

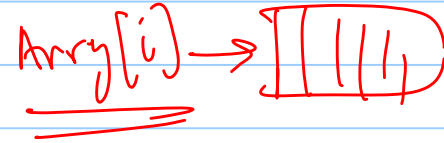


Array

	0	1			30
0	g	n	n	a	lo
1	m	a	x	lo	
2					
3					
4					
⋮					
⋮					
⋮					

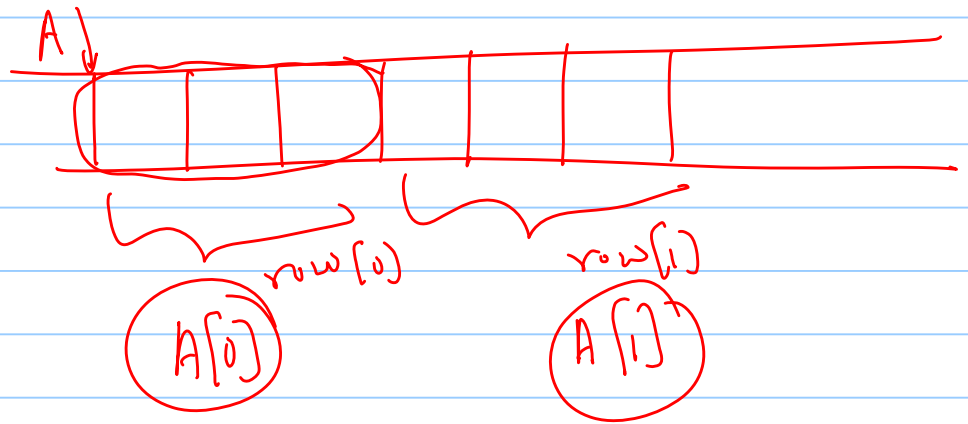
↓ ↓ ↓ ↓  
] [ 3 ]

$A[i]$



begin = time (NULL);

int A[2][3];



o/a.out  $\begin{matrix} -s \\ -t \end{matrix}$  file1 file2

# Lecture 03 Strings and Pointers

In this lecture we will discuss the following topics

- Introduction to Strings
- Reading/writing a String
- Passing a String to/from a function
- Swapping strings
- Understanding strings.h library
- Tokenizing a String
- Introduction to pointers
- Initializing and dereferencing pointers
- Further references
- Exercises

## 3.1 Introduction

Learning how to manipulate strings is quite important in any programming language. In Java string is an object and inherits all its object properties. However, in C string is an object with no inherited properties (such as length). First we will begin with the concept of a pointer or address. We will discuss in detail what pointers mean shortly, but for now we want to start with a definition as follows.

`char* s;`

`Char *S; Char * S;`

The above statement simply indicates that `s` is a pointer to (or address of) a character. A String is simply defined as an array of characters and `s` is the address of the first character (byte) of the string. In C, a string is just an array of characters that does not have any inherited properties. **A valid C string ends with the null character '\0' [slash zero].** Therefore the amount of memory required for a C string is 1 + length of the actual string. Failure to make sure that a string ends with '\0' may result in unpredictable behavior in your code. Please note that some IO library functions automatically add a null character to the end of each string.

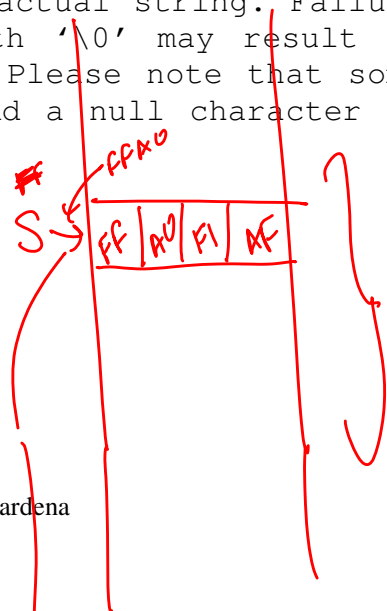
pointer to char or address of a char

How much space for S?

