RICHARD ROBINSON

C, UNIX, & JAVA

Intro to C

The Basics

In C, there only exist multiline /**/ comments. As well, there is no garbage collection, classes, exception, nor strings. The basic C program syntax is

```
#include <stdio.h>
main() {
    /* body */
    return 0;
}
```

The **#include** tag acts as a macro for whatever file is called. In C, the null character \0 is critical, as it is appended to all arrays of characters and therefore represents the end of a string. A byte is 8 bits is 4 binary characters.

Basic I/O

The basic input and output commands in C are getchar(), putchar(), printf(), and scanf();

- The int getchar() command reads one character at a time and returns EOF at end of line, defined as -1.
- The int putchar(c) commands returns c to the standard output or EOF if an error occurs.
- The printf("str") command outputs the string with optional arguments.
- The scanf("\%x", &x) command reads the input, assigning \%x to x. The x type is a hexadecimal integer.

To parse a string by character in C, a while loop of the form

```
int c;
while ((c = getchar()) != EOF) { }
```

is used. Other types in addition to x are c, d, f, lf, s. The basic data types in C are char (8 bits), int (16/32 bits), float (4 bytes), and double (8 bytes). A string is an array of characters such ended by null, with syntax

```
char varname[] = "string"; /* or */
char *varname = "string" /* or */
char varname[] = {'chr1', 'chr2', ..., '\0'}
```

Because of the nature of strings, printf() is equivalent to

```
int printf(char *format, args);
```

Printf and Scanf

The format code "\%0n.df" represents the following characteristics:

- The n is the total allotment of characters for the number, printing the characters from the right.
- The 0 replaces all the leading whitespace characters allotted before the number with o.
- The .d is the number of decimal places to be included; the decimal point counts as a character for n.
- The f represents the number is of type float.

The default number of decimal places is 6. As well, a negative n value adds whitespace to the right instead of left. To read an integer from the input, the syntax

```
int num; scanf("%d", &num);
```

is used. The function stops reading upon EOF or a failed input occurs. Additionally, it returns the number of successfully matched inputs, and returns o for an error. Additionally, file-wise scanning and printing are given via

- prog < infile: prog reads chars from infile
- prog > infile: prog writes chars to infile
- prog1 | prog2: input of prog2 is output of prog1

Example

An example snippet to calculate the number of words in the input is shown below:

```
#define TRUE 1;
#define FALSE 0;
for ( int new_word = TRUE; (c = getchar() ) != EOF;) {
   if (c == '_' || c == '\n') new_word = TRUE; // works for multiple whitespaces
   else if (new_word == TRUE) {
      new_word = FALSE; ++num_words; // count number of whitespace groups
   }
}
```

Types

Strings

Arrays have their sizes explicitly with index ranges of [0, n-1] defined with syntax

```
type arr[n] = {el1, el2, ...} /* remaining elements are zero */
type arr[] = {el1, el2, ...} /* sets length to number of elements */
```

As aforementioned, a string is an array of chars with syntax

```
char str[] = "str"; /* length = n+1 = 4 */
x = str[n]; /* equal to '/0' */
```

The enumeration constants allow for constant arrays of expressions in a single definition, using the syntax

```
enum boolean { FALSE, TRUE} \ FALSE == 0, TRUE == 1 *\
enum months { JAN = 1, FEB, MAR} \ JAN == 1, FEB == 2, ... *\
```

In arithmetic between variables of different types, the smaller-bit type is converted into the other type. Additionally, char may be used in arithmetic expressions in accordance with the ASCII table. If a larger-bit type is forced to a shorter-bit type, the remaining bits are truncated; for example:

```
float x = 2.7;
int i = x; /* i = floor(x) = 2 */
```

Qualifiers

The short qualifier prefixed to int is 16 bits. The long qualifier to int or double is 32 bits or 12/16 bytes, respectively. The signed, unsigned qualifiers give a range [-(n-1), n] and [0, 2n-1], respectively. By default, chars are unsigned and ints are signed. Using limits.h>, <float.h>, the sizeof(type) command returns the size of type.

