CIS 190: C/C++ Programming

Assorted Topics (and More on Pointers)

Outline

- File I/O
- Command Line Arguments
- Random Numbers
- Re-Covering Pointers

Input and Output Streams

- printf
 - stdout
 - output written to the terminal
- scanf
 - stdin
 - input read in from user
- redirection
 - executable < input.txt > output.txt

FILE I/O Basics

- read in from and print out to files
- use a file pointer (FILE*)

FILE * fopen (<filename>, <mode>)

- <filename> is a string
- <mode> is single-character string

FILE I/O Reading and Writing

ifp = fopen("input.txt", "r");

opens input.txt for reading

- file must already exist

ofp = fopen("output.txt", "w");

opens output.txt for writing
– if file exists, it will be overwritten

File I/O Opening and Closing

before using file pointers, make sure they're valid

if the file pointer is NULL, there was an error
 need to deal with it – exit, re-prompt, etc.

after you're done with a file, close it
 fclose(ifp);

Using File Pointers

• fprintf

fprintf(ofp, "print: %s\n", textStr);
- output written to where ofp points

fscanf

– input read in from where ifp points

Using stderr with fprintf

- three standard streams: stdin, stdout, stderr
- printing to stderr prints to the console
 - even when using redirection!

if (filePointer == NULL) { fprintf(stderr, "The file %s could not be opened.\n", fileName); exit(-1); /* requires <stdlib.h> */

Reaching EOF with fscanf

- knowing when to stop reading in from a file
- EOF = End Of File (defined in a library)

```
while (fscanf(ifp, ``%s", str) != EOF)
{
   /* do things */
}
/* while loop exited, EOF reached */
```

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Command Line Arguments

parameters to main() function
 int main(int argc, char **argv)

- int argc number of arguments
 including name of executable
- char **argv array of argument strings
 - argv[0] is string containing name of executable
 - argv[1] is first argument, etc.

Using argc

- before using command line arguments, double check that they exist using argc
- check the value of argc
 if it's not correct, exit and prompt the correct args:

Using argv

char **argv is an array of strings

 executable is argv[0]
 arguments start at argv[1]

- to convert from a string to an integer:
 intArg = atoi(argv[INT ARG]);
 - atoi() converts alpha to int
 - need to #include <stdlib.h>

Outline

- File I/O
- Command Line Arguments
- Random Numbers
- Pointers Again

Random Numbers

• useful for many things:

 – cryptography, games of chance & probability, procedural generation, statistical sampling

- generated "random numbers" are PSUEDO random
- "Anyone who considers arithmetical methods of producing random digits is, of course, in a state of sin." – John von Neumann

Seeding for Randomness

• you can **seed** the random number generator

same seed means same "random" numbers
 – good for testing

void srand (unsigned int seed);

Seeding with Time

• can also give a "unique" seed with time()

– need to #include <time.h> library

int timeSeed = (int) time(0);
srand(timeSeed);

 NOTE: if you want to use the time() function, do not have a variable called time
 error: called object `time' is not a function

Generating Random Numbers

int rand (void);

returns an integer between 0 and RAND_MAX

use % to get the range you want:
 /* 0 to MAX - 1 */
 int random = rand() % MAX;

/* returns MIN to MAX, inclusive */
int random = rand() % (MAX - MIN + 1) + MIN;

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- File I/O
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- Random Numbers
- Re-Covering Pointers

Why Pointers Again?

- important programming concept
- understand what's going on "inside"
- other languages use pointers heavily

 you just don't see them!

- but pointers can be difficult to understand
 - abstract concept
 - unlike what you've learned before

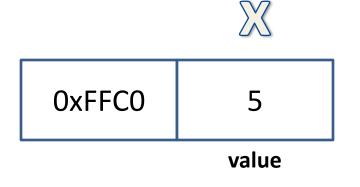
• all variables have two parts:

- value



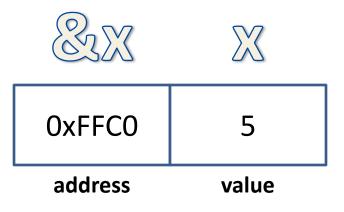
- all variables have two parts:
 - value
 - address where value is stored

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• **x**'s **value** is 5

- all variables have two parts:
 - value
 - address where value is stored



- **x**'s **value** is 5
- x's address is 0xFFC0

• so the code to declare this is:

int x = 5;



• we can also declare a pointer:

int x = 5;
int *ptr;



• and set it equal to the address of **x**:

int x = 5; int *ptr; ptr = &x;

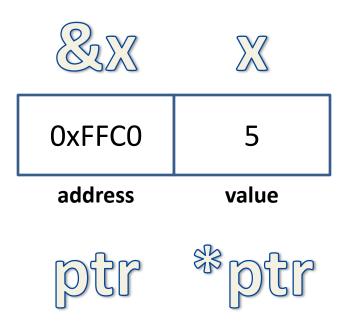


• ptr = &x



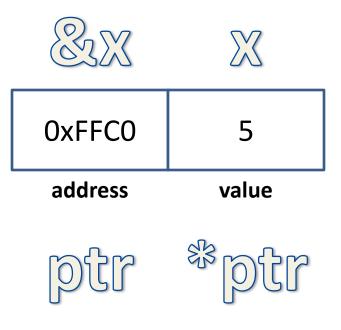


- ptr = &x
- *ptr = x



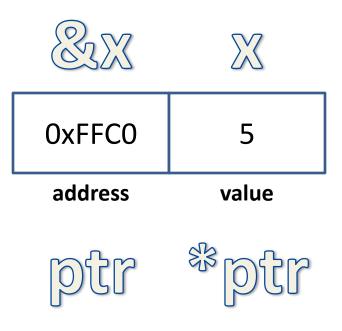
- ptr points to the address where x is stored
- *ptr gives us the value of x

- (dereferencing ptr)



but what about the variable ptr?

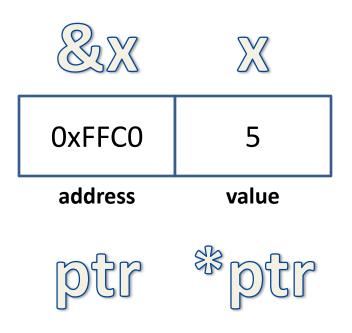
– does it have a value and address too?



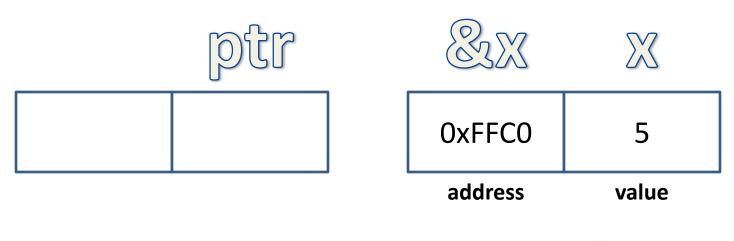
but what about the variable ptr?

– does it have a value and address too?

• YES!!!



