

## Printing with `printf`

specifier	print as ...
<code>%d</code>	decimal integer
<code>%6d</code>	decimal, at least 6 characters wide
<code>%f</code>	floating point
<code>%6f</code>	floating point, at least 6 characters wide
<code>%.2f</code>	floating point, 2 characters after decimal point
<code>%6.2f</code>	floating point, at least 6 wide and 2 after decimal point

- ▶ Further `printf(3)` recognizes `%o` for octal, `%x` for hexadecimal, `%c` for character, `%s` for string, `%p` for address (pointer), ...
- ▶ ISO C: 7.19.6 : Formatted input/output functions

# The for loop

## Fahrenheit-Celsius v2

```
1  /* print fahrenheit-celsius table for fahrenheit = 0, 20, ..., 300 */
2
3  #include <stdio.h>
4
5  int main(void)
6  {
7      int fahr;
8
9      for (fahr = 0; fahr <= 300; fahr = fahr + 20)
10         printf("%3d %6.1f\n", fahr,
11                (5.0/9.0)*(fahr-32));
12
13     return 0;
14 }
```

### Running:

```
1  $ ./a.out
2      0  -17.8
3     20   -6.7
4     40    4.4
5     60   15.6
6     80   26.7
7    100   37.8
8    120   48.9
9    140   60.0
10   160   71.1
11   180   82.2
12   200   93.3
13   220  104.4
14   240  115.6
15   260  126.7
16   280  137.8
17   300  148.9
```

# Symbolic constants

## Fahrenheit-Celsius final

- ▶ Bad practice to bury “magic numbers” in a program
- ▶ Convey little information, hard to change in a systematic way
- ▶ A `#define` line defines a *symbolic name*

```
1  /* print fahrenheit-celsius table for fahrenheit = 0, 20, ..., 300 */
2
3  #include <stdio.h>
4
5  #define LOWER 0    /* lower limit of table */
6  #define UPPER 300 /* upper limit */
7  #define STEP 20   /* step size */
8
9  int main(void)
10 {
11     for (int fahr = LOWER; fahr <= UPPER; fahr += STEP)
12         printf("%3d %6.1f\n", fahr, (5.0/9.0)*(fahr-32));
13
14     return 0;
15 }
```

## 1.4 Character input and output

- ▶ Standard library provides (among the others) `getchar(3)` and `putchar(3)`.

```
#include <stdio.h>

int getchar(void);
int putchar(int c);
```

- ▶ `putchar(3)` prints a character to *stdout* each time it is called.
- ▶ `getchar(3)` reads the next input byte from *stdin* stream

**Question** Why does `getchar` return an `int` instead of `char`?

## Answer

- ▶ When there is no more input, `getchar` returns a distinctive value called `EOF` (end of file; a symbolic name, defined in `<stdio.h>`), which cannot be confused with data.
- ▶ The return type must be big enough to hold `EOF` in addition to any possible `char`.

## File Copying

Given `getchar` and `putchar` we can write a surprising amount of useful code without knowing anything more about input and output.

**Algo** Copying input to output one character at a time

read a character

**while** character is not end-of-file indicator **do**

    output the character just read

    read a character

**end while**

# File Copying, v1

```
1 #include <stdio.h>
2
3 /* copy input to output, v1 */
4 int main(void)
5 {
6     int c = getchar();
7
8     while (c != EOF) {
9         putchar(c);
10        c = getchar();
11    }
12    return 0;
13 }
```

## File Copying, v2

- ▶ An assignment, such as `c = getchar()` is an expression and has a value (value of the left hand side after the assignment)
- ▶ An assignment can appear as part of a larger expression

```
1 #include <stdio.h>
2
3 /* copy input to output, v2 */
4 int main(void)
5 {
6     int c;
7
8     while ((c = getchar()) != EOF)
9         putchar(c);
10
11     return 0;
12 }
```



# Character Counting, v1

```
1 #include <stdio.h>
2
3 /* count characters in input, v1 */
4 int main(void)
5 {
6     long nc = 0;
7
8     while (getchar() != EOF)
9         nc = nc + 1;
10    printf("%ld\n", nc);
11
12    return 0;
13 }
```

# Character Counting, v2

```
1 #include <stdio.h>
2
3 /* count characters in input, v2 */
4 int main(void)
5 {
6     long nc = 0;
7
8     for (; getchar() != EOF; nc = nc + 1)
9         ;
10    printf("%ld\n", nc);
11
12    return 0;
13 }
```

## 1.5 Functions

### power(m,n)

- ▶ So far only `printf(3)`, `getchar(3)`, and `putchar(3)`
- ▶ Implement `power(m,n)` to raise an integer  $m$  to the power<sup>13</sup> of  $n$ .

