FFI: Racket Foreign Interface

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(require ffi/unsafe)

The ffi/unsafe library enables the direct use of C-based APIs within Racket programs—without writing any new C code. From the Racket perspective, functions and data with a C-based API are *foreign*, hence the term *foreign interface*. Furthermore, since most APIs consist mostly of functions, the foreign interface is sometimes called a *foreign function interface*, abbreviated *FFI*.

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1 Overview

Although using the FFI requires writing no new C code, it provides very little insulation against the issues that C programmer faces related to safety and memory management. An FFI programmer must be particularly aware of memory management issues for data that spans the Racket–C divide. Thus, this manual relies in many ways on the information in *Inside:* Racket C API, which defines how Racket interacts with C APIs in general.

Since using the FFI entails many safety concerns that Racket programmers can normally ignore, the library name includes unsafe. Importing the library macro should be considered as a declaration that your code is itself unsafe, therefore can lead to serious problems in case of bugs: it is your responsibility to provide a safe interface. If your library provides an unsafe interface, then it should have unsafe in its name, too.

For examples of common FFI usage patterns, see the defined interfaces in the "ffi" collection.

2 Loading Foreign Libraries

The FFI is normally used by extracting functions and other objects from shared objects (a.k.a. *shared libraries* or *dynamically loaded libraries*). The ffi-lib function loads a shared object.

```
\begin{array}{c}
(\text{ffi-lib? } v) \rightarrow \text{boolean} \\
v : \text{any/c}
\end{array}
```

Returns #t if v is the result of ffi-lib, #f otherwise.

```
(ffi-lib path [version]) → any
  path : (or/c path-string? #f)
  version : (or/c string? (listof (or/c string? #f)) #f) = #f
```

Returns an foreign-library value. If path is a path, the result represents the foreign library, which is opened in an OS-specific way (using LoadLibrary under Windows, and dlopen under Unix and Mac OS X).

The path is not expected to contain the library suffix, which is added according to the current platform. If adding the suffix fails, several other filename variations are tried: retrying without an automatically added suffix, and using a full path of a file if it exists relative to the current directory (since the OS-level library function usually searches, unless the library name is an absolute path). An optional *version* string can be supplied, which is appended to the name before or after the suffix, depending on platform conventions, unless it is #f or "". If *version* is a list, ffi-lib will try each of them in order.

If path is #f, then the resulting foreign-library value represents all libraries loaded in the current process, including libraries previously opened with ffi-lib. In particular, use #f to access C-level functionality exported by the run-time system (as described in *Inside*: *Racket C API*).

Note: ffi-lib tries to look for the library file in a few places, including the Racket libraries path (see get-lib-search-dirs), a relative path, or a system search. When version is a list, different versions are tried through each route before continuing the search with other routes. However, if dlopen cannot open a library, there is no reliable way to know why it failed, so if all path combinations fail, it will raise an error with the result of dlopen on the unmodified argument name. For example, if you have a local "foo.so" library that cannot be loaded because of a missing symbol, using (ffi-lib "foo.so") will fail with all its search options, most because the library is not found, and once because of the missing symbol, and eventually produce an error message that comes from dlopen("foo.so") which will look like the file is not found. In such cases try to specify a full or relative path (containing slashes, e.g., "./foo.so").

Note! Because of the way the operating system performs dynamic binding, loaded libraries are associated with Racket or DrRacket for the duration of the process; re-evaluating ffi-lib and/or hitting the "Run" button will not force a re-load of the corresponding library.

```
(get-ffi-obj objname lib type [failure-thunk]) → any
objname : (or/c string? bytes? symbol?)
lib : (or/c ffi-lib? path-string? #f)
type : ctype?
failure-thunk : (or/c (-> any) #f) = #f
```

Looks for the given object name objname in the given lib library. If lib is not a foreign-library value produced by ffi-lib, it is converted to one by calling ffi-lib. If objname is found in lib, it is converted to Racket using the given type. Types are described in §3 "C Types"; in particular the get-ffi-obj procedure is most often used with function types created with _fun.

Keep in mind that get-ffi-obj is an unsafe procedure; see §1 "Overview" for details.

If the object is not found, and failure-thunk is provided, it is used to produce a return value. For example, a failure thunk can be provided to report a specific error if an object is not found:

The default (also when failure-thunk is provided as #f) is to raise an exception.

```
(set-ffi-obj! objname lib type new) → void?
objname : (or/c string? bytes? symbol?)
lib : (or/c ffi-lib? path-string? #f)
type : ctype?
new : any/c
```

Looks for *objname* in *lib* similarly to get-ffi-obj, but then it stores the given *new* value into the library, converting it to a C value. This can be used for setting library customization variables that are part of its interface, including Racket callbacks.

```
(make-c-parameter\ objname\ lib\ type)\ \rightarrow\ (and/c\ (->any)\\ (any/c\ ->\ void?)) objname\ :\ (or/c\ string?\ bytes?\ symbol?) lib\ :\ (or/c\ ffi-lib?\ path-string?\ \#f)
```

```
type : ctype?
```

Returns a parameter-like procedure that can either references the specified foreign value, or set it. The arguments are handled as in get-ffi-obj.

A parameter-like function is useful in case Racket code and library code interact through a library value. Although make-c-parameter can be used with any time, it is not recommended to use this for foreign functions, since each reference through the parameter will construct the low-level interface before the actual call.

```
(define-c id lib-expr type-expr)
```

Defines id behave like a Racket binding, but id is actually redirected through a parameter-like procedure created by make-c-parameter. The id is used both for the Racket binding and for the foreign object's name.

```
(ffi-obj-ref objname lib [failure-thunk]) → any
  objname : (or/c string? bytes? symbol?)
  lib : (or/c ffi-lib? path-string? #f)
  failure-thunk : (or/c (-> any) #f) = #f
```

Returns a pointer object for the specified foreign object. This procedure is for rare cases where make-c-parameter is insufficient, because there is no type to cast the foreign object to (e.g., a vector of numbers).

3 C Types

C types are the main concept of the FFI, either primitive types or user-defined types. The FFI deals with primitive types internally, converting them to and from C types. A user type is defined in terms of existing primitive and user types, along with conversion functions to and from the existing types.

3.1 Type Constructors

```
\begin{array}{l} (\text{make-ctype type scheme-to-c c-to-scheme}) \rightarrow \text{ctype?} \\ \text{type : ctype?} \\ \text{scheme-to-c : (or/c #f (any/c . -> . any))} \\ \text{c-to-scheme : (or/c #f (any/c . -> . any))} \end{array}
```

Creates a new C type value whose representation for foreign code is the same as type's. The given conversions functions convert to and from the Racket representation of type. Either conversion function can be #f, meaning that the conversion for the corresponding direction is the identity function. If both functions are #f, type is returned.

```
\frac{\text{(ctype? } v) \rightarrow \text{boolean?}}{v : \text{any/c}}
```

Returns #t if v is a C type, #f otherwise.

```
(ctype-sizeof type) → exact-nonnegative-integer?
  type : ctype?
(ctype-alignof type) → exact-nonnegative-integer?
  type : ctype?
```

Returns the size or alignment of a given type for the current platform.

```
(ctype->layout type)
    → (flat-rec-contract rep symbol? (listof rep))
    type : ctype?
```

Returns a value to describe the eventual C representation of the type. It can be any of the following symbols:

```
'int8 'uint8 'int16 'uint16 'int32 'uint32 'int64 'uint64 'float 'double 'bool 'void 'pointer 'fpointer 'bytes 'string/ucs-4 'string/utf-16
```

The result can also be a list, which describes a C struct whose element representations are provided in order within the list.

```
(compiler-sizeof sym) → exact-nonnegative-integer?
sym : symbol?
```

Possible values for symbol are 'int, 'char, 'short, 'long, '*, 'void, 'float, 'double. The result is the size of the correspond type according to the C sizeof operator for the current platform. The compiler-sizeof operation should be used to gather information about the current platform, such as defining alias type like _int to a known type like _int32.

3.2 Numeric Types

```
_int8 : ctype?
_sint8 : ctype?
_uint8 : ctype?
_int16 : ctype?
_sint16 : ctype?
_uint16 : ctype?
_int32 : ctype?
_sint32 : ctype?
_uint32 : ctype?
_uint32 : ctype?
_uint34 : ctype?
_uint64 : ctype?
_uint64 : ctype?
_uint64 : ctype?
```

The basic integer types at various sizes. The s or u prefix specifies a signed or an unsigned integer, respectively; the ones with no prefix are signed.

```
_byte : ctype?
_sbyte : ctype?
_ubyte : ctype?
_short : ctype?
_sshort : ctype?
_ushort : ctype?
_int : ctype?
_sint : ctype?
_uint : ctype?
_word : ctype?
_sword : ctype?
_uword : ctype?
```

```
_long : ctype?
_slong : ctype?
_ulong : ctype?
_llong : ctype?
_sllong : ctype?
_ullong : ctype?
_intptr : ctype?
_sintptr : ctype?
_uintptr : ctype?
```

Aliases for basic integer types. The _byte aliases correspond to _int8. The _short and _word aliases correspond to _int16. The _int aliases correspond to _int32. The _long aliases correspond to either _int32 or _int64, depending on the platform.

```
_fixnum : ctype?
_ufixnum : ctype?
```

For cases where speed matters and where you know that the integer is small enough, the types _fixnum and _ufixnum are similar to _long and _ulong but assume that the quantities fit in Racket's immediate integers (i.e., not bignums).

```
_fixint : ctype?
_ufixint : ctype?
```

Like _fixnum and _ufixnum, but coercions from C are checked to be in range.

```
_float : ctype?
_double : ctype?
_double* : ctype?
```

The _float and _double types represent the corresponding C types. The type _double* that implicitly coerces any real number to a C double.

3.3 Other Atomic Types

```
_bool : ctype?

Translates #f to a 0 _int, and any other value to 1.

_void : ctype?
```

Indicates a Racket #<void> return value, and it cannot be used to translate values to C. This type cannot be used for function inputs.

3.4 String Types

3.4.1 Primitive String Types

The five primitive string types correspond to cases where a C representation matches Racket's representation without encodings.

