

# More about function pointers

# Function name = pointer to itself

A function name (label) is converted to a pointer to itself.

```
// add x + y
```

```
void add(int x, int y) {  
    printf("%d + %d = %d\n", x, y, x + y);  
}
```

```
// all are the same
```

```
void (*p_add1)(int, int) = add;    // OK
```

```
void (*p_add2)(int, int) = *add;    // OK
```

```
void (*p_add3)(int, int) = &add;    // OK
```

```
void (*p_add4)(int, int) = **add;    // OK
```

```
void (*p_add5)(int, int) = ***add;  // OK
```

# Function name = pointer to itself

And execution

```
(*p_add1)(1, 2); // OK
```

```
(*p_add2)(1, 2); // OK
```

```
(*p_add3)(1, 2); // OK
```

```
(*p_add4)(1, 2); // OK
```

```
(*p_add5)(1, 2); // OK
```

```
p_add1(1, 2); // OK
```

```
p_add2(1, 2); // OK
```

```
p_add3(1, 2); // OK
```

```
p_add4(1, 2); // OK
```

```
p_add5(1, 2); // OK
```

# Function name = pointer to itself

And execution

```
(*p_add1)(1, 2);    // OK
```

```
(**p_add1)(1, 2);   // OK
```

```
(***p_add1)(1, 2);  // OK
```

```
(****p_add1)(1, 2); // OK
```

```
(&p_add1)(1, 2); // NOT OK - ERROR
```

# Function arguments

```
// prototype of function that takes  
// undetermined number of arguments  
void foo();
```

```
// prototype of function that takes  
// no arguments  
void foo(void);
```

# Function arguments

```
// add x + y
```

```
void add(int x, int y) {  
    printf("%d + %d = %d\n", x, y, x + y);  
}
```

```
// add 1 + 2
```

```
void add1and2() {  
    printf("1 + 2 = 3\n");  
}
```

# Function arguments

```
int main() {  
    void (*p_add)(); // num args undetermined  
  
    p_add = add;  
    p_add(1, 2);  
  
    p_add = add1and2;  
    p_add();  
    p_add(3, 4); // OK, but prints "1 + 2 = 3"  
  
}
```

# Function arguments

```
int main() {  
    void (*p_add)(int, int);  
  
    p_add = add;  
    p_add(1, 2);  
  
    p_add = add1and2; // OK  
    p_add(); // ERROR - too few arguments  
    p_add(3, 4); // OK, but prints "1 + 2 = 3"  
}
```



# Function arguments

```
// add x + y
```

```
void add(int x, int y) {  
    printf("%d + %d = %d\n", x, y, x + y);  
}
```

```
// add 1 + 2
```

```
void add1and2(void) {  
    printf("1 + 2 = 3\n");  
}
```



# Function arguments

```
int main() {  
    void (*p_add)(); // num args undetermined  
  
    p_add = add;  
    p_add(1, 2);  
  
    p_add = add1and2; // OK  
    p_add();  
    p_add(3, 4); // OK, but prints "1 + 2 = 3"  
  
}
```

# Function arguments

```
int main() {  
    void (*p_add)(int, int);  
  
    p_add = add;  
    p_add(1, 2);  
  
    p_add = add1and2; // WARNING - incompatible  
                      // types  
    p_add(); // ERROR - too few arguments  
    p_add(3, 4); // OK, but prints "1 + 2 = 3"  
}
```

# Function arguments

```
int main() {  
    void (*p_add)(void);  
  
    p_add = add; // WARNING - incompatible types  
    p_add(1, 2); // ERROR - too many arguments  
    p_add(); // OK, but prints garbage  
  
    p_add = add1and2;  
    p_add(); // OK  
    p_add(3, 4); // ERROR - too many arguments  
}
```

# Uninitialized function pointers

```
int main() {  
    void (*p_add)(void);  
  
    p_add(); // WARNING - uninitialized  
            // when used  
}
```

=> Most likely will cause the program to crash

# Object Oriented like programming in C

## “a CPP preview”

# Emulating methods for OOP in C

Look at the following code, it looks like we are using some String class, and setting its value to “hello”.

```
String s1 = newString();  
s1->set(s1, "hello");
```

How can this be done in C?

