the compiler to track this file and only paste it in a given C file once
  - Otherwise could end up with a bunch of different copies
- Old C code uses `#ifdef` at the top of header files for the same task
  - Paired with an `#endif` at the very bottom of the file

# Examples

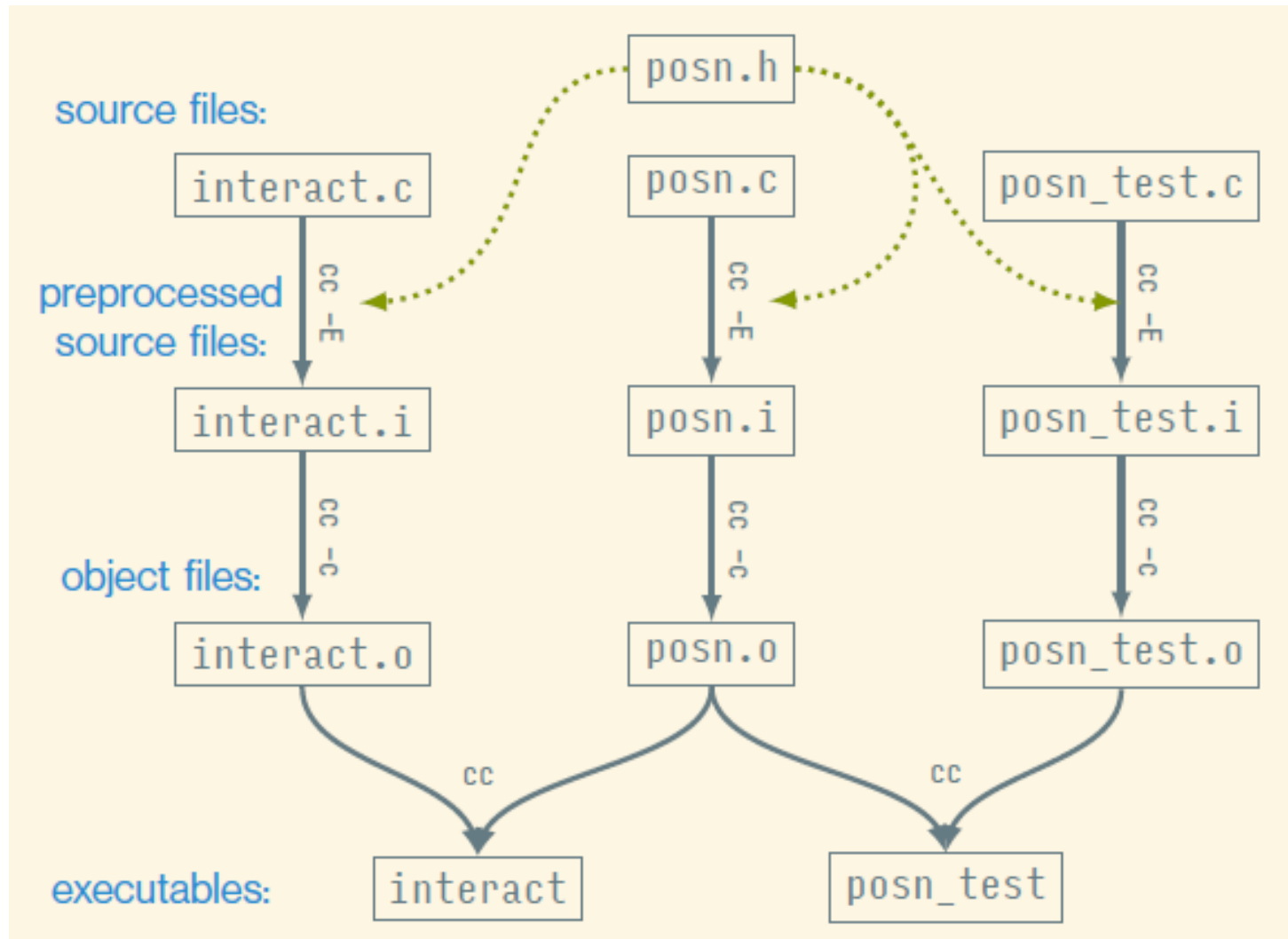
- The `-E` flag tells the compiler to only run the pre-processor
- In homework01
  - `cc -E src/overlapped.c -o overlapped.i`
    - Note that header files are included
    - Note that some functions are only definitions right now
  - Also give an example of a macro substitution