The form _bytes form can be used type for Racket byte strings, which corresponds to C's char* type. In addition to translating byte strings, #f corresponds to the NULL pointer.

```
_string/ucs-4 : ctype?
```

A type for Racket's native Unicode strings, which are in UCS-4 format. These correspond to the C mzchar* type used by Racket. As usual, the types treat #f as NULL and vice versa.

```
_string/utf-16 : ctype?
```

Unicode strings in UTF-16 format. As usual, the types treat #f as NULL and vice versa.

```
_path : ctype?
```

Simple char* strings, corresponding to Racket's paths. As usual, the types treat #f as NULL and vice versa.

Beware that changing the current directory via current-directory does not change the OS-level current directory as seen by foreign library functions. Paths normally should be converted to absolute form using path->complete-path (which uses the current-directory parameter) before passing them to a foreign function.

```
_symbol : ctype?
```

Simple char* strings as Racket symbols (encoded in UTF-8). Return values using this type are interned as symbols.

3.4.2 Fixed Auto-Converting String Types

```
_string/utf-8 : ctype?
_string/latin-1 : ctype?
_string/locale : ctype?
```

Types that correspond to (character) strings on the Racket side and char* strings on the C side. The bridge between the two requires a transformation on the content of the string. As usual, the types treat #f as NULL and vice versa.

```
_string*/utf-8 : ctype?
_string*/latin-1 : ctype?
_string*/locale : ctype?
```

Similar to _string/utf-8, etc., but accepting a wider range of values: Racket byte strings are allowed and passed as is, and Racket paths are converted using path->bytes.

3.4.3 Variable Auto-Converting String Type

The _string/ucs-4 type is rarely useful when interacting with foreign code, while using _bytes is somewhat unnatural, since it forces Racket programmers to use byte strings. Using _string/utf-8, etc., meanwhile, may prematurely commit to a particular encoding of strings as bytes. The _string type supports conversion between Racket strings and char* strings using a parameter-determined conversion.

```
_string : ctype?
```

Expands to a use of the default-_string-type parameter. The parameter's value is consulted when _string is evaluated, so the parameter should be set before any interface definition that uses _string.

```
(default-_string-type) → ctype?
(default-_string-type type) → void?
  type : ctype?
```

A parameter that determines the current meaning of _string. It is initially set to _string*/utf-8. If you change it, do so *before* interfaces are defined.

3.4.4 Other String Types

```
_file : ctype?
```

Like _path, but when values go from Racket to C, cleanse-path is used on the given value. As an output value, it is identical to _path.

```
_bytes/eof : ctype?
```

Similar to the _bytes type, except that a foreign return value of NULL is translated to a Racket eof value.

```
_string/eof : ctype?
```

Similar to the <u>_string</u> type, except that a foreign return value of NULL is translated to a Racket eof value.

3.5 Pointer Types

```
_pointer : ctype?
```

Corresponds to Racket "C pointer" objects. These pointers can have an arbitrary Racket object attached as a type tag. The tag is ignored by built-in functionality; it is intended to be used by interfaces. See §5.3 "Tagged C Pointer Types" for creating pointer types that use these tags for safety. A #f value is converted to NULL and vice versa.

The address referenced by a _pointer value must not refer to memory managed by the garbage collector (unless the address corresponds to a value that supports interior pointers and that is otherwise referenced to preserve the value from garbage collection). The reference is not traced or updated by the garbage collector.

```
_gcpointer : ctype?
```

Like _pointer, but for a value that can refer to memory managed by the garbage collector.

Although a _gcpointer can reference to memory that is not managed by the garbage collector, beware of using an address that might eventually become managed by the garbage collector. For example, if a reference is created by malloc with 'raw and released by free, then the free may allow the memory formerly occupied by the reference to be used later by the garbage collector.

```
_racket : ctype?
_scheme : ctype?
```

A type that can be used with any Racket object; it corresponds to the Scheme_Object* type of Racket's C API (see *Inside: Racket C API*). It is useful only for libraries that are aware of Racket's C API.

```
_fpointer : ctype?
```

Similar to _pointer, except that when an _fpointer is extracted from a pointer produced by ffi-obj-ref, then a level of indirection is skipped. A level of indirection is similarly skipped when extracting a pointer via get-ffi-obj. Like _pointer, _fpointer treats #f as NULL and vice versa.

A type generated by _cprocedure builds on _fpointer, and normally _cprocedure should be used instead of _fpointer.

```
(_or-null ctype) → ctype?
ctype : ctype?
```

Creates a type that is like ctype, but #f is converted to NULL and vice versa. The given ctype must have the same C representation as _pointer, _gcpointer, or _fpointer.

```
(_gcable ctype) → ctype?
ctype : ctype?
```

Creates a type that is like *ctype*, but whose base representation is like _gcpointer instead of _pointer. The given *ctype* must have a base representation like _pointer or _gcpointer (and in the later case, the result is the *ctype*).

3.6 Function Types

```
output-type : ctype?
abi : (or/c #f 'default 'stdcall 'sysv) = #f
atomic? : any/c = #f
async-apply : (or/c #f ((-> any) . -> . any)) = #f
save-errno : (or/c #f 'posix 'windows) = #f
wrapper : (or/c #f (procedure? . -> . procedure?)) = #f
keep : (or/c boolean? box? (any/c . -> . any/c)) = #t
```

A type constructor that creates a new function type, which is specified by the given *input-types* list and *output-type*. Usually, the _fun syntax (described below) should be used instead, since it manages a wide range of complicated cases.

The resulting type can be used to reference foreign functions (usually ffi-objs, but any pointer object can be referenced with this type), generating a matching foreign callout object. Such objects are new primitive procedure objects that can be used like any other Racket procedure. As with other pointer types, #f is treated as a NULL function pointer and vice versa.

A type created with _cprocedure can also be used for passing Racket procedures to foreign functions, which will generate a foreign function pointer that calls the given Racket procedure when it is used. There are no restrictions on the Racket procedure; in particular, its lexical context is properly preserved.

The optional abi keyword argument determines the foreign ABI that is used. #f or 'default will use a platform-dependent default; other possible values are 'stdcall and 'sysv (the latter corresponds to "cdecl"). This is especially important on Windows, where most system functions are 'stdcall, which is not the default.

If atomic? is true, then when a Racket procedure is given this procedure type and called from foreign code, then the Racket process is put into atomic mode while evaluating the Racket procedure body. In atomic mode, other Racket threads do not run, so the Racket code must not call any function that potentially blocks on synchronization with other threads, or else it may lead to deadlock. In addition, the Racket code must not perform any potentially blocking operation (such as I/O), it must not raise an uncaught exception, it must not perform any escaping continuation jumps, and its non-tail recursion must be minimal to avoid C-level stack overflow; otherwise, the process may crash or misbehave.

If an <code>async-apply</code> procedure is provided, then a Racket procedure with the generated procedure type can be applied in a foreign thread (i.e., an OS-level thread other than the one used to run Racket). The call in the foreign thread is transferred to the OS-level thread that runs Racket, but the Racket-level thread (in the sense of <code>thread</code>) is unspecified; the job of <code>async-apply</code> is to arrange for the callback procedure to be run in a suitable Racket thread. The <code>async-apply</code> function is applied to a thunk that encapsulates the specific callback invocation, and the foreign OS-level thread blocks until the thunk is called and completes; the thunk must be called exactly once, and the callback invocation must return normally. The <code>async-apply</code> procedure itself is called in atomic mode (see <code>atomic?</code> above). If the callback is known to complete quickly, requires no synchronization, and works independent of

the Racket thread in which it runs, then async-apply can apply the thunk directly. Otherwise, async-apply must arrange for the thunk to be applied in a suitable Racket thread sometime after async-apply itself returns; if the thunk raises an exception or synchronizes within an unsuitable Racket-level thread, it can deadlock or otherwise damage the Racket process. Foreign-thread detection to trigger async-apply works only when Racket is compiled with OS-level thread support, which is the default for many platforms. If a callback with an async-apply is called from foreign code in the same OS-level thread that runs Racket, then the async-apply wrapper is not used.

If <code>save-errno</code> is 'posix, then the value of errno is saved (specific to the current thread) immediately after a foreign function returns. The saved value is accessible through <code>saved-errno</code>. If <code>save-errno</code> is 'windows, then the value of <code>GetLastError()</code> is saved for later use via <code>saved-errno</code>; the 'windows option is available only under Windows (on other platforms <code>saved-errno</code> will return 0). If <code>save-errno</code> is <code>#f</code>, no error value is saved automatically. The error-recording support provided by <code>save-errno</code> is needed because the Racket runtime system may otherwise preempt the current Racket thread and itself call functions that set error values.

The optional wrapper, if provided, is expected to be a function that can change a callout procedure: when a callout is generated, the wrapper is applied on the newly created primitive procedure, and its result is used as the new function. Thus, wrapper is a hook that can perform various argument manipulations before the foreign function is invoked, and return different results (for example, grabbing a value stored in an "output" pointer and returning multiple values). It can also be used for callbacks, as an additional layer that tweaks arguments from the foreign code before they reach the Racket procedure, and possibly changes the result values too.

Sending Racket functions as callbacks to foreign code is achieved by translating them to a foreign "closure," which foreign code can call as plain C functions. Additional care must be taken in case the foreign code might hold on to the callback function. In these cases you must arrange for the callback value to not be garbage-collected, or the held callback will become invalid. The optional <code>keep</code> keyword argument is used to achieve this. It can have the following values:

- #t makes the callback value stay in memory as long as the converted function is. In order to use this, you need to hold on to the original function, for example, have a binding for it. Note that each function can hold onto one callback value (it is stored in a weak hash table), so if you need to use a function in multiple callbacks you will need to use one of the last two options below. (This is the default, as it is fine in most cases.)
- #f means that the callback value is not held. This may be useful for a callback that is only used for the duration of the foreign call for example, the comparison function argument to the standard C library qsort function is only used while qsort is working, and no additional references to the comparison function are kept. Use this option only in such cases, when no holding is necessary and you want to avoid the extra cost.

