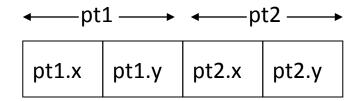
A <u>struct</u> is a collection of variables, possibly of different types, grouped under a single name for common reference as a unit.

```
struct point { /* with optional tag */
    int x; /* member x */
    int y; /* member y */
};
struct point q= {320, 200};
struct point pt;
pt.x = 320; pt.y = 200;
```

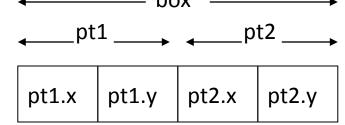
 A struct inside a struct (nesting). **struct** rect { **struct** point pt1; /\* lower left struct point pt2; /\* upper right struct rect box;/\* declare box as a rect \*/ box.pt2.y y box.pt1.y box.pt1.x box.pt2.x X

```
/* Find area of a rectangle */
int area = rectarea (box);
...
int rectarea (struct rect x) {
  return (x.pt2.x - x.pt1.x) * (x.pt2.y - x.pt1.y);
}
```

- Memory allocation for structs
  - Two point structs pt1 and pt2



One rect struct box containing two point
 structs ← box ←



### What can we do with a struct?

- Reference membersbox.pt2.x = box.pt1.x + width;
- Assign as a unitpt2 = pt1;
- Create a pointer to it struct point \*ppt1; ppt1 = &pt1;

### What can we do with a struct?

Not legal to compare structs

if 
$$(pt1 == pt2)$$
 ...  $\leftarrow$  INVALID

Must be done as:

if 
$$(pt1.x == pt2.x && pt1.y == pt2.y) ...$$

### struct and Functions

We can use a struct as any other type with functions

```
/* check if 2 rectangles overlap */
int ptinrect (struct point p, struct rect r)
{
   return p.x >= r.pt1.x && p.x <= r.pt2.x
   && p.y >= r.pt1.y && p.y <= r.pt2.y;
}</pre>
```

# Arrays of structs

 Multiple related arrays to store a number of keywords and their corresponding counts char \* keyword[NKEYS]; int keycount[NKEYS];

Can be implemented as an array of structs
 struct key {
 char \*word;
 int count;
 };
 struct key keytab [NKEYS];

# Arrays of structs

Alternative array of structs implementation

```
struct key {
  char *word;
  int count;
} keytab[NKEYS];
```

# Arrays of structs

• Initialization for an array of structs

```
struct key {
 char *word;
  int count;
} keytab[] = {
  "auto", 0,
   "while", 0
     /* NKEYS is dynamically derived */
```

### Pointers to structs

- Declare and initialize a pointer to struct struct point p; struct point \*pp = &p;
- Refer to members of struct p via pointer pp (\*pp).x and (\*pp).y
  or
  pp->x and pp->y

### Pointers to structs

```
struct string {
 int len;
 char *cp;
} *p;
Expression Same as
                          Value / Effect
++p->len ++(p->len) incr len
*p->cp *(p->cp)
                          value is a char
*p->cp++ *((p->cp)++) value is a char incr cp
```

### Pointers to structs

```
/* check if two rectangles overlap
  ptinrect: (pointer version)
  if point p in rect r, return 1 else return 0
*/
int ptinrect (struct point *pp, struct rect *rp)
  return pp->x >= rp->pt1.x && pp->x <= rp->pt2.x
   && pp->y >= rp->pt1.y && pp->y <= rp->pt2.y;
```

### Review

- Declarations/Definitions, K&R pg. 9, 210
- A <u>declaration</u> specifies the interpretation to be given to an identified variable
- A <u>definition</u> is a declaration that reserves storage
- In C89, declarations/definitions must be made before <u>all</u> executable statements in the same block {...}
- NOTE: In C99, this requirement is relaxed. All declarations/definitions must be made before being used in any executable statements.