# Dog – simple example

```
typedef struct Dog Dog;
struct Dog{
    int weight;
    void (*eat)(Dog *this, int pounds);
    void (*sleep)(Dog *this, int hours);
};
void dog_eat(Dog *d, int pounds) { //eat
    d->weight += pounds/2;
}
void dog_sleep(Dog *d, int hours) { //sleep
    d->weight -= hours/3;
}
```



# Dog – simple example

```
void init_dog(Dog *d) {  
    if (d != NULL) {  
        d->weight = 1;  
        d->eat = dog_eat;  
        d->sleep = dog_sleep;  
    }  
}
```

# Dog – simple example

```
int main() {  
    Dog beethoven;  
    init_dog(&beethoven);  
    while(beethoven.weight < 200) {  
        beethoven.eat(&beethoven, 10);  
        beethoven.sleep(&beethoven, 10);  
    }  
    return 0;  
}
```

# Shapes – example with polymorphism

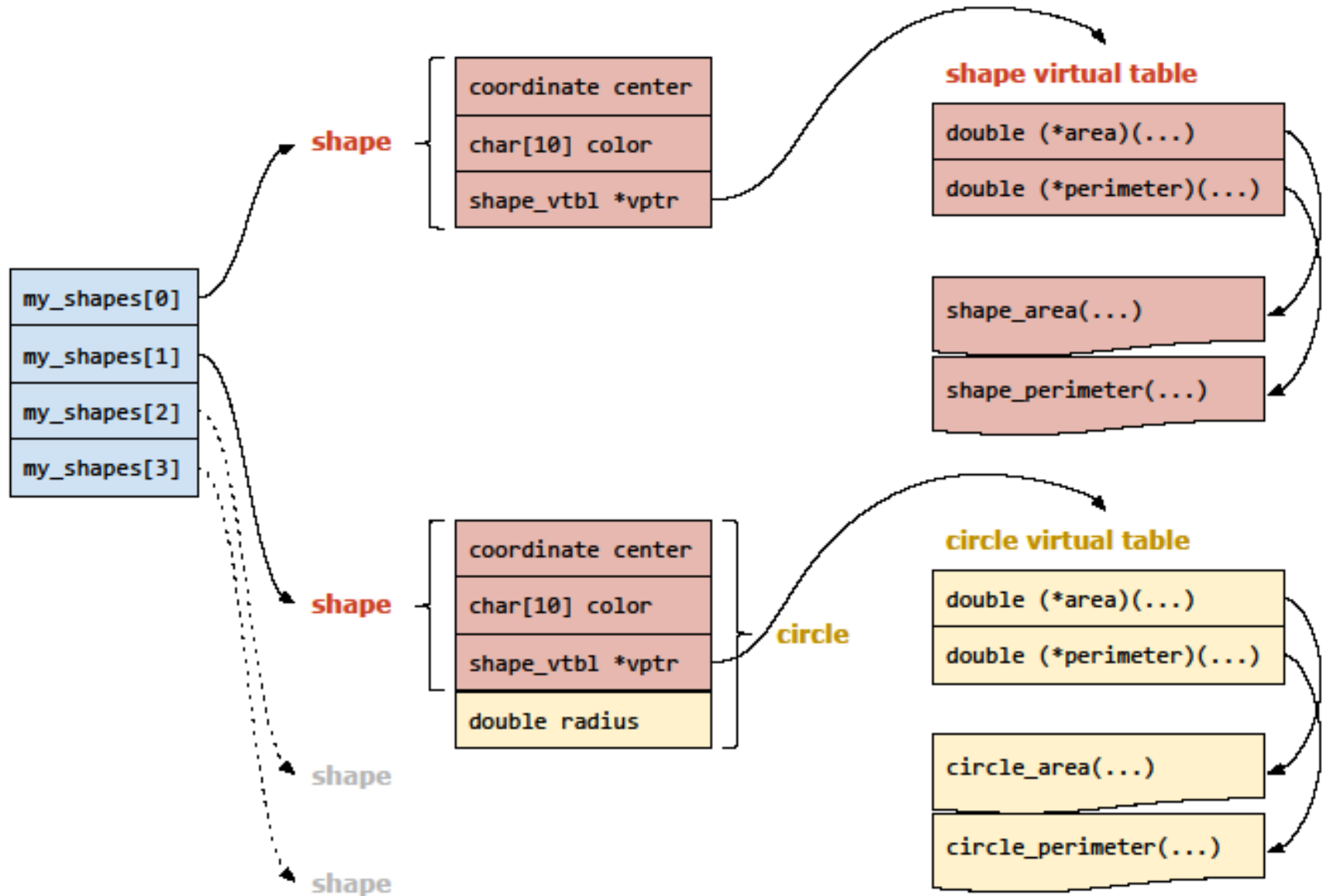
See code in course site... (oop\_code.zip)