- A box holding #f (or a callback value) in this case the callback value will be stored in the box, overriding any value that was in the box (making it useful for holding a single callback value). When you know that it is no longer needed, you can "release" the callback value by changing the box contents, or by allowing the box itself to be garbage-collected. This is can be useful if the box is held for a dynamic extent that corresponds to when the callback is needed; for example, you might encapsulate some foreign functionality in a Racket class or a unit, and keep the callback box as a field in new instances or instantiations of the unit.
- A box holding null (or any list) this is similar to the previous case, except that new
 callback values are consed onto the contents of the box. It is therefore useful in (rare)
 cases when a Racket function is used in multiple callbacks (that is, sent to foreign
 code to hold onto multiple times).
- Finally, if a one-argument function is provided as keep, it will be invoked with the callback value when it is generated. This allows you to grab the value directly and use it in any way.

```
(_fun fun-option ... maybe-args type-spec ... -> type-spec
      maybe-wrapper)
   fun-option = #:abi abi-expr
             #:save-errno save-errno-expr
              #:keep keep-expr
              #:atomic? atomic?-expr
              #:async-apply async-apply-expr
   maybe-args =
              | (id ...) ::
              | id ::
| (id ... . id) ::
    type-spec = type-expr
             (id: type-expr)
              | (type-expr = value-expr)
              | (id : type-expr = value-expr)
maybe-wrapper =
             | -> output-expr
```

Creates a new function type. The _fun form is a convenient syntax for the _cprocedure type constructor. In its simplest form, only the input type-exprs and the output type-expr are specified, and each types is a simple expression, which creates a straightforward function type.

For instance,

```
(_fun _int _string -> _int)
```

specifies a function that receives an integer and a string, and returns an integer.

In its full form, the _fun syntax provides an IDL-like language that can be used to create a wrapper function around the primitive foreign function. These wrappers can implement complex foreign interfaces given simple specifications. The full form of each of the type specifications can include an optional label and an expression. If a = value-expr is provided, then the resulting function will be a wrapper that calculates the argument for that position itself, meaning that it does not expect an argument for that position. The expression can use previous arguments if they were labeled with id:. In addition, the result of a function call need not be the value returned from the foreign call: if the optional output-expr is specified, or if an expression is provided for the output type, then this specifies an expression that will be used as a return value. This expression can use any of the previous labels, including a label given for the output which can be used to access the actual foreign return value.

In rare cases where complete control over the input arguments is needed, the wrapper's argument list can be specified as args, in any form (including a "rest" argument). Identifiers in this place are related to type labels, so if an argument is there is no need to use an expression.

For example,

```
(_fun (n s) :: (s : _string) (n : _int) -> _int)
```

specifies a function that receives an integer and a string, but the foreign function receives the string first.

```
(function-ptr ptr-or-proc fun-type) → cpointer?
  ptr-or-proc : (or cpointer? procedure?)
  fun-type : ctype?
```

Casts ptr-or-proc to a function pointer of type fun-type.

3.6.1 Custom Function Types

The behavior of the _fun type can be customized via *custom function types*, which are pieces of syntax that can behave as C types and C type constructors, but they can interact with function calls in several ways that are not possible otherwise. When the _fun form is expanded, it tries to expand each of the given type expressions, and ones that expand to certain keyword-value lists interact with the generation of the foreign function wrapper. This expansion makes it possible to construct a single wrapper function, avoiding the costs involved in compositions of higher-order functions.

Custom function types are macros that expand to a sequence (key: val ...), where each

key: is from a short list of known keys. Each key interacts with generated wrapper functions in a different way, which affects how its corresponding argument is treated:

- type: specifies the foreign type that should be used, if it is #f then this argument does not participate in the foreign call.
- expr: specifies an expression to be used for arguments of this type, removing it from wrapper arguments.
- bind: specifies a name that is bound to the original argument if it is required later (e.g., _box converts its associated value to a C pointer, and later needs to refer back to the original box).
- 1st-arg: specifies a name that can be used to refer to the first argument of the foreign call (good for common cases where the first argument has a special meaning, e.g., for method calls).
- prev-arg: similar to 1st-arg:, but refers to the previous argument.
- pre: a pre-foreign code chunk that is used to change the argument's value.
- post: a similar post-foreign code chunk.
- keywords: specifies keyword/value expressions that will be used with the surrounding _fun form. (Note: the keyword/value sequence follows keywords:, not parenthesized.)

The pre: and post: bindings can be of the form (id = > expr) to use the existing value. Note that if the pre: expression is not (id = > expr), then it means that there is no input for this argument to the _fun-generated procedure. Also note that if a custom type is used as an output type of a function, then only the post: code is used.

Most custom types are meaningful only in a _fun context, and will raise a syntax error if used elsewhere. A few such types can be used in non-_fun contexts: types which use only type:, pre:, post:, and no others. Such custom types can be used outside a _fun by expanding them into a usage of make-ctype, using other keywords makes this impossible, because it means that the type has specific interaction with a function call.

```
(define-fun-syntax id transformer-expr)
```

Binds id as a custom function type. The type is expanded by applying the procedure produced by transformer-expr to a use of the custom function type.

_?

A custom function type that is a marker for expressions that should not be sent to the foreign function. Use this to bind local values in a computation that is part of an ffi wrapper interface,

or to specify wrapper arguments that are not sent to the foreign function (e.g., an argument that is used for processing the foreign output).

Creates a C pointer type, where mode indicates input or output pointers (or both). The mode can be one of the following:

- i indicates an *input* pointer argument: the wrapper arranges for the function call to receive a value that can be used with the type and to send a pointer to this value to the foreign function. After the call, the value is discarded.
- o indicates an *output* pointer argument: the foreign function expects a pointer to a place where it will save some value, and this value is accessible after the call, to be used by an extra return expression. If _ptr is used in this mode, then the generated wrapper does not expect an argument since one will be freshly allocated before the call.
- io combines the above into an *input/output* pointer argument: the wrapper gets the Racket value, allocates and set a pointer using this value, and then references the value after the call. The "_ptr" name can be confusing here: it means that the foreign function expects a pointer, but the generated wrapper uses an actual value. (Note that if this is used with structs, a struct is created when calling the function, and a copy of the return value is made too—which is inefficient, but ensures that structs are not modified by C code.)

For example, the _ptr type can be used in output mode to create a foreign function wrapper that returns more than a single argument. The following type:

```
(_fun (i : (_ptr o _int))

-> (d : _double)

-> (values d i))
```

creates a function that calls the foreign function with a fresh integer pointer, and use the value that is placed there as a second return value.

```
_box
```

A custom function type similar to a (_ptr io type) argument, where the input is expected to be a box holding an appropriate value, which is unboxed on entry and modified accordingly on exit.

A custom function type that is similar to _ptr, except that it is used for converting lists to/from C vectors. The optional <code>maybe-len</code> argument is needed for output values where it is used in the post code, and in the pre code of an output mode to allocate the block. In either case, it can refer to a previous binding for the length of the list which the C function will most likely require.

```
(_vector mode type maybe-len)
```

A custom function type like _list, except that it uses Racket vectors instead of lists.

```
(_bytes o len-expr)
_bytes
```

A custom function type that can be used by itself as a simple type for a byte string as a C pointer. Alternatively, the second form is for a pointer return value, where the size should be explicitly specified.

There is no need for other modes: input or input/output would be just like _bytes, since the string carries its size information (there is no real need for the o part of the syntax, but it is present for consistency with the above macros).

3.7 C Struct Types

```
(make-cstruct-type types [abi alignment]) → ctype?
  types : (listof ctype?)
  abi : (or/c #f 'default 'stdcall 'sysv) = #f
  alignment : (or/c #f 1 2 4 8 16) = #f
```

The primitive type constructor for creating new C struct types. These types are actually new primitive types; they have no conversion functions associated. The corresponding Racket objects that are used for structs are pointers, but when these types are used, the value that the pointer *refers to* is used, rather than the pointer itself. This value is basically made of a

number of bytes that is known according to the given list of types list.

If alignment is #f, then the natural alignment of each type in types is used for its alignment within the struct type. Otherwise, alignment is used for all struct type members.

A type constructor that builds a struct type using make-cstruct-type function and wraps it in a type that marshals a struct as a list of its components. Note that space for structs must to be allocated; the converter for a _list-struct type immediately allocates and uses a list from the allocated space, so it is inefficient. Use define-cstruct below for a more efficient approach.

Defines a new C struct type, but unlike <code>_list-struct</code>, the resulting type deals with C structs in binary form, rather than marshaling them to Racket values. The syntax is similar to <code>define-struct</code>, providing accessor functions for raw struct values (which are pointer objects). The new type uses pointer tags to guarantee that only proper struct objects are used. The <code>_id</code> must start with <code>_</code>.

The resulting bindings are as follows:

- _id : the new C type for this struct.
- _id-pointer: a pointer type that should be used when a pointer to values of this struct are used.
- *id*?: a predicate for the new type.
- id-tag: the tag string object that is used with instances.
- make-id: a constructor, which expects an argument for each type.
- id-field-id: an accessor function for each field-id.
- set-id-field-id!: a mutator function for each field-id.

• id: structure-type information compatible with struct-out or match (but not define-struct); currently, this information is correct only when no super-id is specified.

Objects of the new type are actually C pointers, with a type tag that is a list that contains the string form of id. Since structs are implemented as pointers, they can be used for a _pointer input to a foreign function: their address will be used. To make this a little safer, the corresponding cpointer type is defined as _id-pointer. The $_id$ type should not be used when a pointer is expected, since it will cause the struct to be copied rather than use the pointer value, leading to memory corruption.

If the first field is itself a cstruct type, its tag will be used in addition to the new tag. This feature supports common cases of object inheritance, where a sub-struct is made by having a first field that is its super-struct. Instances of the sub-struct can be considered as instances of the super-struct, since they share the same initial layout. Using the tag of an initial cstruct field means that the same behavior is implemented in Racket; for example, accessors and mutators of the super-cstruct can be used with the new sub-cstruct. See the example below.

Providing a super-id is shorthand for using an initial field named super-id and using _super-id as its type. Thus, the new struct will use _super-id's tag in addition to its own tag, meaning that instances of _id can be used as instances of _super-id. Aside from the syntactic sugar, the constructor function is different when this syntax is used: instead of expecting a first argument that is an instance of _super-id, the constructor will expect arguments for each of _super-id's fields, in addition for the new fields. This adjustment of the constructor is, again, in analogy to using a supertype with define-struct.