### Compiler vs Dynamic Allocation of Memory

- If size is known at "compile time" (i.e., it is a pre-defined constant value):
  - Use the compiler to allocate memory
  - This is the easiest way
- If size is NOT known at "compile time" (e.g., it is entered by user at run time):
  - You must use dynamic allocation of memory
  - Be careful to use malloc() and free() correctly

## Compiler Allocated Array

```
/* Static char *lines[MAXLINE]; /* define array */
/* Static array elements are initialized = NULL for you */
...
/* No need to free memory allocated for the array lines */
/* (The compiler takes care of all the details for you) */
```

# Dynamically Allocated Array

- If you had no specification for maximum number of lines tail had to be able to hold
- If you only get maximum number (n) at run time:

```
static char **lines; /* pointer to array of pointers */
lines = (char **) malloc (n * sizeof (char *));

/* You must initialize all pointers in array = NULL */

/* Later, you must free memory allocated for the
  lines array after freeing memory for each line */

free ( (void *) lines);
lines = NULL;
```

# Static/Dynamic Arrays

Regardless of how lines array is declared –
 static or dynamic, refer to it in the same way:

```
lines[i] = (char *) malloc (strlen(line)+1);
strcpy (lines[i], line);
printf ("%s\n", lines[i++]);
free( (void *) lines[i]);
lines[i] = NULL;
```

### Compiler Allocated Array of structs

```
struct pet {
    char *type;
    char *name;
           /* each instance of struct pet is 8 bytes */
void print_list(struct pet *, int);  /* function prototype */
int main () /* array and structs allocated by compiler */ {
               /* all are automatic – allocated on stack */
  struct pet list [] = {{"cat", "fluffy"}, {"dog", "spot"}};
   print_list(list, sizeof list / sizeof(struct pet)); /* size = 2 */
   return 0;
           /* all memory used goes "poof" upon return */
```

### Dynamically Allocated Array of structs

```
int main () {
  int n = 2;
  /* all structs are in dynamic memory */
  struct pet *list = (struct pet *) malloc (n * sizeof(struct pet));
  list[0].type = "cat";
  list[0].name = "fluffy";
  list[1].type = "dog";
   list[1].name = "spot";
   print list(list, n);
  free ( (void *) list); /* free memory used for the array */
  list = NULL; /* optional - goes "poof" on return */
   return 0;
```

### Dynamically Allocated Array of structs

```
int main () {
  int n = 2;
  /* all structs are in dynamic memory */
  struct pet *list = (struct pet *) malloc (n * sizeof(struct pet));
  struct pet *copy = list;
  copy->type = "cat"; /* "real" C programmer's way */
  copy->name = "fluffy";
  (++copy)->type = "dog";
  copy->name = "spot";
  print list(list, n);
  free ( (void *) list); /* free memory used for the array */
            /* list and copy go out of scope
  return 0;
```

## Print Either Array of structs

```
void print_list(struct pet *list, int size) {
    while (size--) {
        /* defensive programming – check pointer values */
        if (list != NULL && list->type != NULL && list->name != NULL)
            printf("%s, %s\n", list->type, list->name);
        list++;
    }
}
```

### Introduction to C99

- C99 standard relaxes a few of the C89 rules
  - // style single line comments may be used
  - Variables may be defined anywhere in a block. They do not need to be defined before all executable code (useful and helps to enable the next 2 rules)
  - Automatic array variables may be dimensioned with a value known at run time – not just with a constant
  - Loop variable may be declared in the initialization statement of a "for" loop—similar to Java
  - New complex and boolean data types are supported

### Introduction to C99

- gcc supports C99 with the –c99 option flag
- C89 code will compile correctly under C99
- You aren't required to use any C99 features!
- You may be able to use C99 to simplify the code for your particular program
- Careful if there is any requirement for your code to be C89 compatible for any reason!