For integer constants in base 8, 16, long, unsigned, the prefixes and postfixes are 0-, 0x-, -L, -u, respectively. Additionally, float constants allow for scientific e notation. The default type is double. The const qualifier acts like final in Java; that is, it indicates the variable will not be changed, with syntax

```
const type var = value;
type funcz( const type[] );
```

Casting & Boolean

The cast operator casts a variable to a higher type without changing its value so as to allow precise arithmetic between low-bit types. For example,

```
int x = 9, y = 2; double i;
i = x / y; /* i = floor(9/2) */
i = x / (double)y /* i = 9/2 */
```

Bitwise operators operate on individual bits of a value, and include &, |, $^$, $^$ (and, or, xor, not), not to be confused with their logical counterparts. Additionally, the bit shift operators x<<y, x>>y are equivalent to the decimal multiplication or division by 2^y , respectively. For example,

```
(101010 == 42) << 3 == (101010000 == 336);
```

In right shifting, the new bits are filled with o. Signed numbers are undefined for shifting. For example,

```
/* get n bits from position p of x */
unsigned getbits(unsigned x, int p, int n) {
    return (x >> (p + 1 - n)) & ~(~0 << n);
}
getbits(42, 5, 3); /* is 5 = 101 */</pre>
```

Pointers

Introduction

A pointer stores the address of another variable, which itself stores a value. This means a pointer literally points to another variable. Its most common application is in scanning input, with syntax

```
scanf( "%f", &float_var);
```

Another example of using pointers to store variables is in using the general form ptr = &var as follows:

```
char c, *p; /* initializes p as a pointer */
c = getchar();
p = &c; /* pointer p points to c */
printf("%c", *p); /* prints *p = c */
```

The & symbol is the address operator, which gets the address of the variable it has. Pointers are declared via type *ptr. That is, *ptr == var == value iff

```
ptr = &var; *ptr = value;
```

Usage

Pointers are useful for efficiency as they only store addresses, not value. For example,

```
void swap(int *px, int *py) {
    int temp = *px;
    *px = *py;
    *py = temp;
}
void main() { swap(&a, &b); }
```

In an array, arr == arr[0] and a[i] == a + i. The identifier of an array is equivalent to the address of its first element; that is,

```
int *p; p = arr; /* p = &arr[0] */
x = *pa; /* same as x = arr[0] */
int y = *(p + 1) /* address of the number after p */
pa++; /* same as p = &a[1] */
```

Specifically, the array indexing syntax a[i] is equivalent to *(a+i). For example, the following snippets use

pointers as it need not store the values themselves:

```
int strlen(char *s) {
                                                         int strlen(char *s) {
   for (int n = 0; *s != '\0'; s++) { n++; }
                                                             for (char *p = s; *p != '\0'; p++) { }
    return n;
                                                             return p - s;
}
                                                         }
```

Address Arithmetic

Arithmetic operators for pointer addresses work as follows assuming p, q are pointers and n is an integer:

```
p +/- n; /* moves p forwards / backwards by 4*n */
p + q; /* illegal if q > p */
q - p + n; /* illegal if q 
if (p == NULL) /* same as if <math>(!p) */
```

As well, adding two pointers is illegal, as is adding a float or double to a pointer. It is also illegal to assign a pointer of one type to one of a different type without casting. With regards to strings, char *str is a pointer, not an array and thus may be modified. Therefore, the following functions are equivalent:

```
void strcpy(char *s, char *t) {
                                                           void strcpy(char *s, char *t) {
    for (int i = 0; (s[i] = t[i]) != 0; i++ ) {}
                                                               while ((*s++ = *t++) != ' \setminus 0');
}
                                                           }
```

Dynamic Memory

The header <stdlib.h> in conjunction with the syntax

```
arr = *malloc(int n); /* typically n = n * sizeof(int) */
free(arr);
```

allocates the needed memory dynamically. Additionally, it returns a pointer to at least *n* bytes available, and null if allocation was not successful. Note that the allocated memory is not initialized. The calloc function with syntax

```
*calloc(int n, int s);
*calloc(n, sizeof(int)); /* same as malloc(n*sizeof(int)) */
```

acts similarly, but differs in that it allocates an array of n elements with individual size s, and initializes the memory to o. Consequently, the realloc and free functions with syntax

```
*realloc(void *ptr, int n);
free(void *ptr)
```

can resize a perviously allocated block of memory such that ptr was previously returned from another function, and releases the previously allocated memory, respectively.