Note that structs are allocated as atomic blocks, which means that the garbage collector ignores their content. Currently, there is no safe way to store pointers to GC-managed objects in structs (even if you keep a reference to avoid collecting the referenced objects, a the 3m variant's GC will invalidate the pointer's value). Thus, only non-pointer values and pointers to memory that is outside the GC's control can be placed into struct fields.

As an example, consider the following C code:

```
typedef struct { int x; char y; } A;
typedef struct { A a; int z; } B;

A* makeA() {
    A *p = malloc(sizeof(A));
    p->x = 1;
    p->y = 2;
    return p;
}

B* makeB() {
    B *p = malloc(sizeof(B));
```

```
p->a.x = 1;
p->a.y = 2;
p->z = 3;
return p;
}
char gety(A* a) {
return a->y;
}
```

Using the simple _list-struct, you might expect this code to work:

```
(define makeB
  (get-ffi-obj 'makeB "foo.so"
     (_fun -> (_list-struct (_list-struct _int _byte) _int))))
(makeB) ; should return '((1 2) 3)
```

The problem here is that makeB returns a pointer to the struct rather than the struct itself. The following works as expected:

```
(define makeB
  (get-ffi-obj 'makeB "foo.so" (_fun -> _pointer)))
(ptr-ref (makeB) (_list-struct (_list-struct _int _byte) _int))
```

As described above, _list-structs should be used in cases where efficiency is not an issue. We continue using define-cstruct, first define a type for A which makes it possible to use makeA:

```
(define-cstruct _A ([x _int] [y _byte]))
(define makeA
   (get-ffi-obj 'makeA "foo.so"
        (_fun -> _A-pointer))) ; using _A is a memory-corrupting bug!
(define a (makeA))
(list a (A-x a) (A-y a))
; produces an A containing 1 and 2
```

Using gety is also simple:

```
(define gety
  (get-ffi-obj 'gety "foo.so"
     (_fun _A-pointer -> _byte)))
(gety a) ; produces 2
```

We now define another C struct for B, and expose makeB using it:

```
(define-cstruct _B ([a _A] [z _int]))
(define makeB
```

```
(get-ffi-obj 'makeB "foo.so"
   (_fun -> _B-pointer)))
(define b (makeB))
```

We can access all values of b using a naive approach:

```
(list (A-x (B-a b)) (A-y (B-a b)) (B-z b))
```

but this is inefficient as it allocates and copies an instance of A on every access. Inspecting the tags (cpointer-tag b) we can see that A's tag is included, so we can simply use its accessors and mutators, as well as any function that is defined to take an A pointer:

```
(list (A-x b) (A-y b) (B-z b)) (gety b)
```

Constructing a B instance in Racket requires allocating a temporary A struct:

```
(define b (make-B (make-A 1 2) 3))
```

To make this more efficient, we switch to the alternative define-cstruct syntax, which creates a constructor that expects arguments for both the super fields and the new ones:

```
(define-cstruct (_B _A) ([z _int]))
(define b (make-B 1 2 3))
```

3.8 Enumerations and Masks

Although the constructors below are describes as procedures, they are implemented as syntax, so that error messages can report a type name where the syntactic context implies one.

```
(_enum symbols [basetype]) → ctype?
symbols : list?
basetype : ctype? = _ufixint
```

Takes a list of symbols and generates an enumeration type. The enumeration maps between a symbol in the given symbols list and corresponding integers, counting from 0.

The list symbols can also set the values of symbols by putting '= and an exact integer after the symbol. For example, the list '(x y = 10 z) maps 'x to 0, 'y to 10, and 'z to 11.

The basetype argument specifies the base type to use.

```
(_bitmask symbols [basetype]) → ctype?
symbols : (or symbol? list?)
```

```
basetype : ctype? = _uint
```

Similar to _enum, but the resulting mapping translates a list of symbols to a number and back, using bitwise-ior. A single symbol is equivalent to a list containing just the symbol. The default basetype is _uint, since high bits are often used for flags.

4 Pointer Functions

```
(cpointer? v) \rightarrow boolean?

v : any/c
```

Returns #t if v is a C pointer or a value that can be used as a pointer: #f (used as a NULL pointer), byte strings (used as memory blocks), or some additional internal objects (ffi-objs and callbacks, see §7 "Unexported Primitive Functions"). Returns #f for other values.

```
(ptr-equal? cptr1 cptr2) → boolean?
  cptr1 : cpointer?
  cptr2 : cpointer?
```

Compares the values of the two pointers. Two different Racket pointer objects can contain the same pointer.

```
(ptr-add cptr offset [type]) → cpointer?
  cptr : cpointer?
  offset : exact-integer?
  type : ctype? = _byte
```

Returns a cpointer that is like *cptr* offset by *offset* instances of ctype.

The resulting cpointer keeps the base pointer and offset separate. The two pieces are combined at the last minute before any operation on the pointer, such as supplying the pointer to a foreign function. In particular, the pointer and offset are not combined until after all allocation leading up to a foreign-function call; if the called function does not itself call anything that can trigger a garbage collection, it can safely use pointers that are offset into the middle of a GCable object.

```
(offset-ptr? cptr) → boolean?
  cptr : cpointer?
```

A predicate for cpointers that have an offset, such as pointers that were created using ptr-add. Returns #t even if such an offset happens to be 0. Returns #f for other cpointers and non-cpointers.

```
(ptr-offset cptr) → exact-integer?
cptr : cpointer?
```

Returns the offset of a pointer that has an offset. The resulting offset is always in bytes.

4.1 Pointer Dereferencing

```
(set-ptr-offset! cptr offset [ctype]) → void?
  cptr : cpointer?
  offset : exact-integer?
  ctype : ctype? = _byte
```

Sets the offset component of an offset pointer. The arguments are used in the same way as ptr-add. If cptr has no offset, the exn:fail:contract exception is raised.

```
(ptr-add! cptr offset [ctype]) → void?
  cptr : cpointer?
  offset : exact-integer?
  ctype : ctype? = _byte
```

Like ptr-add, but destructively modifies the offset contained in a pointer. The same operation could be performed using ptr-offset and set-ptr-offset!.

```
(ptr-ref cptr type [offset]) → any
 cptr : cpointer?
 type : ctype?
 offset : exact-nonnegative-integer? = 0
(ptr-ref cptr type abs-tag offset) → any
 cptr : cpointer?
 type : ctype?
 abs-tag: (one-of/c 'abs)
 offset : exact-nonnegative-integer?
(ptr-set! cptr type val) → void?
 cptr : cpointer?
 type : ctype?
 val : any/c
(ptr-set! cptr type offset val) \rightarrow void?
 cptr : cpointer?
 type : ctype?
 offset : exact-nonnegative-integer?
 val : any/c
(ptr-set! cptr type abs-tag offset val) → void?
 cptr : cpointer?
 type : ctype?
 abs-tag : (one-of/c 'abs)
 offset : exact-nonnegative-integer?
 val : any/c
```

The ptr-ref procedure returns the object referenced by cptr, using the given type. The ptr-set! procedure stores the val in the memory cptr points to, using the given type for the conversion.

In each case, offset defaults to 0 (which is the only value that should be used with ffiobj objects, see §7 "Unexported Primitive Functions"). If an offset index is non-0, the value is read or stored at that location, considering the pointer as a vector of types — so the actual address is the pointer plus the size of type multiplied by offset. In addition, a 'abs flag can be used to use the offset as counting bytes rather then increments of the specified type.

Beware that the ptr-ref and ptr-set! procedure do not keep any meta-information on how pointers are used. It is the programmer's responsibility to use this facility only when appropriate. For example, on a little-endian machine:

```
> (define block (malloc _int 5))
> (ptr-set! block _int 0 196353)
> (map (lambda (i) (ptr-ref block _byte i)) '(0 1 2 3))
(1 255 2 0)
```

In addition, ptr-ref and ptr-set! cannot detect when offsets are beyond an object's memory bounds; out-of-bounds access can easily lead to a segmentation fault or memory corruption.

```
(memmove cptr src-cptr count [type]) \rightarrow void?
  cptr : cpointer?
  src-cptr : cpointer?
  count : exact-nonnegative-integer?
  type : ctype? = _byte
(memmove cptr offset src-cptr count [type]) \rightarrow void?
  cptr : cpointer?
  offset : exact-integer?
  src-cptr : cpointer?
  count : exact-nonnegative-integer?
  type : ctype? = _byte
(memmove cptr
          offset
          src-cptr
          src-offset
          count
         [type])
                      \rightarrow void?
  cptr : cpointer?
  offset : exact-integer?
  src-cptr : cpointer?
  src-offset : exact-integer?
```

```
count : exact-nonnegative-integer?
type : ctype? = _byte
```

Copies to *cptr* from *src-cptr*. The destination pointer can be offset by an optional *off-set*, which is in *type* instances. The source pointer can be similarly offset by *src-offset*. The number of bytes copied from source to destination is determined by *count*, which is in *type* instances when supplied.

```
(memcpy cptr src-cptr count [type]) \rightarrow void?
  cptr : cpointer?
  src-cptr : cpointer?
  count : exact-nonnegative-integer?
  type : ctype? = _byte
(memcpy cptr offset src-cptr count [type]) \rightarrow void?
  cptr : cpointer?
  offset : exact-integer?
  src-cptr : cpointer?
  count : exact-nonnegative-integer?
  type : ctype? = _byte
(memcpy cptr
         offset
         src-cptr
         src-offset
         count
                     \rightarrow void?
        [type])
  cptr : cpointer?
  offset : exact-integer?
  src-cptr : cpointer?
  src-offset : exact-integer?
  count : exact-nonnegative-integer?
  type : ctype? = _byte
```

Like memmove, but the result is undefined if the destination and source overlap.

```
(memset cptr byte count [type]) → void?
  cptr : cpointer?
  byte : byte?
  count : exact-nonnegative-integer?
  type : ctype? = _byte
(memset cptr offset byte count [type]) → void?
  cptr : cpointer?
  offset : exact-integer?
  byte : byte?
  count : exact-nonnegative-integer?
```

```
type : ctype? = _byte
```

Similar to memmove, but the destination is uniformly filled with byte (i.e., an exact integer between 0 and 255 inclusive). When a type argument is present, the result is that of a call to memset with no type argument and the count multiplied by the size associated with the type.

```
(cpointer-tag cptr) → any
  cptr : cpointer?
```

Returns the Racket object that is the tag of the given *cptr* pointer.

```
(set-cpointer-tag! cptr tag) → void?
  cptr : cpointer?
  tag : any/c
```

Sets the tag of the given *cptr*. The *tag* argument can be any arbitrary value; other pointer operations ignore it. When a cpointer value is printed, its tag is shown if it is a symbol, a byte string, a string. In addition, if the tag is a pair holding one of these in its *car*, the *car* is shown (so that the tag can contain other information).

