

Contents of Lecture 11

- The C Library

The C Standard Library

- There are 24 header files in C99 and 29 in C11.
- We will go through some of the more important header files.

<assert.h>

- To check that your assumptions hold during execution, you can do as follows:

```
#include <assert.h>

void insert_first(list_t** list, void* data)
{
    assert(*list != NULL);

    /* ... */
}
```

- It is useful during development and can be used for consistency checks.
- Compiling with cc -DNDEBUG will disable the test. Therefore don't do:

```
assert((fp = fopen(name, "r")) != NULL);
```

- assert can be implemented as in Example 13.1.1

- If `NDEBUG` is not defined, the expression is evaluated, and if it is nonzero, nothing happens.
- If the expression is false, an error message is printed and the `abort` function is called.
- Suppose you want to check that a pointer is 8 bytes:

```
assert(sizeof(void*) == 8);
```

- How can you check that during compilation?

Why is the following wrong?

```
#if sizeof(void*) != 8
#error the program assumes a pointer is 8 bytes.
#endif
```

Static assertion

- Since the preprocessor knows nothing about the `sizeof` operator we must do something else.
- C11 has a new construct for it called `_Static_assert`, but we can easily define a macro.
- The idea is:

```
int array[ sizeof(void*) == 8 ? 1 : -1 ];
```

- If the expression is false, we would declare an array with `-1` elements which the compiler must complain about.
- To avoid:
 - actually declaring an array and waste memory,
 - having to invent a different array name every time

... we can do as in Example 9.11.1, which instead of an array variable declares an array `typedef` (wastes no memory) and uses token concatenation (`##`) to make the line number part of the name.

Stastic assert in ANSI C

```
#define PASTE(a,b)      a##b
#define EXPAND(a,b)      PASTE(a,b)
#define STATIC_ASSERT(expr) typedef char EXPAND \
                           (failed_static_assertion_in_line_,__LINE__) \
                           [(expr) ? 1 : -1]
```

<ctype.h>

- <ctype.h> contains classification functions such as `isdigit`.
- They take an `int` parameter and return a nonzero value to indicate truth.
- It is wrong to write:

```
if (isdigit(c) == 1)
    /* ... */
```

Since the return value equally well could be 2 if `c` is a digit.

- Defines macros for exceptions:

FE_DIVBYZERO

FE_INEXACT

FE_INVALID

FE_OVERFLOW

FE_UNDERFLOW

- Defines macros for rounding modes:

FE_DOWNWARD

FE_TONEAREST

FE_TOWARDZERO

FE_UPWARD

Exceptions

- The exceptions can be set both by hardware and software.
- When a math function detects an invalid input argument it should set the FE_INVALID bit in the processor's floating point status register.
- There are functions for fetching a copy of the floating point status register and for testing and clearing bits, and other operations — see below.

- C has traditionally stored error codes in a variable called `errno`.
- There are three standard errors:
 - EDOM
 - ERANGE
 - EILSEQ
- The first two refer to math errors: an argument was not in the domain of the function and the return value could not be represented in the range of the return type.
- The EILSEQ is used with an invalid multibyte character sequence.
- Operating systems define others such as
 - ENOENT for "No such file or directory", and
 - EPERM for "Permission denied".

Using errno

- We should set errno to zero before any call which might fail such as opening or removing a file and some math functions.
- For example:

```
#include <errno.h>
#include <stdio.h>

int main(void)
{
    errno = 0;
    if (remove("/") == -1)
        perror("cannot remove \"/\"");
```

- `errno` behaves as if it was declared as a global variable `int errno;`
- For multi-threaded programs this doesn't work very well — due to data-races.
- Each thread gets its own copy of `errno` and this typically is implemented as:

```
int* __get_errno_for_current_thread(void)
{
```

```
    return &current_thread->errno;
```

```
}
```

```
#define errno (*__get_errno_for_current_thread())
```

- Then we can use it as:

```
errno = 0;
```

```
/* ... */
```

errno and C11

- With C11 we can instead declare `errno` using:

```
_Thread_local int errno;
```

- This way each thread gets its own copy of `errno`.

Reporting errors from libraries

- `errno` is intended for use by system libraries such as the API's for performing system calls and Pthread libraries.
- System calls are special function calls provided by the operating system which means Windows has one set of system calls and UNIX, including MacOS X, Linux and AIX, have other sets.
- To report errors from your own libraries, it is often a good idea to define an enum with the different error codes.