# Outline

- Potpourri
- Separate Compilation
- C Pre-Processor
- **Makefiles**
- What are pointers?
- Why are pointers?
- Variable lifetimes

# New problem, how do you remember all these steps?



And this doesn't even include various flags we give to the compiler, such as the location of the `211.h` library

# Simplifying multiple compilation with Make

- Make is a tool for building programs out of multiple source files
  - Allows you to specify goals and requirements as “rules”
  - And then runs the compiler to fulfill those
- To build a file named `<goal>` using make, you run:  
`make <goal>`
- `Make` looks around the current directory for a file named `Makefile` which specifies the various rules
  - We’ll provide the `Makefile` for you in this class
  - But you’ll have to use `make` to compile your programs

# What does a `make` rule look like?

- A rule has a goal and pre-requisites for the goal
  - And then specifies commands to create the goal given the pre-requisites

```
⟨goal⟩: ⟨prereqs⟩. . .  
    ⟨commands⟩  
    . . .
```

- **Example:**

```
hello: hello.c  
    cc -o hello hello.c
```

## Bonus: Makefile for building interact and posn\_test

- Take a look at these if you want to understand the Makefile for the interact and posn\_test programs from today's lecture files
  - `~cs211/lec/03_pointers`

# Bonus: Makefile for building interact and posn\_test

- These rules encode the dependency diagram from a few slides back (but with preprocessing and translation combined)

```
interact: interact.o posn.o
    cc -o interact interact.o posn.o
```

```
posn_test: posn_test.o posn.o
    cc -o posn_test posn_test.o posn.o
```

```
interact.o: interact.c posn.h
    cc -c -o interact.o interact.c
```

```
posn_test.o: posn_test.c posn.h
    cc -c -o posn_test.o posn_test.c
```

```
posn.o: posn.c posn.h
    cc -c -o posn.o posn.c
```

# Bonus: Makefile for building interact and posn\_test

- Good programmers are lazy and hate repetition. So much repetition here!

```
interact: interact.o posn.o
    cc -o interact interact.o posn.o
```

```
posn_test: posn_test.o posn.o
    cc -o posn_test posn_test.o posn.o
```

```
interact.o: interact.c posn.h
    cc -c -o interact.o interact.c
```

```
posn_test.o: posn_test.c posn.h
    cc -c -o posn_test.o posn_test.c
```

```
posn.o: posn.c posn.h
    cc -c -o posn.o posn.c
```

# Bonus: Makefile for building interact and posn\_test

- You don't have to repeat the goal in each recipe
  - It's better to use the special variable `$$` instead

```
interact: interact.o posn.o
    cc -o $$ interact.o posn.o
```

```
posn_test: posn_test.o posn.o
    cc -o $$ posn_test.o posn.o
```

```
interact.o: interact.c posn.h
    cc -c -o $$ interact.c
```

```
posn_test.o: posn_test.c posn.h
    cc -c -o $$ posn_test.c
```

```
posn.o: posn.c posn.h
    cc -c -o $$ posn.c
```



# Bonus: Makefile for building interact and posn\_test

- Similarly,  $\$^{\wedge}$  is a variable that stands for the prerequisites
  - Or  $\$<$  when you only want the *first* prerequisite

```
interact: interact.o posn.o
    cc -o $@ $^
```

```
posn_test: posn_test.o posn.o
    cc -o $@ $^
```

```
interact.o: interact.c posn.h
    cc -c -o $@ $<
```

```
posn_test.o: posn_test.c posn.h
    cc -c -o $@ $<
```

```
posn.o: posn.c posn.h
    cc -c -o $@ $<
```

# Bonus: Makefile for building interact and posn\_test

- Now note that the bottom three compilation rules are the same except for the filename. We can replace them with a pattern rule

```
interact: interact.o posn.o
    cc -o $@ $^
```

```
posn_test: posn_test.o posn.o
    cc -o $@ $^
```

```
interact.o: interact.c posn.h
    cc -c -o $@ $<
```

```
posn_test.o: posn_test.c posn.h
    cc -c -o $@ $<
```

```
posn.o: posn.c posn.h
    cc -c -o $@ $<
```