4.2 Memory Management

For general information on C-level memory management with Racket, see *Inside*: *Racket C API*.

Allocates a memory block of a specified size using a specified allocation. The result is a cpointer to the allocated memory. Although not reflected above, the four arguments can appear in any order since they are all different types of Racket objects; a size specification is

required at minimum:

- If a C type by tes-or-type is given, its size is used to the block allocation size.
- If an integer bytes-or-type is given, it specifies the required size in bytes.
- If both bytes-or-type and type-or-bytes are given, then the allocated size is for a vector of values (the multiplication of the size of the C type and the integer).
- If a cptr pointer is given, its content is copied to the new block.
- A symbol mode argument can be given, which specifies what allocation function to use. It should be one of 'nonatomic (uses scheme_malloc from Racket's C API), 'atomic (scheme_malloc_atomic), 'stubborn (scheme_malloc_stubborn), 'uncollectable (scheme_malloc_uncollectable), 'eternal (scheme_malloc_eternal), 'interior (scheme_malloc_allow_interior), 'atomic-interior (scheme_malloc_atomic_allow_interior), or 'raw (uses the operating system's malloc, creating a GC-invisible block).
- If an additional 'failok flag is given, then scheme_malloc_fail_ok is used to wrap the call.

If no mode is specified, then 'nonatomic allocation is used when the type is a _gcpointeror _scheme-based type, and 'atomic allocation is used otherwise.

```
(free cptr) → void
cptr : cpointer?
```

Uses the operating system's free function for 'raw-allocated pointers, and for pointers that a foreign library allocated and we should free. Note that this is useful as part of a finalizer (see below) procedure hook (e.g., on the Racket pointer object, freeing the memory when the pointer object is collected, but beware of aliasing).

```
(end-stubborn-change cptr) → void?
  cptr : cpointer?
```

Uses scheme_end_stubborn_change on the given stubborn-allocated pointer.

```
(malloc-immobile-cell v) → cpointer?
v : any/c
```

Allocates memory large enough to hold one arbitrary (collectable) Racket value, but that is not itself collectable or moved by the memory manager. The cell is initialized with v; use the type $_$ scheme with ptr-ref and ptr-set! to get or set the cell's value. The cell must be explicitly freed with free-immobile-cell.

```
(free-immobile-cell cptr) \rightarrow void? cptr : cpointer?
```

Frees an immobile cell created by malloc-immobile-cell.

```
(register-finalizer obj finalizer) → void?
  obj : any/c
  finalizer : (any/c . -> . any)
```

Registers a finalizer procedure finalizer-proc with the given obj, which can be any Racket (GC-able) object. The finalizer is registered with a will executor; see make-will-executor. The finalizer is invoked when obj is about to be collected. (This is done by a thread that is in charge of triggering these will executors.)

Finalizers are mostly intended to be used with cpointer objects (for freeing unused memory that is not under GC control), but it can be used with any Racket object—even ones that have nothing to do with foreign code. Note, however, that the finalizer is registered for the *Racket* object. If you intend to free a pointer object, then you must be careful to not register finalizers for two cpointers that point to the same address. Also, be careful to not make the finalizer a closure that holds on to the object.

For example, suppose that you're dealing with a foreign function that returns a C string that you should free. Here is an attempt at creating a suitable type:

The above code is wrong: the finalizer is registered for x, which is no longer needed once the byte string is created. Changing this to register the finalizer for b correct this problem, but then **free** will be invoked on it instead of on x. In an attempt to fix this, we will be careful and print out a message for debugging:

```
\begin{array}{c} (\texttt{printf "Releasing } \sim \texttt{s} \backslash \texttt{n" b}) \\ (\texttt{free } \texttt{x}))) \\ \texttt{b})))) \end{array}
```

but we never see any printout. The problem is that the finalizer is a closure that keeps a reference to b. To fix this, you should use the input argument to the finalizer. Simply changing ignored to b will solve this problem. (Removing the debugging message also avoids the problem, since the finalization procedure would then not close over b.)

```
(make-sized-byte-string cptr length) → bytes?
  cptr : cpointer?
  length : exact-nonnegative-integer?
```

Returns a byte string made of the given pointer and the given length. No copying is done. This can be used as an alternative to make pointer values accessible in Racket when the size is known.

If *cptr* is an offset pointer created by *ptr-add*, the offset is immediately added to the pointer. Thus, this function cannot be used with *ptr-add* to create a substring of a Racket byte string, because the offset pointer would be to the middle of a collectable object (which is not allowed).

5 Derived Utilities

5.1 Safe Homogenous Vectors

```
(require ffi/vector)
```

Homogenous vectors are similar to C vectors (see §5.2 "Safe C Vectors"), except that they define different types of vectors, each with a hard-wired type. An exception is the u8 family of bindings, which are just aliases for byte-string bindings; for example, make-u8vector is an alias for make-bytes.

```
(make-u8vector len) → u8vector?
  len : exact-nonnegative-integer?
(u8vector val ...) \rightarrow u8vector?
  val : number?
(u8vector? v) \rightarrow boolean?
  v: any/c
(u8vector-length vec) \rightarrow exact-nonnegative-integer?
  vec : u8vector?
(u8vector-ref vec k) \rightarrow number?
  vec : u8vector?
  k : exact-nonnegative-integer?
(u8vector-set! vec k val) \rightarrow void?
  vec : u8vector?
 k : exact-nonnegative-integer?
  val : number?
(list->u8vector lst) \rightarrow u8vector?
  lst : (listof number?)
(u8vector->list vec) \rightarrow (listof number?)
  vec : u8vector?
(u8vector->cpointer vec) → cpointer?
  vec : u8vector?
```

Like _cvector, but for vectors of _byte elements. These are aliases for byte operations, where u8vector->cpointer is the identity function.

```
(_u8vector mode maybe-len)
_u8vector
```

Like _cvector, but for vectors of _uint8 elements.

```
(make-s8vector len) → s8vector?
len : exact-nonnegative-integer?
```

```
(s8vector val ...) \rightarrow s8vector?
  val : number?
(s8vector? v) \rightarrow boolean?
  v: any/c
(s8vector-length vec) → exact-nonnegative-integer?
  vec : s8vector?
(s8vector-ref vec k) \rightarrow number?
  vec : s8vector?
  k : exact-nonnegative-integer?
(s8vector-set! vec k val) \rightarrow void?
  vec : s8vector?
  k : exact-nonnegative-integer?
  val : number?
(list->s8vector lst) \rightarrow s8vector?
  lst : (listof number?)
(s8vector->list vec) \rightarrow (listof number?)
  vec : s8vector?
(s8vector->cpointer vec) \rightarrow cpointer?
  vec : s8vector?
```

Like make-vector, etc., but for _int8 elements. The s8vector->cpointer function extracts a plain pointer to the underlying array.

```
(_s8vector mode maybe-len)
_s8vector
```

Like _cvector, but for vectors of _int8 elements.

```
(make-s16vector len) \rightarrow s16vector?
  len : exact-nonnegative-integer?
(s16vector val ...) \rightarrow s16vector?
  val : number?
(s16vector? v) \rightarrow boolean?
  v : any/c
(s16vector-length vec) \rightarrow exact-nonnegative-integer?
  vec : s16vector?
(s16vector-ref\ vec\ k) \rightarrow number?
  vec : s16vector?
  k : exact-nonnegative-integer?
(s16vector-set! vec k val) \rightarrow void?
  vec : s16vector?
  k : exact-nonnegative-integer?
  val : number?
(list->s16vector lst) \rightarrow s16vector?
```

```
lst : (listof number?)
(s16vector->list vec) → (listof number?)
vec : s16vector?
(s16vector->cpointer vec) → cpointer?
vec : s16vector?
```

Like make-vector, etc., but for _int16 elements. The s16vector->cpointer function extracts a plain pointer to the underlying array.

```
(_s16vector mode maybe-len)
_s16vector
```

Like _cvector, but for vectors of _int16 elements.

```
(make-u16vector len) \rightarrow u16vector?
  len : exact-nonnegative-integer?
(u16vector val ...) \rightarrow u16vector?
  val : number?
(u16vector? v) \rightarrow boolean?
  v : any/c
(u16vector-length vec) → exact-nonnegative-integer?
  vec : u16vector?
(u16vector-ref\ vec\ k) \rightarrow number?
  vec : u16vector?
  k : exact-nonnegative-integer?
(u16vector-set! vec k val) \rightarrow void?
  vec : u16vector?
  k : exact-nonnegative-integer?
  val : number?
(list->u16vector lst) \rightarrow u16vector?
  lst : (listof number?)
(u16vector -> list vec) \rightarrow (list of number?)
  vec : u16vector?
(u16vector->cpointer vec) \rightarrow cpointer?
  vec : u16vector?
```

Like make-vector, etc., but for _uint16 elements. The u16vector->cpointer function extracts a plain pointer to the underlying array.

```
(_u16vector mode maybe-len)
_u16vector
```

Like _cvector, but for vectors of _uint16 elements.

```
(make-s32vector len) → s32vector?
  len : exact-nonnegative-integer?
(s32 vector val ...) \rightarrow s32 vector?
  val : number?
(s32vector? v) \rightarrow boolean?
  v: any/c
(s32 \text{vector-length } \text{vec}) \rightarrow \text{exact-nonnegative-integer}?
  vec : s32vector?
(s32 vector-ref vec k) \rightarrow number?
  vec : s32vector?
  k : exact-nonnegative-integer?
(s32vector-set! vec k val) \rightarrow void?
  vec : s32vector?
  k : exact-nonnegative-integer?
  val: number?
(list->s32vector lst) \rightarrow s32vector?
  lst : (listof number?)
(s32 vector -> list vec) \rightarrow (list of number?)
  vec : s32vector?
(s32 vector -> cpointer vec) \rightarrow cpointer?
  vec : s32vector?
```

