

C for Java Programmers

And now for something very different...

Overview

- Why learn C after Java?
- A brief background on C
- C preprocessor
- Modular C programs

Why learn C (after Java)?

- Both high-level and low-level language
 - OS: user interface to kernel to device driver
- Better control of low-level mechanisms
 - memory allocation, specific memory locations
- Performance sometimes better than Java (Unix, NT!)
 - usually more predictable (also: C vs. C++)
- Java hides many details needed for writing OS code

But,....

- Memory management responsibility
- Explicit initialization and error detection
- generally, more lines for same functionality
- More room for mistakes

Why learn C, cont'd.

- Most older code is written in C (or C++)
 - Linux, *BSD
 - Windows
 - Most Java implementations
 - Most embedded systems
- Philosophical considerations:
 - Being multi-lingual is good!
 - Should be able to trace program from UI to assembly (EEs: to electrons)

C pre-history

- 1960s: slew of new languages
 - COBOL for commercial programming (databases)
 - FORTRAN for numerical and scientific programs
 - PL/I as second-generation unified language
 - LISP, Simula for CS research, early AI
 - Assembler for operating systems and timing-critical code
- Operating systems:
 - OS/360
 - MIT/GE/Bell Labs Multics (PL/I)

C pre-history

- Bell Labs (research arm of Bell System -> AT&T -> Lucent) needed own OS
- BCPL as Multics language
- Ken Thompson: B
- Unix = Multics – bits
- Dennis Ritchie: new language = B + types
- Development on DEC PDP-7 with 8K 16-bit words

C history

■ C

- Dennis Ritchie in late 1960s and early 1970s
- systems programming language
 - make OS portable across hardware platforms
 - not necessarily for real applications – could be written in Fortran or PL/I

■ C++

- Bjarne Stroustrup (Bell Labs), 1980s
- object-oriented features

■ Java

- James Gosling in 1990s, originally for embedded systems
- object-oriented, like C++
- ideas and some syntax from C

C for Java programmers

- Java is mid-90s high-level OO language
- C is early-70s procedural language
- C advantages:
 - Direct access to OS primitives (system calls)
 - Fewer library issues – just execute
- (More) C disadvantages:
 - language is portable, APIs are not
 - memory and “handle” leaks
 - preprocessor can lead to obscure errors

C vs. C++

- We'll cover both, but C++ should be largely familiar
- Very common in Windows
- Possible to do OO-style programming in C
- C++ can be rather opaque: encourages “clever” programming

Aside: “generations” and abstraction levels

- Binary, assembly
- Fortran, Cobol
- PL/I, APL, Lisp, ...
- C, Pascal, Ada
- C++, Java, Modula3
- Scripting: Perl, Tcl, Python, Ruby, ...
- XML-based languages: CPL, VoiceXML

C vs. Java

Java	C
object-oriented	function-oriented
strongly-typed	can be overridden
polymorphism (+, ==)	very limited (integer/float)
classes for name space	(mostly) single name space, file-oriented
macros are external, rarely used	macros common (preprocessor)
layered I/O model	byte-stream I/O

C vs. Java

Java	C
automatic memory management	function calls (C++ has some support)
no pointers	pointers (memory addresses) common
by-reference, by-value	by-value parameters
exceptions, exception handling	if (f() < 0) {error} OS signals
concurrency (threads)	library functions

C vs. Java

Java	C
length of array	on your own
string as type	just bytes (char []), with 0 end
dozens of common libraries	OS-defined

C vs. Java

- Java program
 - collection of classes
 - class containing main method is starting class
 - running `java StartClass` invokes `StartClass.main` method
 - JVM loads other classes as required

C program

- collection of functions
- one function – `main()` – is starting function
- running executable (default name `a.out`) starts main function
- typically, single program with all user code linked in – but can be dynamic libraries (`.dll`, `.so`)

C vs. Java

```
public class hello
{
    public static void main
    (String args []) {
        System.out.println
        ("Hello world");
    }
}
```

```
#include <stdio.h>
int main(int argc, char
    *argv[])
{
    puts("Hello, World");
    return 0;
}
```


What does this C program do ?

```
#include <stdio.h>
struct list{int data; struct list *next};
struct list *start, *end;
void add(struct list *head, struct list *list, int data);
int delete(struct list *head, struct list *tail);

void main(void) {
    start=end=NULL;
    add(start, end, 2);    add(start, end, 3);
    printf("First element: %d", delete(start, end));
}

void add(struct list *head, struct list *tail, int data){
    if(tail==NULL){
        head=tail=malloc(sizeof(struct list));
        head->data=data; head->next=NULL;
    }
    else{
        tail->next= malloc(sizeof(struct list));
        tail=tail->next; tail->data=data; tail->next=NULL;
    }
}
```

What does this C program, do – cont'd?

```
void delete (struct list *head, struct list *tail){
    struct list *temp;
    if(head==tail){
        free(head); head=tail=NULL;
    }
    else{
        temp=head->next; free(head); head=temp;
    }
}
```

Simple example

```
#include <stdio.h>

void main(void)
{
    printf("Hello World. \n \t and you ! \n ");
    /* print out a message */
    return;
}
```

```
$Hello World.
    and you !
$
```

Dissecting the example

- `#include <stdio.h>`
 - include header file `stdio.h`
 - `#` lines processed by pre-processor
 - No semicolon at end
 - Lower-case letters only – C is case-sensitive
- `void main(void){ ... }` is the only code executed
- `printf(" /* message you want printed */ ");`
- `\n` = newline, `\t` = tab
- `\` in front of other special characters within `printf`.
 - `printf("Have you heard of \"The Rock\" ? \n");`

