

1 C

C is syntactically similar to Java, but there are a few key differences:

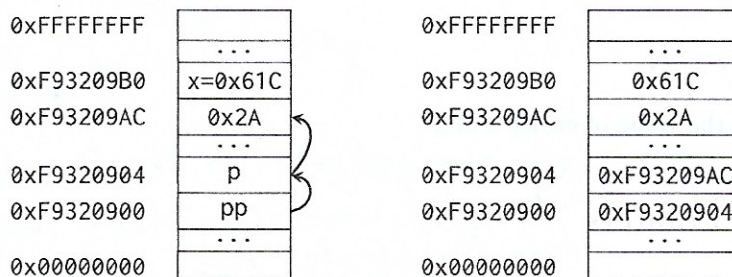
1. C is function-oriented, not object-oriented; there are no objects
2. C does not automatically handle memory for you.

- Stack memory, or *things allocated the way you're accustomed to*: data is garbage immediately after the function in which it was defined returns.
- Heap memory, or *things allocated with malloc, calloc, or realloc commands*: data is freed only when the programmer explicitly frees it!
- In any case, allocated memory always holds garbage until it is initialized!

3. C uses pointers explicitly. `*p` tells us to use the value that `p` points to, rather than the value of `p`, and `&x` gives the address of `x` rather than the value of `x`.

On the left is the memory represented as a box-and-pointer diagram.

On the right, we see how the memory is really represented in the computer.



Let's assume that `int* p` is located at `0xF9320904` and `int x` is located at `0xF93209B0`. As we can observe:

- `*p` should return `0x2A` (42_{10}).
- `p` should return `0xF93209AC`.
- `x` should return `0x61C`.
- `&x` should return `0xF93209B0`.

Let's say we have an `int **pp` that is located at `0xF9320900`.

1.1 What does `pp` evaluate to? How about `*pp`? What about `**pp`?

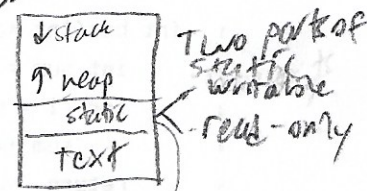
`pp` evaluates to `0xF9320904`. `*pp` evaluates to `0xF93209AC`. `**pp` evaluates to `0x2A`.

$\&pp = 0xF9320900$
 $pp = 0xF9320904$
 $*pp = 0xF93209AC$
 This is data from `pp` dereferenced.

Dereference the address `0xF93209AC` which is `0x2A`.

strings end with null terminator ('0'), this is equivalent to zero.

array's size is not kept so you MUST keep it. size of gets size of type and length of array



Used to store global variables & static locals.

1.2 The following functions are syntactically-correct C, but written in an incomprehensible style. Describe the behavior of each function in plain English.

- (a) Recall that the ternary operator evaluates the condition before the ? and returns the value before the colon (:) if true, or the value after it if false.

```
1 int foo(int *arr, size_t n) {
2     return n ? arr[0] + foo(arr + 1, n - 1) : 0;
3 }
```

Returns the sum of the first N elements in arr.

- (b) Recall that the negation operator, !, returns 0 if the value is non-zero, and 1 if the value is 0. The ~ operator performs a bitwise not (NOT) operation.

```
1 int bar(int *arr, size_t n) {
2     int sum = 0, i;
3     for (i = n; i > 0; i--)
4         sum += !arr[i - 1];
5     return ~sum + 1;
6 }
```

Returns -1 times the number of zeroes in the first N elements of arr.

- (c) Recall that ^ is the bitwise exclusive-or (XOR) operator.

```
1 void baz(int x, int y) {
2     x = x ^ y;
3     y = x ^ y;
4     x = x ^ y;
5 }
```

Ultimately does not change the value of either x or y.

2 Programming with Pointers globally. Exercise: How would you make it so it affected them globally?

2.1 Implement the following functions so that they work as described.

- (a) Swap the value of two ints. Remain swapped after returning from this function.

```
1 void swap(int *x, int *y) {
2     int temp = *x;
3     *x = *y;
4     *y = temp;
5 }
```

- (b) Return the number of bytes in a string. Do not use strlen.

```
1 int mystrlen(char* str) {
2     int count = 0;
3     while (*str++)
4         count++;
5 }
```

There is a table on the with operator precedence.