Example adopted from

<http://www.embedded.com/electronics-blogs/27/Programming-Pointers>

By Dan Saks

# Shapes – example with polymorphism



# Shapes – example with polymorphism

- ❑ How would you change the code such that the following would work in main (without any memory leak)?
- ❑ What would you need to do if the color field was dynamically allocated?

```
int main(void) {
    shape* my_shapes[4];
    my_shapes[0] = new_shape((coordinate){.x=0,.y=0}, "red");
    my_shapes[1] = (shape*)new_circle((coordinate){.x=0,.y=0}, "blue", 1.0);
    my_shapes[2] = (shape*)new_rectangle((coordinate){.x=0,.y=0}, "yellow", 3.0, 4.0);
    my_shapes[3] = new_shape((coordinate){.x=0, .y=0}, "green");
    for (int i = 0; i < 4; ++i) {
        my_shapes[i]->vptr->area(my_shapes[i]);
        my_shapes[i]->vptr->perimeter(my_shapes[i]);
    }
    for (int i = 0; i < 4; ++i) {
        my_shapes[i]->vptr->delete(my_shapes[i]);
    }
    return 0;
}
```

# Syntax – a bit more

# Statements - conditional

```
if (condition)
//statement or block
else
//statement or block
```

```
switch (integer value)
{
    case 3:
        //statement or block
        break; //optional. Otherwise fall-through until the '}'!
    case 5:
        //statement or block
    default:
        //statement or block
}
```

# Statements - conditional goto

```
goto bla;  
whee:  
    //code here  
bla:  
    //code there
```

**DANGER: SPAGHETTI CODE!**

**Avoid whenever possible.**

Q: When to use goto?

A: There are cases. e.g. break from a lot of nested loops,  
forward jump to error handler



# New in C99

- ❑ Compound Literals
- ❑ Designated Initializers
- ❑ Variable-Length Array (VLA)

# Compound Literals

```
struct foo {int a; char b[2];} my_struct;
```

```
// initializing my_struct
```

```
struct foo temp = {x + y, 'a', 0};
```

```
my_struct = {x + y, 'a', 0}; // ERROR not allowed
```

```
my_struct = temp; // OK
```

```
// using Compound Literals
```

```
// (looks like a cast containing an initializer)
```

```
my_struct = ((struct foo) {x + y, 'a', 0});
```

# Compound Literals

// can also construct an array

```
char **foo = (char *[]) { "x", "y", "z" };
```

**Be careful about duration!**

**Don't use in C++**

# Designated Initializers

- In C90 - the elements of an initializer need to appear in a fixed order (the same as the order of the elements in the array or structure being initialized)
- In C99 you can give the elements in any order, specifying the array indices or structure field names they apply to

```
int a[6] = { 0, 0, 15, 0, 29, 0 };
```

```
int a[6] = { [4] = 29, [2] = 15 }; // equivalent
```

```
struct point {int x, y};
```

```
struct point p = { .y = yval, .x = xval };
```

```
struct point p = { xval, yval }; // equivalent
```

# Variable-Length Array (VLA)

How to allocate an array with size defined only at run time (instead of compile time)?