`sizeof(s)`

pointer

Table	
S	FFA0



`fscanf(stdin, "%s", s);`

Table

X	FFA0F1A1
ptr	FFB5A0A1

X → 10  
 &X → FFA0F1A1  
 ptr → FFA0F1A1  
 &ptr → FFB5A0A1  
 \*ptr → 10  
 \*X → no sense

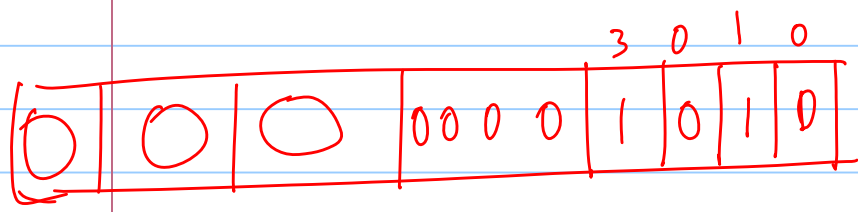
lvalue = &X

rvalue = X

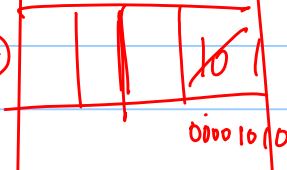
int X = 10;

(cannot dereference a non-pointer)

$10 = 2^3 + 2^1$



FFA0F1A1



FFA0F1A1

ptr = &X;

FFB5A0A1

Char \* s;  
 Int \* ptr;  
 Int X = 10;  
 ptr = &X;  
 \*ptr = 12

```
int foo(int X) {
    X++;
}
```

by value copy

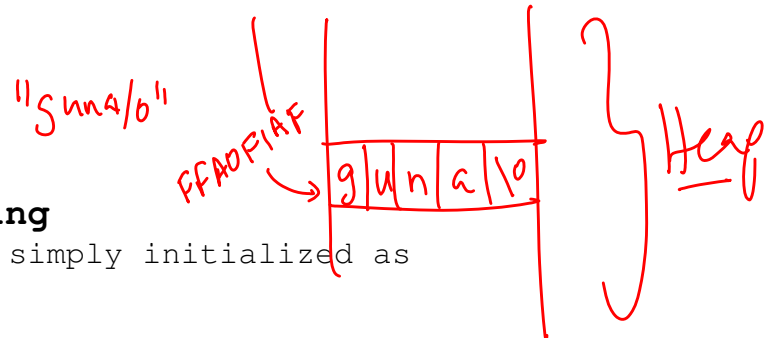
```
int foo(int *ptr) {
    (*ptr)++;
}
```

by ref

```
main
int X = 10;
foo(&X);
X = 11
```

dereference operator

```
char* s;
s = malloc(strlen("guna") + 1);
strcpy(s, "guna");
```



### 3.2 Initializing a String

A constant string s can be simply initialized as

```
char* s = "guna\0";
```

However no memory is allocated for s in the stack. If we try to write to s, then it may cause a segmentation fault since memory has not been allocated explicitly.

For example,

```
fscanf(stdin, "%s", s);
```

 would cause a problem

If we need to read into a memory location, it is important to allocate memory first and then copy the string to the location. To allocate a block of memory to hold a string, we use the **malloc** function from <stdlib.h>. To read more about malloc type:

% man malloc

The **malloc(int n)** returns a pointer to (or an address of) a block of n bytes. Note that a string with n characters requires n+1 bytes (n for the string AND 1 byte to store the '\0' character). Therefore, to store the input string "guna", we would require 5 characters. The following code allocates 5 characters to store the string "guna" + '\0'.

```
char *S = malloc(5*sizeof(char));
strcpy(S, "guna");
```

It is important to note that malloc allocates memory inside what is called the **"dynamic heap"** and unless memory is explicitly freed using **free** function (we will discuss this later. A very important topic), the malloced block stays even after leaving the scope of the code.