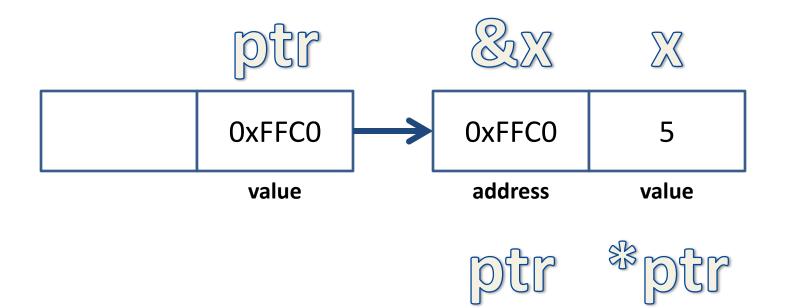
ptr's value is just "ptr" – so it's 0xFFC0



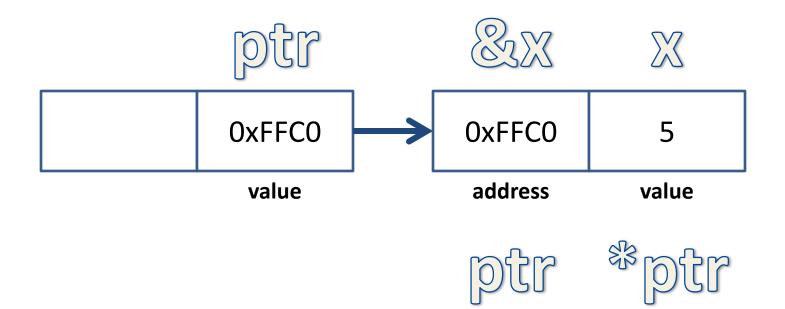




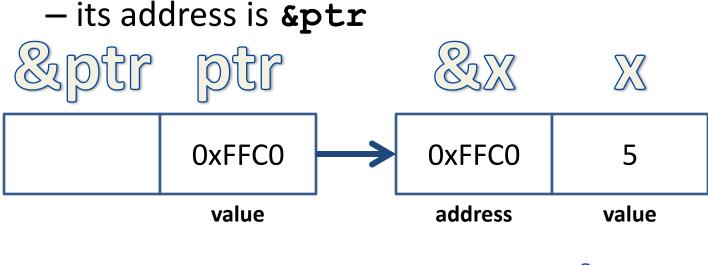
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- ptr's value is just "ptr" so it's 0xFFC0
- but what about its address?

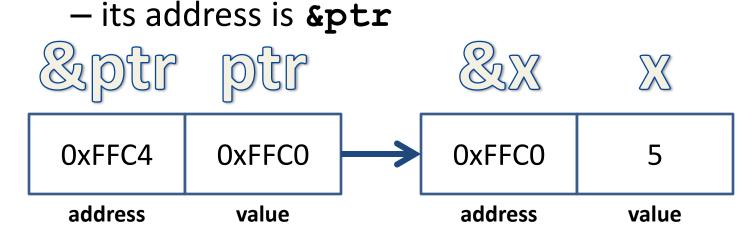


- ptr's value is just "ptr" so it's 0xFFC0
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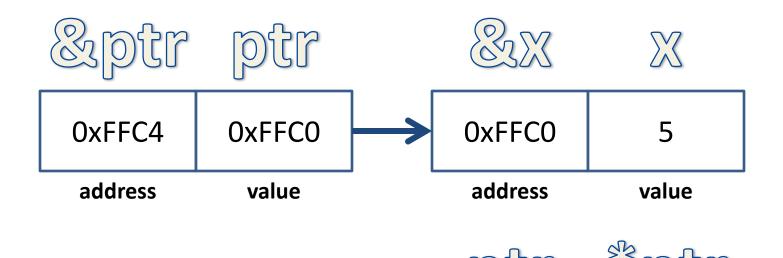


- ptr's value is just "ptr" so it's 0xFFC0
- but what about its address?

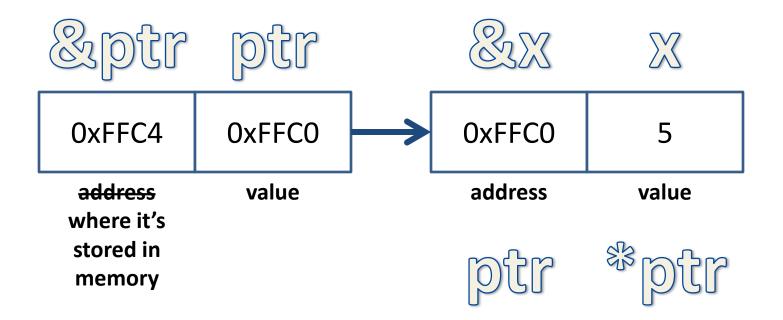




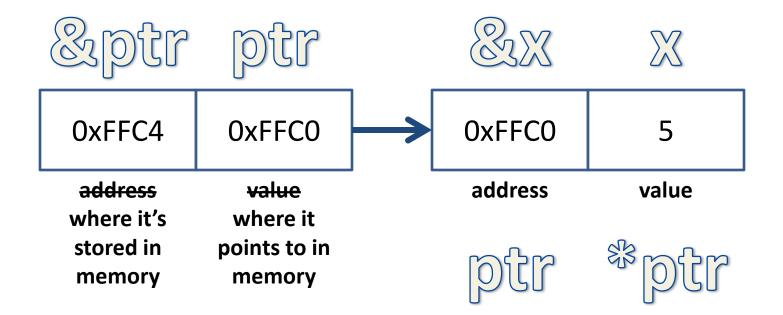
• if you want, you can think of value and address for pointers as this instead...