ANSI C - use malloc:

```
int length = atoi(argv[ARR_LENGTH]);  
int *a = (int *) malloc(length * sizeof(int));
```

C99 - introduce VLA:

```
int length = atoi(argv[ARR_LENGTH]);  
int a[length];
```

# Variable-Length Array (VLA)

Also...

```
void foo(int x, int y, int a[x][y]) {  
    ...  
}
```

```
int main() {  
    int x, y;  
    ...  
    int a[x][y];  
    foo(x, y, a);  
    return 0;  
}
```

# VLA - disadvantages

- Underlying memory allocation is not specified: the VLA may be allocated on the stack, heap (or none...).
- For example, GNU C Compiler allocates memory for VLAs on the stack
- Not accepted by C++ standard (use `std::vector` instead)
- **Not allowed during the course - compile with `-Wvla`**

# Unions



# union

- ❑ A **union** is data type that enables you to store different data types in the same memory location
- ❑ The value of at most one of the data members can be stored in a union at any time
- ❑ Unions provide an efficient way of using the same memory location for multi-purpose
- ❑ The size of a union is sufficient to contain the largest of its data members
- ❑ Each data member is allocated as if it were the sole member of a struct

# union

Union definition:

```
typedef union u_all  
{  
    int i_val;  
    double d_val;  
} u_all;
```



# union

```
u_all u; //definition of the variable u
```

```
u.i_val= 3; //assignment to the int member of u  
printf("%d\n", u.i_val);
```

```
u.d_val= 3.22; //this corrupts the previous  
               assignment
```

```
printf("%f\n", u.d_val);
```



**It is your responsibility to remember which union member is currently assigned!**

# Using union for lexers

See also: <http://stackoverflow.com/a/740686>

You have different tokens, each related to different value

```
typedef enum {KEYWORD, INT_CONST, STRING_CONST} TokenType;
typedef struct Token {
    TokenType type;
    union {
        struct { int line; } noVal;
        struct { int line; int val; } intVal;
        struct { int line; struct string val; } stringVal;
    } data;
} Token;
```

**It is your responsibility to remember which union member is currently assigned!**

# Using union for lexers

```
int main() {  
    Token t = parse_a_token(...);  
    switch (t.type) {  
        case KEYWORD:  
            ...  
        case INT_CONST:  
            printf("line %d, INT, v=%d\n",  
                  t.data.intVal.line, t.data.intVal.val);  
            break;  
        default:  
            ....  
    }  
    return 0;  
}
```

**Remember: it is your responsibility to remember which union member is currently assigned!**

# Using unions for low-level coding

If supported by the compiler, you can write something like this

```
union float_cast
{
    unsigned short as_short[2];
    float f_val;
};
```



So you can look at the bits representing the float value, as two consecutive shorts (if not supported, behavior is undefined).

# Bitwise operators & Bitfields

# Bitwise operators

- ❖ C allows to perform operations on the bit representation of a variable
- ❖ Done with “bitwise operators”

Operator symbol	Operation
&	and
	or
^	xor
~	One complement (not)
<<	Left shift
>>	Right shift



# Bitwise operations to manipulate single bits

- Each char can represent 8 independent boolean variables
- For this we need to find a way to
  - Find the value of a single bit
  - Change the value of a single bit

# Finding the value of a single bit

We can do that with the << and & operators:

```
int isZero (int variable, int position)
{
    return (variable & (1 << position)) == 0;
}
```

Example:

- We have a variable with the bit-pattern: **11001**
- We want to test the value of the 3<sup>rd</sup> bit (from the least-significant bit, starting from place 0, this is place 2):

Construct a mask:  $0001 \ll 2 == 00100$

Apply:  $11001 \& 00100 == 00000 == 0$

# Toggling a single bit

Use the << and ^ operators:

```
int toggleBit (int variable, int position)
{
    return variable ^ (1 << position);
}
```