**A function definition** has the form:

```
1 type name( type parameter [, ...] )      /* or: name(void) */  
2 {  
3     declarations  
4     statements  
5 }
```

---

<sup>13</sup>Only handles positive powers of small integers, in real life take `pow(3)`

```
1 #include <stdio.h>
2
3 /* power: raise base to  $n$ -th power;  $n \geq 0$  */
4 int power(int base, int n)
5 {
6     int i, p;
7
8     p = 1;
9     for (i = 0; i < n; ++i)
10         p = p * base;
11     return p;
12 }
13
14
15 /* test power function */
16 int main(void)
17 {
18     int i;
19
20     for (i = 0; i < 10; i++)
21         printf("%d %3d %6d\n", i, power(2, i), power(-3, i));
22     return 0;
23 }
```

## Function Terminology

- A **function definition** gives signature and implementation:

```
4 int power(int base, int n)
5 {
6     int i, p;
7
8     p = 1;
9     for (i = 0; i < n; ++i)
10         p = p * base;
11     return p;
12 }
```

- A **parameter** is a variable named in the argument list, e.g., `base`, `n`.
- An **argument** is a value used in a call of the function.

- A **function declaration** omits the implementation:

```
int power(int base, int n); /* no body! */
```

- A function must be declared *before* it can be used!
- A definition also declares a function.
- We will not need to write declarations for some time...

## 1.6 Call by value, call by reference

In C, all function arguments are passed **by value**

- ▶ The called function is given the values of its arguments in **temporary variables** (lifetime of function's execution) rather than the originals.
- ▶ The callee **cannot directly alter** a variable in the calling function.

Call **by reference** is possible

- ▶ by passing the **address** of a variable (*aka.* a pointer).
- ▶ The callee can access the variable *indirectly* by **dereferencing** the address.
- ▶ The pointer itself is passed by value.
- ▶ We will discuss pointers in more detail at a later point.

## 1.7 Arrays

### One Dimensional Arrays

Syntax: `memberType arrayName[ numberOfMembers ];`

► Most simple:

```
int a[2]; /* at this point, the contents are undefined! */
a[0] = 23; /* store 23 in 1st cell. */
a[1] = 42;
```

► Shortcut:

```
int a[2] = {23, 42}; /* initialize right away */
```

► Even shorter:

```
int a[] = {23, 42}; /* Compiler figures out size of array. */
```

► If not all items are given, the rest is initialised to 0.

```
int a[8] = {23, 42}; /* is the same as */
int a[] = {23, 42, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0};
```

► Use `for` loop to initialize bigger arrays, or `memset(3)` (cf. later).

## Multidimensional arrays

### ► Most simple:

```
int a[2][3];      /* at this point, the contents are undefined */  
a[1][2] = 52;    /* assign to 3rd cell in 2nd array */
```

### ► Classic:

```
int a[2][3] = {{1, 2, 3}, {4, 5, 6}};
```

### ► Shortcut:

```
int a[][3] = {{1, 2, 3}, {4, 5, 6}};
```

You may omit *only* the most significant (first, *i.e.*, outer) dimension!

- Stored in memory linearly, *i.e.*: 

1	2	3	4	5	6
---	---	---	---	---	---
- Use **for** loop to initialize bigger arrays, or `memset(3)` (*cf.* later)
- If not all items are given, the rest is initialised to 0.

```
int a[3][4] = { {1,2}, {3} }; /* is the same as */  
int a[][4] = { {1, 2, 0, 0}, {3, 0, 0, 0}, {0, 0, 0, 0} };
```



## Counting digits, white spaces, and the rest

Count the number of occurrences of each digit, of white space characters (blank, tab, newline), and all other characters.