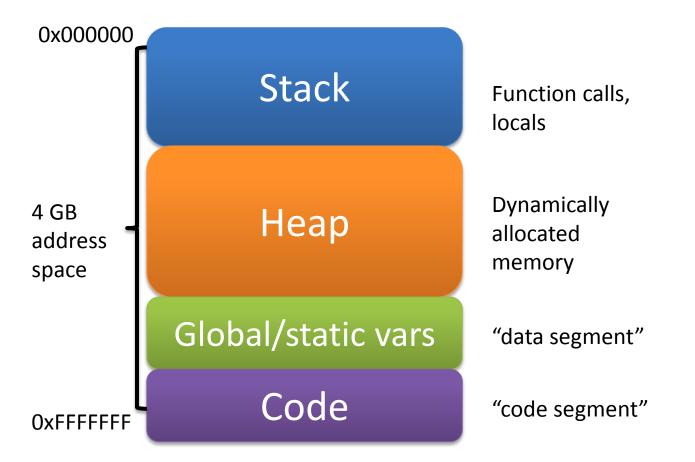
address where it's stored in memory



- address where it's stored in memory
- value where it points to in memory

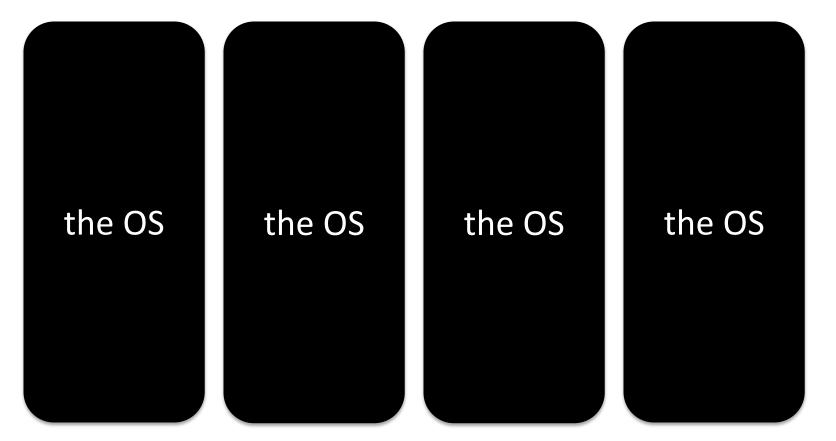


 each process gets its own memory chunk, or address space

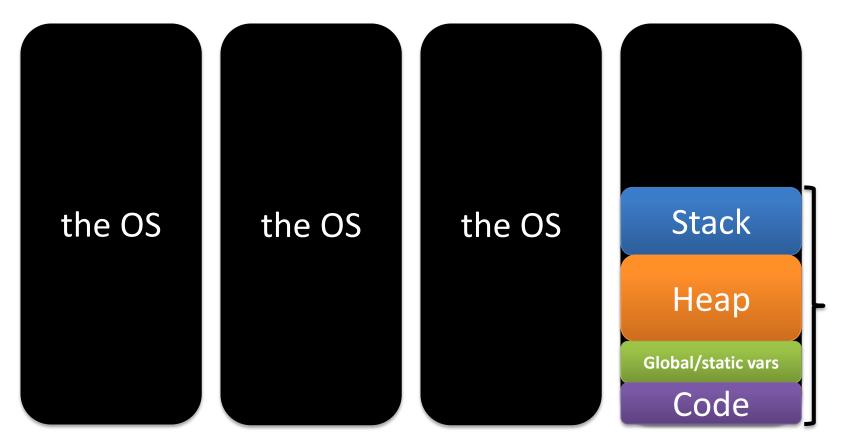


- you can think of memory as being "owned" by:
 - the OS
 - most of the memory the computer has
 - the process
 - a chunk of memory given by the OS about 4 GB
 - the program
 - memory (on the stack) given to it by the process
 - you
 - when you dynamically allocate memory in the program (memory given to you by the process)

 the Operating System has a very large amount of memory available to it



 when *the process* begins, the Operating System gives it a chunk of that memory



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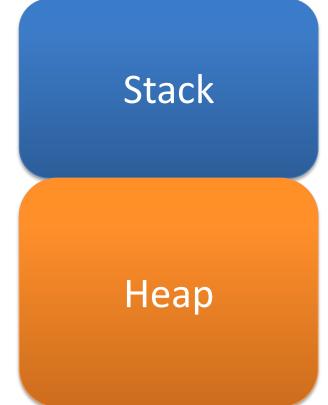
 within that chunk of memory, only the <u>stack</u> and the <u>heap</u> are available to **you** and *the program*



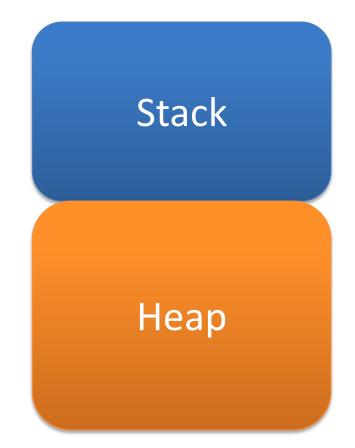
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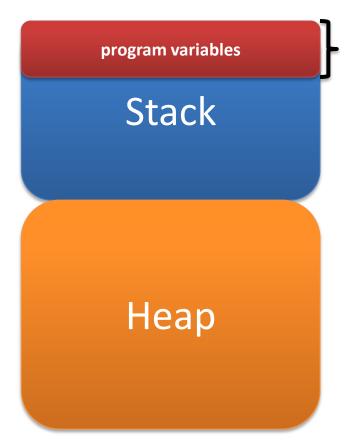
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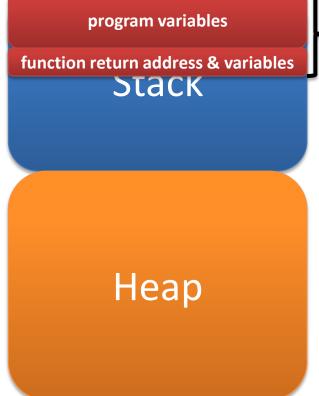
 some parts of the <u>stack</u> are given to the program for variables

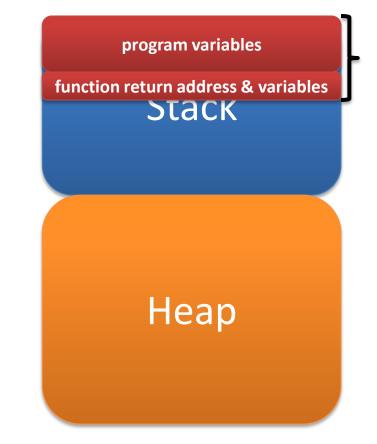


 some parts of the <u>stack</u> are given to the program for variables



 and when a function is called, the program is given more space on the stack for the return address and in-function variables



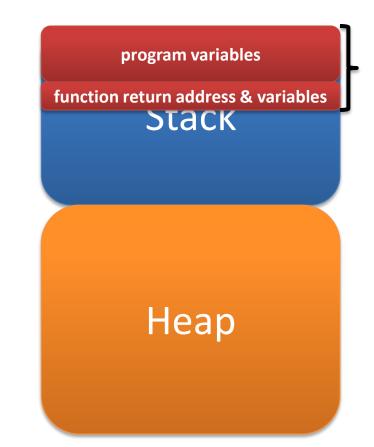


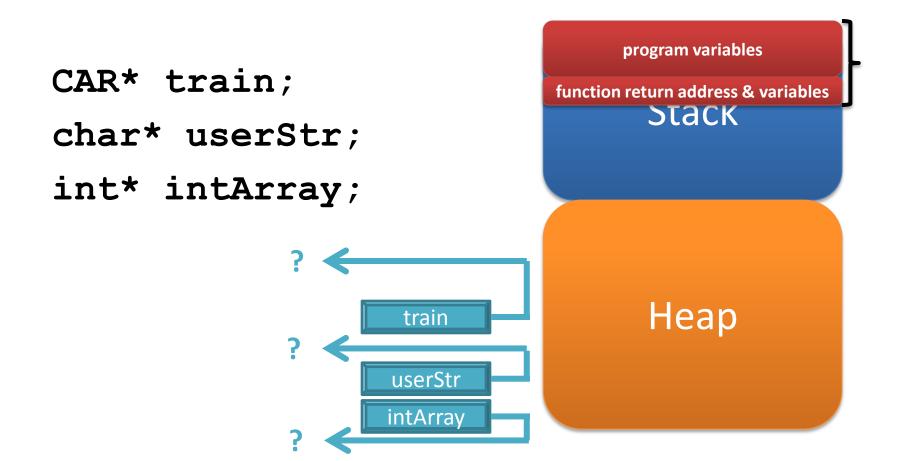
 and every time you allocate memory, the process gives you space for it on the <u>heap</u>