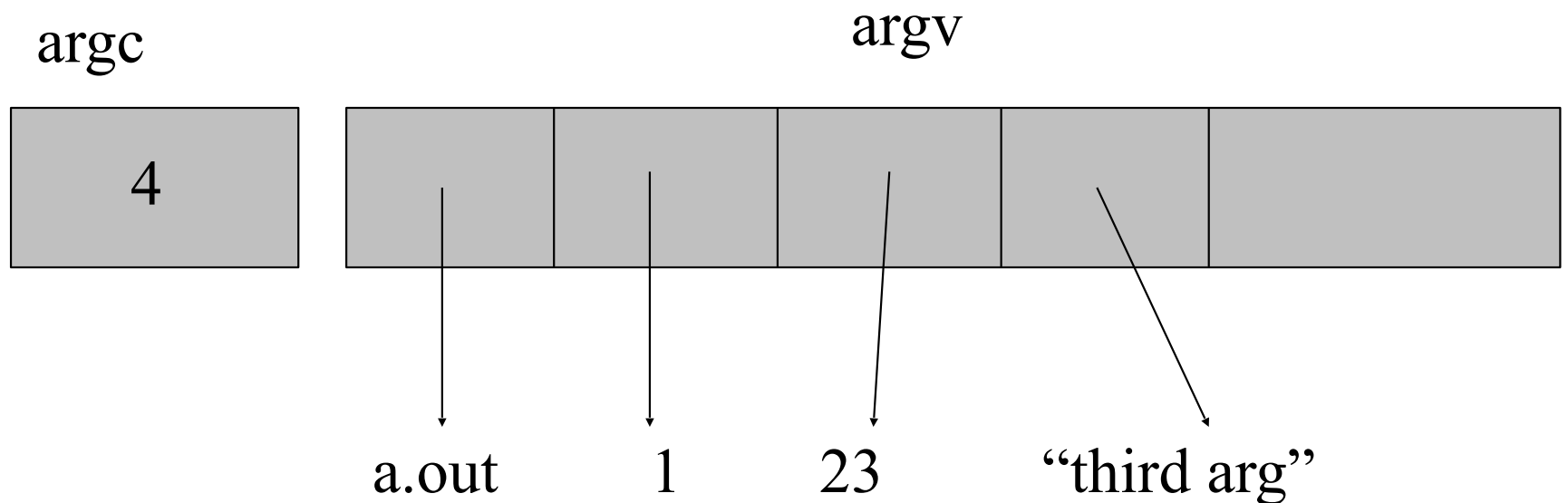
Executing the C program

```
int main(int argc, char argv[])
```

- `argc` is the argument count
- `argv` is the argument vector
 - array of strings with command-line arguments
- the `int` value is the return value
 - convention: 0 means success, > 0 some error
 - can also declare as void (no return value)

Executing a C program

- Name of executable + space-separated arguments
- `$ a.out 1 23 'third arg'`



Executing a C program

- If no arguments, simplify:

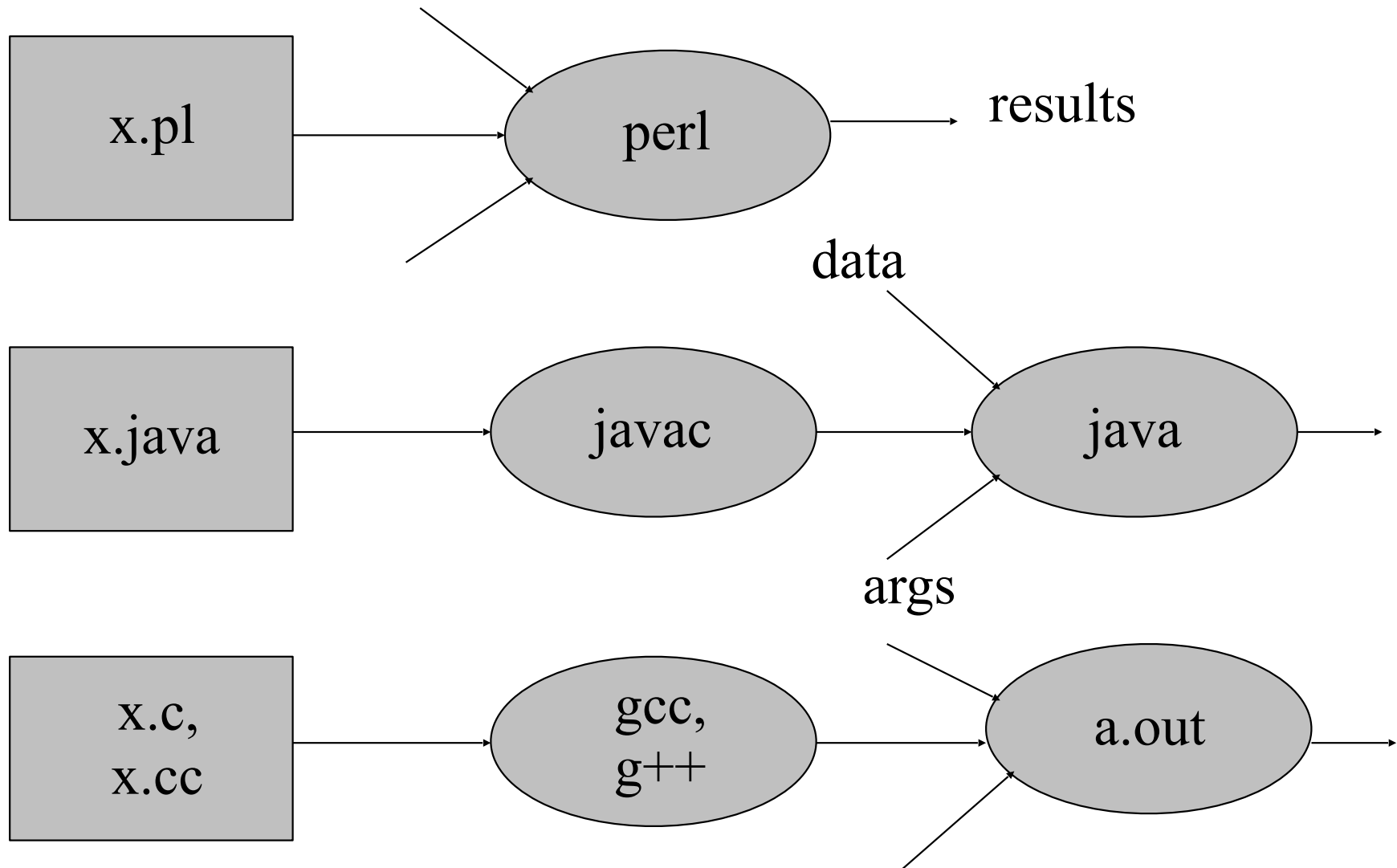
```
int main() {  
    puts("Hello World");  
    exit(0);  
}
```

- Uses `exit()` instead of `return` – same thing.

