# CSCI 2021: C Basics 

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## Logisitcs

## Reading

- C references
- Bryant/O'Hallaron Ch 2.1-3 on Binary Reps

Goals

- Complete C overview
- Binary Reps (next)

Assignments

- P1 Up / Ongoing
- Lab03 on File Input
- HW03 on Binary Ints

| Date |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Wed | Event |  |
|  |  | Structs / File IO |
| Fri | 03-Feb | Binary Ints/Chars |
| Mon | 06-Feb | Binary Ints/Chars |
| Wed | 08-Feb | Lec/Lab Review |
|  |  | P1 Due |
| Fri | 10-Feb | Exam 1 |

Prev Lab/HW Solutions going up soon
Questions??

## Announcements

See Piazza posts for details of each event
CSE Career Fair

- Tue 07-Feb 12noon-5pm Marucci Arena
- https://cse.umn.edu/college/cse-career-fair

It's never to early to start practicing interview and networking skills. Draft a resume, dust off those schwank clothes, and check it out.

## NSF REU Sites

- REU: Research Experience for Undergraduates
- Ex: Medical Informatics at DePaul / Univ. Chicago, Applications due 03-Mar
- More REU computing-focused sites listed on NSF website:
- Note: UMN has an REU site but accepts few local students; apply to go someplace interesting!


## Every Programming Language

Look for the following as it should almost always be there
$\boxtimes$ Comments
$\boxminus$ Statements/Expressions
$\boxminus$ Variable Types
$\boxminus$ Assignment
$\boxminus$ Basic Input/Output (printf() and scanf() from HW1)
$\square$ Function Declarations
$\square$ Conditionals (if-else)
$\square$ Iteration (loops)
$\square$ Aggregate data (arrays, structs, objects, etc)
$\square$ Library System

## Exercise: Traditional C Data Types

These are the traditional data types in C

| Bytes $^{*}$ | Name | Range |
| ---: | :--- | :--- |
|  | INTEGRAL |  |
| 1 | char | -128 to 127 |
| 2 | short | $-32,768$ to 32,767 |
| 4 | int | $-2,147,483,648$ to $2,147,483,647$ |
| 8 | long | $-9,223,372,036,854,775,808$ to $9,223,372,036,854,775,807$ |
| 4 | FLOATING | float |
| 8 | double | $\pm 3.40282347 \mathrm{E} \pm 38(6-7$ significant decimal digits $)$ |
| $\pm 1.79769313486231570 \mathrm{E} \pm 308$ (15 significant decimal digits) |  |  |

*Number of bytes for each type is NOT standard but sizes shown are common. Portable code should NOT assume any particular size which is a huge pain in the @\$\$.
Inspect types closely and discuss the following:

1. Ranges of integral types?
2. Missing types you expected?
3. void what now?
4. How do you say char?

## Answers: Traditional C Data Types

Ranges of signed integral types
Asymmetric: slightly more negative than positive
char is -128 to 127
Due to use of Two's Complement representation, many details and alternatives later in the course.

Missing: Boolean
Every piece of data in $C$ is either truthy or falsey:
int $x ; \operatorname{scanf}(" \% d ", \& x)$;
if(x) \{ printf("Truthy"); \} // very common
else \{ printf("Falsey"); \}
Typically 0 is the only thing that is falsey
Missing: String

- char holds a single character like 'A' or '5'
- No String type: arrays of char like char str [] or char *s
- char pronounced CAR / CARE like "character" (debatable)


## Recall: Pointers, Addresses, Derferences

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { type *ptr; } & \text { Declares a pointer variable } \\
\text { type* ptr; } & \text { Declares a pointer variable }{ }^{1} \\
\text { *ptr = val; } & \text { Dereferences pointer to set value pointed at } \\
\text { other = *ptr; } & \text { Dereferences pointer to get value pointed at }
\end{array}
$$

```
int *iptr;
int x = 7;
iptr = &x;
int y = *iptr;
*iptr = 9;
double z = 1.23;
double *dptr = &z;
*dptr = 4.56;
1 0
1 2
```

```
11 printf("x: %d z: %f\n", // print via derefs
```

11 printf("x: %d z: %f\n", // print via derefs

```
    *iptr, *dptr);
```

```
    *iptr, *dptr);
```

Declaring pointer variables to specific types is the normal and safest way to write C code but can be circumvented
${ }^{1}$ While int *p; and int* p ; do the same thing, placing the $*$ next to the variable name is the more common style in C for cases like int a, *p, b;

## Exercise: Legacy of the Void Pointer

void *ptr; // void pointer

- Declares a pointer to something/anything
- Useful to store an arbitrary memory address
- Removes compiler's ability to Type Check so introduces risks managed by the programmer

Example: void_pointer.c

- Predict output
- What looks screwy?
// void_pointer.c: pluses and perils
// void_pointer.c: pluses and perils
\#include <stdio.h>
\#include <stdio.h>
int main(){
int main(){
int a = 5;
int a = 5;
double x = 1.2345;
double x = 1.2345;
void *ptr;
void *ptr;
ptr = \&a;
ptr = \&a;
int b = *((int *) ptr);
int b = *((int *) ptr);
printf("%d\n",b);
printf("%d\n",b);
ptr = \&x;
ptr = \&x;
double y = *((double *) ptr);
double y = *((double *) ptr);
printf("%f\n",y);
printf("%f\n",y);
int c = *((int *) ptr);
int c = *((int *) ptr);
printf("%d\n",c);
printf("%d\n",c);
return 0;
return 0;
}
}