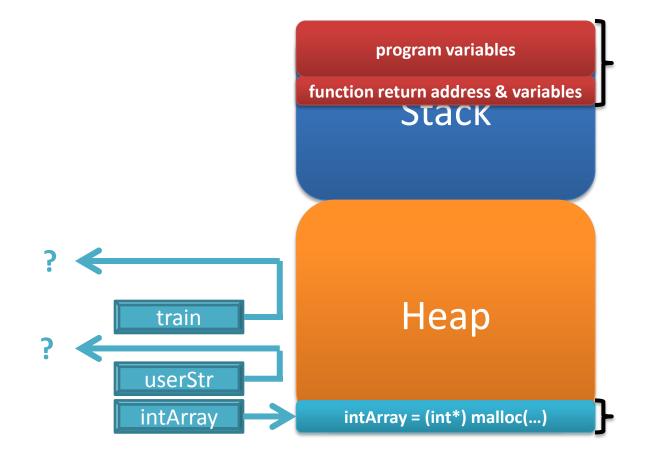
CAR* train;

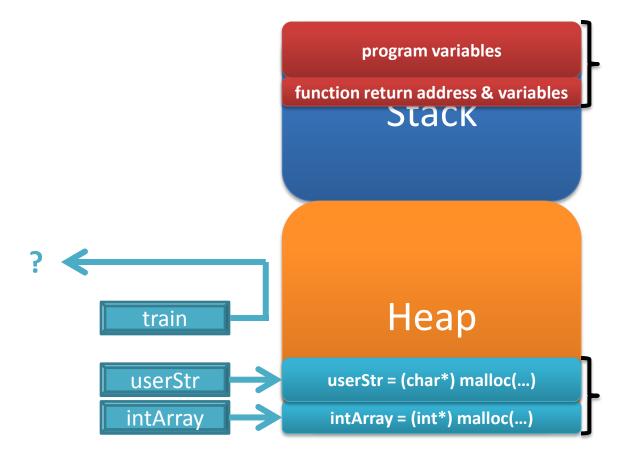
char* userStr;

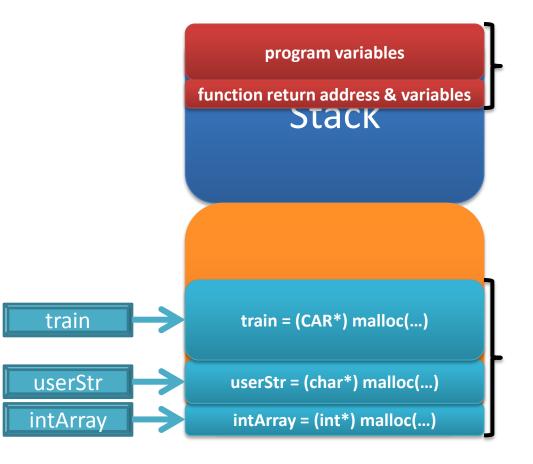
int* intArray;



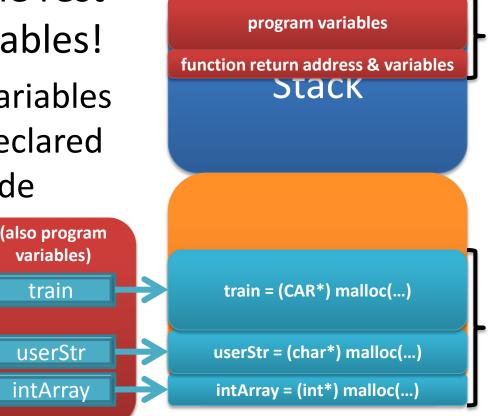




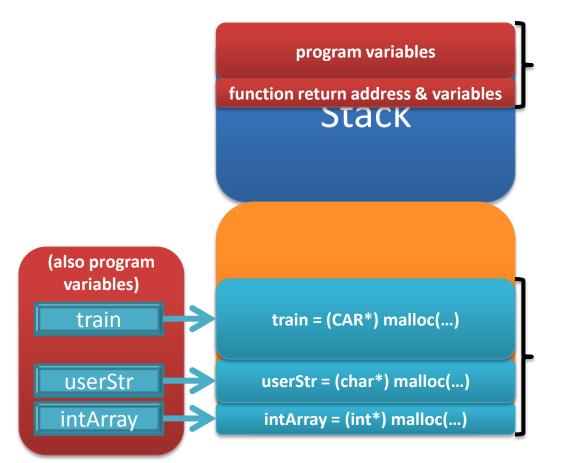


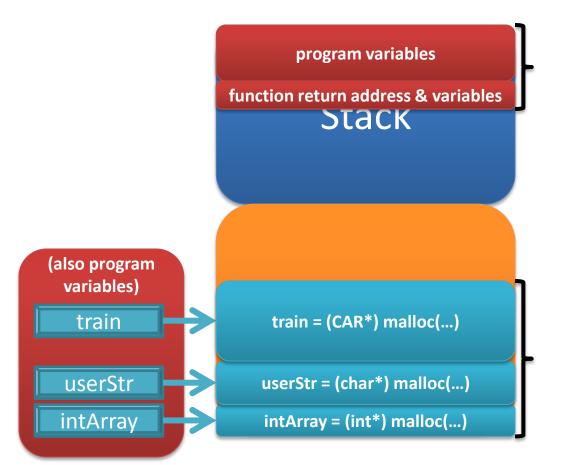


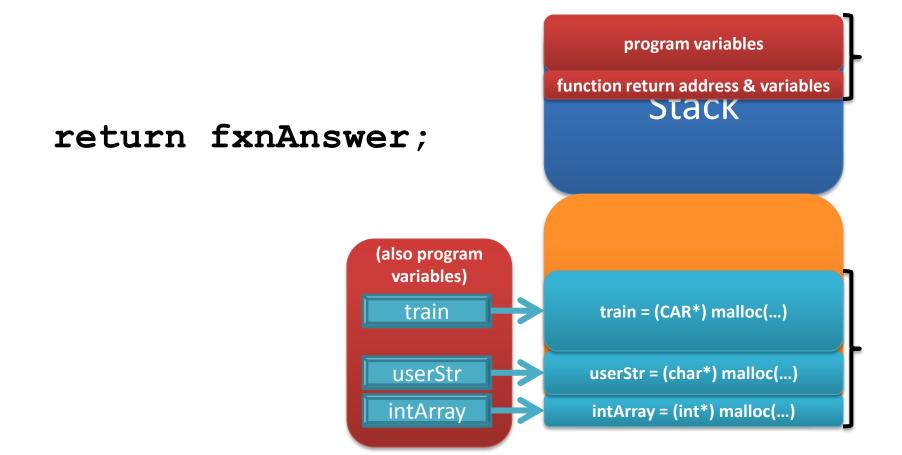
- don't forget those pointers are *program* variables, so where they are stored is actually on the <u>stack</u> with the rest of the program variables!
 - they are program variables
 because they are declared
 in the program's code