# Bonus: Makefile for building interact and posn\_test

- This pattern says we can build any .o file from a matching .c file

```
interact: interact.o posn.o
```

```
cc -o $@ $^
```

```
posn_test: posn_test.o posn.o
```

```
cc -o $@ $^
```

```
%.o: %.c posn.h
```

```
cc -c -o $@ $<
```

# Bonus: Makefile for building interact and posn\_test

- That pattern is pretty generic except for the reliance on posn.h
  - Let's break that out into a separate rule

```
interact: interact.o posn.o
    cc -o $@ $^
```

```
posn_test: posn_test.o posn.o
    cc -o $@ $^
```

```
%.o: %.c
    cc -c -o $@ $<
```

```
interact.o posn_test.o posn.o: posn.h
```

# Bonus: Makefile for building interact and posn\_test

- And we really out to make the compiler used a variable
  - Then others could change it out if desired

```
interact: interact.o posn.o
    $(CC) -o $@ $^
```

```
posn_test: posn_test.o posn.o
    $(CC) -o $@ $^
```

```
%.o: %.c
    $(CC) -c -o $@ $<
```

```
interact.o posn_test.o posn.o: posn.h
```

# Bonus: Makefile for building interact and posn\_test

- Finally, there are often compiler options we want to pass in
  - Here are the standard variables for holding those

```
interact: interact.o posn.o
    $(CC) -o $@ $^ $(CFLAGS) $(LDFLAGS)
```

```
posn_test: posn_test.o posn.o
    $(CC) -o $@ $^ $(CFLAGS) $(LDFLAGS)
```

```
%.o: %.c
    $(CC) -c -o $@ $< $(CPPFLAGS) $(CFLAGS)
```

```
interact.o posn_test.o posn.o: posn.h
```

# Break + Question

- Let's combine things we've learned

- **Typedef:**

```
typedef old_type new_type;
```

- **Structs:**

```
struct name {  
    type1 field1;  
    type2 field2;  
};
```

- What does this do?

```
typedef struct posn {  
    double xcoor;  
    double ycoor;  
} posn_t;
```

# Break + Question

- Let's combine things we've learned

- **Typedef:**

```
typedef old_type new_type;
```

- **Structs:**

```
struct name {  
    type1 field1;  
    type2 field2;  
};
```

- What does this do?

```
typedef struct posn {  
    double xcoor;  
    double ycoor;  
} posn_t;
```

- Creates a new struct type, and typedefs it so you can refer to it as a "posn\_t" or as "struct posn"



# Break + Question

- What does this do?

```
typedef struct posn {  
    double xcoor;  
    double ycoor;  
} posn_t;
```

- Creates a new struct type, and typedefs it so you can refer to it as a "posn\_t" or as "struct posn"

- You can go one step further

```
typedef struct {  
    double xcoor;  
    double ycoor;  
} posn_t;
```

- Now the struct is *anonymous* and can only be referred to as the new type "posn\_t"

# Outline

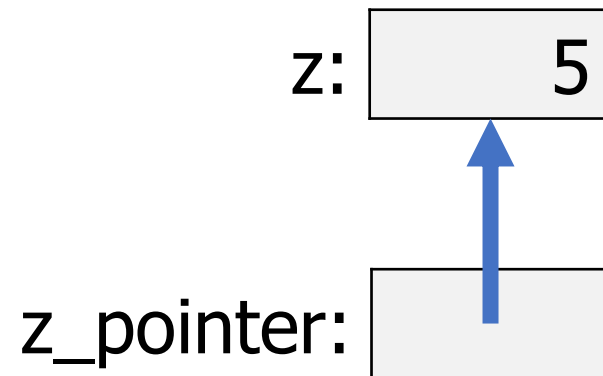
- Potpourri
- Separate Compilation
- C Pre-Processor
- Makefiles
- **What are pointers?**
- Why are pointers?
- Variable lifetimes

# Remember: values, objects, and variables

- **Values** are the actual information we want to work with
  - Numbers, Strings, Images, etc.
  - Example: 3 is an `int` value
- An **object** is a chunk of memory that can hold a value of a particular type.
  - Example: function `f` has a parameter `int x`
    - Each type `f` is called, a “fresh” object that can hold an `int` is “created”
- A **variable** is the name of an object
- Assigning to a variable changes the *value* stored in the object named by the variable