## Answers: Legacy of the Void Pointer

> cat -n void_pointer.c
1 // Demonstrate void pointer dereferencing and the associated
2 // shenanigans. Compiler needs to be convinced to dereference in most
3 // cases and circumventing the type system (compiler's ability to
4 // check correctness) is fraught with errors.
5 \#include <stdio.h>
6 int main()\{
7 int $\mathrm{a}=5$; // int
8 double $x=1.2345$; // double
9 void *ptr; // pointer to anything
10
11 ptr = \&a;
12 int $\mathrm{b}=*(($ int $*)$ ptr); // typecast to convince compiler to deref
13 printf("\%d\n",b);
14
15 ptr $=\& x$;
16 double $y=*(($ double $*)$ ptr); // typecast to convince compiler to deref
17 printf("\%f\n",y);
18
19 int $c=*(($ int $*)$ ptr ) ; // kids: this is why types are useful
20 printf("\%d\n", c);
21
22 return 0;
23 \}
> gcc void_pointer.c
$>$./a.out
5

1. 234500

309237645 \# interpreting half of a double as an integer

## Byte-level Picture of Memory at main() line 20



## Answers: Legacy of the Void Pointer

- The big weird integer 309237645 printed at the end is because...
- ptr points at a memory location with a double
- The compiler is "tricked" into treating this location as storing int data via the (int *) typecast
- Integer vs Floating layout is very different, we'll see this later
- Compiler generates low level instructions to move 4 bytes of the double data to an integer location
- Both size and bit layout don't match
- Since this is possible to do on a Von Neumann machine C makes it possible
- This does not mean it is a good idea: void_pointer.c illustrates weird code that is atypical and error-prone
- Avoid void * pointers when possible, take care when you must use them (there are many times you must use them in C )


## But wait, there're more types...

## Unsigned Variants

## Trade sign for larger positives

| Name | Range |
| :--- | :--- |
| unsigned char | 0 to 255 |
| unsigned short | 0 to 65,535 |
| unsigned int | 0 to 4,294,967,295 |
| unsigned long | 0 to... big, okay? |

After our C crash course, we will discuss representation of integers with bits and relationship between signed / unsigned integer types

Fixed Width Variants since C99 Specify size / properties

| int8_t | signed integer type with width of exactly $8,16,32$ and 64 bits respectively |
| :---: | :---: |
| int16_t |  |
| int32_t |  |
| int64_t |  |
| int_fast8_t | fastest signed integer type with width of |
| int_fast16_t | at least $8,16,32$ and 64 bits respectively |
| int_fast32_t |  |
| int_fast64_t |  |
| int_least8_t | smallest signed integer type with width of |
| int_least16_t | at least $8,16,32$ and 64 bits respectively |
| int_least32_t |  |
| int_least64_t |  |
| intmax_t | maximum width integer type |
| intptr_t | integer type capable of holding a pointer |
| uint8_t | unsigned integer type with width of |
| uint16_t | exactly $8,16,32$ and 64 bits respectively |
| uint32_t |  |
| uint64_t |  |
| uint_fast8_t | fastest unsigned integer type with width of |
| uint_fast16_t | at least $8,16,32$ and 64 bits respectively |
| uint_fast32_t |  |
| uint_fast64_t |  |
| uint_least8_t | smallest unsigned integer type with width of |
| uint_least16_t | at least 8, 16, 32 and 64 bits respectively |
| uint_least32_t |  |
| uint_least64_t |  |
| uintmax_t | maximum width unsigned integer type |
| uintptr_t | unsigned int capable of holding pointer |
|  | 12 |

## Arrays in C

- Array: a continuous block of homogeneous data
- Automatically allocated by the compiler/runtime with a fixed size ${ }^{1}$
- Support the familiar [ ] syntax
- Refer to a single element via arr [3]
- Bare name arr is the memory address where array starts
${ }^{1}$ Modern C supports variable sized arrays in the stack but we will not use them.


## Arrays and Pointers are Related with Subtle differences

| Property | Pointer | Array |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Declare like... | int *p; // rand val | int a[5]; // rand vals |
|  | int $* \mathrm{p}=$ \& x ; | int a[]$=\{1,2,3\}$; |
|  | int *p $=\mathrm{q}$; | int $\mathrm{a}[2]=\{2,4\}$; |
| Refers to a... | Memory location | Memory location |
| Which could be.. | Anywhere | Fixed location |
| Location ref is | Changeable | Not changeable |
| Location... | Assigned by coder | Determined by compiler |
| Has at it.. | One or more thing | One or more thing |
| Brace index? | Yep: int $\mathrm{z}=\mathrm{p}[0]$; | Yep: int z = a [0]; |
| Dereference? | Yep: int $\mathrm{y}=* \mathrm{p}$; | Nope |
| Arithmetic? | Yep: p++; | Nope |
| Assign to array? | Yep: int *p = a; | Nope |
| Interchangeable | doit_a(int a[]); | doit_p(int *p) ; |
|  | int *p = ... | int a[]$=\{1,2,3\}$; |
|  | doit_a(p); | doit_p(a); |
| Tracks num elems | NOPE | NOPE |
|  | Nada, nothin, nope | No a.length or length(a) |

