

Introduction to Computing

User-defined Datatype, DMA, File

User Defined Datatypes

- Sometimes basic data-types are not sufficient for describing problems conveniently, e.g., *2D coordinates, complex numbers, student information, etc.*
- You can define your own data-type as per your requirements
- You need to use the keyword **struct** for this purpose
- **struct** is short for **structure**

```
struct new_type {  
    member variable 1;  
    ...  
    member variable n;  
};
```

- **struct new_type** becomes your new user-defined data-type
- **member(s)** can be any existing data-types or user-defined types, such as, `int`, `float`, `int*`, `char[10]`, `struct another_type`, etc.

Structures

Example:
representing a complex number
 $n = x + i y$

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

```
struct complex n;  
n.x = 1.0;  
n.y = 2.0;  
// This^ can represent the complex  
number 1.0 + i 2.0 as printed below  
printf ("%f + i %f", n.x, n.y);
```

- `struct complex n1={1,2}, n2={2,3}, n3;`
 - Declare and initialize similar to any type
- `n3 = n2;` //copies the value of n2 into n3
- Other operations **does not work** (recall array, strings), e.g.
 - `n1+n2, n1-n2`
 - `n1 == n2, n3 = {10,20}`

To achieve these, you need to write your own functions

```
struct complex add (struct complex num1, struct complex num2) {  
    struct complex sum;  
    sum.x = num1.x + num2.x;  
    sum.y = num1.y + num2.y;  
    return sum;  
}  
n3 = add (n1, n2); //function call for addition
```

Structures (contd.)

- Normal operations **does not work**
 - $n1+n2$, $n1-n2$
 - $n1 == n2$
- You need to write your own functions and define your own operations
 - **Example code for addition of two complex numbers is given \Rightarrow**
 - Similarly you can write your own subtraction, multiplication, equality, conjugate, etc.

add is a function that takes two **complex** numbers as input and returns their **complex** sum as output

```
struct complex
```

```
add (struct complex num1, struct complex num2)  
{
```

```
    struct complex sum;
```

```
    sum.x = num1.x + num2.x;
```

```
    sum.y = num1.y + num2.y;
```

```
    return sum;
```

```
}
```

```
n3 = add (n1, n2); //function call for addition
```

Renaming Datatypes

You can choose to **rename** (*create an alias*) for *any datatype* using a keyword called **typedef**

-- it is particularly convenient for structures

```
typedef struct complex Q;
```

Another way of writing typedef

```
typedef struct complex{  
    float x;  
    float y;  
}Q;
```

Example: Then, we could write code as follows

You can declare variables as follows: **Q** n1, n2;

Use in functions:

```
Q add (Q n1, Q n2)    {<<function definition for add>>}
```

Size of structure

Size of a structure variable is (ideally) the sum of the sizes of all its member's sizes, so
 $\text{sizeof}(Q) = \text{sizeof}(\text{float}) + \text{sizeof}(\text{float})$

But this is not always the case in practice:

structure padding -- extra memory added for convenience/ safety

`#pragma pack(1)` -- exact size memory as shown above

Consider the following structure

```
typedef struct a_type{  
    char x;  
    int y;  
}atype;
```

`sizeof (atype)` theoretically should be
 $\text{sizeof}(\text{char}) + \text{sizeof}(\text{int}) = 1 + 4 = 5$

But if you run the code, it gives 8 and not 5

- Due to *structure padding*
- Use `#pragma pack(1)` at the start of your program ... and, you can force the size to be 5

Structures and pointers

- Since structures are just another datatype - it is possible to create pointers of it's type
- `struct complex *ptr;` \Rightarrow is able to contain the address of structure variable
 - We could also write `Q *ptr;`
 \Rightarrow since we renamed it as `Q`
- So, `sizeof(ptr)` \Rightarrow ?

