# COMSM1201: Programming in C

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## Table of Contents

### A: Preamble

B: Hello, World

C: Gramma

D: Flow Contro

E: Functions

F: Data Types, Maths and Characters

G: Prettifying (New Types and Aliasing)

H: Constructed Types - 1D Arrays & Structures

I : Strings

J : 2D Arrays & More Types

K : Pointers

L : Advanced Memory Handling

M : Files

A: Preamble 2 / 121

## About the Course

These course notes were originally based on :

## C By Dissection (3rd edition)

Al Kelley and Ira Pohl

because I liked arrays being taught late(r). I've since changed my mind a little & have re-jigged the notes quite heavily for this year.

A: Preamble 3 / 121

### Resources

- Free: https://en.wikibooks.org/wiki/C\_Programming
- A list of more : https://www.linuxlinks.com/excellent-free-books-learn-c/
- Whatever you use, make sure it's **C99** that's being taught, not something else e.g. C11 or C++.
- If you fall in love with C and know you're going to use it for the rest of your life, the reference 'bible' is K&R 2nd edition. It's not a textbook for those new to programming, though.



A: Preamble 4 / 123

# Computer Science Ethos

- Talk to your friends, ask for help, work together.
- Never pass off another persons work as your own.
- Do not pass work to others either on paper or electronically even after the submission deadline.
- If someone takes your code and submits it, we need to investigate where it originated all students involved will be part of this.
- Don't place your code on publicly accessible sites e.g. github other students may have extensions etc.

A: Preamble 5 / 121

# History of C



From Deep C Secrets by Peter Van Der Linden

- BCPL Martin Richards
- B Ken Thomson 1970
- Both of above are typeless.
- C Dennis Ritchie 1972 designed for (& implemented on) a UNIX system.
- K&R C (Kernighan and Ritchie) 1978
- ANSI C
- C99 (COMSM1201)
- C++ Object Oriented Programming (OOP)

• Java (Subset of C++, WWW enabled).

A: Preamble 6 / 121

# Why C?

Jun 2021	Jun 2020	Change	Programming Language
1	1		<b>©</b> c
2	3	^	Python
3	2	•	🍕 , Java
4	4		C++
5	5		<b>©</b> C#
6	6		VB Visual Basic
7	7		<b>JS</b> JavaScript

https://www.tiobe.com/tiobe-index/

- One of the most commonly used programming languages according to tiobe.com
- Low-level (c.f. Java)
- Doesn't hide nitty-gritty
- Fast ?
- Large parts common to Java

A: Preamble 7 / 123

# Programming and Software Engineering

- Traditionally Lectured 2(or 3) hours a week for weeks 1-12
- Programming (C), data structures, algorithms searching, sorting, string processing, trees etc.

A: Preamble 8 / 121

## Assessment

- Weekly (unmarked) exercises that, if completed, should ensure you are able to pass the unit.
- Approximately three/four assignments and one lab test.
- One major project due in early TB2 (35%).
- Hard to gauge timings, so don't make any plans in advance I'll change it if we're going too fast.

A: Preamble 9 / 121

# Help with Computers

- Any problems with the computers e.g. installing the correct S/W, accessing lab machines: http://www.bris.ac.uk/it-services/
- They are also the people to see about passwords etc.
- This page also links to the rather useful Laptop & Mobile Clinic.

A: Preamble 10 / 121

# Help with the Unit

- All information is available via the Blackboard site (which will point you to other sites including github.com, MS Streams, MS Teams etc.)
- Some (limited) online support is given via the Teams Group.
- The main learning resource is our 6 hour of labs per week staffed by TAs.
- TAs are not allowed to write pieces of code for you, nor undertake detailed bug-fixing of your program.

A: Preamble 11 / 121

## Table of Contents

A: Preamble

B: Hello, World

C: Grammai

D: Flow Contro

E: Functions

F: Data Types, Maths and Characters

G: Prettifying (New Types and Aliasing)

H : Constructed Types - 1D Arrays & Structures

I : Strings

J : 2D Arrays & More Types

K: Pointers

L : Advanced Memory Handling

M : Files

B: Hello, World 12 / 12

## Hello World!

```
to it a single character: putchart naits a prints took best and
ters (the meximum with a single rell).
since 3 is a typeless language, arithmetic on characters in quite
legal, and even makes sense smertment
        C = 00'A" - " a"
converts a single character stored in c to upper case (making use
of the fact that corresponding soull testers are a fixed distance
martl.
7. External Variables.
        mainthi
           esten a.b.c:
           putcher a); putcher(b); putcher(c); putcher('t'a');
         a 'bell';
         8 'C. M'1
         e forter
This example illustrates externel variables, variables which are
rether like Fortran COMMON, is that they exist external to all
functions, and are (notentially) evaluable to all functions. Any
function that wishes to access an external variable must contain
as getty feel erasion for it. Furthermore, we must define all
external variables outside any function. For our example
```

```
Hello World first seen in: Brian Kernighan, A Tutorial Introduction to the Language B, 1972
```

```
1 /* The traditional first program
2 in honour of Dennis Ritchie
3 who invented C at Bell Labs
4 in 1972 */
5
6 #include <stdio.h>
7
8 int main(void)
9 {
10 printf("Hello, world!\n");
12 return 0;
13
14 }
```

#### Execution:

Hello, world!

: Hello, World 13 / 12

# Dissecting the 1st Program

- Comments are bracketed by the /\* and \*/ pair.
- #include <stdio.h>Lines that begin with a # are called preprocessing directives.
- int main(void)
   Every program has a function called main()
- Statements are grouped using braces,{ ... }
- printf() One of the pre-defined library functions being called (invoked) using a single argument the string :
  - "Hello, world!\n"
- The \n means print the single character newline.
- Notice all declarations and statements are terminated with a semi-colon.
- return(0) Instruct the Operating System that the function main() has completed successfully.

3: Hello, World 14 / 12

# Area of a Rectangle

```
#include <stdio.h>

int main(void)

{
    // Compute the area of a rectangle
    int side1, side2, area;

    side1 = 7;
    side2 = 8;
    area = side1 * side2;

printf(*Length of side 1 = %i metres\n*, side1);
printf(*Length of side 2 = %i metres\n*, side2);
printf(*Area of rectangle = %i metres squared\n*, area);
return 0;
}
```

#### Execution:

```
Length of side 1 = 7 metres
Length of side 2 = 8 metres
Area of rectangle = 56 metres squared
```

8: Hello, World 15 / 121

# Dissecting the Area Program

- // One line comment.
- #include <stdio.h> Always required when using I/O.
- int side1, side2, area; Declaration
- side2 = 8; Assignment
- printf() has 2 Arguments. The control string contains a %i to indicate an integer is to be printed.

```
1 preprocessing directives
2 int main(void)
4 {
6 declarations
6 statements
8 }
```

: Hello, World 16 / 121

# Arithmetic Operators

- + , , / , \*, %
- Addition, Subtraction, Division, Multiplication, Modulus.
- Integer arithmetic discards remainder i.e. 1/2 is 0 , 7/2 is 3.
- Modulus (Remainder) Arithmetic.
   7%4 is 3, 12%6 is 0.
- Only available for integer arithmetic.

3: Hello, World 17 / 12

# The Character Type

```
1  // Demonstration of character arithmetic
2  #include <stdio.h>
3
4  int main(void)
5  {
6     char     c;
7     c = 'A';
9     printf("%c ', c);
10     printf("%c\n", c+1);
11     return 0;
12 }
```

#### Execution:

A B

- The keyword char stands for character.
- Used with single quotes i.e. 'A', or '+'.
- Some keyboards have a second single quote the back quote '
- Note the %c conversion format.

: Hello, World 18 / 121

# Floating Types

### Execution:

```
Sum of x & y is 3.000000.
```

- In C there are three common floating types :
  - float
  - @ double
  - long double
- The Working Type is doubles.

B: Hello, World 19 / 121

# The Preprocessor

- A # in the first column signifies a preprocessor statement.
- #include <file.h> Exchange this line for the entire contents of file.h, which is to be found in a standard place.
- #define PI 3.14159265358979 Replaces all occurrences of PI with 3.14159265358979.
- Include files generally contain other #define's and #include's (amongst other tings).

B: Hello, World 20 / 121

# Using printf()

printf( fmt-str, arg1, arg2, ...);

%с	Characters
%i	Integers
%e	Floats/Doubles (Engineering Notation)
%f	Floats/Doubles
%s	Strings

- Fixed-width fields: printf("F:%7f\n", f); F: 3.0001
- Fixed Precision: printf("F:%.2f\n", f); F:3.00

B: Hello, World 21 / 121

# Using scanf()

- Similar to printf() but deals with input rather than output.
- scanf(fmt-str, &arg1, &arg2, ...);
- Note that the address of the argument is required.

%с	Characters	
%i	Integers	
%f	Floats	
%lf	Doubles	
%s	Strings	

• Note doubles handled differently than floats.