## Example: pointer_v_array.c

```
1 // pointer_v_array.c: Demonstrate equivalence of pointers and
2 // arrays. An array is represented by its starting address so can be
3 // passed to a function taking a pointer as such. Similarly, a pointer
4 // value is an address so can be passed to a function taking an array
5 // argument. printf("\%p") prints pointer values in hexadecimal format.
6
7 \#include <stdio.h>
8
void print0_arr(int a[])\{ // print Oth element of a
    printf("\%p: \%d\n", a, a[0]); // address and Oth elem
\}
void print0_ptr (int *p) \{ // print int pointed at by p
    printf("\%p: \%d\n", p, *p); // address and Oth elem
\}
int main()\{
    int \(* \mathrm{p}=\) NULL; // declare a pointer, points nowhere
    printf("\%p: \%p\n", \&p, p); // print address/contents of p
    int \(x=21\); // declare an integer
    \(\mathrm{p}=\& \mathrm{x}\);
    print0_arr (p);
    int \(a[]=\{5,10,15\}\);
    print0_ptr(a);
    //a = p;
    p = a;
    print0_ptr (p) ;
    return 0;
\}
```


## Execution of Code/Memory 1

```
void print0_arr(int a[]){
    printf("%p: %d\n", a, a[0])
}
4 void printO_ptr(int *p){
5 printf("%p: %d\n", p, *p);
6}
int main(){
int *p = NULL;
printf("%p: %p\n", &p, p);
    int x = 21;
    p = &x;
    print0_arr(p);
    int a[] = {5,10,15};
    print0_ptr(a);
    //a = p;
<5> 17 print0_ptr(p);
    18 return 0;
```

<4> $16 \mathrm{p}=\mathrm{a}$;
19 \}

Memory at indicated <POS>


## Execution of Code/Memory 2

```
void print0_arr(int a[]){
    printf("%p: %d\n", a, a[0])
}
4 void printO_ptr(int *p){
5 printf("%p: %d\n", p, *p);
6}
int main(){
int *p = NULL;
    printf("%p: %p\n", &p, p);
    int x = 21;
    p = &x;
    print0_arr(p);
    int a[] = {5,10,15};
    print0_ptr(a);
    //a = p;
<5> 17 print0_ptr(p);
    18 return 0;
```

<4> $16 \mathrm{p}=\mathrm{a}$;
19 \}

Memory at indicated <POS>


## Summary of Pointer / Array Relationship

## Arrays

- Arrays are allocated by the Compiler at a fixed location
- Bare name a references is the starting address of the array
- Must use square braces a [i] to index into them


## Pointers

- Pointers can point to anything, can change, must be manually directed
- Can use square braces $\mathrm{p}[\mathrm{i}$ ] or deref $* \mathrm{p}$ to index into them


## Interchangeability

- In most cases, functions that require an array can be passed a pointer, functions that that require a pointer can be passed an array
- Works BECAUSE array variables are pass as their starting memory address, a pointer value


## Exercise: Pointer Arithmetic

"Adding" to a pointer increases the position at which it points:

- Add 1 to an int*: point to the next int, add 4 bytes
- Add 1 to a double*: point to next double, add 8 bytes

Examine pointer_arithmetic.c below. Show memory contents and what's printed on the screen

```
#include <stdio.h>
void print_ptr(int *q){
    printf("%p: %d\n", q, *q);
}
int main(){
    int x = 21;
    int *p;
    int a[] = {5,10,15};
    p = a;
    print_ptr(p);
    p = a+1;
    print_ptr(p);
    p++;
    print_ptr(p);
    return 0;
}
```

    print_ptr(p); <2> ???
    \(\mathrm{p}+=2\); <3> ???
    

SCREEN :
49365
<2> ???
<3> ???
<4> ???

## Answers: Pointer Arithmetic



| <3> |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| dr | \| Type | Sym |  | N: |
| \#4948 | \| ? | ? | ? | 494010 |
| \#4944 | \| int | a[2] | 15 | 494415 |
| \#4940 | \| int | a[1] | 10 |  |
| \#4936 | int | a[0] | 5 |  |
| \#4928 | int* | p | \#4944 |  |
| \| \#4924 | \| int | x | 21 \| |  |


| \| Addr | Type | Sym | Val | SCREEN: |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  |  | 49365 |
| \#4952 | 1 ? | 1 ? | ? | 494010 |
| \#4948 | ? | ? | ? | 494415 |
| \#4944 | \| int | \| a[2] | 15 | 4952 ??? |
| \#4940 | \| int | \| a[1] | 10 |  |
| \| \#4936 | \| int | \| a[0] | 5 |  |
| \#4928 | \| int* | p | \#4952 |  |
| \| \#4924 | \| int | 1 x | 21 |  |
| Out of bounds deref of \#4952 is undefined behavior; may print random garbage values or may Segfault and killing the program. |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |

## Pointer Arithmetic Alternatives

Alternatives to pointer arithmetic exist that improve readability

```
printf("enter 5 doubles\n");
double arr[5];
for(int i=0; i<5; i++){
    // POINTER: ick // PREFERRED
    scanf("%lf", arr+i); OR scanf("%lf", &arr[i]);
}
printf("you entered:\n");
for(int i=0; i<5; i++){
    // POINTER: ick // PREFERRED
    printf("%f ", *(arr+i)); OR printf("%f ",arr[i]);
}
```

However, some situations benefit from pointer manipulations, often in string processing like the following:

```
// read_name.c : string processing example
char name[128]; // up to 128 chars
printf("first name: ");
scanf(" %s", name); // read into name
int len = strlen(name); // compute length of string
name[len] = ' '; // replace \0 with space
printf("last name: ");
scanf(" %s",name+len+1); // read last name at offset
printf("full name: %s\n",name);
```


## read_name.c: String Functions + Pointer Arithmetic



| STEP 1 <br> scanf(" \%s", name); | STEP 2 |
| :---: | :---: |
| // Enters 'Chris' |  |
| len $=$ strlen(name); | name[len] = ' '; |
| \| ... | | 1 ... \| |
| \| \#1038 | ? | \| \#1038 | ? |
| \| \#1037 | ? | \| \#1037 | ? |
| \| \#1036 | ? | \| \#1036 | ? |
| \| \#1035 | ? | \| \#1035 | ? |
| \| \#1034 | ? | \| \#1034 | ? |
| \| \#1033 | ? | \| \#1033 | ? |
| \| \#1032 | ? | \| \#1032 | ? |
| \| \#1031 | ? | \| \#1031 | ? |
| \| \#1030 | ? | \| \#1030 | ? |
| \| \#1029 | '\0' | \| \#1029 | |
| \| \#1028 | 's' | \| \#1028 | 's' |
| \| \#1027 | 'i' | \| \#1027 | 'i' |
| \| \#1026 | 'r' | \| \#1026 | 'r' |
| \| \#1025 | 'h' | \| \#1025 | 'h' |
| name \| \#1024 | 'C' | name \| \#1024 | 'C' |
| len \| \#1020 | 5 | len \| \#1020 | 5 |
| $\begin{aligned} & \text { Initial scanf() + } \\ & \text { strlen() } \end{aligned}$ | Overwrite null char with a space |

STEP 3
scanf(" \%s", name+len+1); // Enter 'Kauffman'

Read in after space using scanf()

Note the null character $\backslash 0$ terminates "standard" strings in C, honored by standard string functions like printf(), strlen(), strcpy(), etc.

## Allocating Memory with malloc() and free()

Dynamic Memory

- Most C data has a fixed size: single vars or arrays with sizes specified at compile time
- malloc (nbytes) is used to manually allocate memory
- single arg: number of bytes of memory
- frequently used with sizeof () operator
- returns a void* to bytes found or NULL if not enough space could be allocated
- free() is used to release memory

```
// malloc_demo.c
#include <stdio.h>
#include <stdlib.h> // malloc / free
int main(){
    printf("how many ints: ");
    int len;
    scanf(" %d",&len);
    int *nums = malloc(sizeof(int)*len);
    printf("initializing to 0\n");
    for(int i=0; i<len; i++){
        nums[i] = 0;
    }
    printf("enter %d ints: ",len);
    for(int i=0; i<len; i++){
        scanf(" %d",&nums[i]);
    }
    printf("nums are:\n");
    for(int i=0; i<len; i++){
        printf("[%d]: %d\n",i,nums[i]);
    }
    free(nums);
    return 0;
}
```


## Optional Exercise: Allocation Sizes

## How Big

How many bytes allocated?
How many elements in the array?

```
char *a = malloc(16);
char *b = malloc(16*sizeof(char));
int *c = malloc(16);
int *d = malloc(16*sizeof(int));
double *e = malloc(16);
double *f = malloc(16*sizeof(double));
int **g = malloc(16);
int **h = malloc(16*sizeof(int*));
```


## Allocate / Deallocate

- Want an array of ints called ages, quantity 32
- Want an array of doubles called dps, quantity is in variable int size
- Deallocate ages / dps

How many bytes CAN be allocated?

- Examine malloc_all_memory.c


## Answers: Allocation Sizes

```
char *a = malloc(16); // 16
char *b = malloc(16*sizeof(char)); // 16
int *c = malloc(16); // 16
int *d = malloc(16*sizeof(int)); // 64
double *e = malloc(16); // 16
double *f = malloc(16*sizeof(double)); // 128
int **g = malloc(16); // 16
int **h = malloc(16*sizeof(int*)); // 128
int *ages = malloc(sizeof(int)*32);
int size = ...;
double *dps = malloc(sizeof(double)*size);
free(ages);
free(dps);
```


## Compile and Runtime vs Memory Management

Compile Time Sizes

- Some sizes are known at Compile Time
- Compiler can calculate, sizes of fixed variables, arrays, sizes of stack frames for function calls and automatically allocate them
- Most of these are automatically managed on the function call stack and don't require use of malloc() / free()


## Run Time Sizes

- Compiler can't predict the future, at Run Time programs must react to
- Typed user input like names, Size of a file that is to be read
- Elements to be added to a data structure
- Memory allocated in one function and returned to another
- As these things are determined, malloc() is used to allocate memory in the heap, when it is finished free() it