Accessing the members using pointers variables

```
Q *ptr; Q v = {10, 20};  
ptr = &v;  
◦ *ptr.real  $\Rightarrow$  will not work  
◦ (*ptr).real  $\Rightarrow$  will work
```

Alternatively the arrow operator (`->`) can be used to access members

- `ptr->real` \Rightarrow will work
- `printf ("%f", ptr->real);`

Structures examples

Store student record with name, roll number, height, weight, DoB, DoJ

- How do you store information about 100 students?
- What happens if one or more student joins later on?
- What happens if you do not know the number of students beforehand?

```
// A possible implementation
typedef struct _student_info{
    char *name;
    char DoB[10], DoJ[10];
    int roll_no;
    float height, weight;
}student;
```

```
// A single student info
student stud1;
// 100 students info
student stud_arr[100];
```


Array and Structure

Since structures are just another datatype - *it is possible to create an array for the same*

Q arr[5]; \Rightarrow equivalent to 5 **Q** variables

- Variables are accessed using **indexes** e.g. arr[1], arr[3], etc.
- Can also be accessed using **pointer arithmetic** \leftarrow *remember this?*

- arr[i].x, arr[i].y \leftarrow to access member variables
- arr[i] is the same as *(arr + i)
- i.e. arr + i is a pointer to arr[i]
- So, (arr+i)->x will also work

– *okay, but how to create array when size is not known beforehand?*

Three Memory Regions

- **Stack Memory**

- Holds local variables and function call information
- Managed automatically (LIFO)
- Released when the function exits

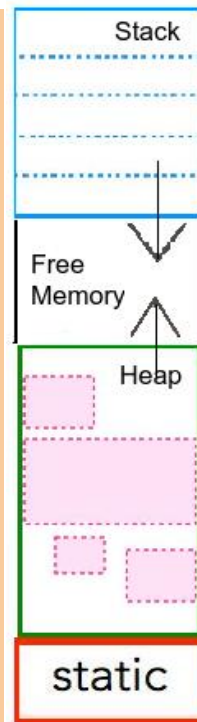
- **Heap Memory**

- Dynamically allocated memory (using malloc/free)
- Memory management is manual and provides flexibility for runtime allocations.

- **Static Memory**

- Global and static variables are stored here
- Allocated at compile time
- Retains values for the entire program duration

Note: In reality, there are more regions, but for our purposes, these three should suffice



- Stack memory grows in one direction, and it is **automatically allocated**
- Free memory **stays in between** stack and heap region for maximum utilization of memory
- Heap memory grows in the opposite direction, and this area is **controlled by the programmer**
- Static memory region is fixed in size, and is decided at compile time

Global and Static Variables (Static memory region)

- **Global Variables:**

- Declared outside all functions
- **Scope:** Accessible throughout the program
- **Lifetime:** Entire program execution

- **Static Variables:**

- **Scope:** Limited to the block in which they are defined (local or global)
- If declared inside a function, it retains its value between function calls
- **Lifetime:** Entire program execution

- **Use Cases:**

- **Global:** Sharing information across multiple functions.
- **Static:** Keeping information localized but persistent.

- **Global** variables are by default **static**
- **Static** variables can be global or local
- For static global variables, they are restricted to the file where defined

Dynamic Memory allocation (DMA) (Heap memory region)

- This is another way to allocate memory for variables
- It can allocate memory to a variable during the runtime of the program
 - So, you can read/scan the number of elements from the user
 - Then allocate necessary memory
- It works for allocating memory for
 - A single variable of any type
 - An array of any type

- We need to `#include` library `stdlib.h`
- We will use two functions from this library
 - **malloc** - memory **allocator**
 - **free** - frees some allocated memory

Prototype: `void* malloc (int size)`

- **Allocates** a memory space of the given *size*
- **Returns** the address of the allocated memory, i.e., *a pointer*
 - **But**, without any specific type; hence, `void*`
- You can **typecast** the pointer to your need

DMA (contd.)