B: Hello, World 22 / 121

# While Loops

### Execution :

Input some numbers: 1 5 9 10

Count: 4
Sum: 25.000000

: Hello, World 23 / 121

## Common Mistakes

Missing "

```
printf("%c\n, ch);
```

Missing;

```
a = a + 1
```

Missing Address in scanf()

```
scanf("%i", a);
```

B: Hello, World 24 / 121

## Table of Contents

A: Preamble

B: Hello, World

C: Grammar

D: Flow Contro

E: Functions

F: Data Types, Maths and Characters

G: Prettifying (New Types and Aliasing)

H: Constructed Types - 1D Arrays & Structures

I: Strings

J : 2D Arrays & More Types

K : Pointers

L : Advanced Memory Handling

M : Files

25 / 1:

### Grammar

- C has a grammar/syntax like every other language.
- It has Keywords, Identifiers, Constants, String Constants, Operators and Punctuators.
- Valid Identifiers:k, \_\_id, iamanidentifier2, so\_\_am\_\_i.
- Invalid Identifiers: not#me, 101\_south, -plus.
- Constants:17 (decimal), 017 (octal), 0x17 (hexadecimal).
- String Constant enclosed in double-quotes :"I am a string"

C: Grammar 26 / 12:

# Operators

- All operators have rules of both precedence and associativity.
- 1 + 2 \* 3 is the same as 1 + (2 \* 3) because
  \* has a higher precedence than +.
- The associativity of + is left-to-right, thus 1 + 2 + 3 is equivalent to (1 + 2) + 3.
- Increment and decrement operators:
   i++; is equivalent to i = i + 1;
- May also be prefixed --i;

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

Question: What is the output?

27 / 121

# Assignment

- The = operator has a low precedence and a right-to-left associativity.
- a = b = c = 0; is valid and equivalent to:
   = (b = (c = 0));
- i = i + 3; is the same as i += 3;
- Many other operators are possible e.g.
   -=, \*=, /=.

### Execution :

```
2 4 8 16 32 64 128 256
512 1024
```

28 / 121

# The Standard Library

### Execution:

```
Randomly distributed integers are printed.

How many do you want to see? 11

1804289383 846930886 1681692777 1714636915

1957747793 424238335 719885386 1649760492

596516649 1189641421 1025202362
```

- Definitions required for the proper use of many functions such as rand() are found in stdlib.h.
- Do not mistake these header files for the libraries themselves!

Grammar 29 / 17

## Table of Contents

A: Preamble

B: Hello. World

C: Gramma

D: Flow Control

E: Functions

F: Data Types, Maths and Characters

G: Prettifying (New Types and Aliasing

H: Constructed Types - 1D Arrays & Structures

I: Strings

J : 2D Arrays & More Types

K : Pointers

L: Advanced Memory Handling

M : Files

D: Flow Control 30 / 12

# Comparisons

less than	
greater than	
less than or equal to	
greater than or equal to	
equal to	
not equal to	
not	
logical AND	
logical OR	

- Any relation is either true or false.
- Any non-zero value is true.
- (a < b) returns the value 0 or 1.
- (i == 5) is a **test** not an **assignment**.
- (!a) is either *true* (1) or *false* (0).
- (a && b) is true if both a and b are true.
- Single & and | are bitwise operators not comparisons - more on this later.

9: Flow Control 31 / 121

## Short-Circuit Evaluation

```
if(x >= 0.0 && sqrt(x) < 10.0){
.... /* Do Something */
}
```

It's not possible to take the sqrt() of a negative number. Here, the sqrt() statement is never reached if the first test is *false*. In a logical AND, once any expression is *false*, the whole must be *false*.

D: Flow Control 32 / 121

## The if() Statement

Strictly, you don't need braces if there is only one statement as part of the if :

```
if (expr)
```

If more than one statement is required:

```
if (expr) {
    statement-1
    .
    .
    .
    statement-n
}
```

However, we will **always** brace them, even if it's not necessary.

### Adding an else statement :

2: Flow Control 33 / 121

# A Practical Example of if:

```
#include <stdio.h>
     int main(void)
        int x, y, z;
         printf("Input three integers: ");
         if (scanf("%i%i%i", &x, &y, &z) != 3){
            printf("Didn't get 3 numbers?\n");
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
            return 1;
        int min;
        if (x < y){
            min = x:
        // Nasty, dropped braces:
         else
            min = v:
         if (z < min)
            min = z:
         printf("The minimum value is %i\n", min);
         return 0:
```

#### Execution:

```
Input three integers: 5 7 -4
The minimum value is -4
```

9: Flow Control 34 / 121

## The while() Statement

```
while (expr)
statement
```

This, as with the for loop, may execute compound statements :

```
while(expr){
    statement - 1
    .
    .
    statement - n
}
```

However, we will **always** brace them, even if it's not necessary.

```
1  // Simple while countdown
2
3     #include <stdio.h>
4
5     int main(void)
6     {
7
8      int n = 9;
9      while(n > 0){
11          printf("%i ", n);
12          n--;
13     }
14     printf("\n");
15     return 0;
16 }
```

### Execution:

9 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1

D: Flow Control 35 / 121

# The for() Loop

This is one of the more complex and heavily used means for controlling execution flow.

```
for( init ; test; loop){
    statement-1
    .
    .
    statement-n
}
```

and may be thought of as:

```
init;
while(test){
    statement -1
    .
    .
    .
    statement -n
    loop;
}
```

In the for() loop, note:

- Semi-colons separate the three parts.
- Any (or all) of the three parts could be empty.
- If the test part is empty, it evaluates to *true*.
- for(;;){ a+=1; } is an infinite loop.

2: Flow Control 36 / 121

## A Triply-Nested Loop

```
// Triples of integers that sum to N
     #include <stdio.h>
     #define N 7
     int main(void)
        int cnt = 0, i, j, k;
        for (i = 0; i \le N; i++){
            for(j = 0; j \le N; j++){
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
               for(k = 0: k \le N: k++){}
                   if(i + i + k - N)
                     ++cnt:
                      printf("%3i%3i%3i\n", i, j, k);
         printf("\nCount: %i\n", cnt);
        return 0:
```

#### Output:

```
0 0 7
0 1 6
0 2 5
0 3 4
0 4 3
0 5 2
0 6 1
0 7 0
```

#### etc.

```
4 3 0
5 0 2
5 1 1
5 2 0
6 0 1
6 1 0
7 0 0
```

Count: 36

D: Flow Control 37 / 121

## The Comma Operator

This has the lowest precedence of all the operators in C and associates left-to-right.

```
a = 0 , b = 1;
```

Hence, the for loop may become quite complex :

```
for(sum = 0, i = 1; i <= n; ++i){
    sum += i;
}
```

An equivalent, but more difficult to read expression:

```
for (sum = 0, i = 1; i \le n; ++i, sum += i);
```

Notice the loop has an empty body, hence the semicolon.

D: Flow Control 38 / 121

### The do-while() Loop

```
do {
    statement-1
    ...
    statement-n
} while ( test );
```

Unlike the while() loop, the do-while() will always be executed at least once.

```
// Simple do-while countdown

#include <stdio.h>

int main(void)

{
    int n = 9;

    /* This program always prints at least one
    number, even if n initialised to 0 */

    do{
        printf("%i *, n);
        n--;
        while (n > 0);
        printf("\n");
        return 0;
    }
}
```

#### Execution:

```
9 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1
```

D: Flow Control 39 / 121

### The switch() Statement

```
switch (val) {
    case 1 :
        a++;
        break;
    case 2 :
    case 3 :
        b++;
        break;
    default :
        c++;
}
```

- The val must be an integer.
- The break statement causes execution to jump out of the loop. No break statement causes execution to 'fall through' to the next line.
- The default label is a catch-all.

2: Flow Control 40 / 121

### The switch() Statement

```
/* A Prime number can only be divided
        exactly by 1 and itself */
     #include <stdio.h>
     int main(void)
        int i, n;
        dof
            printf("Enter a number from 2 - 9 : ");
           n = scanf("%i", &i);
        } while ( (n!=1) || (i < 2) || (i > 9) );
        switch(i){
           case 2:
           case 3:
           case 5:
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
           Case 7:
               printf("That's a prime!\n");
               break:
            default:
               printf("That is not a prime!\n");
        return 0:
```

#### Execution:

Enter a number from 2 - 9 : 1 0 10 3 Enter a number from 2 - 9 : Enter a number

2: Flow Control 41 / 121

# The Conditional (?) Operator

As we have seen, C programers have a range of techniques available to reduce the amount of typing:

```
expr1 ? expr2 : expr3
```

If expr1 is *true* then expr2 is executed, else expr3 is evaluated.

```
1  #include <stdio.h>
2
3  int main(void)
4  {
5    int x, y, z;
6
6    printf("Input three integers: ");
8    if(scanf(%%%%i*, &xx, &xy, &xz) != 3){
9        printf("Didn't get 3 numbers?\n");
10        return 1;
1    }
11    int min;
13    min = (x < y) ? x : y;
14    min = (z < min) ? z : min;
15    printf("The minimum value is %i\n", min);
16    return 0;
17 }</pre>
```

2: Flow Control 42 / 121

### Table of Contents

A: Preamble

B: Hello. World

C: Gramma

D: Flow Contro

### E: Functions

F: Data Types, Maths and Characters

G: Prettifying (New Types and Aliasing)

H: Constructed Types - 1D Arrays & Structures

1 : Strings

J : 2D Arrays & More Types

K: Pointers

L: Advanced Memory Handling

M · Files

: Functions 43 / 12

## Simple Functions

```
#include cetdie ha
    int min(int a. int b):
     int main(void)
        int j, k, m;
        printf("Input two integers: ");
        scanf("%i%i", &i, &k);
       m = min(j, k);
        printf("\nOf the two values %i and %i, " \
        "the minimum is %i.\n\n", j, k, m);
15
16
17
18
        return O:
19
20
    int min(int a. int b)
21
        if (a < b)
22
           return a:
        0100
           return b:
25
```

#### Execution:

Input two integers: 5 2

Of the two values 5 and 2, the minimum is 2,

- Execution begins, as normal, in the main() function.
- The function prototype is shown at the top of the file. This allows the compiler to check the code more thoroughly.
- The function is defined between two braces.
- The function min() returns an int and takes two int's as arguments. These are copies of j and k.
- The return statement is used to return a value to the calling statement.

