Programming in C

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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 / 10:

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.



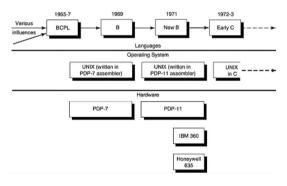
A: Preamble 4 / 10:

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.

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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 / 10:

Why C?

Jun 2021	Jun 2020	Change	Programming Language
1	1		© c
2	3	^	P ython
3	2	•	🔥 Java
4	4		C++
5	5		© C#
6	6		VB Visual Basic
7	7		JS 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

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Programming and Software Engineering

- Was traditionally Lectured 2(or 3) hours a week for weeks 1-12
- In the blended world, I'll post the equivalent online, broken into manageable chunks
- Programming (C), data structures, algorithms searching, sorting, string processing, trees etc.

A: Preamble 8 / 10:

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 / 10:

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 / 10:

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.)
- Online will mainly be via myself giving 'live' Q&A session, the associated MS Teams group with Forum, and Teaching Assistants in our on-campus / face-to-face labs.
- TAs are not allowed to write pieces of code for you, nor undertake detailed bug-fixing of your program.

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B: Hello, World 12 / 10:

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 feeta'r
This example illustrates externel variables, variables which are
rether like Fortran COMMON, is that they exist external to all
functions, and are (potentially) 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
7
8 int main(void)
9 {
10
11 printf("Hello, world!\n");
12 return 0;
13
14 }
```

Execution:

Hello, world!

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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.

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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
```

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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.

```
preprocessing directives

int main(void)
{
    declarations
    statements
}
```

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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.

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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:

ΑВ

- 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.

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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.

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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).

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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

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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.

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While Loops

Execution :

Input some numbers: 1 5 9 10

Count: 4
Sum: 25.000000

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Common Mistakes

Missing "

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

Missing;

```
a = a + 1
```

Missing Address in scanf()

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

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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"

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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  int main(void)
4  {
5    int a, c = 0;
6    a = ++c;
   int b = c++;
8    printf("%i %i %i \n", a, b, ++c);
9    return 0;
1  }
```

Question: What is the output?

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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
```

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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!

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D: Flow Control 30 / 10:

Comparisons

<	less than	
>	greater than	
<=	less than or equal to	
>=	greater than or equal to	
==	equal to	
!=	not equal to	
!	not	
&&	logical AND	
11	logical OR	
1.1		

- 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.

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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*.

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The if() Statement

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

```
if (expr)
statement
```

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 :

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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
```

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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){
1             printf("%i ", n);
12             n--;
13     }
14         printf("\n");
15         return 0;
16 }
```

Execution:

9 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1

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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.

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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

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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.

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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.

Execution:

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

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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.

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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

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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
2
3  int main(void)
4  {
5    int x, y, z;
6
6
7    printf("Input three integers: ");
8    if(scanf("%i%i%i", &x, &y, &z) != 3){
9        printf("Didn't get 3 numbers?\n");
10        return 1;
11    }
12    int min;
13    min = (x < y) ? x : y;
15    min = (x < min) ? z : min;
16    printf("The minimum value is %i\n", min);
17    return 0;
18    }
19    int min;
10    int min;
11    int min;
12    int min;
13    int min;
14    int min = (x < y) ? x : y;
15    int min;
16    int min;
17    int min;
18    int min;
19    int min;
10    int min;
11    int min;
12    int min;
13    int min;
14    int min;
15    int min;
16    int x, y, z;
17    int x, y, z;
18    int x, y, z;
19    int x, y, z;
10    int x, y, z;
10    int x, y, z;
11    int x, y, z;
12    int x, y, z;
13    int x, y, z;
14    int x, y, z;
15    int x, y, z;
16    int x, y, z;
17    int x, y, z;
18    int x, y, z;
19    int x, y, z;
10    int x, y, z;
10    int x, y, z;
10    int x, y, z;
11    int min;
11    int min;
12    int min;
13    int x, y, z;
14    int x, y, z;
15    int x, y, z;
16    int x, y, z;
17    int x, y, z;
18    int x, y, z;
19    int x, y, z;
10    int x, y, z;
11    int x, y, z;
11    int x, y, z;
12    int x, y, z;
13    int x, y, z;
14    int x, y, z;
15    int x, y, z;
16    int x, y, z;
17    int x, y, z;
18    int x, y, z;
19    int x, y, z;
10    int x, y, z;
11    int x, y, z;
11    int x, y, z;
12    int x, y, z;
13    int x, y, z;
14    int x, y, z;
15    int x, y, z;
16    int x, y, z;
17    int x, y, z;
18    int x, y, z;
18    int x, y, z;
19    int x, y, z;
10    int x, y, z;
11    int x, y, z;
11    int x, y, z;
12    int x, y, z;
13    int x, y, z;
14    int x, y, z;
15    int x, y, z;
16    int x, y, z;
17    int x, y, z;
18    int x, y, z;
18    int x, y, z;
```

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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.

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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.

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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.

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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.

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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.

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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 up 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):
```

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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 / 102

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 / 10

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 / 10

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 / 102

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:
```

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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):
```

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: Data Types 56 / 10

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.

size (bits) Format specifier %c %c (or %hhi for numerical output) %c (or %hhu for numerical output) %hi or %hi
%c (or %hhi for numerical output) %c (or %hhu for numerical output)
%c (or %hhu for numerical output)
%hi or %hi
I I
%hu
%i or %i
%u
%ld or %li
%lu
%lli or %lld
%llu
scanf():
%f, %g, %e, %a
%f, %g, %e, %a %lf, %lg, %le, %la %Lf, %Lg, %Le, %La

: Data Types 57 / 102

Binary Storage of Numbers

In an unsigned char:

2 ⁷	2^{6}	2^{5}	2 ⁴	2^3	2^2	2^1	2 ⁰
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
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

: Data Types 58 / 10

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));
11
12
                            :%3li\n", sizeof(float));
        printf("float
        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 59 / 102

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 60 / 102

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!