- Compile with `-lm` at the end of the command: `gcc a.c -lm`
- Traditionally `errno` is used but C99 allows math exceptions to be tested in a different way.
- We need to check which way the library reports math errors using `math_errhandling`:

```
errno = 0;  
sqrt(-1);
```

```
if (math_errhandling & MATH_ERRNO)  
    /* ... */
```

```
if (math_errhandling & MATH_ERREXCEPT)  
    /* ... */
```

Math errors reported with errno

```
if (math_errhandling & MATH_ERRNO) {  
    if (errno == EDOM)  
        puts("EDOM");  
}
```

Math errors reported as exceptions

```
if (math_errhandling & MATH_ERREXCEPT) {  
    except = fetestexcept(FE_ALL_EXCEPT);  
    if (except & FE_INVALID)  
        puts("FE_INVALID");  
}
```

<inttypes.h>

- Using <stdint.h> we can declare integers with 8, 16, 32, or 64 bits such as int32_t.
- This always works on normal computers but very special might not support these types.
- How should we print them?

```
int32_t           a;
```

```
printf("a = %d\n", a); // not portable
printf("a = %ld\n", a); // not portable
```

- What should we do?

<inttypes.h>

- This header file declares macros which are strings that can be used.
- For example:

```
#include <inttypes.h>

int32_t          a;

printf("a = %" PRId32 " \n", a);
```

- <inttypes.h> includes <stdint.h>.
- Strictly speaking this is also not portable since it is implementation defined whether there is an `int32_t` but if there is, this is how to print it.
- For instance a DSP-processor with 24-bit `int` may not have `int32_t`.

- To jump to a label L we use goto L;
- In C we can also jump from one function to another.
- Consider:

```
void g(void) { /* ... */ }
void f(void) { g(); }
int main(void)
{
    /* ... */
    f();
}
```

- Usually g returns to f which returns to main.
- If we wish we can return from g directly to main.
- Instead of return we use longjmp.
- longjmp has an even worse reputation than goto and is rarely useful.

What is the context of an executing thread?

- Program counter or PC
- Registers
- To make a jump to a function f , that function must already have an allocated stack frame and its program counter and registers must have been saved.
- Thus e.g. `main` cannot jump into the middle of any function — a call to the jumped-to function must already be active such as the call to `f` above.
- There is a type `jmp_buf` in which the PC and registers are saved.
- A jump is performed by loading all registers and finally the PC from such a `jmp_buf` variable.

Non-local jumps with setjmp and longjmp

- To make a non-local jump, two operations are needed:
- Initialize the `jmp_buf` variable — using `setjmp`.
- Calling the function `longjmp` with the `jmp_buf` variable as one of the parameters.
- The call to `longjmp` will result in another return from `setjmp`!
- To distinguish the initialization call of `setjmp` and the returning jump, `setjmp` returns zero when called to initialize a `jmp_buf` variable and the second parameter to `longjmp` otherwise.

Typical usage

```
#include <setjmp.h>

jmp_buf buf;

int main(void)
{
    switch (setjmp(buf)) {
        case 0: /* initialization. */ break;
        case 1: /* from longjmp. */ break;
    }
}

void g(void)
{
    if (must_stop())
        longjmp(buf, 1);
}
```

Remarks

- Almost always non-local jumps are not needed.
- In a chess program which has found a winning move it can be appropriate to terminate a deep recursive search using `longjmp`.
- Functions with non-local jumps are **very** annoying to optimizing compilers and often result in slower code.

<signal.h>

- A signal is a way of notifying a running program that something has happened.

Signal	Example cause	Default effect
SIGABRT	abort();	Terminate the process
SIGFPE	Implementation defined	Terminate the process
SIGILL	Illegal instruction	Terminate the process
SIGINT	Ctrl-C	Terminate the process
SIGSEGV	Invalid address	Terminate the process
SIGTERM	kill <pid>	Terminate the process

Some UNIX-specific signals

Signal	Cause	Default effect
SIGSTOP	Ctrl-Z	Stop the process
SIGSTOP	kill -SIGSTOP <pid>	Stop the process
SIGCONT	kill -SIGCONT <pid>	Resume the process
SIGBUS	eg non-alignad memory access	Terminate the process
SIGKILL	kill -SIGKILL <pid>	Terminate the process
SIGKILL	kill -9 <pid>	Terminate the process
SIGKILL	pkill -9 -u stilid	Terminate stilid's processes
	kill -l	List all signals

Common use

- To get informed about a signal, sent from the operating system, we must register a so called signal handler.
- A signal handler is simply a function that the operating system runs for us.
- If we have not registered a signal handler before a signal is received our program usually is terminated, i.e. that is the default action.
- To register a signal handler `catch_ctrl_c` for `SIGINT` we can do:

```
#include <signal.h>

void catch_ctrl_c(int s) { /* ... */ }

int main(void)
{
    signal(SIGINT, catch_ctrl_c); for (;;) ;
}
```

The signal function

- The signal function tells the operating system which function to call instead of terminating our program.
- The function `signal` returns the previously registered function for a particular signal number.
- The declaration of the `signal` is perhaps confusing to read:

```
void (*signal(int signum, void (*func)(int)))(int);
```

- The two parameters to `signal` are `signum` and `func`.
- The `*` before `signal` is there due to the return value is a pointer (to a function).
- Since the same function can be signal handler for different signals, the `int` parameter of the signal handler specifies which signal occurred.