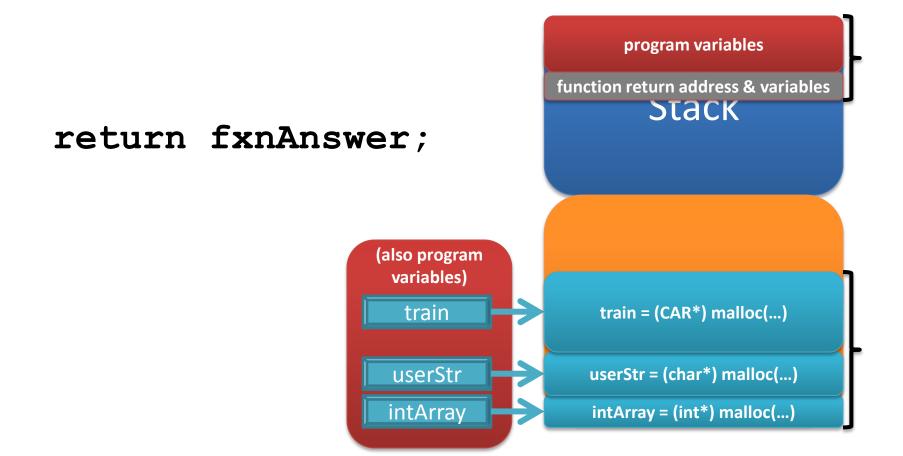


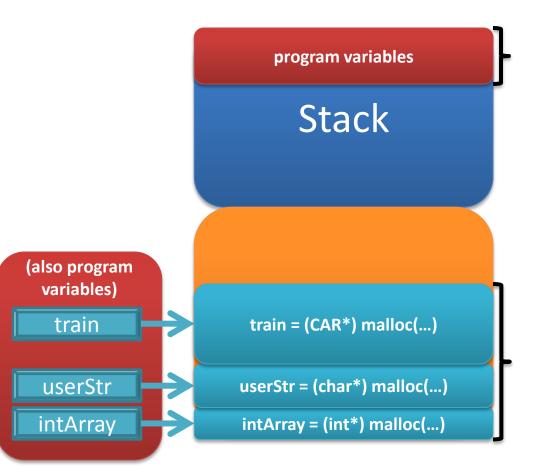
 but how does the process get any of that memory back?

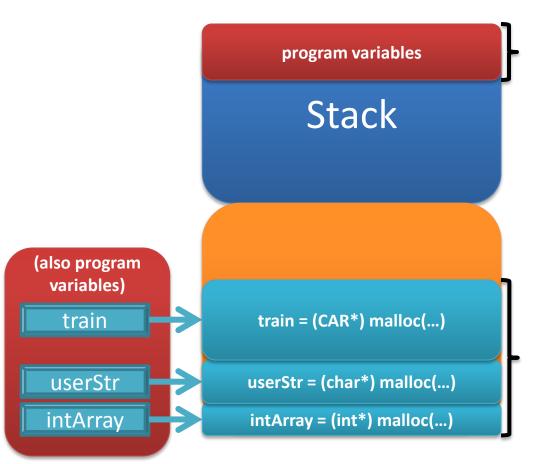


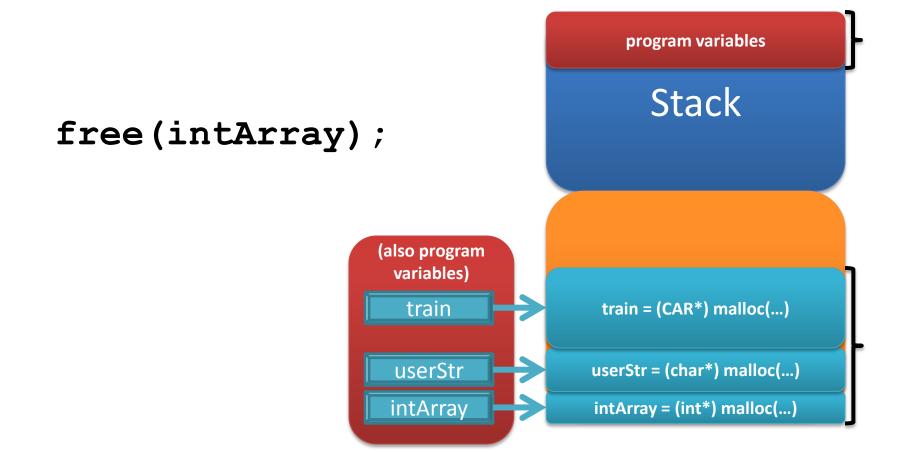


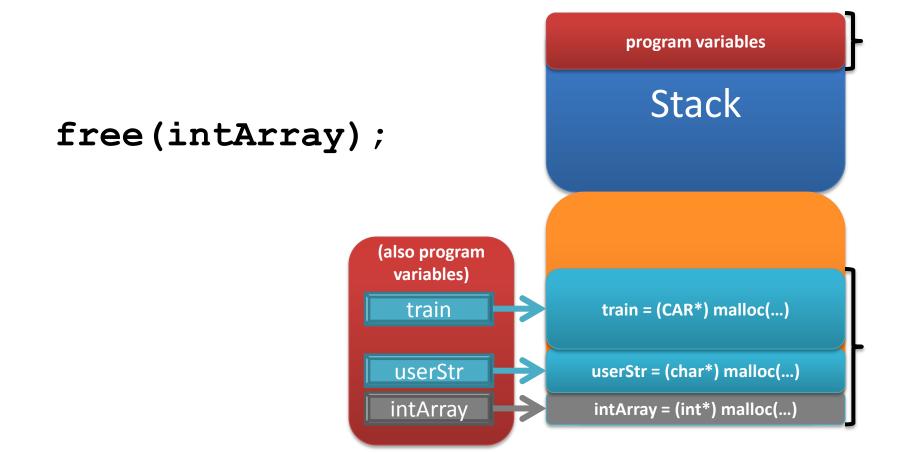


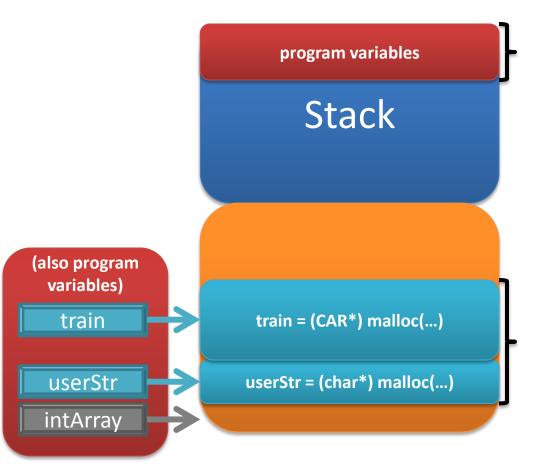




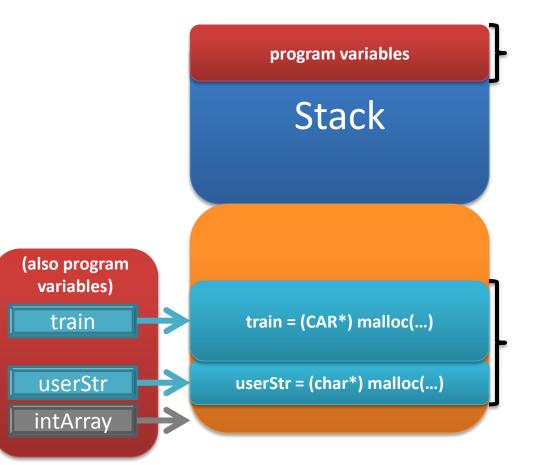




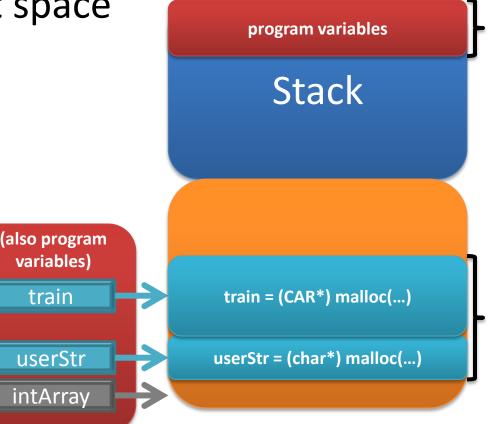




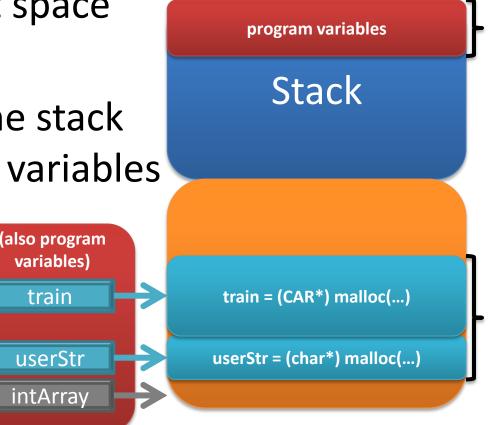
 but simply using free() doesn't change anything about the intArray variable



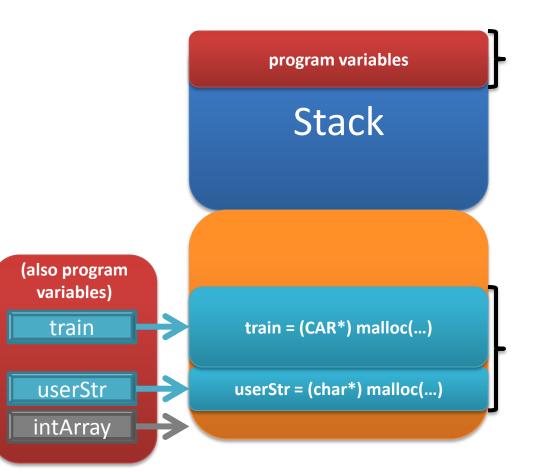
- but simply using free() doesn't change anything about the intArray variable
- it still points to that space in memory



- but simply using free() doesn't change anything about the intArray variable
- it still points to that space in memory
- it's still stored on the stack with the rest of the variables

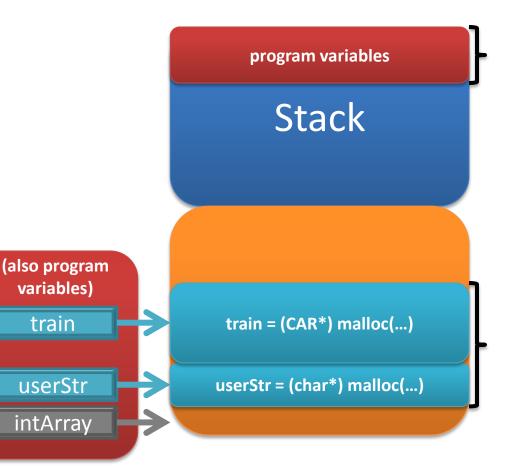


• intArray is now a dangling pointer



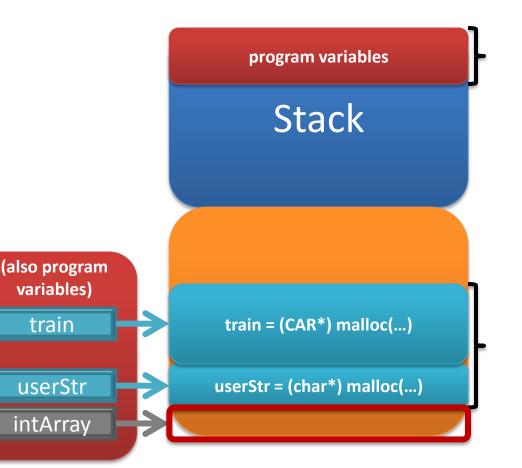
• intArray is now a **dangling pointer**

- points to memory that has been freed

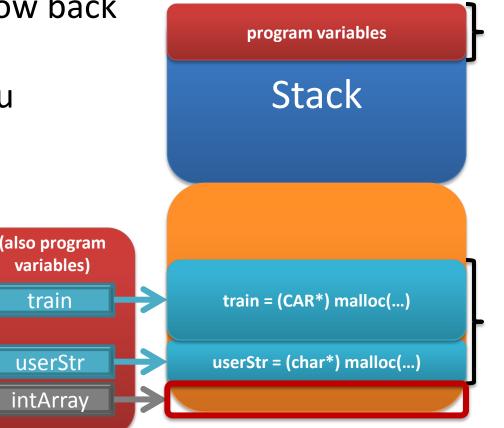


• intArray is now a **dangling pointer**

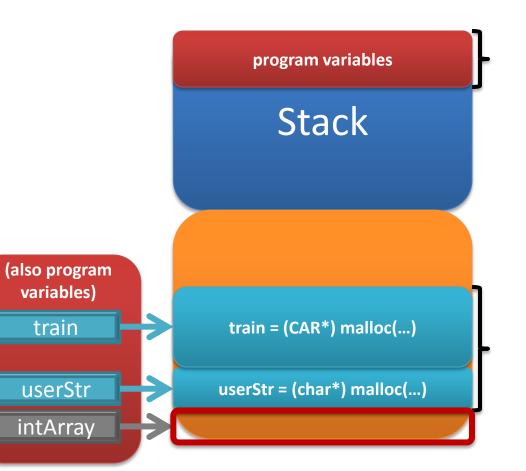
- points to memory that has been freed



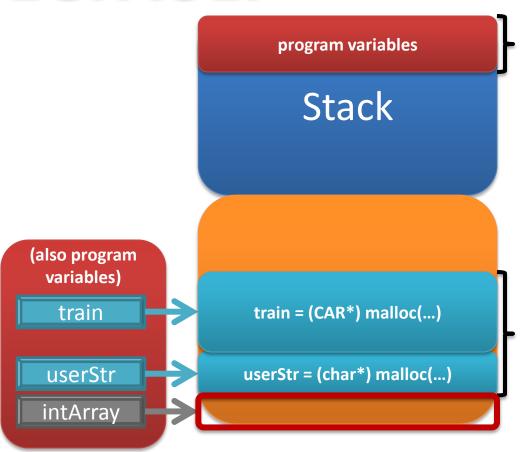
- intArray is now a dangling pointer
 - points to memory that has been freed
 - memory which is now back to being owned by *the process*, not you



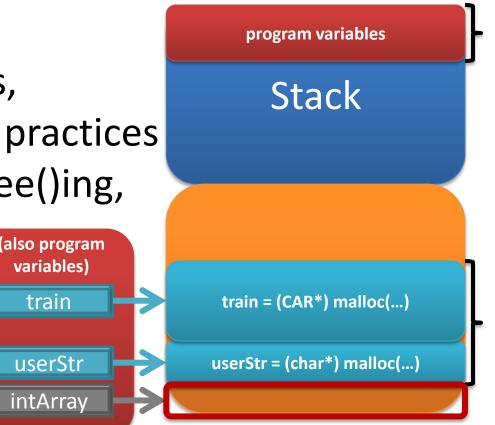
- if we tried to free() intArray's memory again
- we would get a



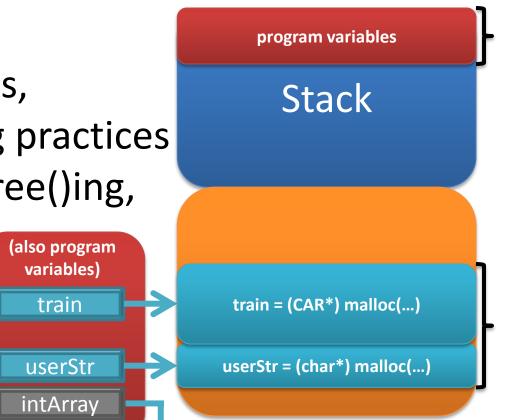
- if we tried to free() intArray's memory again
- we would get a **SEGFAULT**



- if we tried to free() intArray's memory again
- we would get a **SEGFAULT**
- to prevent segfaults, good programming practices dictate that after free()ing, we set intArray to be equal to

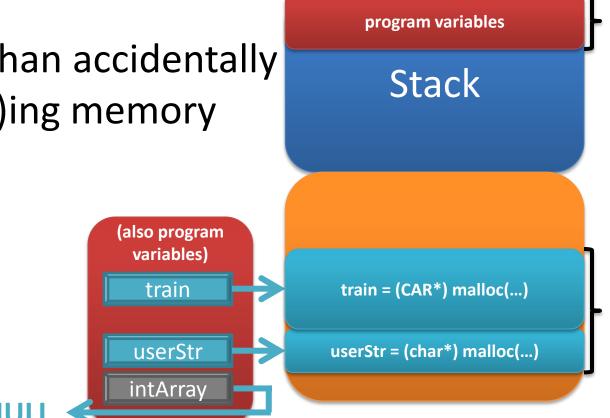


- if we tried to free() intArray's memory again
- we would get a **SEGFAULT**
- to prevent segfaults, good programming practices dictate that after free()ing, we set intArray to be equal to NULL

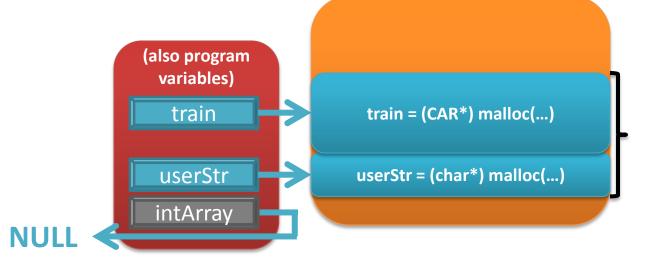


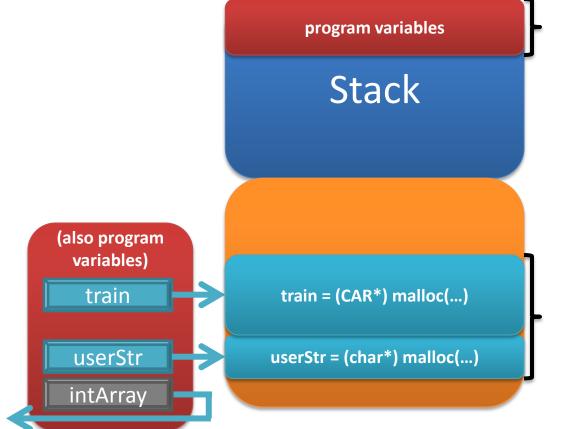
 NOTE: if you try to free a NULL pointer, no action occurs (and it doesn't segfault!)

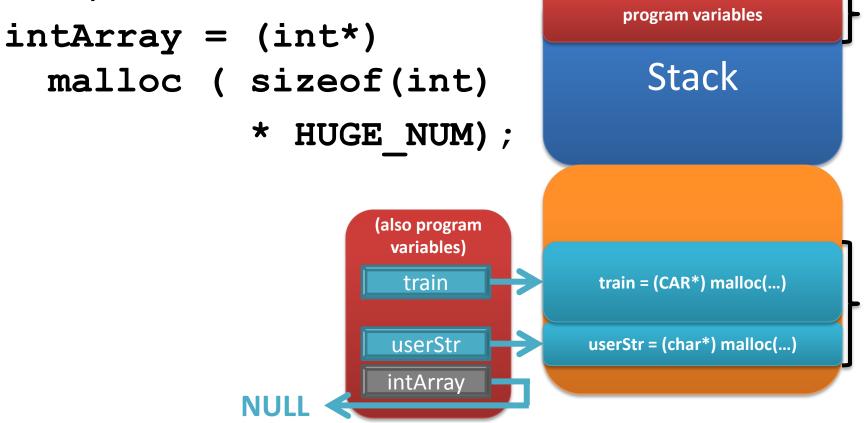
 much safer than accidentally double free()ing memory

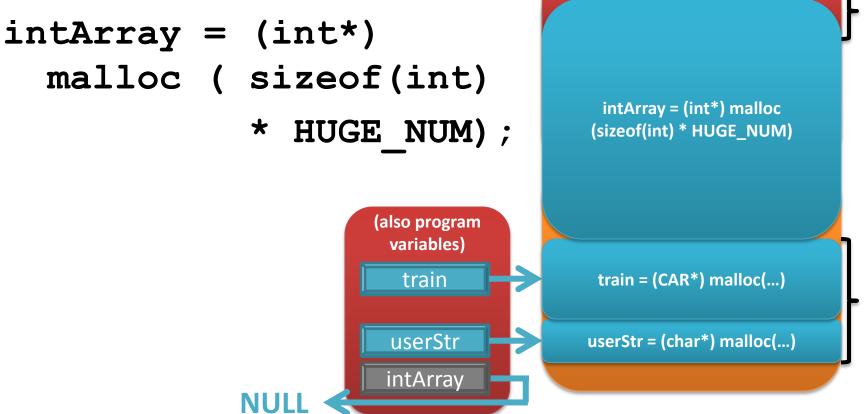


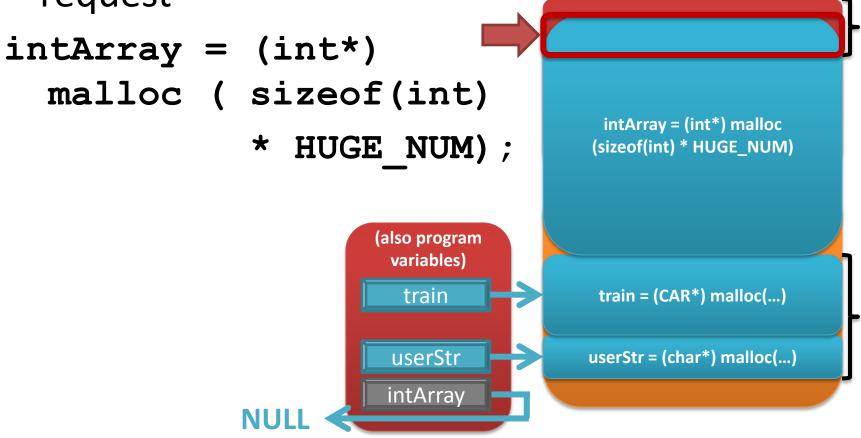
the process is capable of giving memory to you and the program as many times as necessary (including having that memory returned), as long as it doesn't run out of memory to hand out

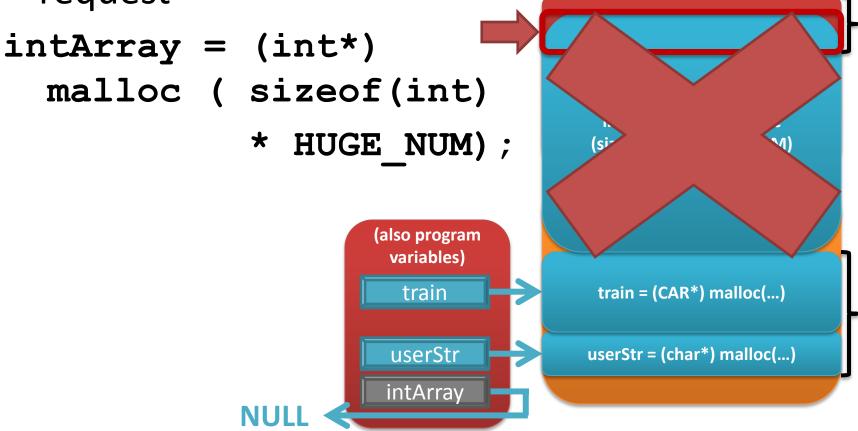




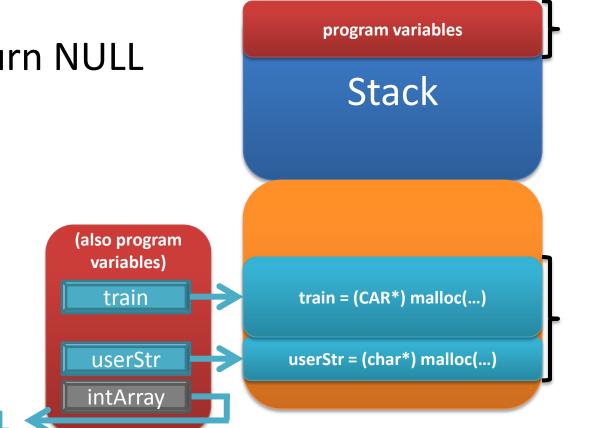




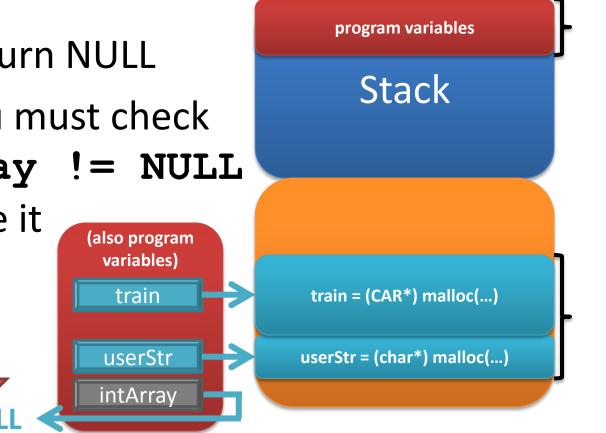




- if you try to allocate memory, but there's not enough contiguous space to handle your request
- malloc will return NULL



- if you try to allocate memory, but there's not enough contiguous space to handle your request
- malloc will return NULL
- that's why you must check that intArray != NULL before you use it



Quick Note on Segfaults

- segfaults are not consistent (unfortunately)
- even if something should result in a segfault, it might not (and then occasionally it will)
 - this doesn't mean there isn't an error!
 - C is trying to be "nice" to you when it can
- you have to be extra-super-duper-careful with your memory management!!!

 how do different types of variables get passed to and returned from functions?

- passing by value
- passing by reference
 - implicit: arrays, strings
 - explicit: pointers

• some simple examples: int Add(int x, int y); int answer = Add(1, 2); void PrintMenu(void); PrintMenu(); int GetAsciiValue(char c); int ascii = GetAsciiValue (`m');

• all passed by value

• passing arrays to functions

```
void TimesTwo(int array[], int size);
```

```
int arr [ARR_SIZE];
/* set values of arr */
TimesTwo(arr, ARR_SIZE);
```

arrays of any type are passed by reference
 – changes made in-function persist

• passing arrays to functions

void TimesTwo(int array[], int size); void TimesTwo(int * array, int size);

- both of these behave the same way
 - they either take a pointer to:
 - the beginning of an array
 - an int that we (can) treat like an array

passing strings to functions

void PrintName(char name [NAME_SIZE]);

char myName [NAME_SIZE] = "Alice"; PrintName(myName);

strings are arrays (of characters)
 – implicitly passed by reference

• passing pointers to int to functions

```
void Square(int *n);
```

int $\mathbf{x} = 9;$

Square(&x);

• pass address of an integer (in this case, x)

passing int pointers to function

```
void Square(int *n);
```

```
int x = 9;
int *xPtr = &x;
Square(???);
```

• pass <u>???</u>

passing int pointers to function

```
void Square(int *n);
```

```
int x = 9;
int *xPtr = &x;
Square(xPtr);
```

pass xPtr, which is an address to an integer (x)

returning pointers from functions

```
CAR* MakeCar(void) {
   CAR temp;
```

```
return &temp; }
```

temp is on the <u>stack</u> – so what happens?

returning pointers from functions

```
CAR* MakeCar(void) {
   CAR temp;
```

return &temp; }

 temp is on the <u>stack</u> – so it will be <u>returned</u> to the process when MakeCar() returns!

returning pointers from functions

```
CAR* MakeCar(void) {
   CAR* temp;
   temp = (CAR*) malloc (sizeof(CAR));
   return temp; }
```

temp is on the <u>heap</u> – so what happens?

returning pointers from functions

```
CAR* MakeCar(void) {
   CAR* temp;
   temp = (CAR*) malloc (sizeof(CAR));
   return temp; }
```

 temp is on the <u>heap</u> – so it belongs to **you** and will <u>remain</u> on the heap until you free() it

Homework 4A

• Karaoke

- File I/O
- command line arguments
- allocating memory

- no grade for Homework 4A
- turn in working code or -10 points for HW 4B