## Common Misconception: sizeof (thing)

- sizeof (thing) determines the Compile Time Size of thing
- Useful when malloc()'ing stuff as in int *arr = malloc(count * sizeof(int));
- NOT USEFUL for size of arrays/strings
int *arr = ...;
int nelems = sizeof(arr); // always 8 on 64-bit systems
// REASON: arr is an (int *) and pointers are 8 bytes big
- To determine the size of arrays, must be given size OR have an ending sentinel value
- Strings commonly use strlen() to determine length: char *str = "Hello world! \n";
int len = strlen(str); // 13


## The 4 Logical Regions of Program Memory

- Running program typically has 4 regions of memory

1. Stack: automatic, push/pop with function calls
2. Heap: malloc() / free()
3. Global: variables outside functions, static vars
4. Text: Program instructions in Binary

- Stack grows toward Heap, a collision results in stack overflow
- Global and Text regions usually fixed in size
- "Logical Regions" for Humans to organize their programs; no physical differences for regions



## Memory Tools on Linux/Mac

Valgrind ${ }^{2}$ : Suite of tools including Memcheck

- Catches most memory errors ${ }^{3}$
- Use of uninitialized memory
- Reading/writing memory after it has been free'd
- Reading/writing off the end of malloc'd blocks
- Memory leaks
- Source line of problem happened (but not cause)
- Super easy to use
- Slows execution of program way down

[^0]
## Valgrind in Action

See some common problems in badmemory.c
\# Compile with debugging enabled: -g
> gcc -g badmemory.c
\# run program through valgrind
> valgrind ./a.out
==12676== Memcheck, a memory error detector
$==12676==$ Copyright (C) 2002-2013, and GNU GPL'd, by Julian Seward et al.
$==12676==$ Using Valgrind-3.10.1 and LibVEX; rerun with -h for copyright info
==12676== Command: a.out
==12676==
Uninitialized memory
==12676== Conditional jump or move depends on uninitialised value(s)
$==12676==$ at $0 x 4005 \mathrm{C} 1$ : main (badmemory.c:7)
==12676==
==12676== Conditional jump or move depends on uninitialised value(s)
$==12676==$ at 0x4E7D3DC: vfprintf (in /usr/lib/libc-2.21.so)
$==12676==$ by 0x4E84E38: printf (in /usr/lib/libc-2.21.so)
$==12676==$ by $0 x 4005 D 6$ : main (badmemory.c:8)

## Link: Description of common Valgrind Error Messages

## Exercise: free()'ing in the Wrong Spot

Common use for malloc() is for one function to allocate memory and return its location to another function (such as in P1). Question becomes when to free() such memory.

Program to the right is buggy, produces following output on one system
> gcc free_twice.c
$>$./a.out
ones [0] is 0
ones [1] is 0
ones [2] is 1
ones [3] is 1
ones [4] is 1

- Why does this bug happen?
- How can it be fixed?
- Answers in free_twice.c

1
2 \#include <stdlib.h>
3 \#include <stdio.h>
4
5
int *ones_array(int len)\{
int *arr $=$ malloc (sizeof(int)*len);
for (int i=0; i<len; i++)\{
$\operatorname{arr}[i]=1$;
\}
return arr;
\}

14
15 int main()\{
int *ones = ones_array (5);
for (int $i=0$; $i<5$; i++) \{
printf("ones[\%d] is \% $\mathrm{d} \backslash \mathrm{n} ", i$, ones [i]);
\}
free(ones);
return 0;
\}

## Answers: free()'ing in the Wrong Spot

- Once a malloc()'d area is free()'d, it is no longer valid
- Don't free() data that is the return value of a function
- Never free() twice

```
> gcc -g free_twice.c
> a.out
ones[0] is 0
ones[1] is 0
ones[2] is -1890717680
ones[3] is 22008
ones[4] is 1
free(): double free detected in tcache 2
Aborted (core dumped)
> valgrind a.out
==10125== Memcheck, a memory error detector
==10125== Invalid free()
==10125== at 0x48399AB: free
==10125== by 0x10921A: main (free_twice.c:24)
```

17

```
int *ones_array(int len){
```

int *ones_array(int len){
int *arr = malloc(sizeof(int)*len);
int *arr = malloc(sizeof(int)*len);
for(int i=0; i<len; i++){
for(int i=0; i<len; i++){
arr[i] = 1;
arr[i] = 1;
}
}
//free(arr); // should not free an array
//free(arr); // should not free an array
return arr; // being returned
return arr; // being returned
}
}
int main(){
int main(){
int *ones = ones_array(5);
int *ones = ones_array(5);
for(int i=0; i<5; i++){
for(int i=0; i<5; i++){
printf("ones[%d] is %d\n",i,ones[i]);
printf("ones[%d] is %d\n",i,ones[i]);
}
}
free(ones); // later free makes
free(ones); // later free makes
return 0; // more sense
return 0; // more sense
}

```
}
```

Note that the Valgrind output gives an exact line number where the problem occurs but this is not the line to change to fix the problem.