Intended usage:

```
1 $ ./a.out < count_digits.c  
2 digits: 10 3 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 1, white space: 122, other: 360
```

## Coding conventions

```
1 #include <stdio.h> /* count digits, white space, others */
2 int main(void){
3     int c, nwhite, nother, ndigit[10];
4     nwhite = nother = 0;
5     for (int i = 0; i < 10; ++i)
6         ndigit[i] = 0;
7     while ((c = getchar()) != EOF)
8         if (c >= '0' && c <= '9') ++ndigit[c-'0']; else
9             if (c == ' ' || c == '\n' || c == '\t') ++nwhite;
10            else ++nother; printf("digits:");
11            for (int i = 0; i < 10; ++i) printf(" %d", ndigit[i]);
12            printf(", white space: %d, other: %d\n", nwhite, nother);
13            return 0;
14 }
```

- ▶ Coding conventions make your life harder only once.
- ▶ Ugly code sucks every time you read it.
- ▶ See examples<sup>14</sup> at the International Obfuscated C Code Contest.

---

<sup>14</sup><http://www.ioccc.org>

```
1 #include <stdio.h>
2
3 /* count digits, white space, others */
4 int main(void)
5 {
6     int c, nwhite, nother, ndigit[10];
7
8     nwhite = nother = 0;
9     for (int i = 0; i < 10; ++i)
10         ndigit[i] = 0;
11
12     while ((c = getchar()) != EOF)
13         if (c >= '0' && c <= '9')
14             ++ndigit[c-'0'];
15         else if (c == ' ' || c == '\n' || c == '\t')
16             ++nwhite;
17         else
18             ++nother;
19
20     printf("digits:");
21     for (int i = 0; i < 10; ++i)
22         printf(" %d", ndigit[i]);
23     printf(", white space: %d, other: %d\n", nwhite, nother);
24
25     return 0;
26 }
```

## Fixed- and variable-length arrays

- ▶ C90 allows only **constant**<sup>15</sup> **expressions** as array dimensions.
- ▶ In C99, **variable-length arrays** (VLAs) have been introduced.
  - They **cannot be initialised** in their declaration.
  - **Caution:** VLAs are rather tricky, and have a bunch of interesting consequences. You will not need them for your exercises.
  - You **cannot change** the size of a VLA once it is declared (*i.e.*, they are not *dynamic*).

```
#define SIZE 1024
int a[42 * SIZE];
```

```
1 #include <stdio.h>
2
3 int func(int c)
4 {
5     /* This is a conditional expression: */
6     return c < 10 ? 10 : c;
7 }
8
9 int main(void)
10 {
11     /* Bounds only known at runtime! */
12     int a[func(getchar())];
13
14     a[2] = 3;
15     printf("%d\n", a[2]);
16     return 0;
17 }
```

<sup>15</sup>*i.e.*, can be computed at compile-time by the compiler

## Passing arrays to functions

An array is passed **by reference** to a function.

- ▶ This is **not** the entire truth! (We'll need pointers to understand the gory details)
- ▶ Careful: The callee may **modify** the array contents.

```
1 #include <stdio.h>
2
3 void set(int a[], int i, int v)
4 {
5     a[i] = v;
6 }
7
8 int main(void)
9 {
10     int a[5] = { 0 };    /* What does this do? */
11
12     set(a, 2, 23);
13     set(a, 0, 42);
14
15     for (int i = 0; i < 5; i++)
16         printf("%d\n", a[i]);
17
18     return 0;
19 }
```

### Output

```
1 $ ./a.out
2 42
3 0
4 23
5 0
6 0
```

## 1.8 Character arrays

**Definition** A **string** is an array of characters terminated with a `'\0'` character (nul; numerical value is zero).

Yes, that is *nul*, with only one  $\ell$

- ▶ So is `"hello\n"` is stored as 

h	e	l	l	o	\n	\0
---	---	---	---	---	----	----
- ▶ A string containing  $n$  characters requires  $n + 1$  memory!
- ▶ A string does not know its own length.

**Note** You may have an **array of characters**, with none of them being nul.

- ▶ Perfectly valid, but **not a string!**
- ▶ String manipulating functions probably **will fail** on that data!