Executing C programs

- Scripting languages are usually interpreted
 - perl (python, Tcl) reads script, and executes it
 - sometimes, just-in-time compilation – invisible to user
- Java programs semi-interpreted:
 - javac converts `foo.java` into `foo.class`
 - not machine-specific
 - byte codes are then interpreted by JVM
- C programs are normally compiled and linked:
 - gcc converts `foo.c` into `a.out`
 - `a.out` is executed by OS and hardware

Executing C programs



The C compiler gcc

- gcc invokes C compiler
- gcc translates C program into executable for some target
- default file name a.out
- also “cross-compilation”

```
$ gcc hello.c
```

```
$ a.out
```

```
Hello, World!
```

gcc

- Behavior controlled by command-line switches:

-o file	output file for object or executable
-Wall	all warnings – use always!
-c	compile single module (non-main)
-g	insert debugging code (gdb)
-p	insert profiling code
-l	library
-E	preprocessor output only

Using gcc

- Two-stage compilation
 - pre-process & compile: `gcc -c hello.c`
 - link: `gcc -o hello hello.o`
- Linking several modules:
`gcc -c a.c → a.o`
`gcc -c b.c → b.o`
`gcc -o hello a.o b.o`
- Using math library
 - `gcc -o calc calc.c -lm`

Error reporting in gcc

- Multiple sources
 - preprocessor: missing include files
 - parser: syntax errors
 - assembler: rare
 - linker: missing libraries

Error reporting in gcc

- If `gcc` gets confused, hundreds of messages
 - fix first, and then retry – ignore the rest
- `gcc` will produce an executable with warnings
 - don't ignore warnings – compiler choice is often not what you had in mind
- Does not flag common mindos
 - `if (x = 0)` **VS.** `if (x == 0)`

gcc errors

- Produces object code for each module
- Assumes references to external names will be resolved later
- Undefined names will be reported when linking:

```
undefined symbol    first referenced in file
  _print                program.o
ld fatal: Symbol referencing errors
No output written to file.
```

C preprocessor

- The C preprocessor (cpp) is a macro-processor which
 - manages a collection of macro definitions
 - reads a C program and transforms it

- **Example:**

```
#define MAXVALUE 100
#define check(x) ((x) < MAXVALUE)
if (check(i) { ...}
```

becomes

```
if ((i) < 100) {...}
```


C preprocessor

- Preprocessor directives start with # at beginning of line:
 - define new macros
 - input files with C code (typically, definitions)
 - conditionally compile parts of file
- `gcc -E` shows output of preprocessor
- Can be used independently of compiler

C preprocessor

`#define name const-expression`

`#define name (param1,param2,...) expression`

`#undef symbol`

- replaces name with constant or expression
- textual substitution
- symbolic names for global constants
- in-line functions (avoid function call overhead)
 - mostly unnecessary for modern compilers
- type-independent code

C preprocessor

- Example: `#define MAXLEN 255`
 - Lots of system `.h` files define macros
 - invisible in debugger
 - `getchar()`, `putchar()` in `stdio` library
- ⊠ Caution: don't treat macros like function calls

```
#define valid(x) ((x) > 0 && (x) < 20)
if (valid(x++)) {...}
valid(x++) -> ((x++) > 0 && (x++) < 20)
```

C preprocessor –file inclusion

```
#include "filename.h"
```

```
#include <filename.h>
```

- inserts contents of filename into file to be compiled
- “filename” relative to current directory
- <filename> relative to /usr/include
- gcc -I flag to re-define default
- import function prototypes (cf. Java import)
- Examples:

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

```
#include "mydefs.h"
```

```
#include "/home/alice/program/defs.h"
```

C preprocessor – conditional compilation

```
#if expression  
code segment 1  
#else  
code segment 2  
#endif
```

- preprocessor checks value of expression
- if true, outputs code segment 1, otherwise code segment 2
- machine or OS-dependent code
- can be used to comment out chunks of code – bad!

```
#define OS linux  
...  
#if OS == linux  
    puts("Linux!");  
#else  
    puts("Something else");  
#endif
```

C preprocessor - ifdef

- For boolean flags, easier:

```
#ifdef name  
code segment 1  
#else  
code segment 2  
#endif
```

- preprocessor checks if name has been defined
 - #define USEDB
- if so, use code segment 1, otherwise 2

Advice on preprocessor

- Limit use as much as possible
 - subtle errors
 - not visible in debugging
 - code hard to read
- much of it is historical baggage
- there are better alternatives for almost everything:
 - `#define INT16` -> type definitions
 - `#define MAXLEN` -> const
 - `#define max(a,b)` -> regular functions
 - comment out code -> CVS, functions
- limit to .h files, to isolate OS & machine-specific code

Comments

- */* any text until */*
- `//` C++-style comments – careful!
- no `/** */`, but doc++ has similar conventions
- Convention for longer comments:

```
/*  
 * AverageGrade()  
 * Given an array of grades, compute the average.  
 */
```
- Avoid `****` boxes – hard to edit, usually look ragged.

Numeric data types

type	bytes (typ.)	range
char	1	-128 ... 127
short	2	-65536...65535
int, long	4	-2,147,483,648 to 2,147,483,647
long long	8	2^{64}
float	4	3.4E+/-38 (7 digits)
double	8	1.7E+/-308 (15 digits)

Remarks on data types

- Range differs – `int` is “native” size, e.g., 64 bits on 64-bit machines, but sometimes `int` = 32 bits, `long` = 64 bits
- Also, `unsigned` versions of integer types
 - same bits, different interpretation
- `char` = 1 “character”, but only true for ASCII and other Western char sets

Example

```
#include <stdio.h>

void main(void)
{
    int nstudents = 0; /* Initialization, required */

    printf("How many students does Columbia
have ?:" );
    scanf ("%d", &nstudents); /* Read input */
    printf("Columbia has %d students.\n", nstudents);

    return ;
}
```

\$ How many students does Columbia have ?: 20000 (enter)
Columbia has 20000 students.