Functions 44 / 12

## Call-by-Value

In the following example, a function is passed an integer using call by value:

#### Execution:

1

- The function does not change the value of x in main(), since a in the function is effectively only a copy of the variable.
- A function which has no return value, is declared void and, in other languages, might be termed a procedure.
- Most parameters used as arguments to functions in C are copied - this is known as call-by-value. We'll see the alternative, call-by-reference, later.

: Functions 45 / 121

## **Testing**

```
#include <stdio.h>
     int numfactors(int f):
     int main (void)
         int n = 12:
         printf("Number of factors in %i is %i\n". \
                 n. numfactors(n)):
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
         return 0:
     int numfactors(int k)
         int count = 0:
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
         for (int i=1: i \le k: i++){
             if((k\%i)==0) {
                count++:
         return count:
```

- This is a (not very good) function to compute the number of factors a number has.
- A factor is a number by which a larger (whole/integer) number can be divided.
- 12 has 6 factors: 1, 2, 3, 4, 6 and 12 itself.
- How do we know the program works though ?
- Running it ?

  Number of factors in 12 is 6
- We need something more automated.

: Functions 46 / 121

### Pre- and Post-Conditions

```
#include <stdio.h>
    #include <assert h>
     int numfactors(int f):
     int main(void)
        int n = 12:
        printf("Number of factors in %i is %i\n", \
               n. numfactors(n)):
        return 0:
15
16
17
     int numfactors(int k)
       int count = 0:
        assert(k >= 1); // Avoid trying zero
        for (int i=1: i \le k: i++){
           if((k\%i)==0) {
              count++:
        assert(count <= k):
27
        return count;
```

- Pre-conditions check the inputs to functions, typically their arguments.
- Post-conditions check the returns from functions.
- An assert simple states some test that ought to be true. If not, the program aborts with an error.
- There's a sense that this is somehow safer, but we haven't exactly done much testing on it to ensure the correct answers are returned.

: Functions 47 / 121

### **Assert Testing**

```
#include <stdio h>
    #include <assert h>
    int numfactors(int f);
    int main(void)
        assert(numfactors(17) = 2):
        assert (numfactors (12) = 6):
        assert(numfactors(6) = 4):
        assert(numfactors(0) == 0): // ?
12
13
       return 0:
    int numfactors(int k)
       int count = 0:
       for (int i=1: i \le k: i++)
           if((k\%i)==0) {
              count++:
        return count:
```

- We will use assert testing in this style every time we write a function.
- These tests tend to get quite long, so we generally collect them in a function called test() which itself is called from main().
- If there is no error, there is no output from this program.
- By #define'ing NDEBUG before the #include <assert.h>, all assertions are ignored, allowing them to be used during development and switched off later.

Functions 48 / 121

### Self-test : Multiply

- Write a simple function int mul(int a, int b)
   which multiples two integers together without
   the use of the multiply symbol in C (i.e. the \*)
- Use iteration (a loop) to achieve this.
- $\bullet$  7  $\times$  8 is computed by adding 7, eight times.
- Use assert() calls to test it thoroughly I've given you some to get you started.

```
/* Try to write mult(a,b) without using
   any maths cleverer than addition.
#include <stdio h>
#include <assert.h>
int mult( int a. int b):
void test(void):
int main(void)
   test():
   return 0:
int mult( int a, int b)
// To be completed
void test(void)
   assert(mult(5,3) == 15);
   assert(mult(3,5) == 15);
   assert(mult(0.3) == 0):
   assert(mult(3.0) == 0):
   assert(mult(1,8) == 8);
   assert(mult(8.1) == 8):
```

Functions 49 / 12

# Program Layout

It is normal for the main() function to come first in a program :

However, it is theoretically possible to avoid the need for function prototypes by defining a function before it is used :

We will **never** use this second approach - put main() first with the prototypes above it.

E: Functions 50 / 121

## Replacing Functions with Macros

#### Execution:

```
Input two integers: 5 2 Minimum is 2
```

- There's sometimes a (tiny) time penalty for using functions.
- The contents of the functions are saved onto a special stack, so that when you return to the function, its variables and state can be restored.
- https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Call\_stack
- Historically, for small functions that needed to be fast, programmers might have #define a macro.
- There's a problem though what happens if we used m = MIN(i++, j++); ?
- This is expanded to ((i++)<(j++)?(i++):(j++)) which is not what was intended.

: Functions 51 / 12

### The inline modifier

 In C99 the inline modifier was introduced https:

//en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Inline\_function

... serves as a compiler directive that suggests (but does not require) that the compiler substitute the body of the function inline by performing inline expansion, i.e. by inserting the function code at the address of each function call, thereby saving the overhead of a function call.

```
#include <stdio.h>
static inline int min(int a. int b):
int main(void)
  int j, k, m;
   printf("Input two integers: "):
   scanf("%i%i", &j, &k);
  m = min(i, k):
   printf("Minimum is %i\n", m);
   return O:
inline int min(int a, int b)
   if (a < b)
      return a:
   else
      return b:
```

#### Execution:

Input two integers: 5 2
Minimum is 2

Functions 52 / 12

### Factorials via Iteration

- A repeated computation computation is normally achieved via *iteration*, e.g. using for():
- Here we compute the factorial of a number the factorial of 4, written as 4!, is simply  $4 \times 3 \times 2 \times 1$ .
- Obviously, we'd do more assert tests in the full verson.

```
minclude <stdio h>
     #include <assert.h>
     int fact(int a):
     int main (woid)
         assert(fact(0) = 1):
         assert(fact(10) == 3628800):
        return(0):
     int fact(int a)
        int i:
        int tot = 1:
        for(i=1; i \le a; i++){}
            tot *= i:
25
26
27
        return tot;
```

: Functions 53 / 121

# Factorials via Recursion (Advanced)

- We could achieve the same result using recursion.
- The factorial of 4 can be thought of as  $4 \times 3!$
- A recursive function calls itself there may be many versions of the same function 'alive' at the same time during execution.

```
#include <stdio.h>
#include <assert.h>
int fact(int a):
int main (void)
   assert (fact (4) == 24):
   assert (fact (0) == 1):
   assert (fact (10) == 3628800):
   return (0):
int fact(int a)
   if(a > 0)
      return ( a * fact(a - 1) ):
   else
      return 1:
```

: Functions 54 / 121

## Self-test: Multiply (Advanced)

- Write a simple function int mul(int a, int b)
   which multiples two integers together without
   the use of the multiply symbol in C (i.e. the \*)
- Use recursion to achieve this.
- Use assert() calls to test it thoroughly.

```
/* Try to write mult(a,b) without using
       any maths cleverer than addition
                                              */
    #include <stdio.h>
    #include <assert.h>
    int mult( int a. int b):
    void test(void):
    int main(void)
       test():
       return 0:
    int mult( int a, int b)
    // To be completed
22
    void test (void)
       assert(mult(5,3) = 15);
       assert(mult(3,5) = 15);
       assert(mult(0.3) = 0):
       assert(mult(3.0) = 0):
       assert(mult(1,8) = 8);
       assert(mult(8.1) = 8):
```

Functions 55 / 12

### Table of Contents

A: Preamble

B: Hello. World

C: Grammai

D: Flow Contro

E: Functions

F: Data Types, Maths and Characters

G: Prettifying (New Types and Aliasing)

H : Constructed Types - 1D Arrays & Structures

I: Strings

J : 2D Arrays & More Types

K: Pointers

L: Advanced Memory Handling

M : Files

Data Types, Maths and Characters 56 / 1

# Fundamental Data types

- [ unsigned | signed ]
- [long | short]
- [ char | int | float | double ]
- The use of int implies signed int without the need to state it.
- Likewise unsigned short means unsigned short int.

Туре	Minimum size (bits)	Format specifier
char	8	%с
signed char	8	%c (or %hhi for numerical output)
unsigned char	8	%c (or %hhu for numerical output)
short	16	%hi or %hi
short int		
signed short		
signed short int		
unsigned short	16	%hu
unsigned short int		
int	16	%i or %d
signed		
signed int		
unsigned	16	%u
unsigned int		
long	32	%ld or %li
long int		
signed long		
signed long int		
unsigned long	32	%lu
unsigned long int		
long long	64	%lli or %lld
long long int		
signed long long		
signed long long int		
unsigned long long	64	%llu
unsigned long long int		
float		scanf():
		%f, %g, %e, %a
double		%lf, %lg, %le, %la
long double		%Lf, %Lg, %Le, %La

E Data Types, Maths and Characters 57 / 13

# Binary Storage of Numbers

In an unsigned char:

2 <sup>7</sup>	$2^{6}$	$2^{5}$	2 <sup>4</sup>	$2^3$	$2^2$	$2^1$	2 <sup>0</sup>
0	1	0	0	1	1	0	0

The above represents:

$$1*64+1*8+1*4=76.$$

• Floating operations need not be exact.

```
1  #include <stdio.h>
2
2
3  int main(void)
4  {
5  float d = 0.1;
7  printf(*%.12f\n*, 3.0*d);
8  return 0;
9 }
```

#### Execution :

0.300000004470

- Not all floats are representable so are only approximated.
- Since floats may not be stored exactly, it doesn't make sense to try and compare them:

```
if ( d == 0.3 )
```

 Therefore, we don't allow this by explicitly using the compiler warning flag: -Wfloat-equal

### sizeof()

To find the exact size in bytes of a type on a particular machine, use sizeof(). On a Dell Windows 10 laptop running WSL:

```
#include <stdio.h>
     int main(void)
        printf("char
                           :%3li\n", sizeof(char));
        printf("short
                           :%31i\n", sizeof(short));
        printf("long
                           :%31i\n", sizeof(long));
        printf("unsigned
                            :%3li\n", sizeof(unsigned));
        printf("long long
                           :%3li\n", sizeof(long long));
                            :%3li\n", sizeof(float));
        printf("float
12
        printf("dbl
                            :%3li\n". sizeof(double));
13
        printf("long dbl
                           :%31i\n", sizeof(long double));
14
        printf("\n");
15
16
        return 0:
17
```

#### Execution:

```
char : 1
short : 2
long : 8
unsigned : 4
long long : 8
float : 4
dbl : 8
long dbl : 16
```

: Data Types, Maths and Characters 59 / 1:

### Mathematical Functions

- There are no mathematical functions built into the C language.
- However, there are many functions in the maths library which may linked in using the -Im option with the compiler.
- Functions include :
   sqrt() pow() round()
   fabs() exp() log()
   sin() cos() tan()
- Most take doubles as arguments and return doubles.

: Data Types, Maths and Characters  $60\,/\,1$ 

# Casting

```
/* Compute the Area of a Sphere
   to the nearest integer
#include <stdio h>
#include <math h>
#define PI 3.14159265358979323846
int main(void)
   double r:
   printf("Enter a radius : ");
   scanf("%lf", &r);
   // Make sure radius is positive
   r = fabs(r):
   double a = 4.0 / 3.0 * PI * pow(r, (double) 3);
   printf("Area of your ball = %f\n", a);
   printf("Area of your ball = \%.2f\n", a);
   printf("Area of your ball = \%i\n", (int)a);
   printf("Area of your ball = %.0f\n", round(a));
   return 0:
```

#### Execution:

```
Enter a radius : 7.75

Area of your ball = 1949.816390

Area of your ball = 1949.82

Area of your ball = 1949

Area of your ball = 1950
```

- An explicit type conversion is called a cast.
- If it moves cast it. Don't trust the compiler to do it for you!

F: Data Types, Maths and Characters

# Storage of Characters

- Characters are stored in the machine as one byte (generally 8-bits storing one of 256 possible values).
- These may be thought of a characters, or very small integers.
- Only a subset of these 256 values are required for the printable characters, space, newline etc.
- Declaration:

```
char c;
c = 'A';
or:
char c1 = 'A', c2 = '*', c3 = ':';
```

 The particular integer used to represent a character is dependent on the encoding used. The most common of these, used on most UNIX and PC platforms, is ASCII.

lowercase	'a'	'b'	'c'	 'z'
ASCII value	97	98	99	 112
uppercase	'A'	'B'	'C'	 'Z'
ASCII value	65	66	67	 90
digit	'0'	'1'	'2'	 '9'
ASCII value	48	49	50	 57
other	'&'	' <b>*</b> '	'+'	
ASCII value	38	42	43	

Data Types, Maths and Characters 62 / 1

# **Using Characters**

 When using printf() and scanf() the formats %c and %i do very different things:

```
char c = 'a'
printf("%c\n", c); /* prints : a */
printf("%i\n", c); /* prints : 97 */
```

 Hard-to-print characters have an escape sequence i.e. to print a newline, the 2 character escape '\n' is used.

Escape sequence	Hex value	Character
\a	07	Alert (Beep, Bell)
\b	08	Backspace
\e	1B	Escape character
\f	0C	Formfeed Page Break
\n	0A	Newline (Line Feed)
\r	0D	Carriage Return
\t	09	Horizontal Tab
\v	0B	Vertical Tab
\\	5C	Backslash
\'	27	Apostrophe
\"	22	Double quote
\?	3F	Question mark

: Data Types, Maths and Characters 63 / 1:

# Using getchar() and putchar()

#### Execution:

```
abc123!
aabbcc112233!!
```

This has the unfortunate problem of requiring a 'special' character to terminate. More aggressively, the user could terminate by pressing CTRL-C.

#### Execution:

```
abc123
aabbcc112233
```

The end-of-file constant is defined in stdio.h. Although system dependent, -1 is often used. On the UNIX system this is generated when the end of a file being piped is reached, or when CTRL-D is pressed.

# Capitalization

```
// Outputs characters twice
     #include <stdio.h>
    #define CAPS ('A' - 'a')
     int main(void)
        int c;
         while ((c = getchar()) != '!'){
            if (c >= 'a' &z & c <= 'z'){
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
                 putchar(c + CAPS);
            else {
               putchar(c);
        putchar('\n');
         return 0:
```

#### Execution:

Hello World!

This is more easily achieved by using some of the definitions found in ctype.h.

Macro	true returned if:
isalnum(int c)	Letter or digit
isalpha(int c)	Letter
iscntrl(int c)	Control character
isdigit(int c)	Digit
isgraph(int c)	Printable (not space)
islower(int c)	Lowercase
isprint(int c)	Printable
ispunct(int c)	Punctuation
isspace(int c)	White Space
isupper(int c)	Uppercase
isxdigit(int c)	Hexadecimal
isascii(int c)	ASCII code

Data Types, Maths and Characters 65 / 1

### ctype.h

### Some useful functions are:

Function/Macro	Returns:	
int tolower(int c)	Lowercase c	
<pre>int toupper(int c)</pre>	Uppercase c	
int toascii(int c)	ASCII code for c	

```
1  #!nclude <stdio.h>
2  #!nclude <ctype.h>
3
4  int main(void)
5  {
6
6
7  int c;
8   while ((c = getchar()) != EOF){
9   if (islower(c)){
10     putchar(toupper(c));
11  }
12   else{
13     putchar(c);
14  }
15  }
16  putchar('\n');
17  return 0;
18 }
```

#### Execution:

Hello World! HELLO WORLD!

### Table of Contents

A: Preamble

B: Hello. World

C: Gramma

D: Flow Contro

E: Functions

F: Data Types, Maths and Characters

G: Prettifying (New Types and Aliasing)

H: Constructed Types - 1D Arrays & Structures

I: Strings

J : 2D Arrays & More Types

K: Pointers

L : Advanced Memory Handling

M : Files

## **Enumerated Types**

enum day { sun, mon, tue, wed, thu, fri, sat};

- This creates a user-defined type enum day.
- The enumerators are constants of type int.
- By default the first (sun) has the value 0, the second has the value 1 and so on.

An example of their use:
enum day d1;
. . .
d1 = fri:

- The default numbering may be changed as well:
  - enum fruit{apple=7, pear, orange=3, lemon};
- Use enumerated types as constants to aid readability - they are self-documenting.
- Declare them in a header (.h) file.
- Note that the type is enum day; the keyword enum is not enough.

# **Typedefs**

- Sometimes it is useful to associate a particular name with a certain type, e.g.: typedef int colour;
- Now the type colour is synonymous with the type int.
- Makes code self-documenting.
- Helps to control complexity when programmers are building complicated or lengthy user-defined types (See Structures later).

## Combining typedefs and enums

 Often typedef's are used in conjunction with enumerated types:

```
#include <astalio.h>
#include <assert.h>
enum day {sun,mon,tue,wed,thu,fri,sat};
typedef enum day day;

day find_next_day(day d);
int main(void)
{
    assert(find_next_day(mon)==tue);
    assert(find_next_day(sat)==sun);
    assert(find_next_day(sun)==mon);
    return 0;
}
```

```
day find next day(day d)
  day next day;
  switch(d){
      case sun:
         next day = mon;
         break:
      case mon:
         next_day = tue;
         break:
      case tue:
         next day = wed:
         break:
      case wed:
         next day = thu;
         break:
      case thu:
         next day = fri:
         break:
      case fri
         next_day = tue;
         break:
      case sat:
         next day = sun:
         break:
      default
         printf("I wasn't expecting that !\n");
  return next day:
```

# Style

```
enum veg {beet, carrot, pea};
typedef enum veg veg;
veg v1, v2;
v1 = carrot:
  • We can combine the two operations into one:
    typedef enum veg {beet,carrot,pea} veg;
    veg v1, v2;
    v1 = carrot:
  Assigning:
    v1 = 10:
    is very poor programming style!
```

### Booleans

• Before C99 you might have been tempted to define your own Boolean type:

#### Execution:

```
It's true!
```

However, we can just use #include <stdbool.h>

#### Execution:

```
It's true!
```

### Fever

Rewrite/complete this code using typedefs and enums to create self-documenting code in any manner you wish.

```
1  #include <assert.h>
2  #include <assert.h>
3
4    // Argument 1 is temperature
5    // Argument 2 is scale (0=>Celsius, 1=>Farenheit)
6    int fvr(double t, int s);
7
8    int main(void)
9    {
10        assert(fvr(37.5, 0)==1);
11        assert(fvr(36.5, 0)==0);
12        assert(fvr(96.5, 1)==0);
13        assert(fvr(99.5, 1)==1);
14        return 0;
15    }
16
17    int fvr(double t, int s)
18    {
19    }
19
```

### Table of Contents

A: Preamble

B: Hello. World

C: Grammai

D: Flow Contro

E: Functions

F: Data Types, Maths and Characters

G: Prettifying (New Types and Aliasing)

H : Constructed Types - 1D Arrays & Structures

I: Strings

J : 2D Arrays & More Types

K: Pointers

L : Advanced Memory Handling

M : Files

# 1D Arrays

 One-Dimensional arrays are declared by a type followed by an identifier with a bracketed constant expression:

```
float x[10];
int k[ARRAY_SIZE];
The following, however, is not valid:
float y[i*2];
```

 Arrays are stored in contiguous memory, e.g.: int a[5]:



• Arrays are indexed 0 to n-1.

```
#include <stdio.h>
#define N 500
int main (void)
   /* allocate space a[0]...a[N-1] */
   int a[N]:
   int i. sum = 0:
   /* fill array */
   for (i = 0; i < N; ++i){
      a[i] = 7 + i * i:
   /* print array */
   for (i = 0; i < N; ++i){
      printf("a[%i]=%i ", i, a[i]);
   /* sum elements */
   for (i = 0: i < N: ++i)
      sum += a[i]:
   /* print sum */
   printf("\nsum=%i\n", sum);
   return 0:
```

# 1D Arrays : Initialisation

By default, arrays are uninitialised. When they are declared, they may be assigned a value:

float 
$$x[7] = \{-1.1, 0.2, 2.0, 4.4, 6.5, 0.0, 7.7\};$$
  
or,  
float  $x[7] = \{-1.1, 0.2\}$ :

the elements 2 ... 6 are set to zero. Also:

int 
$$a[] = \{3, 8, 9, 1\};$$

is valid, the compiler assumes the array size to be 4.

- Accessing an array out of bounds will not be identified by the compiler. It may cause an error at run-time. One frequent result is that an entirely unrelated variable is altered.
- a[5] = a[4] + 1;
- k[9]++;
- n[12+i] = 0;

# 1D Arrays : Call by Reference

```
#include <stdio.h>
    #include <math.h>
    #include <assert.h>
    #define MAX 5
    // Pass array, AND number of elements
    void set array(int a[MAX], unsigned int len, int n);
     int main(void)
       int x[MAX] = \{2, 3, 3, 3, 3\};
       set array(x, 5, 3); assert(x[0] == 3);
       x[0] = 5: x[1] = 5: x[2] = 5: x[3] = 5: x[4] = 5:
       set array(x. 5. 4): assert(x[2] = 4):
       set array(x, 1, 0); assert(x[0] - 0);
       x[0] = 1: x[1] = 2: x[2] = 3:
       set arrav(x. 3. 2):
18
19
        assert(x[2] = 2): assert(x[3] = 4):
20
21
    // Set all values of array (size len) to n
22
23
     void set array(int a[MAX], unsigned int len, int n)
        if(len == 0){}
24
25
26
27
28
29
           return:
        for (unsigned int i=0: i<len: i++){
          a[i] = n:
```

- Here, the array is passed by Reference - no copy of the array is made - the function processes the array that was created inside main(), despite it apparently having a 'different' name
- All arrays are passed like this in C - we'll see later when we look at pointers why this is the case.

### Structures

- A structure type allows the programmer to aggregate components into a single, named variable. Other languages call these Records or Tuples.
- Each component has individually named members.
- struct employee {
   long id;
   double salary;
   short age;
  };
- struct is a keyword, employee is the structure tag name, and id, salary and age are members of the structure.

- A statement of the form:
   struct employee e1, e2;
   actually creates storage for the variables.
- A member is accessed using the member operator "."
- e1.salary = 35000.2; e2.age = 29;
- The member name must be unique within the same structure.
- Arrays of structures are possible, i.e.: struct employee team[400];

## Arrays of Structures

```
#include <stdio h>
#include <stdbool b>
#include <stdlib h>
#include <assert h>
#define SUITS 4
#define PERSIIIT 13
#define DECK (SUITS*PERSUIT)
#define SHUFFLE 3
typedef enum {hearts. diamonds. spades. clubs} suit:
struct card {
   suit st:
   int pips;
}:
typedef struct card card:
void shuffle deck(card d[DECK]):
void init deck(card d[DECK]):
void print_deck(card d[DECK], int n);
void test(void):
int main(woid)
   card d[DECK];
   test():
   init deck(d):
   print deck(d, 7);
   shuffle deck(d):
   print deck(d. 7):
   return 0:
```

```
void init deck(card d[DECK])
  for(int i=0: i < DECK: i++){
     // Number 1 .. 13
     d[i], pips = (i\%PERSUIT) + 1:
     switch (i/PERSUIT) {
         case hearts: d[i].st = hearts: break:
         case diamonds: d[i].st = diamonds; break;
         case spades: d[i].st = spades: break:
         case clubs: d[i].st = clubs: break:
         // Force an abort ?
         default : assert(false):
void shuffle deck(card d[DECK])
 for (int i=0: i <SHUFFLE*DECK: i++){
    int n1 = rand()%DECK:
    int n2 = rand()%DECK:
    card c = d[n1]: d[n1] = d[n2]: d[n2] = c:
```

## Arrays of Structures

```
void print deck(card d[DECK], int n)
   for (int i=0; i < n; i++){
      switch (d[i], pips){
         case 11:
            printf("Jack"):
            break:
         case 12:
            printf("Queen"):
            break:
         case 13:
            printf("King");
            break:
         default:
            printf("%2i", d[i].pips);
      switch (d[i].st){
         case hearts :
            printf(" of Hearts\n");
            break:
         case diamonds :
            printf(" of Diamonds\n");
            break:
         case spades:
            printf(" of Spades\n"):
            break;
         default :
            printf(" of Clubs\n"):
    printf("\n"):
```

### Execution:

```
1 of Hearts
 2 of Hearts
 3 of Hearts
 4 of Hearts
 5 of Hearts
 6 of Hearts
 7 of Hearts
 4 of Spades
Jack of Spades
 7 of Clubs
 9 of Spades
10 of Spades
 7 of Hearts
 2 of Spades
```

 The print\_deck() function is clearly messy! We can simplify this a little when we understand strings.

## **Testing**

```
void test (void)
  int n = 0:
  card d[DECK];
  init deck(d);
  // Direct assignment
  card c = \{hearts, 10\};
  // 1st element initialised correctly
   assert(d[9].pips == c.pips);
   assert(d[9].st == c.st);
  for (int i=0; i<1000; i++){
      shuffle deck(d):
     // Happens 1 time in 52 ?
      if((d[0], st == c.st) && (d[0], pips == c.pips)){
         n++:
   // Is this a reasonable test ?
   assert ((n > 10) && (n < 30)):
```

- Note the direct ability to copy a structure.
- You can't compare them using == though.
- Tricky to think of a good test for shuffle\_deck.
- You could also typedef away the array, e.g.:

```
typedef card deck[DECK];
```

void shuffle\_deck(deck d);
But this hides the fact it's an ar

But this hides the fact it's an array (which seems odd?)

### Table of Contents

A: Preamble

B: Hello. World

C: Grammai

D: Flow Contro

E: Functions

F: Data Types, Maths and Characters

G: Prettifying (New Types and Aliasing)

H: Constructed Types - 1D Arrays & Structures

I : Strings

J: 2D Arrays & More Types

K: Pointers

L: Advanced Memory Handling

M : Files

Strings 82 / 1:

# Strings

- Strings are 1D arrays of characters.
- Any character in a string may be accessed as an array element.
- The important difference between strings and ordinary arrays is the end-of-string sentinel '\0' or null character.
- The string "abc" has a length of 3, but its size is 4.
- Note 'a' and "a" are different. The first is a character constant, the second is a string with 2 elements 'a' and '\0'.

### Initialising Strings:

```
• char w[6] = "Hello";
```

```
o char w[250];
w[0] = 'a';
w[1] = 'b';
w[2] = 'c';
w[3] = '\0';
```

 scanf("%s", w);
 Removes leading spaces, reads a string (terminated by a space or EOF). Adds a null character to the end of the string.

• char  $w[250] = \{'a', 'b', 'c', '\setminus 0'\};$ 

: Strings 83 / 121

## Unused Letters and string.h

```
#include <stdio.h>
     #include <stdbool.h>
    #include <ctype.h>
    #define ALPHASIZE 26
     int main (void)
        char s[100] = "The Quick Brown Fox Leaps" \
                        "Over the Lazy Dog"
        bool used[ALPHASIZE] = {false}:
        int i = 0:
        while(s[i]){
            char c = tolower(s[i]):
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
            if (islower(c)){
               used[c - 'a'] = true:
           i++:
        for (i=0: i < ALPHASIZE: i++){
            if (!used[i]){
22
23
               printf("%c has not been used.\n", i+'a');
24
25
        return 0:
```

### Execution :

```
j has not been used.
m has not been used.
```

### In #include <string.h>:

char \*strcat(char dest[], const char src[]);
int strcmp(const char s1[], const char s2[]);

- strcat() appends a copy of string src, including the terminating null character, to the end of string dst.
- strcmp() compares two strings byte-by-byte, according to the ordering of your machine's character set. The function returns an integer greater than, equal to, or less than 0, if the string pointed to by s1 is greater than, equal to, or less than the string pointed to by s2 respectively.

Strings 84 / 12:

# More string.h

### In #include <string.h>:

char \*strcpy(char dst[], const char src[]);
unsigned strlen(const char s[]);

- strcpy() copies string src to dst including the terminating null character, stopping after the null character has been copied.
- strlen() returns the number of bytes in s, not including the terminating null character.

### One way to write the function strlen()

```
#include <stdio.h>
     Winclude (assert h)
     unsigned nstrlen(const char s[]):
     int main (woid)
        assert (nstrlen ("Neill")==5):
9
10
11
        assert(nstrlen("")==0):
        assert (nstrlen ("\n")==1):
        assert(nstrlen("abcdef")==nstrlen("fedcba")):
12
13
        return 0:
14
15
     unsigned nstrlen(const char s[])
16
17
        register unsigned n = 0:
19
        while (s[n] != '\0')f
20
           ++n:
21
        return n:
```

: Strings 85 / 121

# The snprintf() Function

In #include <string.h>: This is very similar to the function printf(), except that the output is stored in a string rather than written to the output. It is defined as:

```
int snprintf(string, str-size, controlarg, other args);

For example:
    int i = 7;
    float f = 17.041;
    char str[100];
    snprintf(str, 100, "%i %f", i, f);
    printf("%s\n", str):
```

Outputs: 7 17.041000

This is useful if you need to create a string for passing to another function for further processing.

```
#define SMALLSTR 20
void print card(char s[BIGSTR], card c)
  char pipstr [SMALLSTR];
  char suitstr[SMALLSTR]:
  switch(c.pips){
      case 11:
         strcpv(pipstr, "Jack");
         break:
      case 12:
         strcpy(pipstr, "Queen");
         break:
      case 13:
         strcpv(pipstr, "King");
         break:
      default:
         snprintf(pipstr, SMALLSTR, "%2i", c.pips);
   switch (c. st){
      case hearts :
         strcpv(suitstr. "Hearts"):
         break:
      case diamonds :
         strcpv(suitstr. "Diamonds"):
         break:
      case spades:
         strcpy(suitstr, "Spades");
         break:
      default :
         strcpy(suitstr, "Clubs");
   snprintf(s, BIGSTR, "%s of %s", pipstr, suitstr);
```

# snprintf() and sscanf()

```
#define FIRSTCARD " 1 of Hearts"
woid test (woid)
   int n = 0;
  char str[BIGSTR]:
  card d[DECK];
  init deck(d):
  // Direct assignment
   print card(str. d[0]):
  // 1st element initialised correctly
   assert(strcmp(str.FIRSTCARD)==0):
   for (int i=0: i<1000: i++){
      shuffle deck(d):
      print card(str. d[0]);
      // Happens 1 time in 52 ?
      if(strcmp(str, FIRSTCARD)==0){
         n++:
   // Is this a reasonable test ?
   assert ((n > 10) && (n < 30)):
```

```
// Simple demo of sscanf (and fgets in passing)
#include <stdio.h>
#include <assert.h>
#define BIGSTR 1000
#define SMLSTR 100
#define DAYSINYEAR 365,2425
#include <stdio.h>
int main (void)
   printf("Please type your first name and your age\n");
   char bigstr[BIGSTR];
   fgets(bigstr, BIGSTR, stdin);
   char name[SMLSTR]:
   int age:
   // Note no "&" before name : passed by reference already
   assert(sscanf(bigstr, "%s %i\n", name, &age)==2);
   printf("%s, vou've lived approximately %.0f days\n".
          name. ((double)(age)+0.5)*DAYSINYEAR);
   return O:
```

#### Execution :

Please type your first name and your age Joe 25 Joe, you've lived approximately 9314 days

: Strings 87 / 12

### Table of Contents

A: Preamble

B: Hello. World

C: Grammai

D: Flow Contro

E: Functions

F: Data Types, Maths and Characters

G: Prettifying (New Types and Aliasing)

H : Constructed Types - 1D Arrays & Structures

1 : Strings

J: 2D Arrays & More Types

K: Pointers

L : Advanced Memory Handling

M : Files

J : 2D Arrays & More Types 88 / 1

## Initializing 2D Arrays

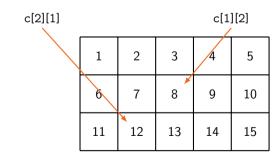
A 2D array is declared as follows:

```
#define ROWS 3
#define COLS 5
int a[ROWS][COLS];
```

2D array initialisation:

int 
$$b[2][3] = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\};$$
  
int  $b[2][3] = \{\{1, 2, 3\}, \{4, 5, 6\}\};$   
int  $b[1][3] = \{\{1, 2, 3\}, \{4, 5, 6\}\};$ 

Although 2D arrays are stored in a contiguous block of memory, we may think of them as a 2D rectangle of data.



: 2D Arrays & More Types 89 / 121

### 2D Distance

```
#include <stdio.h>
     #include <math.h>
     #define
     #define N 9
     void fillarray(int a[M][N]);
     int main(void)
        int a[M][N];
        fillarray(a);
        // Print Array
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
        for (int i = 0; i < M; i++){
            for (int i = 0; i < N; i++){
               printf("%i", a[i][i]);
            printf("\n");
        printf("\n");
        return 0:
     void fillarrav(int a[M][N])
        for (int j = 0; j < M; ++j){
            double y = ((double)j - ((double)(M-1)/2.0));
28
29
30
31
32
33
            for (int i = 0: i < N: ++i) { // Column-first
               double x = ((double)i - ((double)(N-1)/2.0)):
               a[j][i] = round(sqrt(x*x + y*y));
```

### Execution:

: 2D Arrays & More Types 90 / 1

# Cards (again!)

- The 2D arrays of characters here have one string per row.
- They are of a fixed-width, sometime called ragged-right or jagged-right arrays.

J : 2D Arrays & More Types 91 / 121

## Storage Classes

### auto

```
auto int a, b, c;
auto float f;
```

Because this is the default, it is seldom used.

### extern

Tells the compiler to look for the variable elsewhere, possibly another file.

### register

Informs the compiler to place the variable in a high-speed memory register if possible, i.e. if there are enough such registers available & the hardware supports this.

```
#include <stdio.h>
     #include <stdlib.h>
     void printstuff(void);
     #define MAXIOOP 20
     int main(void)
        int r = rand() % MAXLOOP:
        for (int i=0: i < r: i++){
            printstuff():
        return 0:
15
16
17
     void printstuff(void)
18
19
        static int cnt = 0:
        printf("You've been here %i times\n". ++cnt):
21
```

#### Execution:

```
You've been here 1 times
You've been here 2 times
You've been here 3 times
```

: 2D Arrays & More Types 92 / 12:

### Table of Contents

A: Preamble

B: Hello. World

C: Grammai

D: Flow Contro

E: Functions

F: Data Types, Maths and Characters

G: Prettifying (New Types and Aliasing)

H: Constructed Types - 1D Arrays & Structures

1 : Strings

J : 2D Arrays & More Types

K : Pointers

L: Advanced Memory Handling

M : Files

: Pointers 93 / 12

# Call-by-Value

### Execution:

1

- In the program, the function cannot change the value of v as defined in main() since a copy is made of it.
- To allow a function to modify the value of a variable passed to it we need a mechanism known as call-by-reference, which uses the address of variables (pointers).

: Pointers 94 / 121

## Call-by-Reference

- We have already seen addresses used with scanf(). The function call: scanf("%i", &v);
   causes the appropriate value to be stored at a particular address in memory.
- If v is a variable, then &v is its address, or location, in memory.

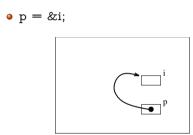
- int i, \*p;
- Here i is an int and p is of type pointer to int.
- Pointers have a legal range which includes the special address 0 and a set of positive integers which are the machine addresses of a particular system.



: Pointers 95 / 121

## The *NULL* Pointer

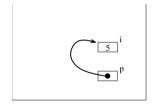




: Pointers 96 / 121

# Equivalence of i and \*p

• i = 5;



```
1  #include <stdio.h>
2
3  int main(void)
4  {
5     int i = 5;
6     int p = &i;
8     printf("%i\n", *p);
9     i = 17;
10     printf("%i\n", *p);
11     *p = 99;
12     printf("%i\n", i);
13
14     return 0;
16 }
```

### Execution:

5 17 99

: Pointers 97 / 121

## scanf Again

```
1  ##include <stdio.h>
2
3    int main(void)
4    {
5         int i;
7         int* p;
8         p = &i;
10         printf(*Please Type a number : ");
11         scanf("%i", &i);
12         printf("%i\n", i);
13         printf("%i\n", i);
14         scanf("%i", p);
15         printf("%i\n", i);
16         return 0;
18
19    }
```

#### Execution:

```
Please Type a number : 70 70 Please Type a number : 3
```

• In many ways the dereference operator \* is the inverse of the address operator &.

```
float x = 5, y = 8, *p;
p = &x;
y = *p;
```

• What is this equivalent to ?

C: Pointers 98 / 121

## The swap Function

```
#include <stdio.h>
     void swap(int* p. int* q):
     int main (void)
                a = 3, b = 7;
         int
         // 3 7 printed
         printf("%i %i\n", a, b);
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
         swap(&a, &b);
         // 7 3 printed
         printf("%i %i\n", a, b);
         return 0:
     void swap(int* p, int* q)
         int
                tmp:
         tmp = *p:
         *q = tmp:
```

#### Execution:

3 7 7 3 At beginning of function:



At end of function:



 Remember that the variables a and b are not in the scope of swap().

K : Pointers 99 / 121

## Arrays are Pointers?

- An array name by itself is simply an address (Array Decay).
- For instance:

```
int a[5];
int *p;
declares an array of 5 elements, and a is
the address of the start of the array.
```

Assigning:

p = &a[0];

p=a; is completely valid and the same as:

 To assign p to point to the next element, we could either:

$$p = a + 1;$$
  
 $p = &a[1];$ 

- Notice that p = a + 1 advances the pointer 4 bytes and not 1 byte. This is because an integer is 4 bytes long and p is a pointer to an int.
- we can use the pointer p is exactly the same way as normal, i.e.:

$$*p = 5;$$

Pointers 100 / 121

## Summing an Array

```
#include <stdio.h>
    #define NIM 5
     int sum(int a[]):
     int main(void)
        int n[NUM] = \{10, 12, 6, 7, 2\};
        printf("%i\n", sum(n));
        return 0:
16
17
     int sum(int a[])
        int sum = 0:
        for(int i=0: i <NUM: i++){
           sum += a[i]:
        return sum:
```

```
#include <stdio.h>
     #define NIM 5
     int sum(int a[]):
     int main(void)
        int n[NUM] = \{10, 12, 6, 7, 2\};
        printf("%i\n", sum(n));
        return 0:
14
16
     int sum(int a[])
17
        int sum = 0:
20
        for (int i=0: i < NUM: i++){
21
           sum += *(a + i):
22
23
        return sum:
```

```
#include <stdio.h>
#define NIM 5
int sum(int* p ):
int main(void)
   int n[NUM] = \{10, 12, 6, 7, 2\};
   printf("%i\n", sum(n));
   return 0;
int sum(int* p )
   int sum = 0:
   for(int i=0: i <NUM: i++){</pre>
      sum += *p:
      p++:
   return sum:
```

#### Execution:

37

37

#### Execution:

Execution:

37

### Pointers to Structures

- By default, structures are passed by value (copied) when used as a parameter to a function.
- But, like any other type, we could pass a pointer instead.
- The complication is that to access the elements of a structure via a pointer, we use the "->" operator, and not the ".".

```
void print deck(card d[DECK], int n)
   char str[BIGSTR]:
   for (int i=0: i < n: i++){
      print card(str, &d[i]);
      printf("%s\n", str);
   printf("\n");
#define SMALLSTR 20
void print card(char s[BIGSTR], const card* p)
   // Note the +1 below : zero pips not used, but makes easier coding ?
   char pipnames[PERSUIT+1][SMALLSTR] = { "Zero", "One", "Two", "Three",
                                         "Four" "Five" "Six" "Seven".
                                         "Eight" "Nine" "Ten" "Jack"
                                         "Queen", "King");
   char suitnames [SUITS] [SMALLSTR] = {"Hearts", "Diamonds", "Spades", "Clubs"}:
   snprintf(s. BIGSTR. "%s of %s". pipnames[p->pips]. suitnames[p->st]):
```

: Pointers 102 / 121

### Nested Structures

```
#include <stdio.h>
2
    struct dateofbirth {
       unsigned char day:
       unsigned short month:
        unsigned short year:
    typedef struct dateofbirth dob;
10
    typedef struct {
       char* name:
       dob date:
    } person:
15
    void print_byval(person b);
    void print_byref(const person* p);
18
    int main(void)
19
20
        person a = {"Gary", {17, 5, 1999}};
21
        print_byval(a);
22
23
        print_byref(&a);
24
25
26
    void print byval(person b)
27
        printf("%s %hhu/%hi/%hi \n", b.name, b.date.day, b.date.month, b.date.year);
28
29
30
    void print_byref(const person* p)
31
32
        printf("%s %hhu/%hi/n", p->name, p->date,day, p->date,month, p->date,vear);
33
```

#### Execution:

Gary 17/5/1999 Gary 17/5/1999

### Table of Contents

A: Preamble

B: Hello. World

C: Grammai

D: Flow Contro

E: Functions

F: Data Types, Maths and Characters

G: Prettifving (New Types and Aliasing)

H: Constructed Types - 1D Arrays & Structures

I: Strings

J : 2D Arrays & More Types

K : Pointers

L: Advanced Memory Handling

M : Files

.: Advanced Memory Handling 104 /

# String Constants

```
// A FAILED attempt to
     // convert all 'n' chars to 'N'
     #include <stdio.h>
    #include <stdlib.h>
    #include <string.h>
    #include <assert.h>
     void nifv(char s[]):
10
11
12
13
     int main(void)
        nify("neill");
14
15
16
17
        return 0:
     // In-Place : Swaps all 'n' -> 'N'
     void nifv(char s[])
20
21
        for(int i=0: s[i]: i++){
22
23
24
25
26
            if(s[i] = 'n'){
               s[i] = 'N':
```

- This looks (at first) like a sensible attempt to accept a string and change it *in-place* to capitalise all 'n' characters. It crashes though via a segmentation fault.
- With the usual compile flags we get no more information.
- But using:
   clang nify1.c -g3 -fsanitize=undefined
   -fsanitize=address -o nify1
   we find that

```
s[i] = 'N';
```

is the culprit.

 It turns out that in main() we have passed a constant string to the function. This is in a part of memory that we have read-only permission.

Advanced Memory Handling 105 / 12

### Local Variables

```
// A FAILED attempt to
     // convert all 'n' chars to 'N'
    #include <stdio h>
    #include <stdlib.h>
    #include <string.h>
    #include <assert.h>
    #define LINE 500
     char* nifv(char s[]):
12
13
     int main(void)
        char* s1 = nifv("inconveniencing"):
        char* s2 = nifv("neill");
        assert(strcmp(s2. "Neill")==0):
        assert(strcmp(s1. "iNcoNveNieNciNg")==0):
        return 0:
20
21
     // Local copy : Swaps all 'n' -> 'N'
     char* nifv(char s[])
        char t[LINE]:
        strcpv(t, s):
        for(int i=0; t[i]; i++){
29
30
31
           if(t[i] == 'n'){
              t[i] = 'N';
32
        return t:
```

- Now we try to create a copy of the string, and return a pointer to it.
- With the usual compile flags we're told:
   nify2.c: In function 'nify':
   nify2.c:33:11: warning: function returns address

```
33 | return t;
```

- The string t is local to nify().
- What happens in this memory when outside the scope of this function is completely undefined.

of local variable [-Wreturn-local-addr]

Advanced Memory Handling 106 /

### Static Variables

```
// A FAILED attempt to
    // convert all 'n' chars to 'N'
    #include <stdio h>
    #include <stdlib.h>
    #include <string.h>
    #include <assert.h>
    #define LINE 500
    char* nifv(char s[]):
    int main(void)
       char* s1 = nifv("inconveniencing"):
       char* s2 = nifv("neill");
       assert(strcmp(s2, "Neill")==0);
       assert(strcmp(s1. "iNcoNveNieNciNg")==0):
       return 0:
20
21
    // Local copy : Swaps all 'n' -> 'N'
    char* nifv(char s[])
       static char t[LINE]:
       strcpv(t, s):
       for(int i=0; t[i]; i++){
          if(t[i] == 'n'){
30
31
             t[i] = 'N';
32
       return t:
```

- We could just make the local string a static and return it's address couldn't we?
- This only works if we're very careful with the order in which we use the strings.
- This code fails because, in main(), by the time we strcmp(s1, "iNcoNveNieNciNg") the contents of s1 have been overwritten by "Neill".
- The pointers s1 and s2 are the same.

Advanced Memory Handling 107 /

# Using *malloc()*

- We must use malloc() instead.
- void\* malloc(int n);
   allocates n bytes and returns a pointer to the allocated memory. The memory is not initialized.
- Now, when our function is called, a dedicated chunk of memory is allocated.
- This memory is always in scope until free() is used on it.
- We must free the memory somewhere though, otherwise memory leaks develop.
- We will see calloc() (and perhaps realloc()) later.

```
#include <stdlib h>
     #include <string.h>
     #include <assert.h>
     char* nifv(char s[]):
     int main (woid)
        char* s1 = nifv("inconveniencing"):
        char* s2 = nifv("neill"):
        assert(strcmp(s2. "Neill")==0);
        assert(strcmp(s1. "iNcoNveNieNciNg")==0);
        free(e1).
        free(e2).
        return 0:
16
     // malloc : Swaps all 'n' -> 'N'
     char* nifv(char s[])
        int 1 = strlen(s):
        char* t = (char*)malloc(1+1):
        if (t==NIII.) {
           exit ( EXIT FAILURE ):
        strcpy(t, s);
        for(int i=0: t[i]: i++){
           if(t[i] == 'n'){}
              t[i] = 'N':
31
        return t:
33
```

: Advanced Memory Handling 108 / 1

## Variable Length Arrays

```
// This code is not allowed by the -Wyla flag
    #include <stdio.h>
    #include <stdlib b>
    #include <string.h>
    #include <assert.h>
    #define WORD 500
    int main (void)
        printf("Please type a string :\n");
        char s [WORD] ;
        assert(scanf("%s", s)==1);
        int n = strlen(s) + 1:
        char tinl:
        // Deep copy: character by character
18
19
20
21
        strcpv(t, s):
        printf("%s %s\n", s, t):
        return 0:
```

- Here we duplicate a string into t.
- This is known as a variable length array.
- However, we will always use the -Wvla with the compiler to prevent them.
- There are a number of reasons for this:
  - Some C++ compilers don't accept it.
  - The memory comes off the stack not the heap, and you have no idea if the allocation has worked (it'll just crash if not)
  - https://nullprogram.com/blog/2019/10/27/
- None of these is a problem if we use malloc().

: Advanced Memory Handling 109 / 121

# Memory Leaks

```
// This leaks - but it's not obvious
    #include <stdio.h>
    #include <stdlib.h>
    #include <string.h>
    #include <assert.h>
    #define WORD 500
    int main(void)
10
11
        printf("Please type a string :\n");
        char s[WORD]:
        assert(scanf("%s", s)==1):
        int n = strlen(s):
        /* malloc() returns a pointer to memory that
          you have access to. Note forcing cast. */
       char* t = (char*) malloc(n+1);
       // If no space, returns NULL
        assert(t != NULL):
       // Deep copy: character by character
        strcpv(t, s):
        printf("%s %s\n", s, t):
        return 0:
```

- This code appears to work correctly.
- However, it actually leaks. The memory allocated was never free()'d.
- This is best found by running the program valgrind.

```
String String
=474==
=474== HEAP SUMMARY:
=474== in use at exit: 7 bytes in 1 blocks
=474== total heap usage: 2 allocs, 1 frees, 1,031 bytes allocated
=474==
=474== LEAK SUMMARY:
=474== definitely lost: 7 bytes in 1 blocks
```

: Advanced Memory Handling 110 / 121

```
#include <stdio h>
    #include <stdlib.h>
    #include <string.h>
    #include <assert.h>
    #define WORD 500
    int main(void)
9
10
       char s[WORD] = "String";
       int n = strlen(s):
       /* malloc() returns a pointer to memory that
           you have access to. Note forcing cast. */
       char* t = (char*) malloc(n+1);
       /* If no space, returns NULL */
        assert(t != NULL):
       /* Deep copy: character by character */
       strcpv(t, s);
        printf("%s %s\n", s, t);
        /* All malloc'd memory must be freed
           to prevent memory leaks */
23
24
25
26
        free(t):
        return 0:
```

#### This code is now correct.

```
String String
=-475==
=-475==
HEAP SUMMARY:
=-475==
in use at exit: 0 bytes in 0 blocks
=-475==
total heap usage: 2 allocs, 2 frees, 1,031 bytes allocated
=-475==
=-475==
All heap blocks were freed -- no leaks are possible
```

: Advanced Memory Handling 111 / 121

#### Structures with Self-Referential Pointers

```
// Store a list of numbers
    #include <stdio h>
    #include <stdlib.h>
    #include <assert.h>
    struct data {
       int num:
       struct data* next;
    typedef struct data data:
    int main(void)
12
13
14
15
    // |11 -->|17 -->| 5 . |
       data c = \{5 . NULL\}:
       data b = {17. &c}:
       data a = {11. &b}:
       // print first number
       printf("%i\n", a.num);
       data* p = &a;
       // Can also get to it via p
       printf("%i\n", p->num);
       // Pointer chasing : The Key concept
       p = p -> next:
       // We're accessing b. without using it's name
       printf("%i\n", p->num);
       p = p->next;
31
       // And c
       printf("%i\n", p->num);
       return 0:
```

- The structure contains a pointer to a something of it's own type (even before we've fully defined the struture itself).
- Here, if p points to a, then p->next->next points to c.