## Initialization of character arrays

### ▶ Character by character:

```
char str[3];  
str[0] = 'o';  
str[1] = 'k';  
str[2] = '\\0';
```

### ▶ Shorter:

```
char str[] = {'o', 'k', '\\0'};
```

### ▶ Initialising from a string literal:

```
char str[20] = "ok";           /* str[2] and onwards are automatically assigned '\\0' */
```

### ▶ Without giving the dimension:

```
char str[] = "ok";             /* The dimension will be... What? */
```

# Arrays of character arrays

- Initialised from string literals:

```
1 char arr[3][12]= { "University",  
2                   "of",  
3                   "Konstanz" };
```

- You are only allowed to omit the **outermost** dimension:

```
1 char arr[][12]= { "University",  
2                 "of",  
3                 "Konstanz" };
```

**Question:** How much memory does `arr` use?



## Find the longest line

`longline.c` – reads a set of text lines and prints the longest<sup>16</sup> one.

### Program outline:

```
while there is another line do  
    if it's longer than the previous longest line then  
        save it  
        save its length  
    end if  
end while  
print the longest line
```

---

<sup>16</sup>we assume an upper limit, say 1000 characters

## Splitting the program into functions

The program divides naturally into pieces

- ▶ Function `getline` fetches the next line of input
  - It needs to signal end-of-file
  - We let it return the length of the line, or zero on `EOF`
  - Zero is appropriate because it is never a valid line length  
Since a line, by definition, ends in `'\n'`.
- ▶ Function `copy` copies a line to a safe place
- ▶ Function `main` to control `getline` and `copy`

## main

```
1 #include <stdio.h>
2 #define MAXLINE 1000 /* maximum input line size */
```

...two helper functions are on the following slides...

```
28 /* print longest input line */
29 int main(void)
30 {
31     int len;           /* current line length */
32     int max;           /* maximum length seen so far */
33     char line[MAXLINE]; /* current input line */
34     char longest[MAXLINE]; /* longest line saved here */
35
36     max = 0;
37     while ((len = getline(line, MAXLINE)) > 0)
38         if (len > max) {
39             max = len;
40             copy(longest, line);
41         }
42     if (max > 0) /* there was a line */
43         printf("%s", longest);
44     return 0;
45 }
```

## Getting a line

```
4  /* getline: read a line into buf, return length */
5  int getline(char buf[], int lim)
6  {
7      int c, i;
8
9      for (i = 0;
10         i < lim-1 && (c = getchar()) != EOF && c != '\n';
11         i++)
12         buf[i] = (char)c;
13     if (c == '\n') {
14         buf[i] = (char)c;
15         i++;
16     }
17     buf[i] = '\0';
18     return i;
19 }
```

- ▶ `getline` adds `'\0'` (the *null character* nul; value is zero) at the end of the array to mark the end of the string
- ▶ returns the length of the string including newline

## Copy a string

```
21 /* copy: copy 'from' into 'to'; assume 'to' is big enough */
22 void copy(char to[], char from[])
23 {
24     for (int i = 0; (to[i] = from[i]) != '\0'; i++)
25         ;
26 }
```

- ▶ `copy` does not return a value, `void` explicitly states this
- ▶ `copy` is used for its side-effect.

## Testing

```
1 $ ./a.out <longline.c
2 /* copy: copy 'from' into 'to'; assume 'to' is big enough */
```

## 2 Pointers

## 2.1 Memory is just a sequence of bytes

```

1 int main(void)
2 {
3     char c = 'B';
4     unsigned int i = 0xdeadbeef;
5
6     return 0;
7 }

```

- ▶ The memory cells are enumerated  
⇒ **Memory address**
- ▶ Variables occupy **space** in memory, the amount depending on their **type**.
- ▶ The **sizeof** operator (*cf.* later) gives the size of a type:

```

sizeof(char)  =  1    (by definition)
sizeof(int)   =  4    (this may vary)

```

<i>variable</i>	<i>address</i>	<i>memory</i>	
	0xffffd85f		
i	0xffffd860	0xef	} <i>int</i>
	0xffffd861	0xbe	
	0xffffd862	0xad	
	0xffffd863	0xde	
	0xffffd864		
	0xffffd865		
	0xffffd866		
c	0xffffd867	B	} <i>char</i>
	0xffffd868		