Type conversion

```
#include <stdio.h>
void main(void)
{
    int i,j = 12;        /* i not initialized, only j */
    float f1,f2 = 1.2;

    i = (int) f2;         /* explicit: i <- 1, 0.2 lost */
    f1 = i;               /* implicit: f1 <- 1.0 */

    f1 = f2 + (int) j;    /* explicit: f1 <- 1.2 + 12.0 */
    f1 = f2 + j;          /* implicit: f1 <- 1.2 + 12.0 */
}
```

Explicit and implicit conversions

- Implicit: e.g., `s = a (int) + b (char)`
- Promotion: `char -> short -> int -> ...`
- If one operand is `double`, the other is made `double`
- If either is `float`, the other is made `float`, etc.
- Explicit: type casting – `(type)`
- Almost any conversion does something – but not necessarily what you intended

Type conversion

```
int x = 100000;
```

```
short s;
```

```
s = x;
```

```
printf("%d %d\n", x, s);
```

100000 -31072

C – no booleans

- C doesn't have booleans
- Emulate as int or char, with values 0 (false) and 1 or non-zero (true)
- Allowed by flow control statements:

```
if (n = 0) {  
    printf("something wrong");  
}
```
- Assignment returns zero -> false

User-defined types

- typedef gives names to types:
typedef short int smallNumber;
typedef unsigned char byte;
typedef char String[100];

smallNumber x;
byte b;
String name;

Defining your own boolean

```
typedef char boolean;  
#define FALSE 0  
#define TRUE 1
```

- Generally works, but beware:

```
check = x > 0;  
if (check == TRUE) {...}
```

- If `x` is positive, `check` will be non-zero, but may not be 1.

Enumerated types

- Define new integer-like types as enumerated types:

```
typedef enum {  
    Red, Orange, Yellow, Green, Blue, Violet  
} Color;  
enum weather {rain, snow=2, sun=4};
```

- look like C identifiers (names)
- are listed (enumerated) in definition
- treated like integers
 - can add, subtract – even `color + weather`
 - can't print as symbol (unlike Pascal)
 - but debugger generally will

Enumerated types

- Just syntactic sugar for ordered collection of integer constants:

```
typedef enum {  
    Red, Orange, Yellow  
} Color;
```

is like

```
#define Red 0  
#define Orange 1  
#define Yellow 2
```

- `typedef enum {False, True} boolean;`

Objects (or lack thereof)

- C does not have objects (C++ does)
- Variables for C's primitive types are defined very similarly:

```
short int x;  
char ch;  
float pi = 3.1415;  
float f, g;
```
- Variables defined in `{}` block are active only in block
- Variables defined outside a block are global (persist during program execution), but may not be globally visible (static)

Data objects

- Variable = container that can hold a value
 - in C, pretty much a CPU word or similar
- default value is (mostly) undefined – treat as random
 - compiler may warn you about uninitialized variables
- `ch = 'a'; x = x + 4;`
- Always pass by value, but can pass address to function:
`scanf ("%d%f", &x, &f);`

Data objects

- Every data object in C has
 - a name and data type (specified in definition)
 - an address (its relative location in memory)
 - a size (number of bytes of memory it occupies)
 - visibility (which parts of program can refer to it)
 - lifetime (period during which it exists)

- **Warning:**

```
int *foo(char x) {  
    return &x;  
}  
pt = foo(x);  
*pt = 17;
```

Data objects

- Unlike scripting languages and Java, all C data objects have a fixed size over their lifetime
 - except dynamically created objects
- size of object is determined when object is created:
 - global data objects at compile time (data)
 - local data objects at run-time (stack)
 - dynamic data objects by programmer (heap)

Data object creation

```
int x;
int arr[20];
int main(int argc, char *argv[]) {
    int i = 20;
    {into x; x = i + 7;}
}
int f(int n)
{
    int a, *p;
    a = 1;
    p = (int *)malloc(sizeof int);
}
```


Data object creation

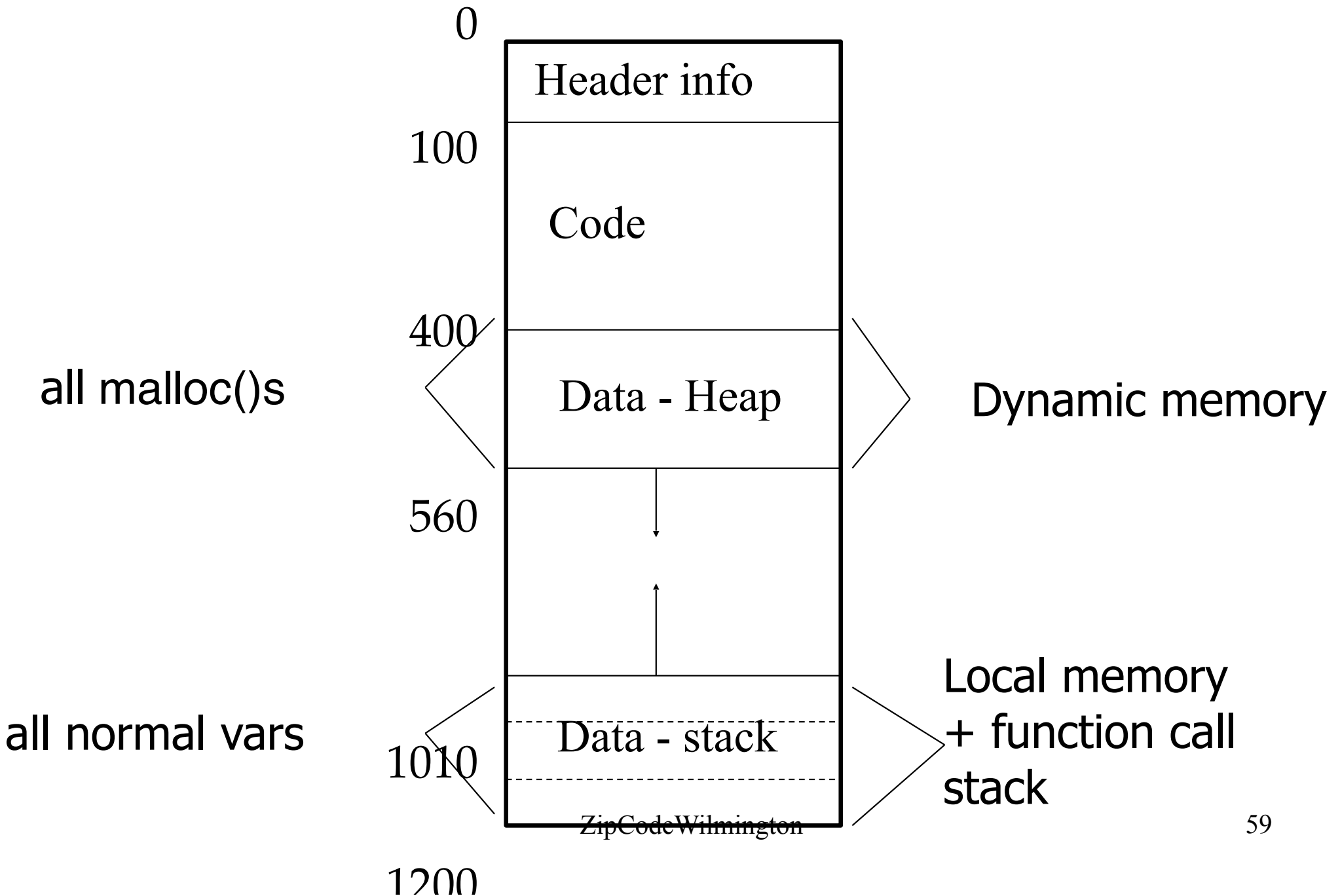
- `malloc()` allocates a block of memory
- Lifetime until memory is freed, with `free()`.
- Memory leakage – memory allocated is never freed:

```
char *combine(char *s, char *t) {  
    u = (char *)malloc(strlen(s) + strlen(t) + 1);  
    if (s != t) {  
        strcpy(u, s); strcat(u, t);  
        return u;  
    } else {  
        return 0;  
    }  
}
```