Like make-vector, etc., but for _int32 elements. The s32vector->cpointer function extracts a plain pointer to the underlying array.

```
(_s32vector mode maybe-len)
_s32vector
```

Like _cvector, but for vectors of _int32 elements.

```
(make-u32vector len) → u32vector?
  len : exact-nonnegative-integer?
(u32vector val ...) → u32vector?
  val : number?
(u32vector? v) → boolean?
  v : any/c
(u32vector-length vec) → exact-nonnegative-integer?
  vec : u32vector?
(u32vector-ref vec k) → number?
  vec : u32vector?
  k : exact-nonnegative-integer?
(u32vector-set! vec k val) → void?
  vec : u32vector?
```

```
k : exact-nonnegative-integer?
val : number?
(list->u32vector lst) → u32vector?
lst : (listof number?)
(u32vector->list vec) → (listof number?)
vec : u32vector?
(u32vector->cpointer vec) → cpointer?
vec : u32vector?
```

Like make-vector, etc., but for _uint32 elements. The u32vector->cpointer function extracts a plain pointer to the underlying array.

```
(_u32vector mode maybe-len)
_u32vector
```

Like _cvector, but for vectors of _uint32 elements.

```
(make-s64vector len) \rightarrow s64vector?
  len : exact-nonnegative-integer?
(s64vector val ...) \rightarrow s64vector?
  val : number?
(s64vector? v) \rightarrow boolean?
  v: any/c
(s64vector-length vec) → exact-nonnegative-integer?
  vec : s64vector?
(s64 vector-ref vec k) \rightarrow number?
  vec : s64vector?
  k : exact-nonnegative-integer?
(s64vector-set! vec k val) \rightarrow void?
  vec : s64vector?
  k : exact-nonnegative-integer?
  val : number?
(list->s64vector lst) \rightarrow s64vector?
  lst : (listof number?)
(s64 \text{vector->} list \text{ vec}) \rightarrow (list of number?)
  vec : s64vector?
(s64 vector -> cpointer vec) \rightarrow cpointer?
  vec : s64vector?
```

Like make-vector, etc., but for _int64 elements. The s64vector->cpointer function extracts a plain pointer to the underlying array.

```
(_s64vector mode maybe-len)
_s64vector
```

Like _cvector, but for vectors of _int64 elements.

```
(make-u64vector len) \rightarrow u64vector?
  len : exact-nonnegative-integer?
(u64vector\ val\ \ldots) \rightarrow u64vector?
  val : number?
(u64vector? v) \rightarrow boolean?
  v: any/c
(u64vector-length vec) \rightarrow exact-nonnegative-integer?
  vec : u64vector?
(u64vector-ref\ vec\ k) \rightarrow number?
  vec : u64vector?
  k : exact-nonnegative-integer?
(u64vector-set! vec k val) \rightarrow void?
  vec : u64vector?
  k : exact-nonnegative-integer?
  val : number?
(list->u64vector lst) \rightarrow u64vector?
  lst : (listof number?)
(u64vector->list vec) \rightarrow (listof number?)
  vec : u64vector?
(u64 vector -> cpointer vec) \rightarrow cpointer?
  vec : u64vector?
```

Like make-vector, etc., but for _uint64 elements. The u64vector->cpointer function extracts a plain pointer to the underlying array.

```
(_u64vector mode maybe-len)
_u64vector
```

Like _cvector, but for vectors of _uint64 elements.

```
(make-f32vector len) → f32vector?
  len : exact-nonnegative-integer?
(f32vector val ...) → f32vector?
  val : number?
(f32vector? v) → boolean?
  v : any/c
(f32vector-length vec) → exact-nonnegative-integer?
  vec : f32vector?
(f32vector-ref vec k) → number?
  vec : f32vector?
  k : exact-nonnegative-integer?
(f32vector-set! vec k val) → void?
```

```
vec : f32vector?
k : exact-nonnegative-integer?
val : number?
(list->f32vector lst) → f32vector?
lst : (listof number?)
(f32vector->list vec) → (listof number?)
vec : f32vector?
(f32vector->cpointer vec) → cpointer?
vec : f32vector?
```

Like make-vector, etc., but for _float elements. The f32vector->cpointer function extracts a plain pointer to the underlying array.

```
(_f32vector mode maybe-len)
_f32vector
```

Like _cvector, but for vectors of _float elements.

```
(make-f64vector len) \rightarrow f64vector?
  len : exact-nonnegative-integer?
(f64vector val ...) \rightarrow f64vector?
  val : number?
(f64vector? v) \rightarrow boolean?
  v : any/c
(f64vector-length vec) \rightarrow exact-nonnegative-integer?
  vec : f64vector?
(f64\text{vector-ref } \text{vec } \text{k}) \rightarrow \text{number?}
  vec : f64vector?
  k : exact-nonnegative-integer?
(f64vector-set! vec k val) \rightarrow void?
  vec : f64vector?
  k : exact-nonnegative-integer?
  val : number?
(list->f64vector lst) \rightarrow f64vector?
  lst : (listof number?)
(f64vector -> list vec) \rightarrow (list of number?)
  vec : f64vector?
(f64vector->cpointer vec) \rightarrow cpointer?
  vec : f64vector?
```

Like make-vector, etc., but for _double* elements. The f64vector->cpointer function extracts a plain pointer to the underlying array.

```
(_f64vector mode maybe-len)
```

```
_f64vector
```

Like _cvector, but for vectors of _double* elements.

5.2 Safe C Vectors

```
(require ffi/cvector)
(require ffi/unsafe/cvector)
```

The ffi/unsafe/cvector library exports the bindings of this section. The ffi/cvector library exports the same bindings, except for the unsafe make-cvector* operation.

The cvector form can be used as a type C vectors (i.e., a pointer to a memory block).

```
(_cvector mode type maybe-len)
_cvector
```

Like _bytes, _cvector can be used as a simple type that corresponds to a pointer that is managed as a safe C vector on the Racket side. The longer form behaves similarly to the _list and _vector custom types, except that _cvector is more efficient; no Racket list or vector is needed.

```
(make-cvector type length) → cvector?
  type : ctype?
  length : exact-nonnegative-integer?
```

Allocates a C vector using the given type and length. The resulting vector is not guaranteed to contain any particular values.

```
(cvector type val ...) → cvector?
  type : ctype?
  val : any/c
```

Creates a C vector of the given type, initialized to the given list of vals.

```
  \frac{\text{(cvector? } v) \rightarrow \text{boolean?}}{v : \text{any/c}}
```

Returns #t if v is a C vector, #f otherwise.

```
(cvector-length cvec) → exact-nonnegative-integer?
  cvec : cvector?
```

Returns the length of a C vector.

```
(cvector-type cvec) → ctype?
  cvec : cvector?
```

Returns the C type object of a C vector.

```
(cvector-ptr cvec) → cpointer?
cvec : cvector?
```

Returns the pointer that points at the beginning block of the given C vector.

```
(cvector-ref cvec k) → any
  cvec : cvector?
  k : exact-nonnegative-integer?
```

References the kth element of the cvec C vector. The result has the type that the C vector uses.

```
(cvector-set! cvec k val) → void?
  cvec : cvector?
  k : exact-nonnegative-integer?
  val : any
```

Sets the kth element of the cvec C vector to val. The val argument should be a value that can be used with the type that the C vector uses.

```
(cvector->list cvec) → list?
  cvec : cvector?
```

Converts the cvec C vector object to a list of values.

```
(list->cvector lst type) → cvector?
lst : list?
type : ctype?
```

Converts the list 1st to a C vector of the given type.

```
(make-cvector* cptr type length) → cvector?
  cptr : any/c
  type : ctype?
  length : exact-nonnegative-integer?
```

Constructs a C vector using an existing pointer object. This operation is not safe, so it is intended to be used in specific situations where the type and length are known.

5.3 Tagged C Pointer Types

The unsafe cpointer-has-tag? and cpointer-push-tag! operations manage tags to distinguish pointer types.

```
(_cpointer tag
           [ptr-type
            scheme-to-c
            c-to-scheme]) \rightarrow ctype
 tag : any/c
 ptr-type : ctype? = xpointer
 scheme-to-c : (any/c . -> . any/c) = values
 c-to-scheme : (any/c . -> . any/c) = values
(_cpointer/null tag
                [ptr-type
                 scheme-to-c
                 c-to-scheme]) \rightarrow ctype
 tag : anv/c
 ptr-type : ctype? = xpointer
 scheme-to-c : (any/c . -> . any/c) = values
 c-to-scheme : (any/c . -> . any/c) = values
```

Construct a kind of a pointer that gets a specific tag when converted to Racket, and accept only such tagged pointers when going to C. An optional *ptr-type* can be given to be used as the base pointer type, instead of _pointer.

Pointer tags are checked with cpointer-has-tag? and changed with cpointer-push-tag! which means that other tags are preserved. Specifically, if a base ptr-type is given and is itself a _cpointer, then the new type will handle pointers that have the new tag in addition to ptr-type's tag(s). When the tag is a pair, its first value is used for printing, so the most recently pushed tag which corresponds to the inheriting type will be displayed.

Note that tags are compared with eq? (or memq), which means an interface can hide its value from users (e.g., not provide the cpointer-tag accessor), which makes such pointers unfake-able.

_cpointer/null is similar to _cpointer except that it tolerates NULL pointers both going to C and back. Note that NULL pointers are represented as #f in Racket, so they are not tagged.

```
(define-cpointer-type _id)
(define-cpointer-type _id scheme-to-c-expr)
(define-cpointer-type _id scheme-to-c-expr c-to-scheme-expr)
```

A macro version of _cpointer and _cpointer/null, using the defined name for a tag string, and defining a predicate too. The _id must start with _.

The optional expression produces optional arguments to _cpointer.

In addition to defining $_id$ to a type generated by $_cpointer$, $_id/null$ is bound to a type produced by $_cpointer/null$ type. Finally, id? is defined as a predicate, and id-tag is defined as an accessor to obtain a tag. The tag is the string form of id.

```
(cpointer-has-tag? cptr tag) → boolean?
  cptr : any/c
  tag : any/c
(cpointer-push-tag! cptr tag) → void
  cptr : any/c
  tag : any/c
```

These two functions treat pointer tags as lists of tags. As described in §4 "Pointer Functions", a pointer tag does not have any role, except for Racket code that uses it to distinguish pointers; these functions treat the tag value as a list of tags, which makes it possible to construct pointer types that can be treated as other pointer types, mainly for implementing inheritance via upcasts (when a struct contains a super struct as its first element).