## Answers: free()'ing in the Wrong Spot

INCORRECT 1: Before ones_array() calls free()


## free_twice.c Program

ABOVE: Incorrect free version free()'s array before returning leading to main() getting a memory area that has no longer valid and has been marked for re-use by free().

BELOW: Corrected version which comments out the free() call in ones_array(); a valid memory area is returned which is printed by main() and then free()'d


CORRECT 1: ones_array() before return, no free()


INCORRECT 3: ones_array() returns free()'d array


CORRECT 2: ones_array() returns valid array

$$
\begin{array}{r}
\text { main0 } \\
\text { at line } 21
\end{array}
$$



## structs: Heterogeneous Groupings of Data

- Arrays are homogenous: all elements the same type
- structs are C's way of defining heterogenous data
- Each field can be a different kind
- One instance of a struct has all fields
- Access elements with 'dot' notation
- Several syntaxes to declare, we'll favor modern approach
- Convention: types have _t at the end of their name to help identify them (not a rule but a good idea)


## struct Ins/Outs

## Recursive Types

- structs can have pointers to their same kind
- Syntax is a little wonky VVVVVVVVVVV
typedef struct node_struct \{ char data[128];
struct node_struct *next;
\} node_t;
Arrow Operator
- Pointer to struct, want to work with a field
- Use 'arrow' operator -> for this (dash/greater than)


## Dynamically Allocated Structs

- Dynamic Allocation of structs requires size calculation
- Use sizeof() operator
node_t *one_node = malloc (sizeof (node_t)) ;
int length = 5;
node_t *node_arr = malloc (sizeof (node_t) * length);
node_t *node = ...;
if (node->next $==$ NULL) \{ . . . \}
list_t *list $=$...;
list->size = 5;
list->size++;


## Exercise: Structs in Memory

- Structs allocated in memory are laid out compactly
- Compiler may pad fields to place them at nice alignments (even addresses or word boundaries)

```
typedef struct {
    double x;
    int y;
    char nm[4];
} small_t;
int main(){
    small_t a =
        {.x=1.23, .y=4, .nm="hi"};
    small_t b =
        {.x=5.67, .y=8, .nm="bye"};
}
```

Memory layout of main()

| Addr | Type | Sym | Val |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| \#1031 | char | b.nm[3] | $\backslash 0$ |
| \#1030 | \| char | \| b.nm[2] | e |
| \#1029 | char | \| b.nm[1] | y |
| \#1028 | \| char | \| b.nm[0] | b |
| \#1024 | int | b.y | 8 |
| \#1016 | double | b. x | 5.67 |
| \#1015 | char | \| a.nm[3] | 1 ? |
| \#1014 | char | \| a.nm[2] | $\backslash 0$ |
| \#1013 | char | \| a.nm[1] | i |
| \#1012 | char | \| a.nm[0] | h |
| \#1008 | int | \| a.y | 4 |
| \#1000 | double | a.x | 1.23 |

## Result of?

```
scanf("%d", &a.y); // input 7
scanf("%lf", &b.x); // input 9.4
scanf("%s", b.nm); // input yo
```


## Answers: Structs in Memory



## Structs: Dots vs Arrows

Newcomers wonder when to use Dots vs Arrows

- Use Dot (s.field) with an Actual struct
- Use Arrow (p->field) for a Pointer to a struct

```
small_t small; // struct: 16 bytes
small_t *sptr; // pointer: 8 bytes
sptr = &small; // point at struct
small.x = 1.23; // actual struct
sptr->x = 4.56; // through pointer
(*sptr).x = 4.56; // ICK: not preferred
small.y = 7; // actual struct
sptr->y = 11; // through pointer
small.nm[0] = 'A'; // through struct
sptr->nm[1] = 'B'; // through pointer
sptr->nm[2] = '\0'; // through pointer
```

Memory at end of code on left

| Addr | Sym | I Value |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| \#2072 |  |  |
| \#2064 | sptr | \#2048 |
| \#2063 | small.nm[3] | 1 ? |
| \#2062 | small.nm[2] | $1 \backslash 0$ |
| \#2061 | small.nm[1] | B |
| \#2060 | small.nm[0] | A |
| \| \#2056 | small.y | \| 11 |
| \| \#2048 | small.x | \| 4.56 |

## read_structs.c: malloc() and scanf() for structs

```
// Demonstrate use of pointers, malloc() with structs, scanning
// structs fields
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <stdio.h>
typedef struct { // simple struct
    double x; int y; char nm[4];
} small_t;
int main(){
    small_t c; // stack variable
    small_t *cp = &c; // address of stack var
    scanf("%lf %d %s", &cp->x, &cp->y, cp->nm); // read struct fields
    printf("%f %d %s\n",cp->x, cp->y, cp->nm); // print struct fields
    small_t *sp = malloc(sizeof(small_t)); // malloc'd struct
    scanf("%lf %d %s", &sp->x, &sp->y, sp->nm); // read struct fields
    printf("%f %d %s\n",sp->x, sp->y, sp->nm); // print struct fields
    small_t *sarr = malloc(5*sizeof(small_t)); // malloc'd struct array
    for(int i=0; i<5; i++){
        scanf("%lf %d %s", &sarr[i].x, &sarr[i].y, sarr[i].nm); // read
        printf("%f %d %s\n", sarr[i].x, sarr[i].y, sarr[i].nm); // print
    }
    free(sp); // free single struct
    free(sarr); // free struct array
    return 0;
}
```


## File Input and Output

- Standard C I/O functions for reading/writing file data.
- Work with text data: formatted for human reading


## FILE $*$ fopen(char $*$ fname, char $*$ mode) ;

// open file named fname, mode is "r" for reading, "w" for writing
// returns a File Handle (FILE *) on success

```
// returns NULL if not able to open file; do not fclose(NULL)
```

int fclose(FILE *fh);
// close file associated with fh, writes pending data to file,
// free()'s memory associated with open file
// Do not fclose(NULL)
int fscanf(FILE $* \mathrm{fh}$, char *format, addr1, addr2, ...);
// read data from an open file handle according to format string
// storing parsed tokens in given addresses returns EOF if end of file
// is reached
int fprintf(FILE *fh, char *format, arg1, arg2, ...);
// prints data to an open file handle according to the format string
// and provided arguments
void rewind (FILE $* f h$ );
// return the given open file handle to the beginning of the file.
Example of use in struct_text_io.c

## Binary Data I/O Functions

- Open/close files same way with fopen()/fclose()
- Read/write raw bytes (not formatted) with the following

```
size_t fread(void *dest, size_t byte_size, size_t count, FILE *fh);
```

// read binary data from an open file handle. Attempt to read
// byte_size*count bytes into the buffer pointed to by dest.
// Returns number of bytes that were actually read
size_t fwrite(void *src, size_t byte_size, size_t count, FILE *fh);
// write binary data to an open file handle. Attempt to write
// byte_size*count bytes from buffer pointed to by src.
// Returns number of bytes that were actually written

See examples of use in struct_binary_io.c

## Tradeoffs between Binary and Textual Files

- Binary files usually smaller than text and can be directly read into memory but NOT easy on the eyes
- Text data more readable but more verbose, must be parsed and converted to binary numbers


## Strings are Character Arrays

## Conventions

- Convention in C is to use character arrays as strings
- Terminate character arrays with the $\backslash 0$ null character to indicate their end
char str1[6] = \{'C','h','r','i','s','\0'\};
- Null termination done by compiler for string constants char str2[6] = "Chris"; // is null terminated
- Null termination done by most standard library functions like scanf()


## Be aware

- fread() does not append nulls when reading binary data
- Manually manipulating a character array may overwrite ending null


## String Library

- Include with <string.h>
- Null termination expected
- strlen(s): length of string
- strcpy(dest, src): copy chars from src to dest
- Limited number of others


## Optional Exercise: Common C operators



## Integer/Floating Division

Predict values for each variable

```
\[
\text { int } q=9 / 4 ;
\]
\[
\text { int } r=9 \% 4 \text {; }
\]
\[
\text { double } \mathrm{x}=9 \text { / 4; }
\]
\[
\text { double y = (double) } 9 / 4 ;
\]
double z = ((double)9) / 4;
\[
\text { double w = } 9.0 \text { / 4; }
\]
\[
\text { double } t=9 \text { / 4.0; }
\]
\[
\text { int } \mathrm{a}=9, \mathrm{~b}=4 \text {; }
\]
\[
\text { double } \mathrm{t}=\mathrm{a} / \mathrm{b} \text {; }
\]
```

Conditional (ternary) Operator

$$
\text { double } x=9.95 ;
$$

$$
\text { int } y=(x<10.0) ? 2: 4 ;
$$

## Answers: Integer vs Floating Division

Integer versus real division: values for each of these are...

```
int q = 9 / 4;
int r = 9 % 4;
double x = 9 / 4;
double y = (double) 9 / 4;
double z = ((double)9) / 4;
double w = 9.0 / 4;
double t = 9 / 4.0;
int a=9, b=4;
```

// quotient 2
// remainder 1
double t = a / b; // 2 (int quotient)

## C Control Structures

```
Looping/Iteration
// while loop
while(truthy){
    stuff;
    more stuff;
}
// for loop
for(init; truthy; update){
    stuff;
    more stuff;
}
// do-while loop
do{
    stuff;
    more stuff;
} while( truthy );
```

```
Conditionals
// simple if
if( truthy ){
    stuff;
    more stuff;
}
// chained exclusive if/elses
if( truthy ){
    stuff;
    more stuff;
}
else if(other){
    stuff;
}
else{
    stuff;
    more stuff;
}
```

```
// ternary ? : operator
```

// ternary ? : operator
int x = (truthy) ? yes : no;

```
int x = (truthy) ? yes : no;
```


## Jumping Around in Loops

break: often useful
// break statement ends loop
// only valid in a loop
while(truthy)\{
stuff;
if ( istrue ) \{
something;
break;-----+
\}
more stuff;
\}
after loop; <--+
// break ends inner loop,
// outer loop advances
for (int $i=0 ; i<10 ; i++)\{$
for (int $j=0 ; j<20 ; j++)\{$
printf("\%d \%d ",i,j);
if (j == 7) \{
break;-----+
\}
\}
printf("\n");<-+
\}