# Data types and sizes

## Sizes are machine-dependent

- ▶ Each compiler is free to choose **appropriate sizes** for its own hardware. ISO C defines compile-time limits:
  - `short` and `int` are *at least* 16 bit
  - `long` is *at least* 32 bit
  - `short` is no longer than `int`, `int` is no longer than `long`
- ▶ Can be obtained with the `sizeof` operator.
- ▶ Numerical limits<sup>17</sup> are documented in `<limits.h>` and `<float.h>`. Additional limits are specified in `<stdint.h>`<sup>18</sup>

## On my machine

<code>char</code>	1
<code>short int</code>	2
<code>int</code>	4
<code>long int</code>	8
<code>long long int</code>	8
<code>float</code>	4
<code>double</code>	8
<code>long double</code>	16
<code>void *</code>	8

<sup>17</sup>ISO C99 : 7.10/5.2.4.2 : Numerical limits

<sup>18</sup>ISO C99 : 7.18 : Integer Types



## Assignments

An **assignment** stores data at a location in memory.

```
x = y;
```

- ▶ Symbol `x` refers to the **place in memory** where the variable content is stored.
  - This is called an **l-value**, as in *locator*, or *left-hand-side*.
- ▶ Symbol `y` refers to the **data** stored at `y`'s place in memory.
  - This is called an **r-value**, as in *right-hand-side*.
- ▶ An r-value that is not an l-value: `x+y`, the result of which lies in a CPU register.

The type determines **how much data** is copied in the assignment:

- ▶ `char x, y;`  $\Rightarrow$  copy 1 byte.
- ▶ `double x, y;`  $\Rightarrow$  copy 8 bytes.

## 2.2 Introduction to pointers

- ▶ A **pointer** is just a variable that contains a memory address.
- ▶ Size of a pointer is 4/8 bytes on a 32/64 bit machine, **independent** of the type of data it points to.
- ▶ At compile time, the compiler knows what type of data a pointer points to (we will use this information later). There are exceptions.

- ▶ **Declaring a pointer**

```
int *p;      /* variable p points to an int */  
char *q;     /* variable q points to a char */
```

- ▶ Note, that the **\*** belongs to the *variable*, not to the *type*, i.e.,

```
int *p, i, *q;    /* p, q are pointers, i is an int */  
char c, *r;       /* r is a pointer, c is a char */  
int* bad, style;  /* pun intended: discuss type of style */
```

### Question What is this?

```
double *dp, atof(char *);
```

## The address operator: &

```
1 int main(void)
2 {
3     unsigned int i, *p;
4
5     i = 0xdeadbeef;
6     p = &i; /* p points to i */
7
8     (void)p;
9     return 0;
10 }
```

- ▶ Unary operator `&` gives the **starting address** of an object.
- ▶ `&` only applies to objects in memory, e.g., variables, array elements..., **not** `&(x+3)`, `&42`, ...

variable	address	memory	
i	0xffffd860	0xef	integer
	0xffffd861	0xbe	
	0xffffd862	0xad	
	0xffffd863	0xde	
p	0xffffd864	0x60	pointer
	0xffffd865	0xd8	
	0xffffd866	0xff	
	0xffffd867	0xff	

# Exploring memory

We can actually observe this...

Note that this example was observed on a 64bit machine. Thus, the pointers use 8 bytes!

```
$ pk-cc pointer_int.c
$ gdb a.out
GNU gdb (GDB) 7.6.1
[...]
```

```
(gdb) start
[...enter s (i.e., step) several times...]
9             return 0;
(gdb) p/x i // print var i in hex
$1 = 0xdeadbeef
(gdb) p p // print var p
$2 = (unsigned int *) 0x7fffffff6d4
(gdb) x/4b $2 // examine 4 bytes at the address
0x7fffffff6d4: 0xef  0xbe  0xad  0xde
(gdb) p &p // where is the pointer
$4 = (unsigned int **) 0x7fffffff6d8
(gdb) x/8b $4 // what does it look like? my pointers are 64 bit wide
0x7fffffff6d8: 0xd4  0xe6  0xff  0xff  0xff  0x7f  0x00  0x00
```

## The dereferencing operator: \*

```
1 #include <stdio.h>
2
3 int main(void)
4 {
5     int i = 23,
6         *p = NULL; /* initialize pointer p, not the integer */
7
8     p = &i; /* copy address of i into p */
9     i = 42; /* change value of i */
10
11     printf("%d\n", *p); /* get what p points to */
12
13     return 0;
14 }
```

### Output:

```
1 $ ./a.out
2 42
```

- ▶ `*p` returns the data `p` points to.
- ▶ The special value `NULL` can be assigned to any pointer. It **must not** be dereferenced  $\Rightarrow$  points nowhere.