Structures

Basics

A C structure defines a type, similar to classes in Java. The basic structure creation syntax is given by

```
struct name { type var; }
```

and is called by **struct** name new_var. In this case, name is the structure tag and var is a member. Members may share names across structures. The value of members are accessed via name.var. For nested structures, the syntax is recursively used. Combining functions and structures may be used like the following:

```
struct point makepoint(int x, int y) /* analogous to Java constructor */
{
    struct point temp; /* different point */
    temp.x = x; temp.y = y;
    return temp; /* temp = (x, y) */
}
```

The function may then be called via

```
struct point makepoint(int, int);
struct point coord = makepoint(xcoord, ycoord);
```

Struct Funcs

A function which has a structure as an argument is known as a struct func. The structure parameters are passed be values like other types, and a copy of the structure is sent to the function. For example, a struct func for adding two points is

```
struct point addpoint(struct point p1, struct point p1) {
   p1.x += p2.x; p1.y += p2.y;
   return p1;
}
```

Struct funcs can also have pointers. If a large structure is to be passed to a function, it is generally more efficient to pass a pointer than to copy the entire structure. For example,

```
struct point *pt; /* new pointer of type point */
struct point origin = makepoint(0,0); /* from previous snippet */
pt = &origin;
```

```
(*pt).x, (*pt).y; /* origin coordinates */
```

A shorthand notation for (*pt).var is pt->var.

Initialization & Pointers

Structures may be initialized with either of the following syntax, for arrays and multidemsnional arrays, respectively:

```
struct custom_type struct_name = {values};
struct custom_type struct_name[] = { {values1}, {vals2}, ... };
```

In the following example, the ++ operator is used for a struct ptr to increment it by the correct amount, the structure size, so as to get the next element of the array of structs, given by:

```
struct key keytab[NKEYS], *p; /* initializes keytab and *p */
for (p = keytab; p < keytab + NKEYS; p ++) {
    int count = p -> count; char[] word = p -> word;
}
```

Application of Structs

Lists

A simple linked list is created via the syntax

```
struct list {
    int data; struct list *next;
}
```

In a typical linked list, the pointer head points to the first element, and the last element pointer is NULL. A fully implemented linked list can be made via:

```
struct list {
    int data; struct list *next;
}
*head, *p, *last, int i;

head = (struct list*) malloc (sizeof(struct list));
head -> data = -1; head -> next = NULL;
last = head;
for (scanf("%d", &i); condition; scanf("%d", &i)) {
    head = (struct list*) malloc (sizeof(struct list));
    p -> data = i; p -> next = NULL;
    last -> next = p; last = p;
}
```

Using this example, an application of it to search for a number in the list is:

```
scanf("%d", &i);
for (p = head; p != NULL; p = p -> next) {
   if (p -> data == i) { } /* matches */
}
```

Typedefs

Typedefs are used for creating new data type names. For example, to create a typedef for a length, the following is used:

```
typedef type TypedefName;
TypedefName var;
```

In conjunction with structures, typedefs can be global types in C via

```
typedef struct { int x, y; }
typedef_name;
typedef_name a, b, x, ...;
```

Errors

Common errors when using pointers with arrays and in general include:

- Uninitialized pointers; for example, int *p = val
- Null pointer dereferencing; for example, x = (int*)malloc(sizeof(int)); *x = val
- Overriding existing pointers (memory leaks)

Even More Pointers