Example:

- We have a variable with the bit-pattern: **11001**
- We want to change the value of the 3<sup>rd</sup> bit (from the least-significant bit, starting from place 0, this is place 2):

Construct a mask:  $0001 \ll 2 == 00100$

Apply:  $11001 \wedge 00100 == 11101$

# Bit fields

Define and manipulate single bits in a simple way:

Bitfields are defined **inside** a struct/union

`struct`

```
{  
    type [member_name] : width ;  
    ...  
};
```

- ❑ `type`: `int` / `signed int` / `unsigned int`  
determines how to interpret the bits (for  $> 1$ ).
- ❑ `width`: the number of bits used  $\leq$  #bits of `type`.

# Bit fields

## Define a struct of bits:

```
struct flags
{
    unsigned int _is_keyword : 1;
    unsigned int _is_extern : 1;
    unsigned int _is_static : 1;
};
```

## usage:

```
struct flags f;
f._is_extern = f._is_static = 1;
struct flags * p = &f;
unsigned int * p_static = &(f._is_static) // error
```

# Bit fields

**Define a struct of bits:**

```
struct flags
{
    unsigned int _is_keyword : 1;
    unsigned int _is_extern : 1;
    unsigned int _is_static : 1;
};
```

**usage:**

```
sizeof(struct flags) → 4
```

# Bit fields

**Define a struct of bits:**

```
struct flags
{
    unsigned int _is_keyword : 1;
    unsigned int _is_extern : 31;
    unsigned int _is_static : 1;
};
```

**usage:**

```
sizeof(struct flags) → 8
```

# Bit fields

**Define a struct of bits:**

```
struct flags
{
    unsigned int _is_keyword : 1;
    unsigned int _is_extern : 32;
    unsigned int _is_static : 1;
};
```

**usage:**

```
sizeof(struct flags) → 12
```



# Variadic functions

# Variadic functions

A variadic function is a function with **variable number of arguments**.

## Example:

```
// 1 argument
```

```
printf("Hello world\n");
```

```
// 2 arguments
```

```
printf("The value of i is: %d\n", i);
```

```
// 3 arguments
```

```
printf("The value of i is: %d\t its address  
is: %p\n", i, &i);
```

# Variadic function definition

`<return type> <function name>(<first parameter>,...)`

Examples:

`//std lib. function`

`int printf(const char *format, ...)`

`//function we define`

`int countIntegers(int integerNum, ...)`

# The main challenge:

- ❑ Since we do not know the function parameters in advance, we can't give them names.
- ❑ We have to develop a technique to access the variables based on their ***type and place*** relative to the first parameter.

# stdarg.h

To define variadic functions we should include the header **stdarg.h**

- definition of the type: `va_list`
  - A type for iterating the arguments (most likely `void*`)
- definition of the macros:
  - `va_start` – start iterating the argument lists with `va_list` and the last named parameter of the function
  - `va_arg` – retrieve the current argument
  - `va_end` – free the `va_list`

# Example

```
#include <stdarg.h>
int sumInts(int argsNum, ...)
{
    va_list ap;
    int i, sum=0;
    va_start(ap, argsNum); // now we point to the place
                           // right after the first argument
    for(i = 0; i < argsNum; ++i) {
        sum += va_arg(ap,int); // access current argument and
                               // move ap to the next argument
    }
    va_end(ap); // free ap
    return sum;
}
//in main:
sumInts(5,1,1,2,3,4) //returns 11
sumInts(2,7,1) //returns 8
```

# Note!

- ❑ Variadic functions must have at least one named parameter

```
void wrong(...);
```

- ❑ There is no mechanism defined for determining the number or types of the unnamed arguments – we can use one of the following ways:
  - ❑ **format string** (like in printf)
  - ❑ **sentinel value** at the end of variadic arguments
  - ❑ **count argument** indicating the number of the variadic arguments