## void pointer

- ▶ A **void** pointer carries an address, but the compiler **does not know** (*i.e.*, does not maintain) the type of data pointed to.

- ▶ **Declaration**

```
1 void *p;    /* type of referenced data unknown */
```

- ▶ Cannot be dereferenced  $\Rightarrow$  typecast required.

```
2 int y, x = 23;  
3 p = &x;      /* p gets address of x, but type information is not passed on */  
4 y = *(int *)p;
```

- ▶ Can be assigned to/from any pointer variable.

```
5 int *ip;  
6 ip = p;     /* ip points to x, assuming an int there */
```

- ▶ In fact, somewhere in the **#included** (*cf.* later) code, there is:

```
7 #define NULL (void *)0
```

- ▶ **printf**(3) directive **%p** prints the value of a **void** pointer.

## Watch out!

```
1 #include <stdio.h>
2
3 int main(void)
4 {
5     int    *ip, i = 23;
6     double *dp, d = 3.14159;
7     void   *p;
8
9     p = &i;
10    ip = p;
11    printf("%p %d\n", p, *ip);
12
13    p = &d;
14    dp = p;
15    printf("%p %f\n", p, *dp);
16
17    ip = p;
18    printf("%p %d\n", p, *ip);
19
20    return 0;
21 }
```

## Output:

```
$ ./a.out
0xffee9480 23
0xffee9478 3.141590
0xffee9478 -266631570
```

► What went wrong here?

## 2.3 Operator precedence

- ▶ Unary operator `*` and `&` bind more tightly than binary arithmetic ops.

```
y = *ip + 1;
```

- takes whatever `ip` points at
- adds 1, and assigns the result to `y`

- ▶ The following statements<sup>19</sup> have the same effect:

```
*ip += 1;  
++*ip;  
(*ip)++;
```

- All statements increment what `ip` points at
- The **parentheses are necessary** in this last example.  
Otherwise, the expression would **increment the pointer `ip`** instead of what it points to. (We will use this later...)

---

<sup>19</sup>the returned value is unused



## Operator precedence rules

From highest (top) to lowest (bottom)

arity	assoc.	operators
1	postfix	<code>++, --, (), []</code>
2	left	<code>. -&gt;</code>
1	prefix	<code>++, --, +, -, !, ~, (type), *, &amp;, sizeof</code>
2	left	<code>*, /, %</code>
2	left	<code>+, -</code>
2	left	<code>&lt;&lt;, &gt;&gt;</code>
2	left	<code>&lt;, &gt;, &lt;=, &gt;=</code>
2	left	<code>==, !=</code>
2	left	<code>&amp;</code>
2	left	<code>^</code>
2	left	<code> </code>
2	left	<code>&amp;&amp;</code>
2	left	<code>  </code>
3	right ?	<code>?:</code> But <code>a?b,c:d</code> is parsed as <code>a?(b,c):d</code>
2	right	<code>=, +=, -=, *=, /=, %=, &lt;&lt;=, &gt;&gt;=, &amp;=, ^=,  =</code>
2	left	<code>,</code>

## 2.4 Call by reference

### Passing pointers to functions

```
1  #include <stdio.h>
2
3  void swap(int *px, int *py)
4  {
5      int tmp;
6
7      tmp = *px;
8      *px = *py;
9      *py = tmp;
10 }
11
12 int main(void)
13 {
14     int x = 23, y = 42;
15
16     printf("x=%d, y=%d\n", x, y);
17     swap(&x, &y);
18     printf("x=%d, y=%d\n", x, y);
19
20     return 0;
21 }
```

- Pointer arguments enable a function to access and change objects in the calling function.
- Can you use `swap` to swap `chars`? `doubles`?