## continue: occasionally useful

// continue advances loop iteration // does update in for loops

```
                            +-------
for(int i=0; i<10; i++){
    printf("i is %d\n",i);
    if(i % 3 == 0){
            continue;--------------+
    }
    printf("not div 3\n");
}
```

Prints
i is 0
i is 1
not div 3
i is 2
not div 3
i is 3
i is 4
not div 3

## Really Jumping Around: goto

- Machine-level control involves jumping to different instructions
- C exposes this as
- somewhere:
label for code position
- goto somewhere; jump to that location
- goto_demo.c demonstrates a loop with gotos
- Avoid goto unless you have a compelling motive
- Beware spaghetti code... and raptor attacks...

```
// Demonstrate control flow with goto
// Low level assembly jumps are similar
#include <stdio.h>
int main(){
    int i=0;
    beginning: // label for gotos
        printf("i is %d\n",i);
        i++;
        if(i < 10){
            goto beginning; // go back
        }
        goto ending; // go forward
        printf("print me please!\n");
        ending: // label for goto
        printf("i ends at %d\n",i);
        return 0;
}
```



## switch()/case: the worst control structure

- switch/case allows jumps based on an integral value
- Frequent source of errors
- switch_demo.c shows some features
- use of break
- fall through cases
- default catch-all
- Use in a loop
- May enable some small compiler optimizations
- Almost never worth correctness ${ }_{21}^{20}$ risks: one good use in my experience
- Favor if/else if/else unless compelled otherwise

```
// Demonstrate peculiarities of switch/case
#include <stdio.h>
int main(){
    while(1){
        printf("enter a char: ");
        char c;
        scanf(" %c",&c); // ignore preceding spaces
        switch(c){ // switch on read char
            case 'j': // entered j
                printf("Down line\n");
                break; // go to end of switch
            case 'a': // entered a
                printf("little a\n");
            case 'A': // entered A
                printf("big A\n");
                printf("append mode\n");
                break; // go to end of switch
            case 'q': // entered q
                printf("Quitting\n");
                return 0; // return from main
            default: // entered anything else
                printf("other '%c'\n",c);
                break; // go to end of switch
        } // end of switch
    }
    return 0;
}
```


## A Program is Born: Compile, Assemble, Link, Load

- Write some C code in program.c
- Compile it with toolchain like GNU Compiler Collection
gcc -o program prog.c
- Compilation is a multi-step process
- Check syntax for correctness/errors
- Perform optimizations on the code if possible
- Translate result to Assembly Language for a specific target processor (Intel, ARM, Motorola)
- Assemble the code into object code, binary format (ELF) which the target CPU understands
- Link the binary code to any required libraries (e.g. printing) to make an executable
- Result: executable program, but...
- To run it requires a loader: program which copies executable into memory, initializes any shared library/memory references required parts, sets up memory to refer to initial instruction


## Review Exercise: Memory Review

1. How do you allocate memory on the Stack? How do you de-allocate it?
2. How do you allocate memory dynamically (on the Heap)? How do you de-allocate it?
3. What other parts of memory are there in programs?
4. How do you declare an array of 8 integers in C? How big is it and what part of memory is it in?
5. Describe several ways arrays and pointers are similar.
6. Describe several ways arrays and pointers are different.
7. Describe how the following two arithmetic expressions differ.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { int } \mathrm{x}=9, \mathrm{y}=20 \text {; } \\
& \text { int } * \mathrm{p}=\& \mathrm{x} \text {; } \\
& \mathrm{x}=\mathrm{x}+1 ; \\
& \mathrm{p}=\mathrm{p}+1 ;
\end{aligned}
$$

## Answers: Memory Review

1. How do you allocate memory on the Stack? How do you de-allocate it? Declare local variables in a function and call the function. Stack frame has memory for all locals and is de-allocated when the function finishes/returns.
2. How do you allocate memory on the Heap? How do you de-allocate it?

Make a call to ptr $=$ malloc(nbytes) which returns a pointer to the requested number of bytes. Call free(ptr) to de-allocate that memory.
3. What other parts of memory are there in programs?

Global area of memory has constants and global variables. Text area has binary assembly code for CPU instructions.
4. How do you declare an array of 8 integers in C? How big is it and what part of memory is it in?
An array of 8 ints will be 32 bytes big (usually).
On the stack: int arr[8]; De-allocated when function returns.
On the heap: int *arr = malloc(sizeof(int) * 8); Deallocated with free(arr);

## Answers: Memory Review

5. Describe several ways arrays and pointers are similar. Both usually encoded as an address, can contain 1 or more items, may use square brace indexing like arr[3] = 17; Interchangeable as arguments to functions. Neither tracks size of memory area referenced.
6. Describe several ways arrays and pointers are different.

Pointers may be deref'd with *ptr; can't do it with arrays. Can change where pointers point, not arrays. Arrays will be on the Stack or in Global Memory, pointers may also refer to the Heap.
7. Describe how the following two arithmetic expressions differ.

```
int x=9, y=20; // x at #1024
int *p = &x; // p hold VALUE #1024 (points at x)
x = x+1; // x is now 10: normal arithmetic
p = p+1; // p is now #1028: pointer arithmetic
    // may or may not point at y
```


[^0]:    ${ }^{2}$ http://valgrind.org/
    ${ }^{3}$ http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Valgrind