Memory allocation

- Note: `malloc()` does not initialize data
- `void *calloc(size_t n, size_t elsize)` does initialize (to zero)
- Can also change size of allocated memory blocks:
 - `void *realloc(void *ptr, size_t size)`
ptr points to existing block, size is new size
- New pointer may be different from old, but content is copied.

Memory layout of programs

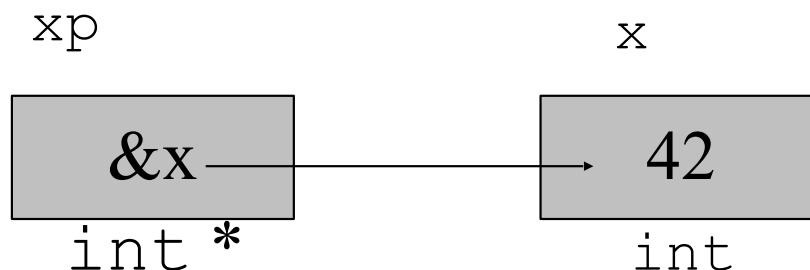


Data objects and pointers

- The memory **address** of a data object, e.g., `int x`
 - can be obtained via `&x`
 - has a data type `int *` (in general, `type *`)
 - has a value which is a large (4/8 byte) unsigned integer
 - can have pointers to pointers: `int **`
- The **size** of a data object, e.g., `int x`
 - can be obtained via `sizeof x` or `sizeof(x)`
 - has data type `size_t`, but is often assigned to `int` (bad!)
 - has a value which is a small(ish) integer
 - is measured in bytes

Data objects and pointers

- Every data type `T` in C/C++ has an associated pointer type `T *`
- A value of type `*` is the address of an object of type `T`
- If an object `int *xp` has value `&x`, the expression `*xp` dereferences the pointer and refers to `x`, thus has type `int`



Data objects and pointers

- If p contains the address of a data object, then *p allows you to use that object
- *p is treated just like normal data object

```
int a, b, *c, *d;  
*d = 17; /* BAD idea */  
a = 2; b = 3; c = &a; d = &b;  
if (*c == *d) puts("Same value");  
*c = 3;  
if (*c == *d) puts("Now same value");  
c = d;  
if (c == d) puts ("Now same address");
```

void pointers

- Generic pointer
- Unlike other pointers, can be assigned to any other pointer type:
 void *v;
 char *s = v;
- Acts like char * otherwise:
 v++, sizeof(*v) = 1;

Control structures

- Same as Java
- sequencing: `;`
- grouping: `{ . . . }`
- selection: `if`, `switch`
- iteration: `for`, `while`

Sequencing and grouping

- `statement1 ; statement2; statement n;`
 - executes each of the statements in turn
 - a semicolon after every statement
 - not required after a `{...}` block
- `{ statements } {declarations statements}`
 - treat the sequence of statements as a single operation (block)
 - data objects may be defined at beginning of block

The `if` statement

- Same as Java

```
if (condition1) {statements1}  
else if (condition2) {statements2}  
else if (conditionn-1) {statementsn-1} |  
else {statementsn}
```

- evaluates statements until find one with non-zero result
- executes corresponding statements

The `if` statement

- Can omit `{}`, but careful

```
if (x > 0)
    printf("x > 0!");
if (y > 0)
    printf("x and y > 0!");
```

The switch statement

- Allows choice based on a single value

```
switch(expression) {  
    case const1: statements1; break;  
    case const2: statements2; break;  
    default: statementsn;  
}
```

- Effect: evaluates integer expression
- looks for case with matching value
- executes corresponding statements (or defaults)

The switch statement

```
Weather w;
switch(w) {
    case rain:
        printf("bring umbrella' ');
    case snow:
        printf("wear jacket");
        break;
    case sun:
        printf("wear sunscreen");
        break;
    default:
        printf("strange weather");
}
```

Repetition

- C has several control structures for repetition

Statement	repeats an action...
<code>while(c) {}</code>	zero or more times, while condition is $\neq 0$
<code>do {...} while(c)</code>	one or more times, while condition is $\neq 0$
<code>for (start; cond; upd)</code>	zero or more times, with initialization and update

The break statement

- break allows early exit from one loop level

```
for (init; condition; next) {  
    statements1;  
    if (condition2) break;  
    statements2;  
}
```

The `continue` statement

- `continue` skips to next iteration, ignoring rest of loop body

- does execute next statement

```
for (init; condition1; next) {  
    statement2;  
    if (condition2) continue;  
    statement2;  
}
```

- often better written as `if` with block

Structured data objects

- Structured data objects are available as

object	property
<code>array []</code>	enumerated, numbered from 0
<code>struct</code>	names and types of fields
<code>union</code>	occupy same space (one of)

Arrays

- Arrays are defined by specifying an element type and number of elements
 - `int vec[100];`
 - `char str[30];`
 - `float m[10][10];`
- For array containing N elements, indexes are 0..N-1
- Stored as linear arrangement of elements
- Often similar to pointers