To create a int variable using malloc, declare a int pointer variable

```
int *ptr;
```

Allocate memory using malloc (two ways)

```
ptr = (int*) malloc (sizeof(int)); // explicit typecast  
ptr = malloc (sizeof(int));       // implicit typecast
```

Access the values using *ptr

```
*ptr = 10;  
printf ("%d", *ptr); // → prints 10
```

Caution: if you try to access *ptr before allocating memory, the behaviour is undefined

For the structure Q, we can do the same as follows

```
Q *ptr;  
ptr = (Q*) malloc (sizeof(Q));
```

Access: ptr->x, ptr->y

Array and DMA

- To create an array using DMA
- We need to specify the total memory size (in bytes) required for the array

e.g., to get an integer array of size 10, we can write the following code

```
int *arr;  
arr = (int*) malloc (sizeof(int) * 10);
```

Access as `arr[i]` or `*(arr+i)`

If you need to **take the size from the user**, you can do the following:

```
int n;    int *ptr;  
scanf ("%d", &n);  
ptr = (int*) malloc (sizeof(int) * n);
```

Alternatively,

```
ptr = (int*) calloc (n, sizeof(int));
```

To release an allocated memory, you can write

- ```
free (ptr);
```
- Make sure the ptr is a valid one
  - Otherwise, it may result in error

# Issues with Array

- Array has a fixed size
  - Be it allocated using DMA or statically
- Assume you have an array of 10 elements
  - You have inserted 5 elements from 0 to 4 indexes, then you want to insert another element in position 2
  - You have already inserted 10 elements, then you want to add another element
- DMA allows you to free allocated memory
  - So, can you remove an element from the array? How?

A better solution for such issues:

## *Linked list*

- A clever solution using structures, DMA and pointers
- It requires more space than an array to store the same amount of data

*It's a beautiful testimony to the power of C language*

- *We will talk about it in the next lecture*

# Storage issues

- Single variable
  - Can only store a value
- Array of variables
  - Can store multiple values, but size allocation needs to be known first
- Array using DMA - can be allocated later, based on requirements
  - But insertion, deletion, resizing is still an issue
- Linked list is used to alleviate such problems
  - However, it uses more memory compared to arrays to store the same information

← All of these solution works only until program is running, once it is closed all data are lost.

- The solution to this problem is usage of **persistent storage** (you know these as pen drive, ssd, hard disk, etc.)
- But how do you write in such devices?

— We create files.



# File

- Stored as sequence of bytes, logically contiguous
  - May not be physically contiguous on disk, but you don't need to worry about that
- Two types of files
  - Text - can only contain ASCII characters
  - Binary - can contain non-ASCII characters
    - Example: image, video, executable, audio, etc.
- Basic operations on files (stdio.h)
  - Open
  - Read
  - Write
  - Close
- A file needs to be open before you can do read or write operations
- Once the works are done on file you need to close the file
- In case, close is not done, some/all contents of the file may be lost

## File (contd.)

- **FILE\*** is a datatype used to represent a pointer to a file
- To open a file we use a function called **fopen**
  - It takes two parameters
    - Name of the file
    - Mode in which it is to be opened
  - It returns a pointer to the file if the file is opened successfully, otherwise it returns NULL

### Example of a file creation for writing

```
FILE *fp;
char filename[] = "a_file.dat"
fp = fopen (filename, "w");
if (fp == NULL)
{
 printf ("unable to create file");
 /* DO SOMETHING */
}
/* WRITE SOMETHING IN FILE */
fclose (fp);
```

# File (contd.)

## Modes of opening a file

- “r” – Opens a file for reading
    - Error if the file does not already exist
    - “r+” allows write also
  - “w” – Opens a file for writing
    - If file does not already exist, it creates a new file
    - If file already exists, all the previous contents of the file will be overwritten
    - “w+” allows read also
  - “a” – Opens a file for appending (write at the end of the file)
    - “a+” allows read also
- When error occurs, e.g. file failed to open, the rest of your program may not work properly
    - In such case, you may want to exit the program on emergency basis
    - The function **exit()** from `stdlib.h` allows you to do so
    - It can be called from anywhere in the c program and it will terminate the program at once

## File (contd.)

```
FILE *fp;
char filename[] = "a_file.dat"
fp = fopen (filename, "w");
if (fp == NULL)
{
 printf ("unable to create file");
 /* DO SOMETHING */
 exit(-1);
}
/* WRITE SOMETHING IN FILE */
fclose (fp);
```

- You can pass any integer in the exit function
- This value will be returned as the output of the program
  - Recall that a c function is a collection of functions and functions must return something
  - A negative value (by convention) is treated as some error has happened