# Pointers are another type of value

- Values could be a number, like 5 or 6.27
- Or they could be a “pointer” to an **object**
  - Points at the object, not the variable or value
  - It points at the “chunk of memory”
    - Technically, in C it holds the address of that memory

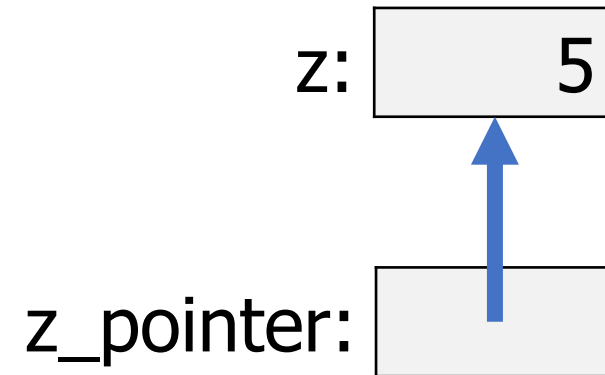


# C syntax for pointers

- Pointers are a family of types
  - Each pointer is an existing C type, followed by a \*
- To get the pointer to an existing variable, use the & operator
  - Returns the address of that variable

- Example:

```
int z = 5;  
int* z_pointer = &z;
```



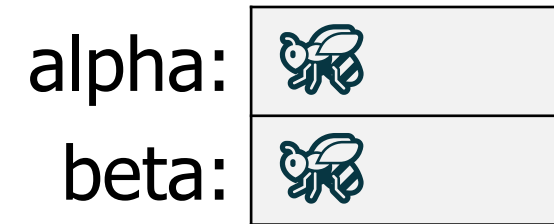
# Longer pointer example

```
1. double alpha;
```

alpha: 

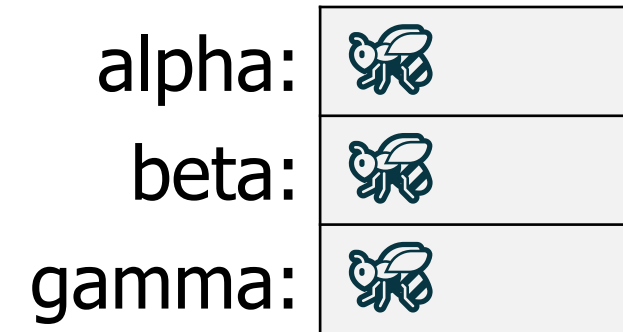
# Longer pointer example

1. `double alpha;`
2. `double* beta;`



# Longer pointer example

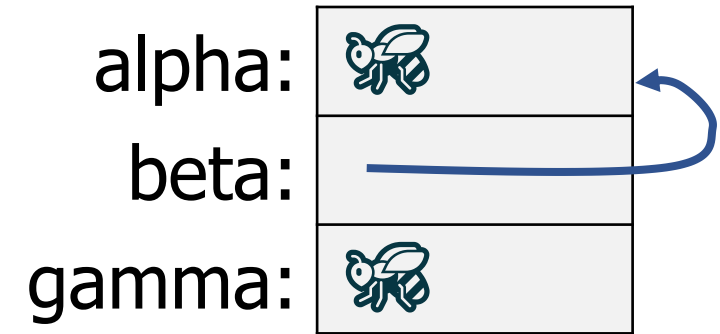
```
1. double alpha;  
2. double* beta;  
3. double* gamma;
```





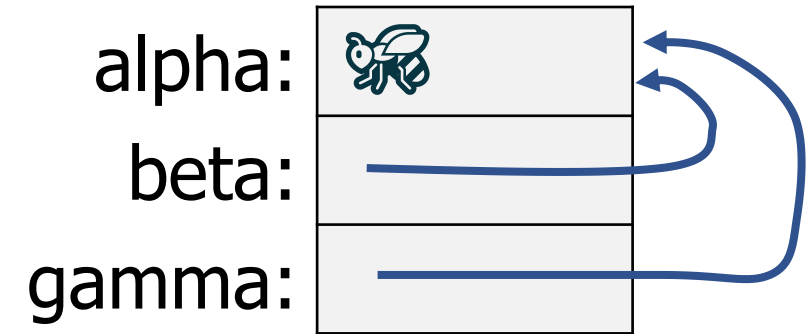
# Longer pointer example

```
1. double alpha;  
2. double* beta;  
3. double* gamma;  
4. beta = &alpha;
```