Delivering a signal

- When an event happens which triggers a signal, the operating system blocks additional instances of the same signal to avoid having the signal handler being invoked multiple times for the same signal.
- This blocking is removed when the signal handler returns to the operating system.
- After that, the operating system will let the program resume execution.
- What happens if the signal handler instead of returning makes a `longjmp`?
- The signal will remain blocked since the operating system still thinks the signal handler has not returned.

- To convert a number in string to an integer, the function `strtol` is useful.
- It takes three parameters:
 - A pointer to a string: `char* s`
 - An optional pointer to a pointer to a string: `char** end`
 - The base, 2-36 — or zero and then the base is inferred from the string.
- The function sets `*end` to point to the first character after the number — unless `end` is a null pointer.
- For example:

```
int      a;  
char*   end;  
  
a = strtol("119", &end, 2);
```

`a` is set to 3 and `end` to point to the 9.

- To split a string into parts, called tokens, the function strtok can be used.
- It is used in two phases:
 - First two parameters are provided:

```
char*      s;
char      a[] = "a string. hi: there";
char*      sep = " :.";

s = strtok(a, sep);
```

- The first parameter **must be modifiable**.
- The second parameter contains a set of characters which are used to separate tokens.
- If the first parameter is null, search continues in the previously used string.

strtok example

- For example:

```
char* s;
char a[] = "a string. hi: there";
char* sep = " :.";

s = strtok(a, sep);
while (s != NULL) {
    printf("%s ", s);
    s = strtok(NULL, sep);
}
```

- The output will be: a string hi there
- The returned string assigned to s is null-terminated!
- That means strtok modifies the first non-null parameter which therefore must be modifiable.
- Using char* s= "hello there"; may result in a read-only string!

Sorting array of int using qsort

- an array (i.e. a pointer to the first element)
- number of elements
- size of each element
- a comparison function

```
int compare(const void* ap, const void* bp)
{
    const int*      a = ap;
    const int*      b = bp;

    // don't use: return *a - *b;

    if (*a < *b)
        return -1;
    else if (*a == *b)
        return 0;
    else
        return 1;
}
```

Buffer overflows

- A buffer overflow means array index out-of-bounds errors.
- Checking that an array index is within the array bounds is not done in C, as in Java.
- The checking is only useful for programs with bugs.
- To avoid such errors, the following simple rule is sufficient:
Don't trust untrusted data.
- In other words, make a sanity check for all input, and use range checking library functions.
- When there is a risk for overflow: check it explicitly.
- For C: make the calculation (how depends on the type).
- Java does also not report errors on overflow (and cannot check it for floating point values).

An example: sprintf and snprintf

- Both functions behave as `printf` but put their output in a buffer pointed to by the first parameter.
- The output is null terminated.
- `sprintf` assumes the buffer is sufficiently large.
- The second parameter of `snprintf` specifies the buffer size.

Never use gets

- The function gets reads the next line of input from stdin and copies it to a buffer supplied to gets.
- No length check is done. Don't use gets. It may disappear from C.
- Use fgets instead which takes a buffer, a size, and a FILE pointer as parameters.

Another example: strcpy and strncpy

- strcpy copies the string pointed to by the second parameter into memory pointed to by the first parameter upto and including the terminating null byte.
- strncpy does the same but copies at most n bytes.
- Warning: strncpy may skip the null byte!
- Similar situation for strcat which appends a string.
- Use strncat instead.

C vs C++

- I was once requested to answer the question of why we should program in C when there is a language called C++.
- C compilers are reliable. The complexity of C++ makes me think that not even a C++ front-end will ever be bug-free.
- C is nicer than Fortran — the other high-performance language.
- It is possible to make C code inefficient using a bad algorithm or for instance by not calling functions directly but always through a pointer to a struct which contains pointers to functions. This confuses optimizing compilers.
- Virtual functions in C++ behave like that so the main reason for using C++ over C makes your program slower.
- If you recompile a 10-year old C program, normally it just works.
- If you do that with C++ usually it does not compile.
- If a large C++ program actually compiles, it usually takes a long time

More deep problems with C++, from Google

C++ is one of the main development languages used by many of Google's open-source projects. As every C++ programmer knows, the language has many powerful features, but this power brings with it complexity, which in turn can make code more bug-prone and harder to read and maintain. The goal of this guide is to manage this complexity by describing in detail the dos and don'ts of writing C++ code . These rules exist to keep the code base manageable while still allowing coders to use C++ language features productively.