Arrays

- C does not remember how large arrays are (i.e., no length attribute)
- `int x[10]; x[10] = 5;` may work (for a while)
- In the block where array `A` is defined:
 - `sizeof A` gives the number of bytes in array
 - can compute length via `sizeof A / sizeof A[0]`
- When an array is passed as a parameter to a function
 - the size information is not available inside the function
 - array size is typically passed as an additional parameter
 - `PrintArray(A, VECSIZE);`
 - or as part of a `struct` (best, object-like)
 - or globally
 - `#define VECSIZE 10`

Arrays

- Array elements are accessed using the same syntax as in Java: `array[index]`

- Example (iteration over array):

```
int i, sum = 0;
...
for (i = 0; i < VECSIZE; i++)
    sum += vec[i];
```

- C does not check whether array index values are sensible (i.e., no bounds checking)

- `vec[-1]` or `vec[10000]` will not generate a compiler warning!
- if you're lucky, the program crashes with
Segmentation fault (core dumped)

Arrays

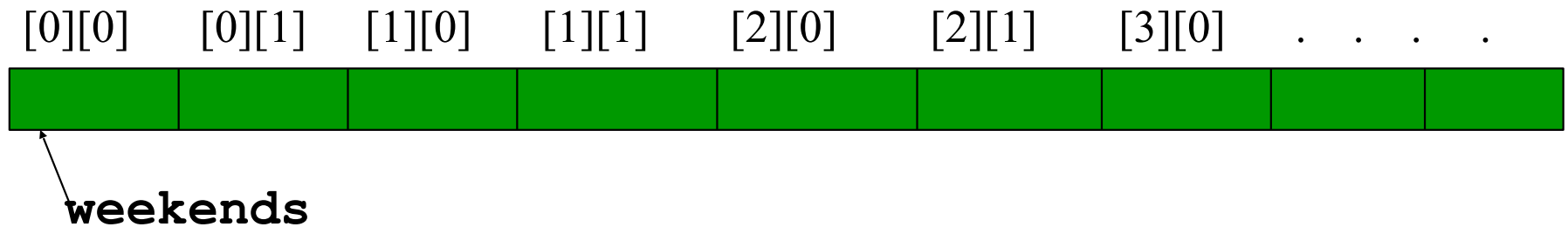
- C references arrays by the address of their first element
- `array` is equivalent to `&array[0]`
- can iterate through arrays using pointers as well as indexes:

```
int *v, *last;  
int sum = 0;  
last = &vec[VECSIZE-1];  
for (v = vec; v <= last; v++)  
    sum += *v;
```

2-D arrays

- 2-dimensional array

```
int weekends[52][2];
```



- `weekends[2][1]` is same as `*(weekends+2*2+1)`
 - NOT `*weekends+2*2+1` :this is an int !

Arrays - example

```
#include <stdio.h>
void main(void) {
    int number[12]; /* 12 cells, one cell per student */
    int index, sum = 0;
        /* Always initialize array before use */
    for (index = 0; index < 12; index++) {
        number[index] = index;
    }
    /* now, number[index]=index; will cause error:why ?*/

    for (index = 0; index < 12; index = index + 1) {
        sum += number[index]; /* sum array elements */
    }
    return;
}
```

Aside: void, void *

- Function that doesn't return anything declared as void
- No argument declared as void
- Special pointer *void can point to anything

```
#include <stdio.h>
extern void *f(void);
void *f(void) {
    printf("the big void\n");
    return NULL;
}
int main(void) {
    f();
}
```


Overriding functions – function pointers

- overriding: changing the implementation, leave prototype
- in C, can use function pointers

`returnType (*ptrName)(arg1, arg2, ...);`

- for example, `int (*fp)(double x);` is a pointer to a function that return an integer
- `double * (*gp)(int)` is a pointer to a function that returns a pointer to a double

structs

- Similar to fields in Java object/class definitions
- components can be any type (but not recursive)
- accessed using the same syntax struct.field
- Example:

```
struct {int x; char y; float z;} rec;  
...  
r.x = 3; r.y = 'a'; r.z= 3.1415;
```

structs

- Record types can be defined
 - using a tag associated with the struct definition
 - wrapping the struct definition inside a typedef

- Examples:

```
struct complex {double real; double imag;};  
struct point {double x; double y;} corner;  
typedef struct {double real; double imag;} Complex;  
struct complex a, b;  
Complex c,d;
```

- a and b have the same size, structure and type
- a and c have the same size and structure, but different types

structs

- Overall size is sum of elements, plus padding for alignment:

```
struct {  
    char x;  
    int y;  
    char z;  
} s1;    sizeof(s1) = ?  
struct {  
    char x, z;  
    int y;  
} s2;    sizeof(s2) = ?
```

structs - example

```
struct person {
    char name[41];
    int age;
    float height;
    struct {          /* embedded structure */
        int month;
        int day;
        int year;
    } birth;
};

struct person me;
me.birth.year=1977;
struct person class[60];
    /* array of info about everyone in class */
class[0].name="Gun"; class[0].birth.year=1971;.....
```

structs

- Often used to model real memory layout, e.g.,

```
typedef struct {  
    unsigned int version:2;  
    unsigned int p:1;  
    unsigned int cc:4;  
    unsigned int m:1;  
    unsigned int pt:7;  
    u_int16 seq;  
    u_int32 ts;  
} rtp_hdr_t;
```

Dereferencing pointers to struct elements

- Pointers commonly to struct's
 `(*sp).element = 42;`
 `y = (*sp).element;`
- Note: `*sp.element` doesn't work
- Abbreviated alternative:
 `sp->element = 42;`
 `y = sp->element;`

Bit fields

- On previous slides, labeled integers with size in bits (e.g., pt:7)
- Allows aligning struct with real memory data, e.g., in protocols or device drivers
- Order can differ between little/big-endian systems
- Alignment restrictions on modern processors – natural alignment
- Sometimes clearer than $(x \& 0x8000) \gg 31$

Unions

- Like structs:

```
union u_tag {  
    int ival;  
    float fval;  
    char *sval;  
} u;
```

- but occupy same memory space
- can hold different types at different times
- overall size is largest of elements

More pointers

```
int month[12]; /* month is a pointer to base address 430*/

month[3] = 7; /* month address + 3 * int elements
              => int at address (430+3*4) is now 7 */

ptr = month + 2; /* ptr points to month[2],
                 => ptr is now (430+2 * int elements)= 438 */
ptr[5] = 12; /* ptr address + 5 int elements
             => int at address (434+5*4) is now 12.
             Thus, month[7] is now 12 */

ptr++; /* ptr <- 438 + 1 * size of int = 442 */
(ptr + 4)[2] = 12; /* accessing ptr[6] i.e., array[9] */
```

- NOW , month[6] , *(month+6) , (month+4)[2] ,
ptr[3] , *(ptr+3) are all the same integer variable.