## Function `getint()`: Get integer from input

- ▶ The program is fed with a space-separated sequence of integers.
- ▶ Write a function `getint()`, which reads the next integer from *stdin* every time it is called, as long as there is more input.

```
1 $ ./a.out <<<'0 1 -12 12345'  
2 0  
3 1  
4 -12  
5 12345
```

The function `getint()` has to

- ▶ return the integer values it found, and
- ▶ signal end of file (`EOF`, when there is no more (valid) input).

**Question:** What is the problem?

## Seperate paths back to caller

### Problem Statement:

- ▶ No matter what value is used for `EOF`, it could also be the value of an input integer.

**Solution**<sup>20</sup> The values are passed back through **seperate paths**.

- ▶ Let `getint` return an **indicator of success**.
- ▶ Use **pointer argument** to hand back the converted integer.

---

<sup>20</sup>This approach is used often in C

## Using `getint()`

Repeatedly get and print an integer, until end of file, or invalid input:

```
31 int main(void)
32 {
33     int i;
34
35     while (getint(&i))
36         printf("%d\n", i);
37
38     return 0;
39 }
```

- ▶ Each call returns the next integer found in input.
- ▶ It is essential to pass the **address of `i`** to `getint`, this is where the converted integer is “returned” to the caller.

## getint()

```
6 int getint(int *p)          /* Return 0 on EOF, 1 otherwise. Store int at passed address */
7 {
8     int c, sign = 1;
9
10    while (isspace(c = getchar())) /* cf. isspace(3) */
11        ; /* skip white space */
12
13    if (c == '-') { /* store optional minus sign */
14        sign = -1;
15        c = getchar();
16    }
17
18    if (!isdigit(c)) /* pathological case */
19        return 0;
20
21    *p = c - '0'; /* parse the digits */
22    while (isdigit(c = getchar()))
23        *p = 10 * *p + c - '0';
24
25    *p *= sign; /* apply sign */
26
27    return 1;
28 }
```

## 2.5 Pointer arithmetics

### Arrays and Pointers

- ▶ An array variable never is an l-value (*i.e.*, one cannot assign to it).
- ▶ The value of an array variable is the **address of the first element**.

```
int a[2];  
int *pi = a; /* the same as &a[0] */
```

### Exceptions If the array is...

- ▶ ...operand of `sizeof`, the size of the array is returned,

```
printf("%zu\n", sizeof(a)); /* size in chars, not array cells */
```

- ▶ ...operand of `&`, the address of the first element is returned, typed as “pointer to array”

```
int (*pi2)[] = &a; /* we will come back to this later */
```

- ▶ ...a literal string initializer for a character array, the array is initialised with the string.

```
char a[] = "Hello world";
```

## Pointer into array

- Any operation achieved by **array subscripting** can also be done with **pointers**.

```
1 int a[5];      /* Define an array a of size 5 */  
2 int *pa;      /* Pointer to an integer */  
3 int x;
```

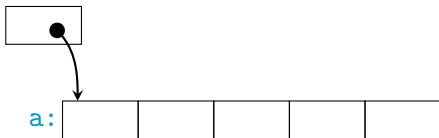
a: 

--	--	--	--	--

a[0] a[1] a[2] a[3] a[4]

```
4 pa = &a[0];   /* same as pa = a */  
5 x = *pa;
```

pa



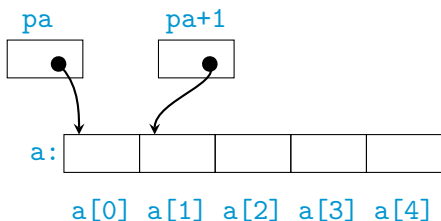
a[0] a[1] a[2] a[3] a[4]

- Assignment `pa = &a[0]` sets `pa` to point to element zero of `a`.
- Assignment `x = *pa;` copies the content of `a[0]` into `x`



## Adding 1 to a pointer

- ▶ If `pa` points to a particular element of an array,
- ▶ then, *by definition*, `pa+1` points to the **next element**
  - Here, the size of the type is utilised!

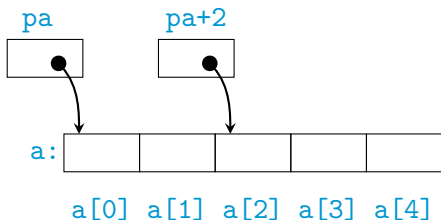


**In general** If `pa` points to any array element, then

- ▶ `pa+1` points to the next element (if it exists), and
- ▶ `pa-1` points to the previous element (if it exists).