Alternatively we can also write

```
char s[5];
strcpy(s, "guna");
```

In this case, 5 bytes is allocated from the run time stack and s no longer available once it is out of scope of the variable s.

### 3.3 Reading a String from a file Stream

We can create a file stream using an input file as follows:

```
FILE* fp = fopen("myfile.txt","r");
```

The file is now open for "r" only and fp (FILE\* or FILE pointer) can be used to read input from the file. To read from a file we can use fscanf. You can find more about fscanf by typing man fscanf at the unix prompt:

```
% man fscanf
```

NAME

scanf, fscanf, sscanf, vscanf, vsscanf, vfscanf - input format conversion

SYNOPSIS

```
#include <stdio.h>
int scanf(const char *format, ...);
int fscanf(FILE *stream, const char *format, ...);
int sscanf(const char *str, const char *format, ...);

#include <stdarg.h>
int vscanf(const char *format, va_list ap);
int vsscanf(const char *str, const char *format, va_list ap);
int vfscanf(FILE *stream, const char *format, va_list ap);
```

DESCRIPTION

The scanf family of functions scans input according to a format as described below. This format may contain conversion specifiers; the results from such conversions, if any, are stored through the pointer arguments. The scanf function reads input from the standard input stream stdin, fscanf reads input from the stream pointer stream, and sscanf reads its input from the character string pointed to by str.

As an example, to read data from stdin,

```
char s[10];
fscanf(stdin, "%s", s);
```

Reading a string using fscanf is somewhat dangerous. It is possible that the input you enter may be longer than the memory allocated by the character array. For example, if you type something more than 9 characters in the above example, the program may segfault as enough memory have not been allocated for the string s. Consider program 3.1 below. Type the program and see what happens if you enter something significantly longer than 10. The behavior of the program is completely unpredictable.

```

/* Program 3.1 */
#include <stdio.h>
int main(int argc, char* argv[]){
    char S[10];
    fscanf(stdin, "%s", S);
    printf("The input is %s \n", S);
    return (EXIT_SUCCESS);
}

```

You need to be careful about managing memory for strings. This is especially true if you are reading strings of variable length and the size of the memory cannot be fixed in advance. One possible way to safely read strings is to use fgets function.

**char \*fgets(char \*s, int size, FILE \*stream);**

*fgets() reads in at most one less than size characters from stream and stores them into the buffer pointed to by s. Reading stops after an EOF or a newline. If a newline is read, it is stored into the buffer. A '\0' is stored after the last character in the buffer.*

There is also another version, gets as follows

**char \*gets(char \*s);**

**However, DO NOT use gets since we do not know how many characters will be read from the stdin.**

**Warning:** Never use gets(). Because it is impossible to tell without knowing the data in advance how many characters gets() will read, and because gets() will continue to store characters past the end of the buffer, it is extremely dangerous to use. It has been used to break computer security. Use fgets() instead. [Source: UNIX Manual]

Before using fgets we need to make sure a buffer has been allocated to read in the string. For example

**char buffer[50];**  
**fgets(buffer, 40, stdin);**

will read 39 characters into the buffer (max buffer size 50).

### 3.4 Writing a String

If a string is properly read into a character array called `buffer`, then we can write the string to an output stream using `fprintf` as follows. (find out more about `fprintf` using `man fprintf` )

```
fprintf(stdout, "%s", buffer);
```

or use formatting such as

```
fprintf(stdout, "%20s", buffer); /*uses 20 spaces for string*/
```

Another useful function for string output is `sprintf`. This is particularly useful if you need to construct a string out of fixed and variable lengths, integers, floating points numbers etc. For example you can think of a CMU student course record in the format

```
S07,gunadean,Guna,Dean,SCS,CS,2,L,4,15111 ,1 , ,
```

