



Casting pointers

+ Casting pointers

- Java is considered to have **static** and **strong** typing.
- C is considered to have **static** and **weak** typing.
- What this means can be exemplified by the ability to cast pointers to pointers of one type to pointers of other, arbitrary types.
 - See `pointers/casting/weak_typing.c`
- The results are surprising at first, but as we begin to understand bit-level representations of numbers, we'll see why the program behaves the way it does.

+ Casting pointers to arrays

- Pointer (as other types) can be cast to other types.
- What does this program do?
 - `pointers/casting/casting.c`
- The explanation of what it prints is something you should make sure you understand.
- Figure it out, talk about it on Piazza if you are not sure.



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Strings

+ Strings are arrays



- C has very little native support for strings.
- A string in C is (literally) an array of chars terminated by a null character (`'\0'`). Sometimes called the 'zero code'.
- Most functions that perform operations on strings uses that null character in some form of fashion, its presumed to always be there when handling a string.
- A missing null character in a string is historically a common source of errors related to strings in C.

+ Strings are arrays *cont.*

- Whenever we have a double quoted string in a program it is stored as a string *literal* terminated by a *null character*.

```
printf("Hello World");
```

- The following creates an array of **6** characters (5 letters + the null character).

```
char h[] = "hello";
```

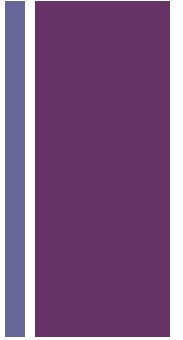
- It is equivalent to writing...

```
char h[6] = "hello";
```

- Note that the following lines will compile as well and sometimes even run without obvious problems, at least initially.

```
char h[5] = "hello";  
char h[2] = "hello";
```

+ String length



- Since strings are simply arrays of characters, we have no size information accompanying the string (as we do in Java)
- The assumption is that there is null character that terminates the string as this is the only way of knowing where the string ends.
- The term *length of a string* is used to describe the number of bytes *preceding* the null character.
- See `strings/strings.c`

+ String copy, concat, append, etc...

- You can write all these operations yourselves now that you know what you know about the null character.
- However, many of these things have been implemented for us in `<string.h>`
- The `string.h` header file contains declarations of many useful functions for working with null terminated string.
- You can learn about whats available by using the man pages or reading through the Wikipedia page on the subject
 - https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/C_string_handling

+ String misconceptions

- A common misconception is that all char arrays are strings, because *string literals* are converted to arrays during compilation.
- It is important to remember that a string ends at the first zero code. Therefore..
 - A char array that contains a null character before the last byte contains a string, or possibly several strings, but is not itself a string.
 - Conversely, it is possible to create a char array that is not null-terminated and is thus not a string.



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C Structs



First, a quick word on types



- We've seen a few types at this point: **char**, **int**, **float**, **char***
- Types are important because:
 - They allow your program to impose logical structure on memory
 - They help the compiler tell when you're making a mistake
- Next we will discuss:
 - How to create logical layouts of different types (structs)
 - How to create new types using typedef

+ What is a struct?

- Java and C++ have classes. C has structs.
- Structs are something like classes *without* functions.
- Sometimes they are called a record or “compound data
- A struct is a type which is a collection of variables, possibly of different types, grouped together under a name.

```
struct <struct-typename>{  
    <type> <identifier_list>;  
    <type> <identifier_list>;  
    ...  
};
```

} Each identifier
defines a member
of the structure.

+ A simple struct

- Here is a definition for a type called **point** with two members x and y.

```
struct point {  
    float x;  
    float y;  
};
```

- In order to declare a variable of type point...

```
struct point p;
```

- The keyword *struct* is needed in the declaration of the variable.
- To access individual coordinates of the point we use the dot operator:

```
p.x = 3.5;  
p.y = 8.9;  
printf("p = (%f,%f)", p.x, p.y);
```

+ More complex structs

- Structure definitions can contain any number of members of any type. This includes pointers. Ex.

```
struct student {  
    char* id;  
    char* name;  
    float gpa;  
    int num_of_credits;  
};
```

- There can be a structure whose members are other types of structures. For example, a rectangle defined by its two diagonally opposite corners.

```
struct rectangle {  
    struct point c1;  
    struct point c2;  
};
```

+ Struct layout in memory

- Usually the fields are stored in consecutive positions in memory, in the same order as they are declared in the record type.

■ Ex

```
struct example {  
    char a;  
    char b;  
};  
  
struct example ex = {'a', 'b'};
```

Name	Addr	Value
	0	
	1	
	2	
	3	
ex.a	4	'a' (97)
ex.b	5	'b' (98)
	6	
	7	
	8	
	9	
	10	

+ Pointers to structs

- We can create a variable of any struct type. Therefore, it stands to reason that we could have pointers to structs.

```
struct point p;  
p.x = 1.5;  
p.y = 3.1;  
  
struct point* pp;  
pp = &p; // pp is a pointer to a struct
```

- Using the standard pointer dereference operator we can access the values of the members of **p** via **pp**

```
float x = (*pp).x;  
float y = (*pp).y;
```

- The parentheses are needed since the `.` operator has higher precedence than the `*` operator

+ Pointers to structs *con't*

- Pointers to structures are frequently used, therefore there is a shorthand notation for accessing members of structs via a pointer.

```
float x = pp->x;  
float y = pp->y;
```

- See `struct/simple/struct.c`
- Once the arrow operator is used, we can then use the dot notation to reference the properties, if the members of the structs *are other structs*.

```
struct rectangle r = // initialized properly  
float x = pr->cl.x;
```

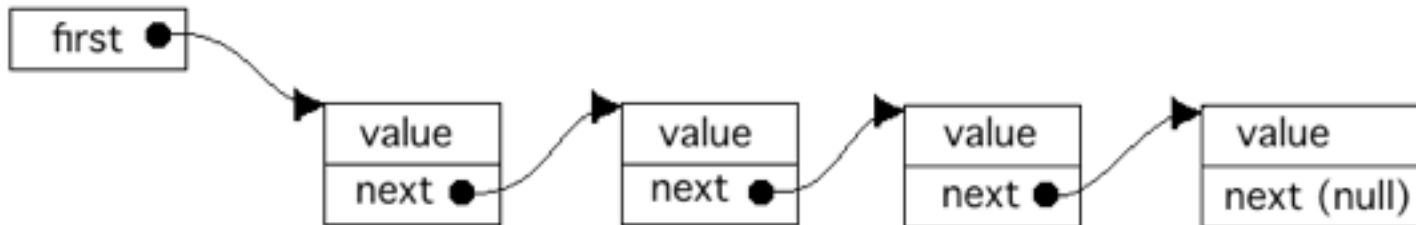
- See `struct/structs_in_structs/struct.c`

+ Structs & functions

- Structures can be passed to functions either by copying all the values contained within or by a pointer (just like any other variable).
- Its generally far more efficient to use pointers to structs to pass them as arguments.
- See `structs/functions/struct.c`

+ Structs & data structures

- Structs are key in implementing data structures in C.
- For example, with a linked list, we could have a struct 'node' that contains a value and a 'next' pointer to a node.



- See `structs/data_structures/list.c`



How to read C types & expressions



Precedence rules are important



- When you use multiple operators, make sure you are clear on what happens in what order.
- C has its precedence rules and has no trouble parsing expressions like the this `*p->str++;`



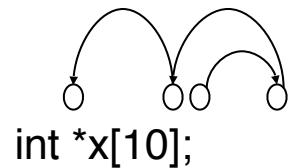
Precedence rules are important



- When you use multiple operators, make sure you are clear on what happens in what order.
- C has its precedence rules and has no trouble parsing expressions like the this `*p->str++;`
- What actually happens is `(*(p->str))++`
 - `p` is a pointer to a structure, so `->` accesses its member.
 - `str` is a member of `p` and is a pointer itself
 - `*` dereferences that pointer.
 - Finally, `++` is applied to the value after dereferencing `str`

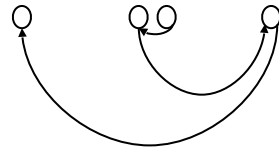
+ How to read types

- C type names can be understood by starting at the name and working outwards according to the rules of precedence:



x is an array of
pointers to int

`int (*x)[10];`



x is a pointer to
an array of int

+ Operator precedence

Operator Type	Operator	Associativity
Primary Expression Operators	() [] . -> <i>expr++ expr--</i>	left-to-right
Unary Operators	* & + - ! ~ ++ <i>expr</i> -- <i>expr</i> (<i>typecast</i>) sizeof	right-to-left
Binary Operators	* / %	left-to-right
	+ -	
	>> <<	
	< > <= >=	
	== !=	
	&	
	^	
	&&	
Ternary Operator	? :	right-to-left
Assignment Operators	= += -= *= /= %= >>= <<= &= ^= =	right-to-left
Comma	,	left-to-right



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Typedefs

+ Using typedef

- At this point we pretty much seen then entire type system of C.
- It turns out we can create our own aliases for types with typedefs.
- Typedefs are a way of creating more convenient or shorter names for existing types.
- For example, the following creates a new type called **int_pointer** that is equivalent to **int***

```
typedef int* int_pointer;
```

- See typedefs/typedef.c

+ Using typedef *con't*

- Typedefs tend to be often used with the structures.
- We could rewrite the node structure we saw before as follows...

```
typedef struct {  
    char * word;  
    struct node * next;  
} node;
```

-which allows us to use '*node*' as the typename, rather than '*struct node*' everywhere.. (saves us some typing).
- Moreover, these two lines become equivalent..

```
struct node n;  
node n;
```



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Macros

+ Using Macros



- A macro is a fragment of code which has been given a name. Whenever the name is used, it is replaced by the contents of the macro.
 - This happens during ‘preprocessing’
- There are two kinds of macros. They differ mostly in what they look like when they are used.
 - object-like macros resemble variables when used
 - function-like macros resemble function calls.
- For now, we will concern ourselves with only ‘object-like’ macros.

+ Object-like macros

- An object-like macro is an identifier which will be replaced by a code fragment.
- They are most commonly used to give symbolic names to numeric constants.
- You create macros with the ‘#define’ directive. Ex.

```
#define ARRAY_SIZE 100
```

- Then later in your code you can use that macro name like so..

```
int[ARRAY_SIZE] my_int_array;
```

- See macros/macros.c



Unix Commands



Unix basic command cheat sheet

<code>man 'command'</code>	display a manual page (or simply <i>help</i>) for the <code>command</code> (this is the easiest way to learn about options to the commands that you know and about new commands)
<code>pwd</code>	print the name of the present working directory
<code>ls</code>	list content of the current working directory
<code>ls dir_name</code>	list content of the directory named <code>dir_name</code>
<code>cd dir_name</code>	<code>cd</code> stands for change directory, changes the current working directory to <code>dir_name</code>
<code>cd ..</code>	move one directory up in the directory tree
<code>cd</code>	change the current working directory to your home directory
<code>cp file1 file2</code>	copy <code>file1</code> into <code>file2</code> , where <code>file1</code> and <code>file2</code> can be either relative or complete path names
<code>mv file1 file2</code>	move <code>file1</code> into <code>file2</code> , where <code>file1</code> and <code>file2</code> can be either relative or complete path names
<code>rm file</code>	remove a file (there is no undoing it, so be very careful!)
<code>mkdir path</code>	make a directory at the specified path
<code>rmdir path</code>	remove the directory specified by the path (there is no undoing it, so be very careful!)
<code>file file_name</code>	determine the type of a file
<code>less file_name</code>	view the file in the terminal
<code>more file_name</code>	view the file in the terminal
<code>cat file_name(s)</code>	concatenate files and print them to standard output