## Adding $i$ to a pointer

- ▶ If  $pa$  points to  $a[0]$ , then  $*(pa+2)$  refers to the contents of  $a[2]$ .



**In general** If  $pa$  points to  $a[k]$ , then

- ▶  $pa+i$  evaluates to the address of  $a[k+i]$ ,
- ▶  $*(pa+i)$  evaluates to the contents of  $a[k+i]$ .



**Warning** You must not go outside the array bounds! Nobody will check this for you. Your program may fail in the most inconvenient way.

## Scaling and pointer arithmetics

A pointer and an integer may be added (or subtracted):

- ▶ The construction `p + n` means the **address of the *n*-th object** beyond the one `p` currently points to.
- ▶ `n` is **scaled** according to the **size of the object** `p` points to (which is determined by the **type** given in the declaration of `p`).
- ▶ Holds **regardless of the type or size** of the variables in the array.

**Transformation** of array access into pointer form:

$$p[i] \equiv *(p + i)$$

This is done by the compiler, quite tenaciously:

```
char a[] = "hello world";  
printf("%c\n", 4[a]);      /* what is this? */
```

## Example: Scaling according to type

```

1 int    a[5] = { 0 };           int    *pa = a;
2 char   b[5] = { '\0' };       char    *pb = b;
3 double c[5] = { 0.0 };       double  *pc = c;
4
5 for (int i = 0; i < 5; i++)
6     printf("%d  %p  %p  %p\n",
7           i, (void *)(&a[i]), (void *)(&b[i]), (void *)(&c[i]));

```

Will produce the following table:

i	pa+i (int)	pb+i (char)	pc+i (double)
0	0x7fff89e611a0	0x7fff89e61190	0x7fff89e61160
1	0x7fff89e611a4	0x7fff89e61191	0x7fff89e61168
2	0x7fff89e611a8	0x7fff89e61192	0x7fff89e61170
3	0x7fff89e611ac	0x7fff89e61193	0x7fff89e61178
4	0x7fff89e611b0	0x7fff89e61194	0x7fff89e61180

Note the increment in the addresses corresponding to `sizeof` the type.

## Indexing Backwards

- ▶ With pointers into arrays we can use **pointer arithmetic** to access nearby cells of the array.
- ▶ If we are sure that an element exists, it is also possible to **index backwards** in an array `p[-1]`, `p[-2]`, ...
- ▶ This refers to **objects before** what `p` points to.
- ▶ Illegal to refer to objects that are not within the **array bounds**, but no one will check this for you.  $\Rightarrow$  **Be careful**.

$$p[-3] \quad \equiv \quad *(p + -3) \quad \equiv \quad *(p - 3)$$



**Warning** It is **undefined** what happens, if you *calculate* an address outside the array! (Exception: Just right behind the last element is ok).

## 2.6 Passing an array to a function

When an **array name** is passed to a **function**

- ▶ what is passed is the **location** of the initial element,
- ▶ what is passed is a **pointer**.

**Note** As function *parameter* `char s[]` and `char *s` are **equivalent!**

```
f(int arr[]) { ... }  
/* these two are equivalent */  
f(int *arr) { ... }
```

- ▶ Since a pointer is passed in reality, using the **array notation** can be considered **bad style**<sup>21</sup>.
- ▶ No matter what notation you use, the function body may **at its convenience** believe that it has been handed either an array or a pointer, and manipulate it accordingly. One can even do both!

<sup>21</sup>See Linus Torvald's rant at <https://lkml.org/lkml/2015/9/3/428>.

## Passing parts of an array to a function

- ▶ It is possible to pass a “part of an array” to a function, by passing a pointer to the beginning of the subarray.
- ▶ So, as far as `f` is concerned, the fact that the parameter refers to part of a larger array is of no consequence.

**Example** Pass address of subarray that starts at `a[2]` to the function `f`.

`f(&a[2]);`     $\equiv$     `f(a+2);`

- ▶ But recall backwards indexing (*cf.* page 78)!

**Question** What is the output of `show(array+3);` ?

```
1 int array[23];  
2  
3 void show(int a[]) {  
4     printf("%zu\n", sizeof a);  
5 }
```