Given the values of individual fields this can be created using `sprintf`. The prototype for `sprintf` is

```
int sprintf(char *str, const char *format, ...);
```

where 3 dots as the last argument indicates a variable length argument list (we will learn how to write such functions later in the course). An example of how to use `sprintf` is given below in program 3.2.

```
/* Program 3.2 */  
#include <stdio.h>  
#include <stdlib.h>  
  
int main(int argc, char* argv[]){  
    char buffer[256];  
    sprintf(buffer, "%s/%s%d.c",  
           "/afs/andrew.cmu.edu", "myfile", 34);  
    printf("%s\n", buffer);  
    return (EXIT_SUCCESS);  
}
```

The output produced by the above code is a string:

```
"/afs/andrew.cmu.edu/myfile34.c"
```

Some other library functions that can be used for string output are:

```
int puts(char* s);
```

```
int fputs(char *s, FILE* outfile);
```

### 3.5 Passing a String(s) to a function

A string or an array of strings can be passed as an argument to a function. Suppose for example we have a character buffer we need to pass to a function.

```
char buffer[50];
```

Also assume that we have a function foo as follows:

```
void foo(char A[] , int length){...}
```

We can then pass buffer into foo as follows:

```
foo(buffer,n); /* n is the length of the buffer */
```

Passing the address of the buffer allows direct manipulation of the content at the buffer location

Suppose that foo's job is to read a string of length n into buffer from stdin. Then it can be defined as

```
void foo(char[] s, int n){  
    fgets(s,n,stdin);  
}
```

### 3.6 Returning a String from a function

A string or the address of a string can be returned from a function. Consider the following foo function.

```
char* foo(){  
    char* s;  
    s = malloc(n);  
    return s;  
}
```

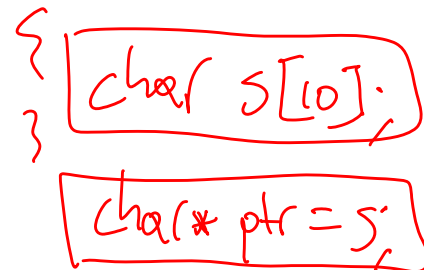
n bytes



The function allocates memory for a string, and returns its address back to main.

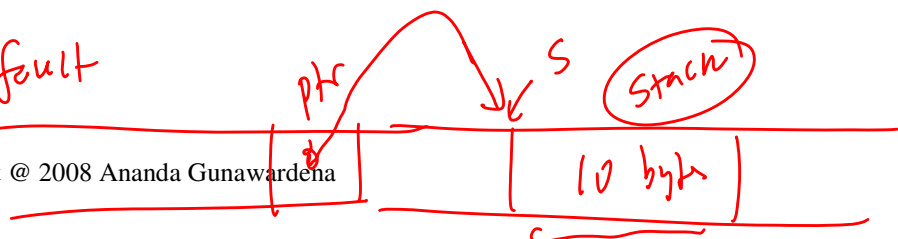
```
char * ptr;  
char s[10];  
ptr = s;
```

```
char * s = (foo());  
strcpy(s, "—");
```



```
strcpy(*ptr, "sure");
```

Seg fault





### 3.7 Swapping Two Strings

Suppose we need to swap two strings. A simple swapstring function can be written as follows.

```
void swapstrings(char A[], char B[]){  
    char tmp[10];  
    strcpy(tmp, A);  
    strcpy(A, B);  
    strcpy(B, tmp);  
}
```

Note that it is important to do **string copy**, instead of just assigning addresses of strings that would only result in a local change. Here is a wrongswapstrings.

```
void wrongswapstrings(char A[], char B[]){  
    char tmp[10];  
    tmp = A;  
    A = B;  
    B = tmp;  
}
```

#### Caution

#### scanf("%s", buffer) and gets()

These functions are vulnerable to buffer overflows and may pose some security problems. **Never** use them in your programs. You can use fgets instead.