These are to 'pop' off first elm & set the next elm in arr. Tail case returns a zero. gets the sum of the rest of the elm. gets first elm in arr if arr has elements. This is equal to

```
if (n) {
    return arr[0] + foo(arr + 1, n - 1);
} else {
    return 0;
}
```

add 1 to sum if item in arr is 0. invert & add one. This is two's complement inversion!

$x'' = x' \wedge y'$
 $x'' = x' \wedge x' \wedge y$
 $x'' = y$ so $y = x$
 $x = y$

Answer? make x & y pointers & edit the dereferenced items.

need to store a temp int so that when we write to *x, we still have its value. Note: temp only has to be an int since x & y are int pointers & *x dereferences the pointer so it returns an int.

note

$x++$ (post increment)	$++x$ (pre increment)
temp = x	x += 1
x += 1	return x
return temp	

Exercise:

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```
5     }
6     return count;
7 }
```

What is another method we could use to determine the length/end of an array?
Hint: Think about strings.

Answer: Add some null byte to signify end. Drawback is you lose one integer of storage could have used.

2.2 The following functions may contain logic or syntax errors. Find and correct them.

- (a) Returns the sum of all the elements in summands.

It is necessary to pass a size alongside the pointer.

```
1 int sum(int* summands, size_t n) {
2     int sum = 0;
3     for (int i = 0; i < n; i++)
4         sum += *(summands + i);
5     return sum;
6 }
```

was size of (summands),

sizeof() returns the size of the type, since summands is an int pointer, in a standard 32 bit system, this would be 4B, (aka sizeof(int*) == 4).

- (b) Increments all of the letters in the string which is stored at the front of an array of arbitrary length, n >= strlen(string). Does not modify any other parts of the array's memory.

The ends of strings are denoted by the null terminator rather than n. Simply having space for n characters in the array does not mean the string stored inside is also of length n.

```
1 void increment(char* string) {
2     for (i = 0; string[i] != 0; i++)
3         string[i]++; // or (*(string + i))++;
4 }
```

This is because the null terminator '\0' == 0.

does same thing.

Another common bug to watch out for is the corner case that occurs when incrementing the character with the value 0xFF. Adding 1 to 0xFF will overflow back to 0, producing a null terminator and unintentionally shortening the string.

0xFF = 1111 1111
+ 0000 0001

1 0000 0000

means to check for null before incrementing. this = 0x00 = '\0'

- (c) Copies the string src to dst.

```
1 void copy(char* src, char* dst) {
2     while (*dst++ = *src++);
3 }
```

remember
*dst++ =
temp = *src
dst++ =
return *temp

so this copies each elm to next arr. common errors are students confusing this with *++dst = *++src which would skip first elm & go out of bounds of arr by 1.

No errors.

- (d) Overwrites an input string src with "61C is awesome!" if there's room. Does nothing if there is not. Assume that length correctly represents the length of src.

```
1 void cs61c(char* src, size_t length) {
2     char *srcptr, replaceptr;
3     char replacement[16] = "61C is awesome!";
4     srcptr = src;
5     replaceptr = replacement;
6     if (length >= 16) {
```

length of ("61C is awesome!") = 16.

↳ in static

```

7      for (int i = 0; i < 16; i++)
8          *srcptr++ = *replaceptr++;
9      }
10 }

```

`char *srcptr`, `replaceptr` initializes a `char` pointer, and a `char`—not two `char` pointers.

The correct initialization should be, `char *srcptr`, `*replaceptr`.

3 Memory Management

3.1 For each part, choose one or more of the following memory segments where the data could be located: **code**, **static**, **heap**, **stack**.

(a) Static variables

Static

(b) Local variables

Stack

(c) Global variables — Program variables

Static

(d) Constants

Code, static, or stack

Ex Fn:

`int x = 0` ← global variable

`void foo() {`

`int y = x;` ← `y` is local variable.

`x++;`

`char *static = "Hello";` ← way to think about this is char points to read only string.

`char stack[] = "CS61C";`

↑ This is a pointer to the read only static data.

↑ This is a pointer to a part of the stack.

Constants can be compiled directly into the code. `x = x + 1` can compile with the number 1 stored directly in the machine instruction in the code. That instruction will always increment the value of the variable `x` by 1, so it can be stored directly in the machine instruction without reference to other memory. This can also occur with pre-processor macros.

Ex. add 50 (50) (1)

50 = X which is constant in Assembly

Is a variable

Note 50 = register in CPU.