# Dynamically-sized Arrays (C99)

- If you have no specification for maximum number of lines that the lines array has to be able to hold
- If you only get the value of n at run time:

```
char *lines [n]; /* cannot be "static" or "external" */
/* You must initialize all pointers in array = NULL */
/* Normal rules of "block" scope for compiler-allocated
memory apply! DON'T CALL FREE! */
```

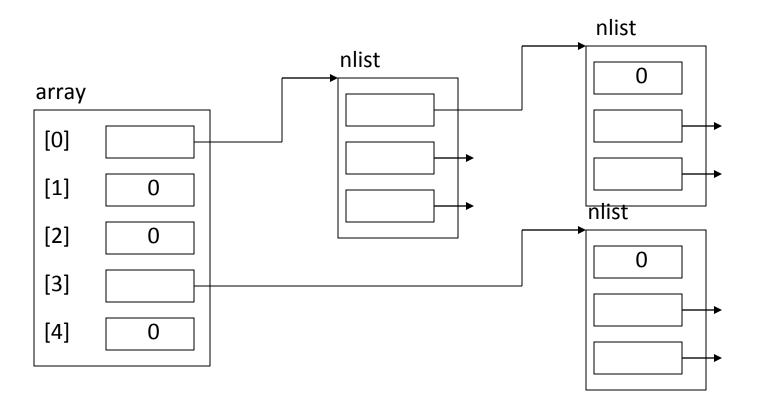
## Table Lookup, K&R 6.6

struct for a linked list of names/definitions

```
struct nlist { /* table entry */
struct nlist *next; /* link to next */
char *name; /* word name */
char *defn; /* word definition */
};
```

# Table Lookup / Linked Lists

 Array of pointers to null terminated linked lists of structs defining table entries



# Table Lookup / Linked List

Hash function to select starting array element

```
unsigned int hash (char *s)
{
for (hashval = 0; *s != '\0'; s++)
   hashval = *s + 31 * hashval;
return hashval % HASHSIZE;
}
```

In lookup (), std code for following a linked list:
 for (ptr = head; ptr != NULL; ptr = ptr->next)

Declare rectangular multi-dimensional array

```
char a[2][3]; /* array [row] [column] */
```

- NOTE: char a[2, 3] is <a href="INCORRECT">INCORRECT</a>!
- The rightmost subscript varies fastest as one looks at how data lies in memory:

```
a[0][0], a[0][1], a[0][2], a[1][0], a[1][1], ...
```

It is the same as a one dimensional array [2]
 with each element being an array [3]

 Example of converting a month & day into a day of the year for either normal or leap years

 Use a second row of day counts for leap year rather than perform a calculation for days in February

```
daytab[1][1] is 31 \rightarrow same as daytab[0][1] daytab[1][2] is 29 \rightarrow not same as daytab[0][2]
```

• The array declared as char daytab[2][13] can be thought of as:

```
char (daytab [2]) [13]; /* pg. 53 */
```

• Each one dimensional array element (daytab[0], daytab[1]) is like array name - as if we declared:

```
char daytab0 [13], daytab1 [13];
```

daytab[0] is in memory first, then daytab[1]

- daytab[0] and daytab[1] are arrays of 13 chars
- Now recall duality of pointers and arrays:

```
(daytab [0])[n] \rightarrow (*daytab)[n]
(daytab [1])[n] \rightarrow (*(daytab+1))[n]
```

 daytab is a pointer to an array of elements each of which is an array of size 13 chars

 But, these two declarations are not allocated memory the same way:

```
char daytab[2][13]; \rightarrow 26 char-sized locations char (*dp) [13]; \rightarrow 1 pointer-sized location
```

For the second declaration, code must set the pointer equal to an already defined array of [n] [13]
 dp
 daytab;