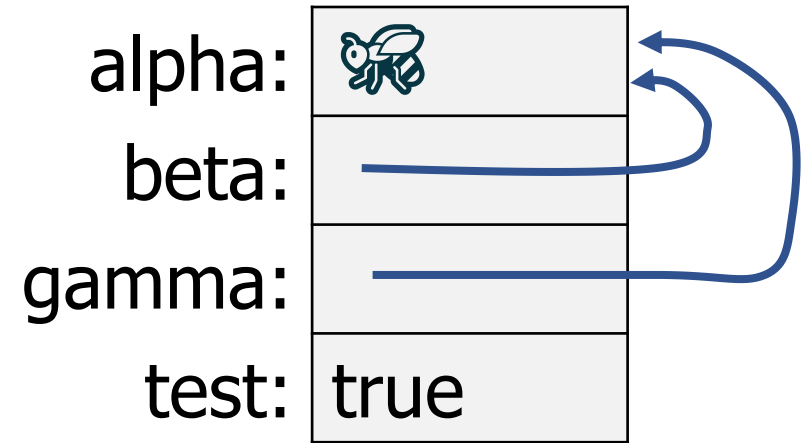
# Longer pointer example

```
1. double alpha;  
2. double* beta;  
3. double* gamma;  
4. beta = &alpha;  
5. gamma = &alpha;
```



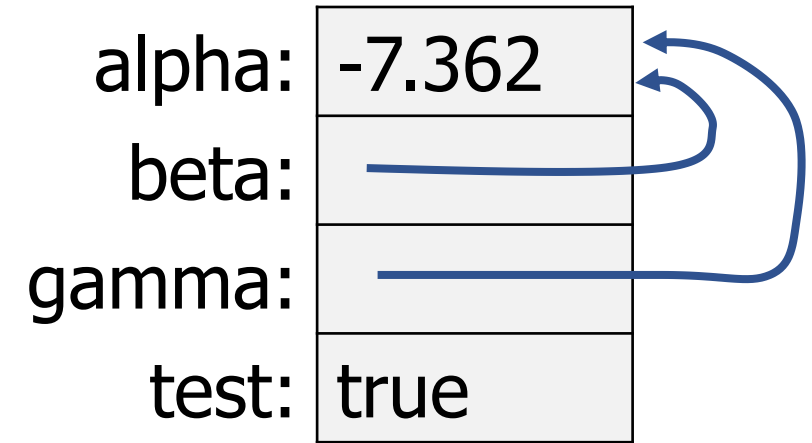
# Longer pointer example

```
1. double alpha;  
2. double* beta;  
3. double* gamma;  
4. beta = &alpha;  
5. gamma = &alpha;  
6. bool test = (beta == gamma && beta == &alpha);
```



# Longer pointer example

```
1. double alpha;  
2. double* beta;  
3. double* gamma;  
4. beta = &alpha;  
5. gamma = &alpha;  
6. bool test = (beta == gamma && beta == &alpha);  
7. alpha = -7.362;
```



# Dereferencing a pointer

- Pointers can be used to read or modify the value in the object pointed at
- The \* operator is used for getting/setting the value in the object
  - This is called "dereferencing" the pointer
  - Not multiply in this context

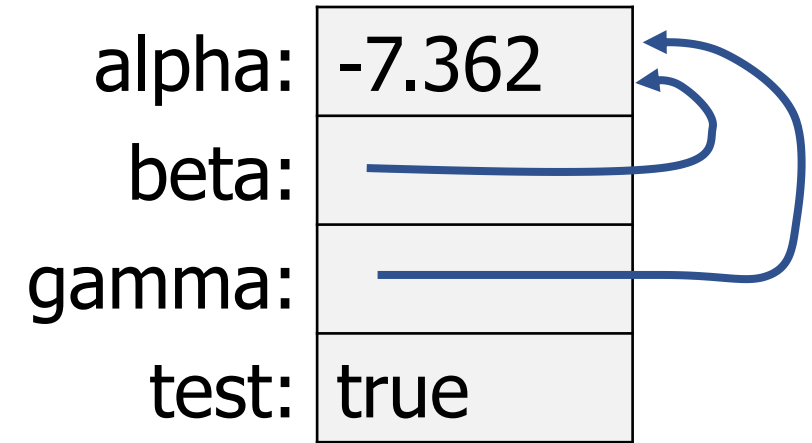
- **Examples:**

```
printf("%d\n", *my_int_pointer);
```

```
*my_int_pointer = 15;
```

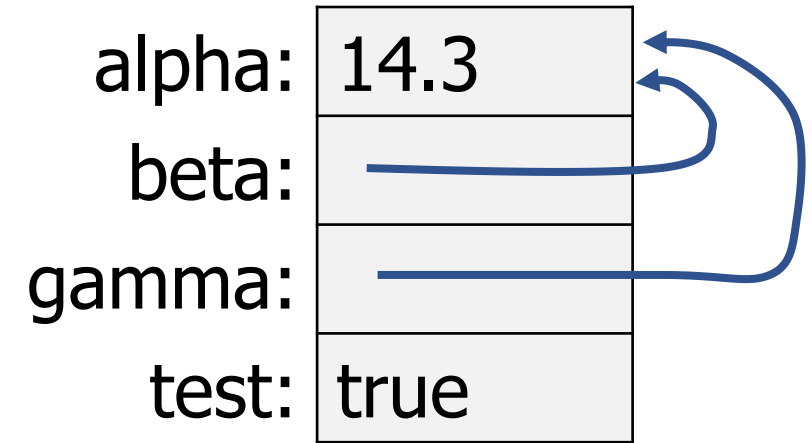
# Longer pointer example

```
1. double alpha;  
2. double* beta;  
3. double* gamma;  
4. beta = &alpha;  
5. gamma = &alpha;  
6. bool test = (beta == gamma && beta == &alpha);  
7. alpha = -7.362;  
8. test = (*beta < 0); // still true!
```



# Longer pointer example

```
1. double alpha;  
2. double* beta;  
3. double* gamma;  
4. beta = &alpha;  
5. gamma = &alpha;  
6. bool test = (beta == gamma && beta == &alpha);  
7. alpha = -7.362;  
8. test = (*beta < 0);  
9. *gamma = 14.3
```



# Possible pointer values

- Uninitialized

```
unsigned long* zeta;
```

- Pointing at an existing object

```
char* letter_ptr = &my_char;
```

- Null (explicitly pointing at nothing)

```
int* p = NULL;
```

```
bool* b = NULL;
```

```
double* d = NULL;
```

- NULL works for any pointer type
- NULL is NOT the same as uninitialized (🐛)
- Dereferencing a null pointer is an error (segfault)



# Some things to remember about pointers

1. Remember that a pointer is a type
  - `int*`, `char*`, `short*`, `bool*`, `double*`, `size_t*`, etc.
2. Think carefully about whether the pointer is being modified or the value in the object it points to
  - `my_pointer = &x; //` modifies which object we are pointing at
  - `*my_pointer = x; //` modifies the value in the object we are pointing at
3. Remember that pointer variables are themselves variables
  - They have values: the address of the object being pointed at
  - They name objects: memory is allocated to hold the address

# C things that make pointers annoying

- For pointer types, the \* doesn't have to be next to the type

- These three all mean exactly the same thing:

1. `int* x;` // I **strongly** recommend you use this

2. `int * x;`

3. `int *x;`

# C things that make pointers annoying

- For pointer types, the `*` doesn't have to be next to the type

- These three all mean exactly the same thing:

1. `int* x;` // I **strongly** recommend you use this

2. `int * x;`

3. `int *x;`

- The `*` operator also means multiplication

```
signed long w = *t * *v; // multiply values referenced
                        // by the pointers t and v
```

# Never define multiple variables at once

- You can define multiple variables at once in C

```
double x, y, radius;
```

Equivalent code:

```
double x;
```

```
double y;
```

```
double radius;
```

# Never define multiple variables at once

- But this breaks when you're using pointers

```
double* x, y, radius;
```

Equivalent code:

```
double* x;
```

```
double y;
```

```
double radius;
```

} Not pointers!!! 🤪

- To write that line correctly, you need to write:

```
double *x, *y, *radius; OR double * x, * y, * radius; (spacing doesn't matter)
```

- Or just never ever declare multiple variables in the same line!