# snprintf & vsnprintf

New in C99, **snprintf** and **vsnprintf** are nice examples of variadic functions

```
int snprintf (char *s, size_t n,  
              const char * format, ...)
```

```
int vsnprintf(char *s, size_t n,  
              const char * format, va_list arg)
```

Read example at:

<http://www.cplusplus.com/reference/cstdio/vsnprintf/>



# Optimization

# What smart people say about it...

Premature optimization is the root of all evil (or at least most of it) in programming

– Donald Knuth

(check the “humor” part in his wiki)

# So, what to do?

- ✓ Check if you **need to optimize**
- ✓ Profile - check **where to optimize**  
(gprof if you use gcc; need to add `-g` and `-pg` to the compilation line)
- ✓ Remember to “**turn off**” **debugging**  
(gcc `-DNDEBUG`)
- ✓ Check what your compiler can do for you on your **specific hardware**  
(`-O3`, `-mcpu=arm7`, etc...)
- We'll learn more about optimization in **labcpp**

# Cache-friendly coding

- Fast memory is expensive, so we have very little of it
- Goal: achieve good performance with what we have
- Method: memory is organized in a hierarchic order:
  - Registers
  - Cache (several levels)
  - RAM
- Search from the fastest to the slowest memory
- Fetch important memory before it is used!  
How? When a given location is accessed, most likely its neighborhood will be accessed in the near future

# Cache-friendly coding. Iterating 2D array

- C requires “row-major ordering”

//efficient

```
int i,j;
int arr[ROWS_NUM][COLS_NUM];
for(i=0;i<ROWS_NUM;++i){
    for(j=0;j<COLS_NUM;++j){
        arr[i][j] = i*j;
    }
}
```

//not efficient

```
int arr[ROWS_NUM][COLS_NUM];
for(i=0;i<COLS_NUM;++i){
    for(j=0;j<ROWS_NUM;++j){
        arr[j][i] = i*j;
    }
}
```

# New in C99

□ `register` keyword

□ `volatile` keyword

# Registers

**Register (רֶגִּיסְטֵר)** - is a small amount of storage available on the CPU

There are a few registers per CPU

# Register Variables

The **register** keyword specifies that the variable is to be stored in a CPU register, **if possible**.

**A recommendation to the compiler**

```
register int i;
```

Provides quick access to **commonly used values**

Experience has shown that the **compiler usually knows much better than humans what should go into registers and when** 😊



# Volatile - Motivation

Sometimes variables can be **modified externally**  
(not from the currently compiled piece of code)

The compiler cannot “guess” it!

# Volatile example

Before optimization


```
void foo(void)
{
    int* addr;
    addr = INPUT_ADDRESS;
    *addr = 0;

    while (*addr != 255)
        ;
}
```

# Volatile example

After optimization

```
void foo(void)
{
    int* addr;
    addr = INPUT_ADDRESS;
    *addr = 0;

    while (1) 
    ;
}
```

# Volatile example

After optimization using volatile

```
void foo(void)
{
    volatile int* addr;
    addr = INPUT_ADDRESS;
    *addr = 0;

    while (*addr != 255)
        ;
}
```

# Volatile - Summary

Variables declared to be volatile **will not be optimized by the compiler**

This is due to our assumption that their value can change at any time

Note that this does not mean we can use volatile variables for synchronization – they are not atomic or impose any specific order of operations

# Volatile - Summary

Use for:

- ✓ Memory-mapped peripheral registers
- ✓ Global variables (signal variables) modified by an interrupt service routine, or setjmp/longjmp
- ✓ Global variables accessed by multiple tasks within a multi-threaded application

# New in C99

- `inline` functions

- `restrict` keyword

# inline functions

- Tell the compiler to substitute calls for the function body by inline expansion - meaning, by inserting the function code
- This helps save the overhead of function invocation and return (placing data on stack and retrieving the result)
- However, this may result in a larger executable as the code for the function has to be repeated multiple times



# inline functions

```
inline int max(int a, int b) {  
    return (a > b) ? a : b;  
}
```

// somewhere in the code ...

```
a = max(x, y);
```

// may actually be compiled as ...

```
a = (x > y) ? x : y;
```

# inline functions

- The `inline` specifier is only a hint for the compiler to perform optimizations. Compilers can (and usually do) ignore the presence or absence of the `inline` specifier for the purpose of optimization
- Identifiers and macros used in the function refer to the definitions visible at the point of definition, not at the point of call
- Inline function must be defined in the same translation unit (so we usually just define the function in the header)
- If an external definition also exists in the program, it's unspecified whether the inline definition (if present in the translation unit) or the external definition is called
- Read more at home...