Unlike java C does not come with a extensive API for string operations. However, C library, <string.h> provides a decent collection of functions that can be used to accomplish any task. You can find more about <string.h> by typing:

```
% man string.h
```

#### NAME

string.h - string operations

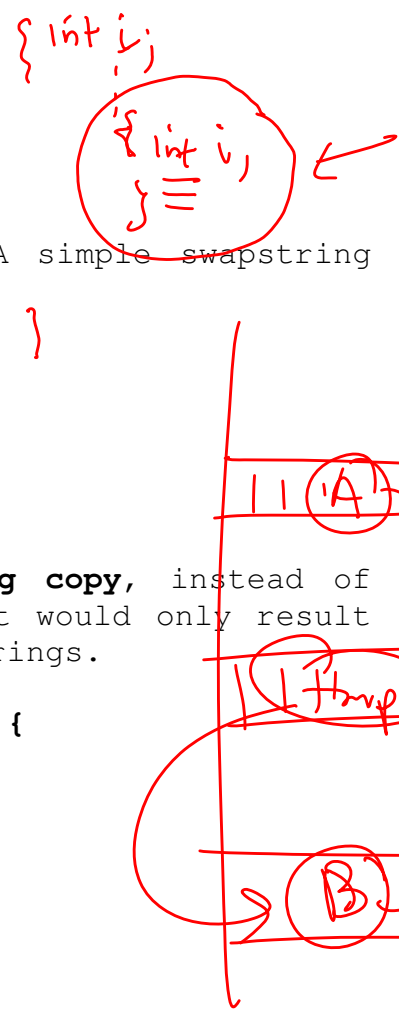
#### SYNOPSIS

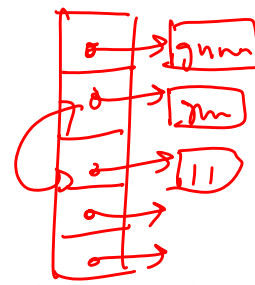
```
#include <string.h>
```

#### DESCRIPTION

Some of the functionality described on this reference page extends the ISO C standard. Applications shall define the appropriate feature test macro (see the System Interfaces volume of IEEE Std 1003.1-2001, Section 2.2, The Compilation Environment) to enable the visibility of these symbols in this header.

void\* A, void\* b





### 3.8 String.h methods

C strings are supported by the string.h library. The following functions are available.

<b>Copying</b>	
void *memcpy(void *dest, const void *src, size_t n);	The memcpy() function copies n bytes from memory area src to memory area dest. The memory areas may not overlap.
void *memmove(void *dest, const void *src, size_t n);	The memmove() function copies n bytes from memory area src to memory area dest. The memory areas may overlap.
char *strcpy(char *dest, const char *src);	The strcpy() function copies the string pointed to by src (including the terminating '\0' character) to the array pointed to by dest. The strings may not overlap, and the destination string dest must be large enough to receive the copy.
char *strncpy(char *dest, const char *src, size_t n);	The strncpy() function is similar, except that not more than n bytes of src are copied. Thus, if there is no null byte among the first n bytes of src, the result will not be null-terminated.
<b>Concatenation</b>	
char *strcat(char *dest, const char *src);	The strcat() function appends the src string to the dest string over-writing the '\0' character at the end of dest, and then adds a terminating '\0' character. The strings may not overlap, and the dest string must have enough space for the result.
char *strncat(char *dest, const char *src, size_t n);	The strncat() function is similar, except that only the first n characters of src are appended to dest.
<b>Comparison</b>	
int memcmp(const void *s1, const void *s2, size_t n);	The memcmp() function compares the first n bytes of the memory areas s1 and s2. It returns an integer less than, equal to, or greater than zero if s1 is found, respectively, to be less than, to match, or be greater than s2.
int strcmp(const char *s1, const char *s2);	The strcmp() function compares the two strings s1 and s2. It returns an integer less than, equal to, or greater than zero if s1 is found, respectively, to be less than, to match, or be greater than s2.
int strncmp(const char *s1, const char *s2, size_t n);	The strncmp() function is similar, except it only compares the first (at most) n characters of s1 and s2.