# Outline

- Potpourri
- Separate Compilation
- C Pre-Processor
- Makefiles
  
- What are pointers?
- **Why are pointers?**
- Variable lifetimes

# Pointers functions directly modify values inside variables

- Normally, functions get a copy of the value inside the variable
- With pointers, functions can directly modify the variable
  - The function gets a copy of the pointer to the variable

# Adding two to a variable WITHOUT pointers

```
int add_two(int n) {  
    return n+2;  
}
```

```
int main(void) {  
    int x = 15;  
    x = add_two(x);  
    printf("%d\n", x);  
    return 0;  
}
```



# Adding two to a variable WITH pointers

```
void add_two(int* n) {  
    *n += 2;  
}
```

```
int main(void) {  
    int x = 15;  
    add_two(&x);  
    printf("%d\n", x);  
    return 0;  
}
```

# Side-by-side comparison of without/with pointers

```
void add_two(int n) {  
    return n+2;  
}
```

```
int main(void) {  
    int x = 15;  
    x = add_two(x);  
    printf("%d\n", x);  
    return 0;  
}
```

```
void add_two(int* n) {  
    *n += 2;  
}
```

```
int main(void) {  
    int x = 15;  
    add_two(&x);  
    printf("%d\n", x);  
    return 0;  
}
```

# Another example: what if we want to pass a struct

```
typedef struct plants {  
    bool is_watered;  
    double height;  
    int num_leaves;  
} plant_t;
```

```
void initialize_oak_tree(plant_t* plant) {  
    (*plant).is_watered = true;  
    (*plant).height = 10;  
    (*plant).num_leaves = 100000;  
}
```

```
int main(void) {  
    plant_t plant_a;  
    initialize_oak_tree(&plant_a);  
    return 0;  
}
```

# Shortcut for pointers to structs

- C programs end up using pointers to structs A LOT
- It's annoying to type `(*struct).field` all the time
  - So we made a shortcut. These two mean exactly the same thing:

```
(*struct).field
```

```
struct->field            (that's dash and greater than)
```

- This is known as "syntactic sugar"
  - Bonus syntax to make common things easier

# Adding a function to print the struct

```
typedef struct plants {
    bool is_watered;
    double height;
    int num_leaves;
} plant_t;

void initialize_oak_tree(plant_t* plant) {
    (*plant).is_watered = true;
    (*plant).height = 10;
    (*plant).num_leaves = 100000;
}

void print_plant(plant_t* plant) {
    printf("Plant is %d meters tall and "
        "has %d leaves.\n",
        plant->height, plant->num_leaves);

    if (!plant->watered) {
        printf("\tIt needs to be watered!\n");
    }
}
```

# Scanf example

- `scanf()` uses pointers to write to the variables you pass it

```
int x = 0;  
int count = scanf("%d", &x);
```

- Pointers allow `scanf()` to read results directly into your variable
- Pointers also `scanf()` to simultaneously return the number of arguments matched


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# When is a pointer “valid”?

1. If it is initialized
2. If the variable it is referencing still has a valid lifetime
  - Variables “live” until the end of the scope they were created in
  - Scopes are defined by { }
  - Example:


```
void some_function(void) {  
    int a = 5;  
}
```

 a goes “out of scope” here  
The variable stops being “alive”




# Examples of variable lifetimes

```
int main(void) {  
→ int a = 5;  
  printf("%d\n", a);  
  
  return 0;  
}
```

a: 

# Examples of variable lifetimes

```
int main(void) {  
    int a = 5;  
→ printf("%d\n", a);  
  
    return 0;  
}
```

a: 

# Examples of variable lifetimes

```
int main(void) {  
    int a = 5;  
    printf("%d\n", a);  
  
→ return 0;  
}
```

a: 

# Examples of variable lifetimes

```
int main(void) {  
    int a = 5;  
    printf("%d\n", a);  
  
    return 0;  
→ }
```