<http://en.cppreference.com/w/c/language/inline>

# inline functions vs macros

Traditionally inline expansion was accomplished at the source level using parameterized macros.

True inline functions provides several benefits over this approach...

# inline functions vs macros

- ✓ Macro invocations do not perform type checking
- ✓ A macro cannot use the return keyword with the same meaning as a function would do (it would make the function that asked the expansion terminate, rather than the macro). In other words, a macro cannot return anything which is not the result of the last expression invoked inside it
- ✓ C macros use mere textual substitution, which may result in unintended side-effects and inefficiency due to re-evaluation of arguments and order of operations

# inline functions vs macros

- ✓ Compiler errors within macros are often difficult to understand, because they refer to the expanded code, rather than the code the programmer typed
- ✓ Many constructs are awkward or impossible to express using macros, or use a significantly different syntax. Inline functions use the same syntax as ordinary functions, and can be inlined and un-inlined at will with ease
- ✓ Many compilers can also inline expand some recursive functions (up to some depth); recursive macros are typically illegal

# inline functions vs macros

**Bjarne Stroustrup**, the designer of C++, likes to emphasize that macros should be avoided wherever possible, and advocates extensive use of inline functions.

# restrict keyword

- A keyword that can be used in pointer declarations
- It says that for the lifetime of the pointer, only it or a value directly derived from it (such as `pointer + 1`) will be used to access the object to which it points
- This limits the effects of pointer aliasing, aiding optimizations
- If the object is accessed by an independent pointer, this will result in undefined behaviour

# restrict keyword

```
void updatePtrs(size_t *ptrA, size_t *ptrB,  
               size_t *val) {  
    *ptrA += *val;  
    *ptrB += *val;  
}
```

load R1  $\leftarrow$  \*val ; *Load the value of val pointer*  
load R2  $\leftarrow$  \*ptrA ; *Load the value of ptrA pointer*  
add R2 += R1 ; *Perform Addition*  
set R2  $\rightarrow$  \*ptrA ; *Update the value of ptrA pointer*  
; *Similarly for ptrB, note that val is loaded twice,*  
; *because ptrA may be equal to val.*

```
load R1  $\leftarrow$  *val  
load R2  $\leftarrow$  *ptrB  
add R2 += R1  
set R2  $\rightarrow$  *ptrB
```



# restrict keyword

```
void updatePtrs(size_t *restrict ptrA, size_t *restrict ptrB,  
               size_t *restrict val) {  
    *ptrA += *val;  
    *ptrB += *val;  
}
```

The compiler is allowed to assume that ptrA, ptrB, and val point to different locations, and updating one pointer will not affect the others

# restrict keyword

```
void updatePtrs(size_t *restrict ptrA, size_t *restrict ptrB,  
               size_t *restrict val) {  
    *ptrA += *val;  
    *ptrB += *val;  
}
```

load R1  $\leftarrow$  \*val ; *Load the value of val pointer*  
load R2  $\leftarrow$  \*ptrA ; *Load the value of ptrA pointer*  
add R2 += R1 ; *Perform Addition*  
set R2  $\rightarrow$  \*ptrA ; *Update the value of ptrA pointer*  
; *Note that val is not reloaded,*  
; *because the compiler knows it is unchanged.*

~~load R1  $\leftarrow$  \*val~~  
load R2  $\leftarrow$  \*ptrB  
add R2 += R1  
set R2  $\rightarrow$  \*ptrB