```
1 #define y 5
```

```
2
```

```
3 int plus_y(int x) { x is local variable (stack).
```

```
4     x = x + y;
```

```
5     return x;
```

```
6 }
```

Y is just 1 which is changed on compile. It is NOT a variable once compiled.

Constants can also be found in the stack or static storage depending on if it's declared in a function or not.

```
1 const int x = 1;
```

```
2
```

```
3 int sum(int* arr) {
```

```
4     int total = 0;
```

```
5     ...
```

```
6 }
```

(same as `int const x = 1;`)

read only

In this example, `x` is a variable whose value will be stored in the static storage, while `total` is a local variable whose value will be stored on the stack. Variables declared `const` are not allowed to change, but the usage of `const` can get more tricky when combined with pointers.

- (e) Machine Instructions

Code (TEXT)

- (f) Result of malloc

Heap

- (g) String Literals

Static or stack.

When declared in a function, string literals can be stored in different places. `char* s = "string"` is stored in the static memory segment while `char[7] s = "string"` will be stored in the stack.

add where it points to is the same but the data there can change depending on where it's stored / what pointers it was stored with.

other things = `calloc` + `realloc`; Free can free any of these which allocate.

- Note: they ALL return a pointer to the location on the heap where the data is stored. If it returns NULL, then it could not allocate any more memory. DON'T FORGET NULL CHECK FOR any alloc.

Also `realloc` may or may not use the same location in memory!

- 3.2 Write the code necessary to allocate memory on the heap in the following scenarios

- (a) An array `arr` of `k` integers

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

- (b) A string `str` containing `p` characters

`str = (char *) malloc(sizeof(char) * (p + 1));` Don't forget the null terminator!

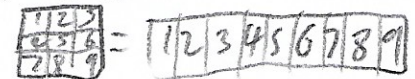
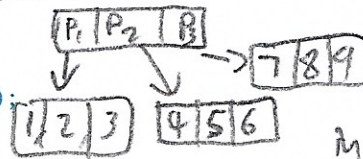
- (c) An $n \times m$ matrix `mat` of integers initialized to zero.

`mat = (int *) calloc(n * m, sizeof(int));`

Alternative solution. This might be needed if you wanted to efficiently permute the rows of the matrix.

- 1 `mat = (int **) calloc(n, sizeof(int *));`
- 2 `for (int i = 0; i < n; i++)`
- 3 `mat[i] = (int *) calloc(m, sizeof(int));`

Where:



could do something like store rows.

Different methods useful in different types of access.

Suppose we've defined a linked list `struct` as follows. Assume `*lst` points to the first element of the list, or is NULL if the list is empty.

```
struct ll_node {
    int first;
    struct ll_node* rest;
}
```

- 3.3 Implement `prepend`, which adds one new value to the front of the linked list.

- 1 `void prepend(struct ll_node** lst, int value) {`
- 2 `struct ll_node* item = (struct ll_node*) malloc(sizeof(struct ll_node));`

2 makes new struct ll_node in the heap

```

3 item->first = value; ← puts value to newly created structure -
4 item->rest = *lst; ← sets rest to current start.
5 *lst = item; ← sets start to newly created & now setup
6 } structure.

```

3.4 Implement `free_ll`, which frees all the memory consumed by the linked list.

```

1 void free_ll(struct ll_node** lst) {
2     if (*lst) { ← checks to see if has actual node & not null.
3         free_ll(&((*lst)->rest)); ← recursively frees the rest structure,
4         free(*lst); ← frees current structure
5     }
6     *lst = NULL; // Make writes to **lst fail instead of writing to unusable memory.
7 }

```

Remember since this is a recursive call, it will free ALL structs in the linked list.