**a:** 

- Variable `a` is no longer “alive” at this point
  - It “poofs” out of existence
  - The variable is no longer valid

# Lifetimes go from creation to end brace }

```
test(17);
```

n: 17

```
→ void test(int n) {  
    int a = 5;  
    if (n >= a) {  
        int b = 16;  
        printf("%d\n", b);  
    }  
  
    printf("%d\n", n);  
}
```

# Lifetimes go from creation to end brace }

```
test(17);
```

```
void test(int n) {
```



```
    int a = 5;
```

```
    if (n >= a) {
```

```
        int b = 16;
```

```
        printf("%d\n", b);
```

```
    }
```

```
    printf("%d\n", n);
```

```
}
```

n:	17
a:	5

# Lifetimes go from creation to end brace }

```
test(17);
```

```
void test(int n) {
```

```
    int a = 5;
```



```
    if (n >= a) {
```

```
        int b = 16;
```

```
        printf("%d\n", b);
```

```
    }
```

```
    printf("%d\n", n);
```

```
}
```

n:	17
a:	5

# Lifetimes go from creation to end brace }

```
test(17);
```

```
void test(int n) {  
    int a = 5;  
    if (n >= a) {  
        int b = 16;  
        printf("%d\n", b);  
    }  
  
    printf("%d\n", n);  
}
```

n:	17
a:	5
b:	16





# Lifetimes go from creation to end brace }

```
test(17);
```

```
void test(int n) {  
    int a = 5;  
    if (n >= a) {  
        int b = 16;  
        printf("%d\n", b);  
    }  
  
    printf("%d\n", n);  
}
```

n:	17
a:	5
b:	16



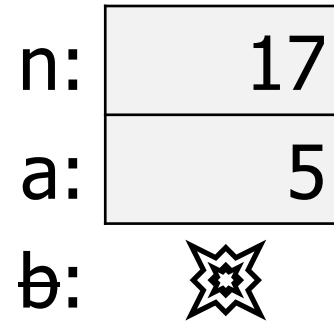
# Lifetimes go from creation to end brace }

```
test(17);
```

```
void test(int n) {  
    int a = 5;  
    if (n >= a) {  
        int b = 16;  
        printf("%d\n", b);  
    }  
}
```



```
printf("%d\n", n);  
}
```



# Lifetimes go from creation to end brace }

```
test(17);
```

```
void test(int n) {  
    int a = 5;  
    if (n >= a) {  
        int b = 16;  
        printf("%d\n", b);  
    }  
}
```

```
→ printf("%d\n", n);  
}
```

n:	17
a:	5

Referring to variable `b`  
at this point would be  
a compilation error

# Lifetimes go from creation to end brace }

```
test(17);
```

n: ✨

```
void test(int n) {
```

a: ✨

```
    int a = 5;
```

```
    if (n >= a) {
```

```
        int b = 16;
```

```
        printf("%d\n", b);
```

```
    }
```

```
    printf("%d\n", n);
```

→ }

# Variable lifetimes are what makes loops work

- Variables created inside of loops only exist until the end of that iteration of the loop
  - i.e. they only exist until the next end curly brace }

```
while (n < 5) {  
    int i = 1;  
    n += i;  
}
```

A new variable `i` is created each time the loop repeats

# Dangling pointers reference invalid objects

```
int* get_pointer_to_value(void) {  
    int n = 5;  
    return &n;  
}
```

```
int main(void) {  
    int* x = get_pointer_to_value();  
    printf("%d\n", *x);  
    return 0;  
}
```

# Dangling pointers reference invalid objects

```
int* get_pointer_to_value(void) {
```

```
    int n = 5;
```

```
    return &n;
```

n goes out of scope at the end of this function

```
} ←
```

So what does the pointer point to???

```
int main(void) {
```

```
    int* x = get_pointer_to_value();
```

```
    printf("%d\n", *x);
```

```
    return 0;
```

```
}
```

# Dangling pointers are especially dangerous

- Accessing a dangling pointer is *undefined behavior*
  - Anything could happen!
- If you are lucky: segmentation fault (a.k.a. SIGSEGV)
  - The OS kills your program because it accesses invalid memory
- If you are unlucky: *anything at all*
  - Including returning the correct result the first time you run it and an incorrect result the second time



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