The cpointer-has-tag? function checks whether if the given cptr has the tag. A pointer has a tag tag when its tag is either eq? to tag or a list that contains (in the sense of memq) tag.

The cpointer-push-tag! function pushes the given tag value on cptr's tags. The main properties of this operation are: (a) pushing any tag will make later calls to cpointer-has-tag? succeed with this tag, and (b) the pushed tag will be used when printing the pointer (until a new value is pushed). Technically, pushing a tag will simply set it if there is no tag set, otherwise push it on an existing list or an existing value (treated as a single-element list).

5.4 Defining Bindings

```
(require ffi/unsafe/define)
```

```
(define-ffi-definer define-id ffi-lib-expr
  option ...)
```

Binds define-id as a definition form to extract bindings from the library produced by ffi-lib-expr. The syntax of define-id is

A define-id form binds id by extracting a binding with the name c-id from the library produced by ffi-lib-expr, where c-id defaults to id. The other options support further wrapping and configuration:

- Before the extracted result is bound as *id*, it is passed to the result of *wrap-expr*, which defaults to values. Expressions such as (allocator delete) or (deallocator) are useful as *wrap-exprs*.
- The #:make-fail and #:fail options are mutually exclusive; if make-fail-expr is provided, it is applied to 'id to obtain the last argument to get-ffi-obj; if fail-expr is provided, it is supplied directly as the last argument to get-ffi-obj. The make-not-available function is useful as make-fail-expr to cause a use of id to report an error when it is applied if c-id was not found in the foreign library.

If provide-id is provided to define-ffi-definer, then define-id also provides its binding using provide-id. The provide-protected form is usually a good choice for provide-id.

If core-define-id is provided to define-ffi-definer, then code-define-id is used in place of define in the expansion of define-id for each binding.

If default-make-fail-expr is provided to define-ffi-definer, it serves as the default #:make-fail value for define-id.

For example,

```
(define-ffi-definer define-gtk gtk-lib)
```

binds define-gtk to extract FFI bindings from gtk-lib, so that gtk_rc_parse could be bound as

```
(define-gtk gtk_rc_parse (_fun _path -> _void))
```

If gtk_rc_parse is not found, then define-gtk reports an error immediately. If define-gtk is instead defined with

```
(define-ffi-definer define-gtk gtk-lib
#:default-make-fail make-not-available)
```

then if gtk_rc_parse is not found in gtk-lib, an error is reported only when gtk_rc_parse is called.

```
(make-not-available name) → (#:rest list? -> any/c)
name : symbol?
```

Returns a procedure that takes any number of arguments and reports an error message from name. This function is intended for using with #:make-fail or #:default-make-fail in define-ffi-definer

```
(provide-protected provide-spec ...)
```

Equivalent to (provide (protect-out *provide-spec ...*)). The provide-protected identifier is useful with #:provide in define-ffi-definer.

5.5 Allocation and Finalization

```
(require ffi/unsafe/alloc)
```

The ffi/unsafe/alloc library provides utilities for ensuring that values allocated through foreign functions are reliably deallocated.

```
((allocator dealloc) alloc) → procedure?
  dealloc : (any/c . -> . any)
  alloc : procedure?
```

Produces a procedure that behaves like alloc, but the result of alloc is given a finalizer that calls dealloc on the result if it is not otherwise freed through a deallocator (as designated with deallocator). In addition, alloc is called in atomic mode (see startatomic); its result is received and registered in atomic mode, so that the result is reliably freed.

The dealloc procedure itself need not be specifically designated a deallocator (via deallocator). If a deallocator is called explicitly, it need not be the same as dealloc.

```
((deallocator [get-arg]) dealloc) → procedure?
  get-arg : (list? . -> . any/c) = car
  dealloc : procedure?
((releaser [get-arg]) dealloc) → procedure?
  get-arg : (list? . -> . any/c) = car
  dealloc : procedure?
```

Produces a procedure that behaves like <code>dealloc</code>. The <code>dealloc</code> procedure is called in atomic mode (see <code>start-atomic</code>), and the reference count on one of its arguments is decremented; if the reference count reaches zero, no finalizer associated by an <code>allocator-</code> or <code>referencer-wrapped</code> procedure is invoked when the value becomes inaccessible.

The optional get-arg procedure determines which of dealloc's arguments correspond to the released object; get-arg receives a list of arguments passed to dealloc, so the default car selects the first one.

The releaser procedure is a synonym for deallocator.

```
((retainer release [get-arg]) retain) → procedure?
release : (any/c . -> . any)
get-arg : (list? . -> . any/c) = car
retain : procedure?
```

Produces a procedure that behaves like *retain*. The procedure is called in atomic mode (see **start-atomic**), and the reference count on one of its arguments is incremented, with *release* recorded as the corresponding release procedure to be called by the finalizer on the retained object (unless some deallocator, as wrapped by deallocate, is explicitly called first).

The optional get-arg procedure determines which of retain's arguments correspond to the retained object; get-arg receives a list of arguments passed to retain, so the default car selects the first one.

The release procedure itself need not be specifically designated a deallocator (via deallocator). If a deallocator is called explicitly, it need not be the same as release.

5.6 Atomic Execution

```
(require ffi/unsafe/atomic)
```

```
(start-atomic) \rightarrow void?
(end-atomic) \rightarrow void?
```

Disables and enables context switches and delivery of break exceptions at the level of Racket threads. Calls to start-atomic and end-atomic can be nested.

Using call-as-atomic is somewhat safer, in that call-as-atomic correctly catches exceptions and re-raises them after exiting atomic mode. For simple uses where exceptions need not be handled, however, start-atomic and end-atomic are faster.

```
(start-breakable-atomic) → void?
(end-breakable-atomic) → void?
```

Like start-atomic and end-atomic, but the delivery of break exceptions is not suspended. To ensure that a call to start-atomic is reliably paired with a call to end-atomic, use dynamic-wind pre- and post thunks or some other context where breaks are disabled. These variants are not faster than plan start-atomic and end-atomic.

```
(call-as-atomic thunk) → any thunk : (-> any)
```

Calls thunk in atomic mode. If thunk raises and exception, the exception is caught and re-raised after exiting atomic mode.

When call-as-atomic is used in the dynamic extent of call-as-atomic, then thunk is simply called directly (as a tail call).

```
(call-as-nonatomic thunk) → any thunk : (-> any)
```

Within the dynamic extent of a call-as-atomic, calls thunk in non-atomic mode. Beware that the current thread maybe suspended or terminated by other threads during thunk, in which case the call never returns.

When used not in the dynamic extent of call-as-atomic, call-as-nonatomic raises exn:fail:contract.

5.7 Speculatively Atomic Execution

```
(require ffi/unsafe/try-atomic)
```

The ffi/unsafe/try-atomic supports atomic execution that can be suspended and resumed in non-atomic mode if it takes too long or if some external event causes the attempt to be abandoned.

```
(call-as-nonatomic-retry-point thunk) \rightarrow any
```

```
thunk: (-> any)
```

Calls thunk in atomic mode (see start-atomic and end-atomic) while allowing thunk to use try-atomic. Any incomplete computations started with try-atomic are run non-atomically after thunk returns. The result of thunk is used as the result of call-as-nonatomic-retry-point.

Within the dynamic extent of a call-as-nonatomic-retry-point call, attempts to run thunk in the existing atomic mode. The give-up-proc procedure is called periodically to determine whether atomic mode should be abandoned; the default give-up-proc returns true after 200 milliseconds. If atomic mode is abandoned, the computation is suspended, and default-val is returned, instead. The computation is resumed later by the enclosing call-as-nonatomic-retry-point call.

If keep-in-order? is true, then if try-atomic is called after an earlier computation was suspended for the same call-as-nonatomic-retry-point call, then thunk is immediately enqueued for completion by call-as-nonatomic-retry-point and default-val is returned.

The give-up-proc callback is polled only at points where the level of atomic-mode nesting (see start-atomic, start-breakable-atomic, and call-as-atomic) is the same as at the point of calling try-atomic.

If thunk aborts the current continuation using (default-continuation-prompt-tag), the abort is suspended the resumed by the enclosing call-as-nonatomic-retry-point. Escapes to the context of the call to thunk using any other prompt tag or continuation are blocked (using dynamic-wind) and simply return (void) from thunk.

5.8 Objective-C FFI

```
(require ffi/unsafe/objc)
```

The ffi/unsafe/objc library builds on ffi/unsafe to support interaction with Objective-C.

The library supports Objective-C interaction in two layers. The upper layer provides syntactic forms for sending messages and deriving subclasses. The lower layer is a think wrapper on the Objective-C runtime library functions. Even the upper layer is unsafe and relatively low-level compared to normal Racket libraries, because argument and result types must be declared in terms of FFI C types (see §3.1 "Type Constructors").

5.8.1 FFI Types and Constants

```
_id : ctype?

The type of an Objective-C object, an opaque pointer.

_Class : ctype?

The type of an Objective-C class, which is also an _id.

_Protocol : ctype?

The type of an Objective-C protocol, which is also an _id.

_SEL : ctype?

The type of an Objective-C selector, an opaque pointer.

_BOOL : ctype?

The Objective-C boolean type. Racket values are converted for C in the usual way: #f is
```

false and any other value is true. C values are converted to Racket booleans.

YES : boolean?

Synonym for #t

NO : boolean?

Synonym for #f

5.8.2 Syntactic Forms and Procedures

Sends a message to the Objective-C object produced by obj-expr. When a type is omitted for either the result or an argument, the type is assumed to be _id, otherwise it must be specified as an FFI C type (see §3.1 "Type Constructors").

If a single method-id is provided with no arguments, then method-id must not end with w; otherwise, each method-id must end with w.

Examples:

```
(tellv obj-expr method-id)
(tellv obj-expr arg ...)
```

Like tell, but with a result type _void.

```
(import-class class-id ...)
```

Defines each *class-id* to the class (a value with FFI type _Class) that is registered with the string form of *class-id*. The registered class is obtained via objc_lookUpClass.