OR

• Use malloc to allocate memory for an array: dp = (char (\*)[13]) malloc(2\*13);

```
static char daytab[2][13] = \{\ldots\};
    daytab[0][2] == 28
                                     daytab[1][2] == 29
            Array of 13 chars
                                            Array of 13 chars
    (*dp)[2] == 28
                                     (*(dp + 1))[2] == 29
             dp = daytab;
dp
 1 char (*) [13] ----- A pointer to an unspecified number of 13 char arrays
             dp = (char (*)[13]) malloc(2*13);
            Array of 13 chars
                                              Array of 13 chars
    (*dp)[2] == ??
                                     (*(dp + 1))[2] == ??
```

- "Real" C programmers use pointers to pointers often and multidimensional arrays rarely
- Avoids worst case for memory allocation

### typedef, K&R 6.7

- typedef creates a new name for existing type typedef int Boolean; typedef char \*String;
- Does not create a new type in any real sense
- No new semantics for the new type name!
- Variables declared using new type name have same properties as variables of original type

# typedef

 Could have used typedef in section 6.5 like this: typedef struct tnode { char \*word; int count; treeptr left; treeptr right; } treenode; typedef struct tnode \*treeptr;

# typedef

Then, could have coded talloc () as follows:
 treeptr talloc(void)
 {
 return (treeptr) malloc(sizeof(treenode));
 }

# typedef

 Used to provide clearer documentation: treeptr root; versus struct tnode \*root;

Used to create machine independent variable types:

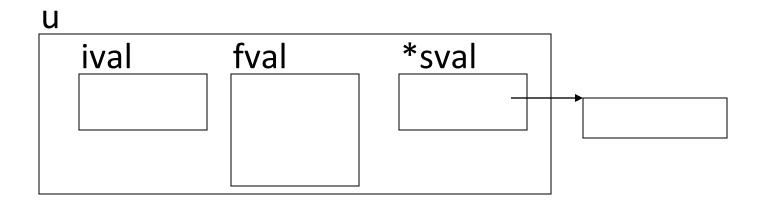
```
typedef int size_t;/* size of types */
typedef int ptrdiff_t; /* difference of pointers */
```

# Unions, K&R 6.8

 A Union is a variable that may hold objects of different types (at different times or for different instances of use)

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

- A union will be allocated enough space for the largest type in the list of possible types
- Same as a struct except all members have a zero offset from the base address of union



- The operations allowed on unions are the same as operations allowed on structs:
  - Access a member of a union

```
union u_tag x;
x.ival = ...;
```

Assign to union of the same type

```
union u_tag y;
```

$$x = y$$
;

— Create a pointer to / take the address of a union union u\_tag x; union u\_tag \*px = &x;

- Access a member of a union via a pointer
px->ival = ...;

- Program code must know which type of value has been stored in a union variable and process using correct member type
- DON'T store data in a union using one type and read it back via another type in attempt to get the value converted between types

```
x.ival = 12; /* put an int in union */
float z = x.fval; /* don' t read as float! */
```

# Bit-Fields, K&R 6.9

- Bit fields are used to get a field size other than 8 bits (char), 16 bits (short on some machines) or 32 bits (long on most machines)
- Allows us to "pack" data one or more bits at a time into a larger data item in memory to save space, e.g. 32 single bit fields to an int
- Can use bit fields instead of using masks, shifts, and or's to manipulate groups of bits

## **Bit-Fields**

Uses struct form:

```
struct {
 unsigned int flg1 : 1; /* called a "bit field" */
 unsigned int flg2 : 1; /* ": 1" →"1 bit in length " */
 unsigned int flg3 : 2; /* ": 2" →"2 bits in length" */
} flag; /* variable */
```

Field lengths must be an integral number of bits

## **Bit-Fields**

 Access bit fields by member name same as any struct – just limited number of values

```
flag.flg1 = 0; /* or = 1; */
flag.flg3 = 0; /* or = 1; = 2; =3; */
```

## **Bit-Fields**

- Minimum size data item is implementation dependent, as is order of fields in memory
- Don't make any assumptions about order!!
- Sample memory allocation:

