Week 14 - Wednesday

COMP 2400

Last time

- What did we talk about last time?
- Review up to Exam 1
 - Types in C
 - Base conversion and two's complement
 - #include and #define
 - Selection (if and switch) and repetition (loops)
 - Functions
 - Recursion
 - Arrays
 - Strings

Questions?

Project 6

Review

Final exam

- Final exam:
 - Thursday, May 1, 2025
 - 8:00 to 10:00 a.m.
 - 50% longer than previous exams, but you'll have 100% more time
- There will be multiple choice, short answer, and programming questions

Pointers

- A pointer is a variable that holds an address
- Often this address is to another variable
- Sometimes it's to a piece of memory that is mapped to file I/O or something else
- Important operations:
 - Reference (&) gets the address of something
 - Dereference (*) gets the contents of a pointer

Declaration of a pointer

- We typically want a pointer that points to a certain kind of thing
- To declare a pointer to a particular type



Example of a pointer with type int:



Reference operator

- A fundamental operation is to find the address of a variable
- This is done with the reference operator (&)

```
int value = 5;
int* pointer;
pointer = &value; // Pointer has value's address
```

We usually can't predict what the address of something will be

Dereference operator

- The reference operator doesn't let you do much
- You can get an address, but so what?
- Using the dereference operator, you can read and write the contents of the address

```
int value = 5;
int* pointer;
pointer = &value;
printf ("%d", *pointer); // Prints 5
*pointer = 900; // value just changed!
```

Pointer arithmetic

- One of the most powerful (and most dangerous) qualities of pointers in C is that you can take arbitrary offsets in memory
- When you add to (or subtract from) a pointers, it jumps the number of bytes in memory of the size of the type it points to

```
int a = 10;
int b = 20;
int c = 30;
int* value = &b;
value++;
printf ("%d", *value);
// What does it print? (not defined)
```

Arrays are pointers too

- An array is a pointer
 - It is pre-allocated a fixed amount of memory to point to
 - You can't make it point at something else
- For this reason, you can assign an array directly to a pointer

```
int numbers[] = {3, 5, 7, 11, 13};
int* value;

value = numbers;
value = &numbers[0]; // exactly equivalent

// What about the following?
value = &numbers;
```

Surprisingly, pointers are arrays too

- Well, no, they aren't
- But you can use array subscript notation ([]) to read and write the contents of offsets from an initial pointer

```
int numbers[] = {3, 5, 7, 11, 13};
int* value = numbers + 2;

printf("%d", value[0]); // Prints 7
printf("%d", value[-2]); // Prints 3
value[2] = 19; // Changes 13 to 19
```

void pointers

- What if you don't know what you're going to point at?
- You can use a void*, which is an address to....something!
- You have to cast it to another kind of pointer to use it
- You can't do pointer arithmetic on it
- It's not useful very often
- malloc() returns a void*, but our compiler casts it for us

```
char s[] = "Hello World!";
void* address = s;
int* thingy = (int*)address;
printf("%d\n", *thingy);
```

Functions that can change arguments

- In general, data is passed by value
- This means that a variable cannot be changed for the function that calls it
- Usually, that's good, since we don't have to worry about functions screwing up our data
- It's annoying if we need a function to return more than one thing, though
- Passing a pointer is equivalent to passing the original data by reference

Pointers to pointers

- Just as we can declare a pointer that points at a particular data type, we can declare a pointer to a pointer
- Simply add another star

```
int value = 5;
int* pointer;
int** amazingPointer;
pointer = &value;
amazingPointer = &pointer;
```

Change main () to get command line arguments

To get the command line values, use the following definition for main ()

```
int main(int argc, char** argv)
{
   return 0;
}
```

- Is that even allowed?
 - Yes.
- You can name the parameters whatever you want, but argc and argv are traditional
 - argc is the number of arguments (argument count)
 - argv are the actual arguments (argument values) as strings

scanf()

- Before, we only talked about using getchar() (and command line arguments) for input
- There is a function that parallels printf() called scanf()
- scanf() can read strings, int values, double values, characters, and anything else you can specify with a % formatting string
- You must pass in a pointer for the memory you want to read into

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

Format specifiers

These are mostly what you would expect, from your experience with printf()

| Specifier | Type |
|-------------|--|
| %d | int |
| %u | unsigned int |
| %o %x | unsigned int (in octal for o or hex for x) |
| %hd | short |
| % C | char |
| % S | null-terminated string |
| % f | float |
| % lf | double |
| %Lf | long double |

Dynamic Memory Allocation

malloc()

- Memory can be allocated dynamically using a function called malloc()
 - Similar to using **new** in Java or C++
 - #include <stdlib.h> to use malloc()
- Dynamically allocated memory is on the heap
 - It doesn't disappear when a function returns
- To allocate memory, call malloc() with the number of bytes you want
- It returns a pointer to that memory, which you cast to the appropriate type

```
int* data = (int*)malloc(sizeof(int));
```

Allocating arrays

- It is common to allocate an array of values dynamically
- The syntax is exactly the same as allocating a single value, but you multiply the size of the type by the number of elements you want

```
int i = 0;
int* array = (int*)malloc(sizeof(int)*100);
for (i = 0; i < 100; i++)
   array[i] = i + 1;</pre>
```

free()

- C is not garbage collected liked Java
- If you allocate something on the stack, it disappears when the function returns
- If you allocate something on the heap, you have to deallocate it with free()
- free () does not set the pointer to be NULL
 - But you can afterwards

```
char* things = (char*)malloc (100);
free (things); // Should have used things first
things = NULL;
```

Ragged Approach

 One way to dynamically allocate a 2D array is to allocate each row individually

```
int** table = (int**)malloc (sizeof(int*)*rows);
int i = 0;

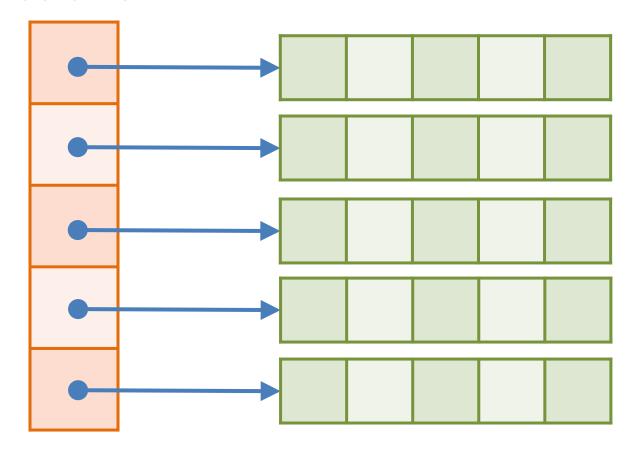
for (i = 0; i < rows; ++i)
  table[i] = (int*)malloc (sizeof(int)*columns);</pre>
```

When finished, you can access table like any 2D array

```
table[3][7] = 14;
```

Ragged Approach in memory

table



Chunks of data that could be anywhere in memory

Freeing the Ragged Approach

- To free a 2D array allocated with the Ragged Approach
 - Free each row separately
 - Finally, free the array of rows

```
for(i = 0; i < rows; ++i)
  free (table[i]);

free (table);</pre>
```

Contiguous Approach

- Alternatively, you can allocate the memory for all rows at once
- Then you make each row point to the right place

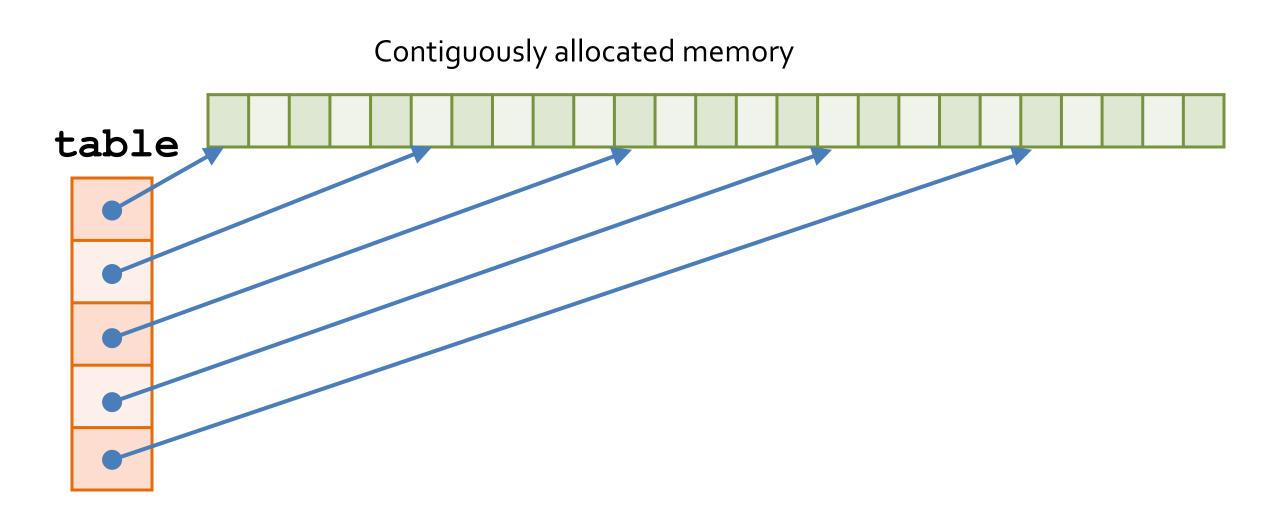
```
int** table = (int**)malloc (sizeof(int*)*rows);
int* data = (int*)malloc (sizeof(int)*rows*columns);
int i = 0;

for (i = 0; i < rows; ++i)
   table[i] = &data[i*columns];</pre>
```

When finished, you can still access table like any 2D array

```
table[3][7] = 14;
```

Contiguous Approach in memory



Freeing the Contiguous Approach

- To free a 2D array allocated with the Contiguous Approach
 - Free the big block of memory
 - Free the array of rows
 - No loop needed

```
free (table[0]);
free (table);
```

Rules for random numbers

- Include the following headers:
 - stdlib.h
 - time.h
- Use rand() % n to get int values between 0 and n 1
- Always call srand(time(NULL)) before your first call to rand()
- Only call srand() once per program
 - Seeding multiple times makes no sense and usually makes your output much less random

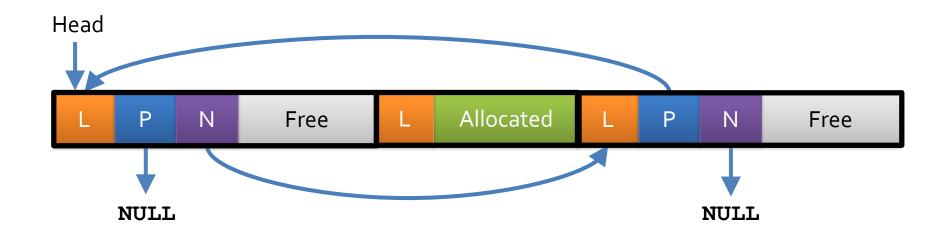
How does malloc() work?

- malloc() sees a huge range of free memory when the program starts
- It uses a doubly linked list to keep track of the blocks of free memory, which is perhaps one giant block to begin with
- As you allocate memory, a free block is often split up to make the block you need
- The returned block knows its length
 - The length is usually kept before the data that you use



Free list

- Here's a visualization of the free list
- When an item is freed, most implementations will try to coalesce two neighboring free blocks to reduce fragmentation
 - Calling free () can be time consuming



String to integer

- In C, the standard way to convert a string to an int is the atoi () function
 - #include <stdlib.h> to use it

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

int main()
{
    char* value = "3047";
    int x = atoi(value);
    printf("%d\n", x);
    return 0;
}
```

Integer to string

- The portable way to convert an integer (or other numerical types) to a string to use sprintf()
 - It's like printf() except that it prints things to a string buffer instead of the screen

```
char value[12];  // Has to be big enough
int x = 3047;
sprintf( value, "%d", x );
```

Structs

- A struct in C is:
 - A collection of one or more variables
 - Possibly of different types
 - Grouped together for convenient handling.
- They were called records in Pascal
- They have similarities to a class in Java
 - Except all fields are public and there are no methods
- Struct declarations are usually global
 - They are outside of main() and often in header files

Anatomy of a struct

```
struct name
  type1 member1;
  type2 member2;
  type3 member3;
```

Declaring a struct variable

- Type:
 - struct
 - The name of the struct
 - The name of the identifier
- You have to put struct first

```
struct student bob;
struct student jameel;
struct point start;
struct point end;
```

Accessing members of a struct

- Once you have a struct variable, you can access its members with dot notation (variable.member)
 - Members can be read and written

```
struct student bob;
strcpy(bob.name, "Bob Blobberwob");
bob.GPA = 3.7;
bob.ID = 100008;
printf("Bob's GPA: %f\n", bob.GPA);
```

Initializing structs

- There are no constructors for structs in C
- You can initialize each element manually:

```
struct student julio;
strcpy(julio.name, "Julio Iglesias");
julio.GPA = 3.9;
julio.ID = 1000009;
```

Or you can use braces to initialize the entire struct at once (which I do not encourage):

```
struct student julio = {"Julio Iglesias", 3.9, 100009};
```

Assigning structs

It is possible to assign one struct to another

```
struct student julio;
struct student bob;
strcpy(julio.name, "Julio Iglesias");
julio.GPA = 3.9;
julio.ID = 1000009;
bob = julio;
```

- Doing so is equivalent to using memcpy () to copy the memory of julio into the memory of bob
- bob is still separate memory: it's not like copying references in Java

Dangers with pointers in structs

- With a pointer in a struct, copying the struct will copy the pointer but will not make a copy of the contents
- Changing one struct could change another

```
struct person
     char* firstName;
     char* lastName;
struct person bob1;
struct person bob2;
bob1.firstName = strdup("Bob");
bob1.lastName = strdup("Newhart");
bob2 = bob1;
strcpy(bob2.lastName, "Hope");
printf("Name: %s %s\n", bob1.firstName, bob1.lastName);
//prints Bob Hope
```

Arrow notation

 We could dereference a struct pointer and then use the dot to access a member

```
struct student* studentPointer = (struct student*)
   malloc(sizeof(struct student));

(*studentPointer).ID = 3030;
```

- This is cumbersome and requires parentheses
- Because this is a frequent operation, dereference + dot can be written as an arrow (->)

```
studentPointer->ID = 3030;
```

Passing structs to functions

- If you pass a struct directly to a function, you are passing it by value
 - A copy of its contents is made
- It is common to pass a struct by pointer to avoid copying and so that its members can be changed

```
void flip(struct point* value)
{
    double temp = value->x;
    value->x = value->y;
    value->y = temp;
}
```

Gotchas

- Always put a semicolon at the end of a struct declaration
- Don't put constructors or methods inside of a struct
 - C doesn't have them
- Assigning one struct to another copies the memory of one into the other
- Pointers to struct variables are usually passed into functions
 - Both for efficiency and so that you can change the data inside

typedef

- The typedef command allows you to make an alias for an existing type
- You type typedef, the type you want to alias, and then the new name

```
typedef int SUPER_INT;
SUPER_INT value = 3; // has type int
```

- Don't overuse typedef
- It is useful for types like time_t which can have different meanings in different systems

typedef with structs

- The typedef command is commonly used with structs
 - Often it is built into the struct declaration process
- It allows the programmer to leave off the stupid struct keyword when declaring variables