Example:

```
> (import-class NSString)

(import-protocol protocol-id ...)
```

Defines each protocol-id to the protocol (a value with FFI type _Protocol) that is registered with the string form of protocol-id. The registered class is obtained via objc_getProtocol.

Example:

> (import-protocol NSCoding)

Defines *class-id* as a new, registered Objective-C class (of FFI type _Class). The *superclass-expr* should produce an Objective-C class or #f for the superclass. An optional #:mixins clause can specify mixins defined with define-objc-mixin. An optional #:protocols clause can specify Objective-C protocols to be implemented by the class.

Each *field-id* is an instance field that holds a Racket value and that is initialized to #f when the object is allocated. The *field-ids* can be referenced and set! directly when the method *bodys*. Outside the object, they can be referenced and set with get-ivar and set-ivar!.

Each method adds or overrides a method to the class (when mode is - or -a) to be called on instances, or it adds a method to the meta-class (when mode is + or +a) to be called on the class itself. All result and argument types must be declared using FFI C types (see §3.1 "Type Constructors"). When mode is +a or -a, the method is called in atomic mode (see _cprocedure).

If a method is declared with a single method-id and no arguments, then method-id must not end with ... Otherwise, each method-id must end with ...

If the special method dealloc is declared for mode -, it must not call the superclass method, because a (super-tell dealloc) is added to the end of the method automatically. In

addition, before (super-tell dealloc), space for each field-id within the instance is deallocated.

Example:

```
> (define-objc-class MyView NSView
   [bm] ; <- one field
   (- _racket (swapBitwmap: [_racket new-bm])
        (begin0 bm (set! bm new-bm)))
   (- _void (drawRect: [_NSRect exposed-rect])
        (super-tell drawRect: exposed-rect)
        (draw-bitmap-region bm exposed-rect))
   (- _void (dealloc)
        (when bm (done-with-bm bm))))</pre>
```

```
(define-objc-mixin (class-id superclass-id)
  maybe-mixins
  maybe-protocols
  [field-id ...]
  method)
```

Like define-objc-class, but defines a mixin to be combined with other method definitions through either define-objc-class or define-objc-mixin. The specified field-ids are not added by the mixin, but must be a subset of the field-ids declared for the class to which the methods are added.

self

When used within the body of a define-objc-class or define-objc-mixin method, refers to the object whose method was called. This form cannot be used outside of a define-objc-class or define-objc-mixin method.

```
(super-tell result-type method-id)
(super-tell result-type arg ...)
```

When used within the body of a define-objc-class or define-objc-mixin method, calls a superclass method. The result-type and arg sub-forms have the same syntax as in tell. This form cannot be used outside of a define-objc-class or define-objc-mixin method.

```
(get-ivar obj-expr field-id)
```

Extracts the Racket value of a field in a class created with define-objc-class.

```
(set-ivar! obj-expr field-id value-expr)
```

Sets the Racket value of a field in a class created with define-objc-class.

```
(selector method-id)
```

Returns a selector (of FFI type _SEL) for the string form of method-id.

Example:

```
> (tellv button setAction: #:type _SEL (selector terminate:))
```

```
(objc-is-a? \ obj \ cls) \rightarrow boolean? \ obj : \_id \ cls : \_Class
```

Check whether obj is an instance of the Objective-C class cls.

5.8.3 Raw Runtime Functions

```
(objc_lookUpClass s) → (or/c _Class #f)
s : string?
```

Finds a registered class by name.

```
(objc_getProtocol s) → (or/c _Protocol #f)
  s : string?
```

Finds a registered protocol by name.

```
(sel_registerName s) → _SEL
s : string?
```

Interns a selector given its name in string form.

```
(objc_allocateClassPair cls s extra) → _Class
  cls : _Class
  s : string?
  extra : integer?
```

Allocates a new Objective-C class.

```
(objc_registerClassPair cls) → void?
  cls : _Class
```

Registers an Objective-C class.

```
(	ext{object\_getClass } obj) 
ightarrow 	ext{Class} \ obj : 	ext{\_id}
```

Returns the class of an object (or the meta-class of a class).

Adds a method to a class. The *type* argument must be a FFI C type (see §3.1 "Type Constructors") that matches both *imp* and the not Objective-C type string *type-encoding*.

Adds an instance variable to an Objective-C class.

```
(object_getInstanceVariable obj name) \rightarrow _Ivar any/c obj : _id name : string?
```

Gets the value of an instance variable whose type is _pointer.

```
(object_setInstanceVariable obj name val) \rightarrow _Ivar obj : _id name : string? val : any/c
```

Sets the value of an instance variable whose type is _pointer.

```
_Ivar : ctype?
```

The type of an Objective-C instance variable, an opaque pointer.

```
((objc_msgSend/typed types) obj sel arg) → any/c
types : (vector/c result-ctype arg-ctype ...)
obj : _id
sel : _SEL
arg : any/c
```

Calls the Objective-C method on _id named by sel. The types vector must contain one more than the number of supplied args; the first FFI C type in type is used as the result type.

Like objc_msgSend/typed, but for a super call.

```
(make-objc_super id super) → _objc_super
  id : _id
  super : _Class
_objc_super : ctype?
```

Constructor and FFI C type use for super calls.

Contents

5.8.4 Legacy Library

```
(require ffi/objc)
```

The ffi/objc library is a deprecated entry point to ffi/unsafe/objc. It exports only safe operations directly, and unsafe operations are imported using objc-unsafe!.

```
(objc-unsafe!)
```

Analogous to (unsafe!), makes unsafe bindings of ffi/unsafe/objc available in the importing module.

6 Miscellaneous Support

```
(regexp-replaces objname substs) → string?
objname : (or/c string? bytes? symbol?)
substs : (listof (list regexp? string?))
```

A function that is convenient for many interfaces where the foreign library has some naming convention that you want to use in your interface as well. The *objname* argument can be any value that will be used to name the foreign object; it is first converted into a string, and then modified according to the given *substs* list in sequence, where each element in this list is a list of a regular expression and a substitution string. Usually, regexp-replace* is used to perform the substitution, except for cases where the regular expression begins with a or ends with a \$, in which case regexp-replace is used.

For example, the following makes it convenient to define Racket bindings such as foo-bar for foreign names like MyLib_foo_bar:

```
(list->cblock lst type) → any
lst : list?
type : ctype?
```

Allocates a memory block of an appropriate size, and initializes it using values from 1st and the given type. The 1st must hold values that can all be converted to C values according to the given type.

```
(vector->cblock vec type) → any
vec : vector?
type : type?
```

Like list->cblock, but for Racket vectors.

```
(vector->cpointer vec) → cpointer?
```

```
vec : vector?
```

Returns a pointer to an array of _scheme values, which is the internal representation of vec.

```
(flvector->cpointer flvec) → cpointer?
flvec : flvector?
```

Returns a pointer to an array of _double values, which is the internal representation of flvec.

```
(saved-errno) → exact-integer?
```

Returns the value most recently saved (in the current thread) after a foreign call with a non-#f #:save-errno option (see _fun and _cprocedure).

```
(lookup-errno sym) → exact-integer?
sym : (or/c 'EINTR 'EEXIST 'EAGAIN)
```

Returns a platform-specific value corresponding to a Posix errno symbol. The set of supported symbols is likely to expand in the future.

```
(cast v from-type to-type) → any/c
v : any/c
from-type : ctype?
to-type : ctype?
```

Converts v from a value matching from-type to a value matching to-type, where (ctype-sizeof from-type) matches (ctype-sizeof to-type).

The conversion is equivalent to

```
(let ([p (malloc from-type)])
  (ptr-set! p from-type v)
  (ptr-ref p to-type))
```

```
(cblock->list cblock type length) → list?
  cblock : any/c
  type : ctype?
  length : exact-nonnegative-integer?
```

Converts C cblock, which is a vector of types, to a Racket list. The arguments are the same as in the list->cblock. The length must be specified because there is no way to know where the block ends.

```
(cblock->vector cblock type length) → vector?
  cblock : any/c
  type : ctype?
  length : exact-nonnegative-integer?
```

Like cblock->vector, but for Racket vectors.

7 Unexported Primitive Functions

Parts of the ffi/unsafe library are implemented by the Racket built-in '#%foreign module. The '#%foreign module is not intended for direct use, but it exports the following procedures. If you find any of these useful, please let us know.

```
(ffi-obj objname lib) → any
  objname : (or/c string? bytes? symbol?)
  lib : (or/c ffi-lib? path-string? #f)
```

Pulls out a foreign object from a library, returning a Racket value that can be used as a pointer. If a name is provided instead of a foreign-library value, ffi-lib is used to create a library object.

```
(ffi-obj? x) → boolean?
  x : any/c
(ffi-obj-lib obj) → ffi-lib?
  obj : ffi-obj?
(ffi-obj-name obj) → string?
  obj : ffi-obj?
```

A predicate for objects returned by ffi-obj, and accessor functions that return its corresponding library object and name. These values can also be used as C pointer objects.

```
(ctype-basetype type) → (or/c ctype? #f)
  type : ctype?
(ctype-scheme->c type) → procedure?
  type : ctype?
(ctype-c->scheme type) → procedure?
  type : ctype?
```

Accessors for the components of a C type object, made by make-ctype. The ctype-basetype selector returns a symbol for primitive types that names the type, a list of ctypes for cstructs, and another ctype for user-defined ctypes.

```
(ffi-call ptr in-types out-type [abi]) → any
  ptr : any/c
  in-types : (listof ctype?)
  out-type : ctype?
  abi : (or/c symbol/c #f) = #f
```

The primitive mechanism that creates Racket "callout" values. The given ptr (any pointer value, including ffi-obj values) is wrapped in a Racket-callable primitive function that

uses the types to specify how values are marshaled.

The optional abi argument determines the foreign ABI that is used. #f or 'default will use a platform-dependent default; other possible values are 'stdcall and 'sysv (the latter corresponds to "cdecl"). This is especially important on Windows, where most system functions are 'stdcall, which is not the default.

The symmetric counterpart of ffi-call. It receives a Racket procedure and creates a callback object, which can also be used as a pointer. This object can be used as a C-callable function, which invokes *proc* using the types to specify how values are marshaled.

```
(ffi-callback? x) → boolean?
x : any/c
```

A predicate for callback values that are created by ffi-callback.

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