<b>Searching</b>	
char *strchr(const char *s, int c);	The strchr() function returns a pointer to the first occurrence of the character c in the string s.
char *strrchr(const char *s, int c);	The strrchr() function returns a pointer to the last occurrence of the character c in the string s.
char *strtok(char *s, const char *delim);	The strtok() function can be used to parse the string s into tokens. The first call to strtok() should have s as its first argument. Subsequent calls should have the first argument set to NULL. Each call returns a pointer to the next token, or NULL when no more tokens are found.
char *strstr(const char *haystack, const char *needle);	The strstr() function finds the first occurrence of the substring needle in the string haystack. The terminating '\0' characters are not compared.
<b>Other</b>	
void *memset(void *s, int c, size_t n);	The memset() function fills the first n bytes of the memory area pointed to by s with the constant byte c.
size_t strlen(const char *s);	The strlen() function calculates the length of the string s, not including the terminating '\0' character.
void *memchr(const void *s, int c, size_t n);	The memchr() function scans the first n bytes of the memory area pointed to by s for the character c. The first byte to match c (interpreted as an unsigned character) stops the operation.

Source: man unix

### 3.9 Tokenizing a String

String tokenization is a very useful operation in many applications. For example, we may have to extract data from a comma separated file (CSV). In this case we need to extract tokens separated by comma delimiter. A String can be tokenized according to a delimiter. For example, let us assume we need to tokenize string S and the delimiter is the blank. The following code can be used to tokenize the string into tokens.

```
char* tk = strtok(S, " ");
do {
    printf("%s\n", tk);
} while ((tk=strtok(NULL, " ")) != NULL);
```

Note that the first call to the strtok uses the original string S and the subsequent calls we are passing NULL. When there are no more tokens. Strtok returns NULL and the while loop ends.

### 3.10 Introduction to Pointers

Given a variable x, we define lvalue as the address where the variable is held and rvalue as the content of the variable. For example,

```
int x = 10;
```

would result in compiler allocating memory (of 4 bytes) from the stack for variable x. Therefore the lvalue of the variable is the address of x or &x. The rvalue is 10. This is a great distinction between c variables and java variables. We call x a reference to the variable x and &x, a pointer to the variable x.

As we discussed in the case of a C string, char\* is a pointer to a character or an address of a character. Similarly, we can define int\*, double\* to indicate the address of an int, address of a double etc. In other words we can define a pointer to any variable.

In general, a pointer is an address in the memory. Given a variable x, one can find its address using the **& unary operator**

The following simple program shows you how to find the address of an allocated variable x.

```
#include <stdio.h>
int main(int argc, char* argv[]){
    int x = 10;
    printf("The address of %d is %x \n", x, &x);
    return 1;
}
```

For example if a variable x has the address **bf9b4bf4** that means that the address of the first byte of the 4 bytes allocated for variable x is bf9b4bf4.

**Quiz: What are the addresses of the other 3 bytes?**

Sometimes, it is easier to understand this notion in the context of an array. Suppose a C array of integers is defined as

```
int A[3];
```

The following statement allows us to see where this array is stored.

```
printf("The address of A is %x \n", A);
```

Note that `&` is not used to find the address of the array. That's because the name of the array is in fact a pointer to the array (or the address of the first element `A[0]` of the array). The address of next element of array `A` is `A+1`. However, the meaning of `A+1` depends on the type of `A`. For example, if `A` is an array of chars, then `A+1` can be obtained by adding 1 to the address of `A`. However, if `A` is an array of ints, then `A+1` must be obtained by adding 4 bytes to `A` (why?). So we have the following understanding of arrays.

```
A = &A[0], A+1 = &A[1], ... etc..
```

### 3.11 Dereferencing Pointers

Given the address of a variable, the address can be dereferenced to find the actual content of that location. For example, consider the following code

```
int x = 10;  
printf("%d \n", *(&x));
```

The output of the code is equivalent to printing the value of `x`. Compiler will interpret `*(&x)` as the content stored at 4 bytes starting at address of `x`. (why 4 bytes?)

### 3.12 Pointer Variables

We now know how to define standard variables of types `char`, `int`, `double` etc. C also allow users to define variables of type pointer (or address). A pointer or address variable to an `int` is defined as:

```
int* ptr;
```

The `*` can be placed anywhere between `int` and `ptr`. Compiler will consider `ptr` to be an address of a variable of `int` type. Therefore any dereferencing of the `ptr` variable will cause the program to look for 4 bytes of memory. Similarly

we can define `double*`, `char*`, `long*`, `void*` etc. Memory can be viewed as an array of bytes and once a variable is declared, the address of the variable and the value of the variable are stored in the memory as follows.



see annotated notes

Now we can assign the address of a variable declared to a pointer as follows.

```
int x = 10;  
int* xptr = &x;
```

Dereferencing `xptr` will now give access to the value of the variable. Dereferencing is done using the unary operator `*`. For example the following line of code will print `x` using its direct reference and its pointer reference.

```
printf("The value of x is %d or %d\n", x, *xptr);
```

It is important to be careful about using pointer variables. For example the following code:

```
double x = 109.34;  
int* xptr = &x;  
printf("The value of x is %lf or %lf\n", x, *xptr);
```

will give a warning and may cause a "segmentation fault" as `*xptr` tries to dereference 4 bytes of memory or gives an incorrect output.

## References

[1] K & R chapters 5.1-5.4 (pages 93-100)

## Exercises

3.1. A typical entry on CMU student records looks like this

**S07,gunadean,Guna,Dean,SCS,CS,2,L,4,15111 ,1 ,,**

The course data file is a file where each line contains the following information: semester, computer id, student's last name, student's first name, college, department, class, grade option, qpa scale, course and section. Write a function that takes a typical entry as a string and break down its fields into appropriate data types. Output a file containing just the Andrew ID's

3.2 What is wrong with the following code?

```
{char *s1 = "Hello, "; char *s2 = "world!"; char *s3 = strcat(s1, s2);}
```

3.3 What happens with this code? Please explain

```
char* s = "guna\0";  
char buffer[20];  
printf("%s is of length %d\n",s, strlen(s));  
strcpy(s, buffer); // strcpy(dest,source)
```

3.4 Why is this function is bad? Find all problems you can think of.

```
char* badfunction(int n){  
    char A[n];  
    strcpy(A,"ghfhfhfhhfhdfasfff",n);  
    return A;  
}
```

3.5 Explain why calling this function would not swap two integers A and B.

```
void intswap(int x, int y){  
    int temp = x;  
    x = y;  
    y = temp;  
}
```

```
int main(){  
    int A=10, B=20;  
    intswap(A,B);  
}
```

3.6 Explain why calling this function would not swap two strings A and B.

```
void stringswap(char x[], char y[]){  
    char temp[10] = x;  
    x = y;  
    y = temp;  
}
```

```
int main(){  
    char A[10]="guna\0", B[10]="me\0";
```

```
stringswap(A,B);  
}
```

3.7 What is the output of the following. If there are errors please state the error type.

```
void Question9() {  
    char *string, *x;  
    string = (char *)malloc(20*sizeof(char));  
    strcpy(string, "Hello World.");  
    x=string;  
    for( ; *x != '\0'; x++) {  
        printf("%c", *x);  
    }  
    printf("\n");  
}
```