Advanced Memory Handling 112 / 3

#### Linked Lists

```
// Store a list of numbers (length unknown)
#include <stdio.h>
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <assert.h>
#define MAXNUM 20
#define ENDNUM 10
struct data {
   int num:
   struct data* next;
7:
typedef struct data data;
void addtolist(data* tail);
void printlist (data* st);
int main (void)
   data *p. *start:
   start = p = calloc(1, sizeof(data));
   assert(p):
   p->num = rand()%MAXNUM;
   // Add other numbers to the list
   dof
      addtolist(p):
      p = p - > next:
   } while (p->num != ENDNUM);
   printlist(start):
   // Need to free up list - not shown here ...
   return 0:
```

```
// Create some new space and store number in it
void addtolist(data* tail)
{
   tail -> next = calloc(1, sizeof(data));
   assert(tail);
   tail = tail -> next;
   tail -> num = rand()%MAXNUM;
}

void printlist(data* st)
{
   while(st != NULL){
      printf(*%1.*, st-> num);
      st = st-> next;
   };
   printf(*\n*);
```

#### Execution:

```
3 6 17 15 13 15 6 12 9 1 2 7 10
```

- calloc() is similar to malloc(), but *clears* the memory is reserves for you.
- It's passed the number of array cells you wish to create, and the size of each of them

Advanced Memory Handling 113 / 1

#### Table of Contents

A: Preamble

B: Hello. World

C: Grammai

D: Flow Contro

E: Functions

F: Data Types, Maths and Characters

G: Prettifying (New Types and Aliasing)

H : Constructed Types - 1D Arrays & Structures

I: Strings

J : 2D Arrays & More Types

K : Pointers

L : Advanced Memory Handling

M : Files

M : Files 114 / 12

## File Properties

- They have a name.
- Until a file is opened nothing can be done with it.
- After use a file must be closed.
- Files may be read, written or appended.
- Conceptually a file may be thought of as a stream of characters.

1: Files 115 / 121

## Reading and Writing

```
#include <stdio h>
    #include <stdlib.h>
    #include <string.h>
    #define BIGSTR 500
    #define FNAME "helloworld.txt"
    int main (woid)
       FILE* fp = fopen(FNAME, "w"):
       if (fp - NULL) {
           fprintf(stderr. "Cannot open file %s ?\n". FNAME):
           exit(EXIT FAILURE):
       fprintf(fp, "Hello World!\n");
       fclose(fp):
       fp = fopen(FNAME, "r"):
       if (fp = NULL) {
           fprintf(stderr . "Cannot read file %s ?\n" . FNAME):
           exit(EXIT FAILURE):
21
       char str[BIGSTR]:
       if (fgets(str, BIGSTR, fp) == NULL){
           fprintf(stderr, "Cannot read 1st line of %s ?\n", FNAME);
           exit(EXIT FAILURE):
       fclose(fp):
       // Newline is read too
       if(strcmp(str. "Hello World!\n")){
           fprintf(stderr, "1st line of %s not correct?\n", FNAME);
31
           exit(EXIT FAILURE):
32
       return EXIT SUCCESS:
```

- If you write a file, it overwrites it from the beginning.
- You must fclose() your file pointers otherwise there is a memory leak.
- The statement exit() allows you to exit the code anywhere, not just in main.
- There are three files already open for you: stdin, stdout and stderr.
- Therefore printf(...) is just a shorthand for fprintf(stdout, ...)
- fscanf() could be used instead of fgets().

#### stderr

- To write to screen you'd generally use stdout, so why is there stderr ?
- It's fairly common, when running a program, to want to redirect the output to a file.
- For instance, if you were to type:
  - \$ ls > myfiles.txt this will list all your files into myfiles.txt
- The ">" at the prompt redirects the output (or "<" input) to file rather than screen.
- If something went wrong though, the user would never see the message.
- Therefore, stderr exists so that there is a stream to display warnings/errors to the user.

Λ : Files 117 / 121

## Interlude: argc/v

- A traditional C program has int main(int argc, char\* argv[]);
- argc is the number of words typed on the command line to execute the program.
- argv is an array of pointers to chars
   i.e. an array of strings.
- This is not a traditional 2D array of characters - it's a 1D array of pointers - each string could be a different length.
- This is sometimes known as a ragged-right or jagged array.

```
winclude <stdio.h>
int main(int argc, char* argv[])

{
    printf("You typed %i arguments\n", argc);
    printf("The name of your executable is : %s\n", argv[0]);
    for(int i=1; i<argc; i++){
        printf("Argument %d is : %s\n", i, argv[i]);
    }

return 0;
}</pre>
```

#### Execution:

```
$ ./usingargs -c doof groob
You typed 4 arguments
The name of your executable is : ./usingargs
Argument 1 is : -c
Argument 2 is : doof
Argument 3 is : groob
```

118 / 121

### Back to Files: One Character at a Time

```
// Some of the functionality of cp
     #include <stdio.h>
     #include <stdlib.h>
     int main(int argc, char* argv[])
        if (argc != 3){
           fprintf(stderr, "Usage : %s <filein > <fileout >\n", argv[0]);
           exit(EXIT FAILURE);
        FILE* fpin = fopen(argv[1], "r");
        if (!fpin){
           fprintf(stderr . "Cannot read from %s\n" . argv[1]):
14
15
16
17
           exit(EXIT FAILURE):
        FILE* fpout = fopen(argv[2], "w");
        if (!fpout){
           fprintf(stderr, "Cannot write to %s\n", argv[2]);
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
           exit(EXIT FAILURE):
        char c:
        while ((c = fgetc(fpin)) != EOF){
           fputc(c, fpout);
        fclose(fpin):
        fclose(fpout):
        return EXIT SUCCESS:
```

- This is a very basic version of the Linux command cp.
- fgetc() and fputc() are the file equivalents of getchar and putchar.
- How does a C program access arguments typed on the command line?

1: Files 119 / 121

## **Bulk Copying**

- Copying one character at a time is very slow for large files.
- fread() and fwrite() will I/O many characters at once.
- Here we save an entire array to a binary file - another program could read this in later.

```
/* Compute some factorials and save them
        for another program to read back later. */
    #include <stdio.h>
    #include <stdlib.h>
    #define FACTS 20
     typedef unsigned long facttype;
     int main(int argc. char* argv[])
        if (argc != 2){
           fprintf(stderr, "Usage : %s <fileout >\n", argv[0]);
           exit(EXIT FAILURE):
        FILE* fpout = fopen(argv[1], "wb");
        if (!fpout){
           fprintf(stderr, "Cannot write to %s\n", argv[1]);
           exit(EXIT FAILURE):
        facttype facts[FACTS] = {1};
        for (facttype i=1: i < FACTS: i++){
           facts[i] = facts[i-1]*i;
        int n = fwrite(facts, sizeof(facttype), FACTS, fpout);
        if(n = FACTS){
           fprintf(stderr, "Cannot write to %s\n", argv[1]):
           exit(EXIT FAILURE):
31
        fclose(fpout):
        return EXIT SUCCESS:
33
```

: Files 120 / 12

## Window/DOS vs. Unix Text Files

- Text files created on DOS/Windows machines have different line endings than files created on Unix/Linux.
- DOS uses carriage return and line feed ("\r\n") as a line ending.
- Unix uses just line feed ("\n").
- You should generally avoid assuming line endings - use a function that reads entire lines at once such as fgets().
- When you open a file in textmode fopen("file.txt", "rt") some automic translation may be done on input/output.

```
#include <stdio h>
     #include < stdlih h>
    #include <string.h>
    #define BIGSTR 10000
     int main(int argc. char* argv[])
        if(argc != 2){
           fprintf(stderr. "Usage: %s <file >\n". argv[0]):
           exit(EXIT FAILURE):
        FILE* fpin = fopen(argv[1], "rb"):
        if (!fpin){
           fprintf(stderr, "Cannot read %s\n", argv[1]);
           exit(EXIT FAILURE);
        char str[BIGSTR]:
        if (fgets(str. BIGSTR. fpin)==NULL){
           fprintf(stderr, "Cannot read %s\n", argv[1]);
           exit(EXIT FAILURE):
        int n = strlen(str);
        if(n > 1){}
           if((str[n-1] = '\n') && (str[n-2] = '\r')){
              printf("Looks like a DOS file?\n");
27
           elsef
              printf("Looks like a Unix file?\n"):
31
32
        fclose(fpin):
        return EXIT SUCCESS:
34
```