```
typedef struct _wombat
{
    char name[100];
    double weight;
} wombat;
```

- The type defined is actually struct wombat
- We can refer to that type as wombat

```
wombat martin;
```

An example linked list node struct

We can use this definition for our node for singly linked lists

```
typedef struct _Node
{
    int data;
    struct _Node* next;
} Node;
```

Somewhere, we will have the following variable to hold the beginning of the list

```
Node* head = NULL;
```

Example BST node struct

We can use this definition for our node for binary search trees

```
typedef struct _Tree
{
    int data;
    struct _Tree* left;
    struct _Tree* right;
} Tree;
```

 Somewhere, we will have the following variable to hold the root of the tree

```
Tree* root = NULL;
```

Unions

- What if you wanted a data type that could hold any of a bunch different things
- Back in the day when space was important, people wanted such things
- That's why they created unions, which look like structs but only have enough room for the largest thing inside of them
- They're only designed to store one thing at a time

Declaring unions

- Unions look like structs
 - Put the keyword union in place of struct

```
union Congressperson
{
    int district; // Representatives
    char state[15]; // Senators
};
```

- There isn't a separate district and a state
 - There's only space for the larger one
 - In this case, 15 bytes (rounded up to 16) is the larger one

Using enum

 To create named constants with different values, type enum and then the names of your constants in braces

```
enum { SUNDAY, MONDAY, TUESDAY, WEDNESDAY, THURSDAY, FRIDAY,
SATURDAY };
```

 Then in your code, you can use these values (which are stored as integers)

```
int day = FRIDAY;
if(day == SUNDAY)
    printf("My 'I don't have to run' day");
```

Specifying values

You can even specify the values in the enum

```
enum { ANIMAL = 7, MINERAL = 9, VEGETABLE = 11 };
```

- If you assign values, it is possible to make two or more of the constants have the same value (usually bad)
- A common reason that values are assigned is so that you can do bitwise combinations of values

```
enum { PEPPERONI = 1, SAUSAGE = 2, BACON = 4, MUSHROOMS = 8,
PEPPER = 16, ONIONS = 32, OLIVES = 64, EXTRA_CHEESE = 128 };
int toppings = PEPPERONI | ONIONS | MUSHROOMS;
```

Time

- In the systems programming world, there are two different kinds of time that are useful
- Real time
 - This is also known as wall-clock time or calendar time
 - It's the human notion of time that we're familiar with
- Process time
 - Process time is the amount of time your process has spent on the CPU
 - There is often no obvious correlation between process time and real time (except that process time is never more than real time elapsed)

time()

- The time () function gives back the seconds since the Unix Epoch
- Its signature is:

```
time_t time(time_t* timePointer);
```

- time t is a signed 32-bit or 64-bit integer
- You can pass in a pointer to a time_t variable or save the return value (both have the same result)
- Typically we pass in NULL and save the return value
- Include time.h to use time()

```
time_t seconds = time(NULL);
printf("%d seconds have passed since 1970", seconds);
```

Practice

- Write a function that finds the median of an array
 - You'll have to sort it
- Write a function that, given a string, creates a dynamically allocated chunk of memory containing the string reversed
- Write a function that will delete an element from the singly linked list struct given in earlier slides
- Write a program that counts the total number of characters in all the arguments passed in through the command line
 - Ignore argv[0]
- Write a program to "encrypt" a file by writing a new file with exactly the same contents, except that each byte in the file is inverted
 - Old byte: x
 - New byte: 255 x

Ticket Out the Door

Upcoming

Next time...

Review after Exam 2

Reminders

- Finish Project 6
 - Due Friday by midnight
- Office hours from 3-4 p.m. today canceled for Honors Convocation
- Final exam:
 - Thursday, May 1, 2025
 - 8:00 to 10:00 a.m.