Functions - why and how ?

- If a program is too long
- Modularization – easier to
 - code
 - debug
- Code reuse
- Passing arguments to functions
 - By value
 - By reference
- Returning values from functions
 - By value
 - By reference

Functions

- Prototypes and functions (cf. Java interfaces)
 - `extern int putchar(int c);`
 - `putchar('A');`
 - `int putchar(int c) {`
 do something interesting here
 }
- If defined before use in same file, no need for prototype
- Typically, prototype defined in .h file
- Good idea to include `<.h>` in actual definition

Functions

- static functions and variables hide them to those outside the same file:

```
static int x;  
static int times2(int c) {  
    return c*2;  
}
```

- compare protected class members in Java.

Functions – const arguments

- Indicates that argument won't be changed.
- Only meaningful for pointer arguments and declarations:

```
int c(const char *s, const int x) {  
    const int VALUE = 10;  
    printf("x = %d\n", VALUE);  
    return *s;  
}
```

- Attempts to change *s will yield compiler warning.

Functions - extern

```
#include <stdio.h>

extern char user2line [20];    /* global variable defined
                                in another file */
char user1line[30];           /* global for this file */
void dummy(void);

void main(void) {
    char user1line[20];        /* different from earlier
                                user1line[30] */
    . . .                     /* restricted to this func */
}

void dummy() {
    extern char user1line[];    /* the global user1line[30] */
    . . .
}
```

Overloading functions – var. arg. list

- Java:

```
void product(double x, double y);  
void product(vector x, vector y);
```

- C doesn't support this, but allows variable number of arguments:

```
debug("%d %f", x, f);  
debug("%c", c);
```

- declared as `void debug(char *fmt, ...);`

- at least one known argument

Overloading functions

- must include <stdarg.h>:

```
#include <stdarg.h>
double product(int number, ...) {
    va_list list;
    double p;
    int i;
    va_start(list, number);
    for (i = 0, p = 1.0; i < number; i++) {
        p *= va_arg(list, double);
    }
    va_end(list);
}
```

- danger: product(2,3,4) won't work, needs product(2,3.0,4.0);

Overloading functions

- Limitations:
 - cannot access arguments in middle
 - needs to copy to variables or local array
 - client and function need to know and adhere to type

Program with multiple files

```
#include <stdio.h>
#include "mypgm.h"

void main(void)
{
    myproc();
}
```

hw.c

```
#include <stdio.h>
#include "mypgm.h"

void myproc(void)
{
    mydata=2;
    . . . /* some code */
}
```

mypgm.c

```
void myproc(void);
int mydata;
```

mypgm.h

- Library headers
 - Standard
 - User-defined

Data hiding in C

- C doesn't have classes or private members, but this can be approximated

- Implementation defines real data structure:

```
#define QUEUE_C
#include "queue.h"
typedef struct queue_t {
    struct queue_t *next;
    int data;
} *queue_t, queuestruct_t;
queue_t NewQueue(void) {
    return q;
}
```

- Header file defines public data:

```
#ifndef QUEUE_C
typedef struct queue_t *queue_t;
#endif
queue_t NewQueue(void);
```

Pointer to function

```
int func(); /*function returning integer*/  
int *func(); /*function returning pointer to integer*/  
int (*func)(); /*pointer to function returning integer*/  
int *(*func)(); /*pointer to func returning ptr to int*/
```

Function pointers

```
int (*fp)(void);
```

```
double* (*gp)(int);
```

```
int f(void)
```

```
double *g(int);
```

```
fp=f;
```

```
gp=g;
```

```
int i = fp();
```

```
double *g = (*gp)(17); /* alternative */
```

Pointer to function - example

```
#include <stdio.h>

void myproc (int d);
void mycaller(void (* f)(int), int param);

void main(void) {
    myproc(10);          /* call myproc with parameter 10*/
    mycaller(myproc, 10); /* and do the same again ! */
}

void mycaller(void (* f)(int), int param){
    (*f)(param);         /* call function *f with param */
}

void myproc (int d){
    . . .                /* do something with d */
}
```

Libraries

- C provides a set of standard libraries for

numerical math functions	<math.h>	-lm
character strings	<string.h>	
character types	<ctype.h>	
I/O	<stdio.h>	

The math library

- `#include <math.h>`
 - careful: `sqrt(5)` without header file may give wrong result!
- `gcc -o compute main.o f.o -lm`
- Uses normal mathematical notation:

<code>Math.sqrt(2)</code>	<code>sqrt(2)</code>
<code>Math.pow(x,5)</code>	<code>pow(x,5)</code>
<code>4*math.pow(x,3)</code>	<code>4*pow(x,3)</code>

Characters

- The char type is an 8-bit byte containing ASCII code values (e.g., 'A' = 65, 'B' = 66, ...)
- Often, char is treated like (and converted to) int
- <ctype.h> contains character classification functions:

isalnum(ch)	alphanumeric	[a-zA-Z0-9]
isalpha (ch)	alphabetic	[a-zA-Z]
isdigit(ch)	digit	[0-9]
ispunct(ch)	punctuation	[~!@#%^&...]
isspace(ch)	white space	[\t\n]
isupper(ch)	upper-case	[A-Z]
islower(ch)	lower-case	[a-z]

Strings

- In Java, strings are regular objects
- In C, strings are just char arrays with a NUL ('\0') terminator
- “a cat” =

a		c	a	t	\0
---	--	---	---	---	----
- A literal string (“a cat”)
 - is automatically allocated memory space to contain it and the terminating \0
 - has a value which is the address of the first character
 - can’t be changed by the program (common bug!)
- All other strings must have space allocated to them by the program