Data Types $61 \, / \, 102$

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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 <stdio.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(sun)==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   }
```

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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,

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

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

float $x[7] = \{-1.1, 0.2\}$:

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 array (which seems odd?)

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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	'&'	' * '	'+'	
ASCII value	38	42	43	

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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	

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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.

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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

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Some useful functions are:

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

```
1  ##include <stdio.h>
2  #include <ctype.h>
3
4  int main(void)
5  {
6
7  int c;
8  while ((c = getchar()) != EOF){
9     /* toupper() returns non-lowercae
10     chars unaltered */
11     putchar(toupper(c));
12  }
13  putchar('\n');
14  return 0;
15 }
```

Execution:

Hello World! HELLO WORLD!

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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";
```

```
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'\};
```

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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.
```

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.

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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>
     #include <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:
```

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The sprintf() 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 sprintf(string, control-arg, other args);
For example:
 int i = 7;
 float f = 17.041;
 char str[100];
 sprintf(str, "%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 SMALISTR 20
void print card(char s[], 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:
         sprintf(pipstr, "%2i", c.pips);
   switch (c. st){
      case hearts :
         strcpv(suitstr. "Hearts"):
         break:
      case diamonds
         strcpv(suitstr. "Diamonds"):
         break:
      case spades:
         strcpv(suitstr. "Spades"):
         break:
      default :
         strcpy(suitstr, "Clubs");
   sprintf(s, "%s of %s", pipstr, suitstr);
```

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sprintf() 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 0:
```

Execution :

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

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J : 2D Arrays & More Types 88 / 10

Initializing 2D Arrays

A 2D array is declared as follows:

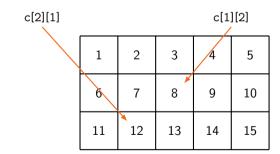
```
#define ROWS 3
#define COLS 5
int a[ROWS][COLS];
```

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.



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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 fillarray (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:

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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 / 10

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 MAXLOOP 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
```

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Call-by-Value

```
1  #include <stdio.h>
2
3  void changex(int x);
4
5  int main(void)
6  {
7   int x = 1;
8   changex(x);
10  printf(~%in*, x);
11  return 0;
12  }
13
14  void changex(int x)
15  {
16   x = x + 1;
17 }
```

Execution:

1

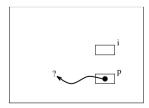
- In the program, the function cannot change the value of v as defined in main() since a copy is made of it.
- To allow a function to modify the value of a variable passed to it we need a mechanism known as call-by-reference, which uses the address of variables (pointers).

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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.

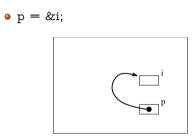
- int i, *p;
- Here i is an int and p is of type pointer to int.
- Pointers have a legal range which includes the special address 0 and a set of positive integers which are the machine addresses of a particular system.



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The **NULL** Pointer

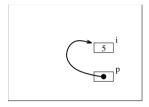




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Equivalence of i and *p

```
\circ i = 5;
```



```
1  #include <stdio.h>
2
3  int main(void)
4  {
5     int i, *p;
6     int i, *p;
7     s     p = &i;
9     i = 5;
10     printf("%i\n", *p);
11     i = 17;
12     printf("%i\n", *p);
13     *p = 99;
14     printf("%i\n", i);
15
16     return 0;
17
18 }
```

Execution:

5 1

99

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scanf Again

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 = \delta xx;

y = *p;
```

• What is this equivalent to ?

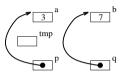
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The swap Function

```
#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:



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

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Arrays are Pointer?

- An array name by itself is simply an address.
- 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:

$$p = a$$
; is completely valid and the same as: $p = \&a[0]$;



 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.:

$$*p = 5;$$

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Summing an Array

```
#include <stdio.h>
     #define NUM 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
17
     int sum(int a[])
18
        int sum = 0:
        for (int i=0: i < NUM: i++) {
           sum += a[i]:
        return sum:
```

```
#include <stdio.h>
     #define NUM 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[])
18
        int sum = 0:
19
20
        for (int i=0: i < NUM: i++){
21
           sum += *(a + i):
22
23
        return sum:
24
```

Execution: Execution:

37

37

```
#include <stdio.h>
     #define NUM 5
     int sum(int a[]):
     int main (void)
        int n[NUM] = \{10, 12, 6, 7, 2\};
        printf("%i\n", sum(n));
        return 0:
     int sum(int a[])
        int sum = 0:
        int *p = a;
        for(int i=0: i <NUM: i++){</pre>
           sum += *p:
           :++q
24
        return sum:
```

Execution :

37

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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[], 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"}:
   sprintf(s. "%s of %s". pipnames[p->pips]. suitnames[p->st]);
```

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