Strings

```
char *makeBig(char *s) {  
    s[0] = toupper(s[0]);  
    return s;  
}  
makeBig("a cat");
```

Strings

- We normally refer to a string via a pointer to its first character:

```
char *str = "my string";  
char *s;  
s = &str[0]; s = str;
```

- C functions only know string ending by \0:

```
char *str = "my string";  
...  
int i;  
for (i = 0; str[i] != '\0'; i++)  
    putchar(str[i]);  
char *s;  
for (s = str; *s; s++) putchar(*s);
```

Strings

- Can treat like arrays:

```
char c;  
char line[100];  
for (i = 0; i < 100 && line[c]; i++) {  
    if (isalpha(line[c]) ...  
}
```

Copying strings

- Copying content vs. copying pointer to content
- `s = t` copies pointer – `s` and `t` now refer to the same memory location
- `strcpy(s, t)`; copies content of `t` to `s`
`char mybuffer[100];`
`...`
`mybuffer = "a cat";`
- is incorrect (but appears to work!)
- **Use** `strcpy(mybuffer, "a cat")` instead

Example string manipulation

```
#include <stdio.h>
#include <string.h>
int main(void) {
    char line[100];
    char *family, *given, *gap;
    printf("Enter your name:"); fgets(line,100,stdin);
    given = line;
    for (gap = line; *gap; gap++)
        if (isspace(*gap)) break;
    *gap = '\\0';
    family = gap+1;
    printf("Your name: %s, %s\\n", family, given);
    return 0;
}
```


string.h library

- Assumptions:
 - #include <string.h>
 - strings are NUL-terminated
 - all target arrays are large enough
- Operations:
 - char *strcpy(char *dest, char *source)
 - copies chars from source array into dest array up to NUL
 - char *strncpy(char *dest, char *source, int num)
 - copies chars; stops after num chars if no NUL before that; appends NUL

string.h library

- `int strlen(const char *source)`
 - returns number of chars, excluding NUL
- `char *strchr(const char *source, const char ch)`
 - returns pointer to first occurrence of `ch` in `source`; NUL if none
- `char *strstr(const char *source, const char *search)`
 - return pointer to first occurrence of `search` in `source`

Formatted strings

- String parsing and formatting (binary from/to text)
- `int sscanf(char *string, char *format, ...)`
 - parse the contents of string according to format
 - placed the parsed items into 3rd, 4th, 5th, ... argument
 - return the number of successful conversions
- `int sprintf(char *buffer, char *format, ...)`
 - produce a string formatted according to format
 - place this string into the buffer
 - the 3rd, 4th, 5th, ... arguments are formatted
 - return number of successful conversions

Formatted strings

- The format strings for `sscanf` and `sprintf` contain
 - plain text (matched on input or inserted into the output)
 - formatting codes (which must match the arguments)
- The `sprintf` format string gives template for result string
- The `sscanf` format string describes what input should look like

Formatted strings

- Formatting codes for sscanf

Code	meaning	variable
%c	matches a single character	char
%d	matches an integer in decimal	int
%f	matches a real number (ddd.dd)	float
%s	matches a string up to white space	char *
%[^c]	matches string up to next c char	char *

Formatted strings

- Formatting codes for printf
- Values normally right-justified; use negative field width to get left-justified

Code	meaning	variable
<code>%nC</code>	char in field of n spaces	char
<code>%nd</code>	integer in field of n spaces	int, long
<code>%n.mf</code>	real number in width n, m decimals	float, double
<code>%n.mg</code>	real number in width n, m digits of precision	float, double
<code>%n.mS</code>	first m chars from string in width n	char *

Formatted strings - examples

```
char *msg = "Hello there";
```

```
char *nums = "1 3 5 7 9";
```

```
char s[10], t[10];
```

```
int a, b, c, n;
```

```
n = sscanf(msg, "%s %s", s, t);
```

```
n = printf("%10s %-10s", t, s);
```

```
n = sscanf(nums, "%d %d %d", &a, &b, &c);
```

```
printf("%d flower%s", n, n > 1 ? "s" : " ");
```

```
printf("a = %d, answer = %d\n", a, b+c);
```

The stdio library

- Access stdio functions by
 - using `#include <stdio.h>` for prototypes
 - compiler links it automatically
- defines `FILE *` type and functions of that type
- data objects of type `FILE *`
 - can be connected to file system files for reading and writing
 - represent a buffered stream of chars (bytes) to be written or read
- always defines `stdin, stdout, stderr`

The stdio library: **fopen()**, **fclose()**

- Opening and closing FILE * streams:

FILE *fopen(const char *path, const char *mode)

- open the file called path in the appropriate mode
- modes: “r” (read), “w” (write), “a” (append), “r+” (read & write)
- returns a new FILE * if successful, NULL otherwise

int fclose(FILE *stream)

- close the stream FILE *
- return 0 if successful, EOF if not

stdio – character I/O

`int getchar()`

- read the next character from stdin; returns EOF if none

`int fgetc(FILE *in)`

- read the next character from FILE in; returns EOF if none

`int putchar(int c)`

- write the character c onto stdout; returns c or EOF

`int fputc(int c, FILE *out)`

- write the character c onto out; returns c or EOF

stdio – line I/O

`char *fgets(char *buf, int size, FILE *in)`

- read the next line from in into buffer buf
- halts at '\n' or after size-1 characters have been read
- the '\n' is read, but not included in buf
- returns pointer to strbuf if ok, NULL otherwise
- do **not** use `gets(char *)` – buffer overflow

`int fputs(const char *str, FILE *out)`

- writes the string str to out, stopping at '\0'
- returns number of characters written or EOF

stdio – formatted I/O

`int fscanf(FILE *in, const char *format, ...)`

- read text from stream according to format

`int fprintf(FILE *out, const char *format, ...)`

- write the string to output file, according to format

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

- equivalent to `fprintf(stdout, format, ...)`

- **Warning:** do not use `fscanf(...)`; use `fgets(str, ...)`; `sscanf(str, ...)`;

Before you go....

- Always initialize anything before using it (especially pointers)
- Don't use pointers after freeing them
- Don't return a function's local variables by reference
- No exceptions – so check for errors everywhere
 - memory allocation
 - system calls
 - Murphy's law, C version: anything that **can't** fail, will fail
- An array is also a pointer, but its value is immutable.