# **CS 136**.RKT IN C

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# **Future Modifications**

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## 1 Modularization

**Definition 1.1.** A **module** is a collection of functions that share a common aspect or purpose. **Modularization** is dividing programs into modules.

- Reusability
- Maintainability
- Abstraction

**Definition 1.2. provide** is used in a module to specify the identifiers available in the module.

fun.rkt

**Definition 1.3. require** is used to identify a module that the current program depends on.

implementation.rkt

```
(require "fun.rkt")
;; Able to use provided functions in required file
(fun? 7); => #t
(fun? -7); => #f
```

## 1.1 Scope

- Local: Visible only in local region
- Module: Only visible in the module it is defined in
- Program: Visible outside the module.

**Quote. require** also outputs the final value of any of the top-level expressions in the module. Only definitions should be included in modules.

**Definition 1.4.** A module **interface** is the list of functions that a module provides. Documentation should be provided.

- Description of module
- List of functions provided

Contract and purpose for each provided function

**Definition 1.5.** The **implementation** is the code for the module.

- Hides implementation details from client
- Security
- Flexibility to modify implementation

**Definition 1.6. High cohesion** means that all interface functions are related.

**Definition 1.7. Low coupling** means that there is little interaction between modules.

### Quote. Always truncate decimals

```
int main (void) {
  printf(''Hello World! \n'')
}
```

#### **Definition 1.8.** %d is used as a placeholder to the values that follow.

```
1 printf("%d plus %d is: %d\n", 1 + 1, 2, 2 + 2);
```

In racket, a is used as a placeholder.

```
1 (printf 'There are a lights!\n'' 'four'')
2 (printf 'There are a lights!\n'' 'four); Both lines are same
```

#### **Definition 1.9.** Structures in C are very similar to racket.

```
struct posn {
2
     int x;
3
     int y;
4
   }; //Do not forget the semicolon
5
   const struct posn p = {3,4}; // Initialization
6
7
   const struct posn pp = {y=4,x=3}; // This works too
8
   const struct posn pp = {x=3}; // Uninitialized integers are set to 0
9
10
   const int a = p.x;
11
   const int b = p.y;
```

#### **Definition 1.10. begin** produces the value of the last exprssion

```
1 (define (mystery)
2   (begin ; implicit, this line not needed
3     (+ 1 2) ; evaluated, not used
4     (+ 2 2))) ; outputs 4
```

**Quote.** Anything that is not #f in Racket is true.

# 2 Imperative Programming

**Definition 2.1.** The **functional programming paradigm** is to only use constant values that never change. Functions produce new values rather than changing existing ones. In functional programming, there are no side effects.

**Definition 2.2.** A **side effect** does more than produce a value it also changes the state of the program. Sometimes used to debug.

**Definition 2.3.** In an expression statement, the **value** of the expression is **ignored**.

```
1 3 + 4;
```

**Definition 2.4.** A **block** {}, is known as a compound statement, and contains a sequence of statements. Within a block, **local scope definitions** can also be included.

**Definition 2.5. printf** in C returns an int representing the number of characters printed.

**Definition 2.6. Control flow statements** change the flow of a program and the order in which other statements are executed.

- return statement ends the execution of a function and returns a value.
- if and else statements execute statements conditionally

**Quote.** The defining characteristic of **imperative programming paradigm** is to **manipulate state**.

**Definition 2.7. State** refers to the value of a data at a moment in time.

**Definition 2.8.** When the value of a variable is changed, it is called **mutation**.

```
1 int x = 5;
2 struct posn p = {3,4};
```

**Definition 2.9. Prefix** and **postfix** increment operator:

```
x++ // Produces old value, and increments as side effect
++x // Increments x and then produces the value
```

## 3 C Model

**Definition 3.1.** A **bit** has two states: 0 or 1. A **byte** is 8 bits of storage. Each byte is in one of 256 possible states.

**Definition 3.2. Memory addresses** are represented in hex (prefixed with 0x), so a typical address would be 0xFFFFF.

**Definition 3.3. sizeof** produces the amount of space (bytes) a variable uses.

- A char is 1 byte.
- An **int** is 4 bytes.
- An **address** is 8 bytes.

**Note.** When a variable is initialized, three steps occur:

- Reserves space in memory to store the variable
- Records the address to the location
- Store the value of the variable at the address.

 $1 \mid int n = 4;$ 

identifier	type	bytes	address
n	int	4	0x5000

**Quote.** A variable definition reserves space, but declaration does not.

**Note.** If an int is larger than the maximum  $2^31 - 1$  or smaller than the minimum  $-2^31$ , overflow will occur. Remember to always try and avoid chance of overflow wherever possible.

**Note.** For characters, A is 65, a is 97, space is 32, 0 is 48, and newline is 10 in ASCII.

**Note.** The size of a structure is at least the sum of the size of each field.

**Definition 3.4.** A **float** represents real numbers and has a larger range than int. Floats are very imprecise, and doubles are usually used instead.

### 3.1 Memory

Memory can be modelled as

Code
Read-Only Data
Global Data
Heap
Stack

**Definition 3.5.** Converting source code to machine code is known as **compiling** 

**Note.** Global constants are stored in read-only, and global variables are stored in global data. The space is reserved before execution.

**Definition 3.6. control flow** is used to model how programs are executed.

**Definition 3.7.** The history of what a program needs to do is called the **call stack**. When a function is called, it is pushed onto the call stack. When a return is used, an entry is popped off the stack.

**Definition 3.8.** An entry pushed onto a call stack is a **stack frame**. A stack frame consists of

- Argument values
- Local variables
- Return address

**Quote.** When the function returns, the entire stack frame is destroyed along with its local variables.

**Definition 3.9.** When the stack frame is too large, it can collide with other sections of memory. This is called **stack overflow**.

**Quote.** All global variables that are uninitialized are automatically initialized to 0. Uninitiaized local variables have an arbitrary initial value.

## 3.2 Loops

**Definition 3.10. while** reeatedly loops back and executes the statement until the expression is false.

**Definition 3.11.** The **do** statement is similar to the while statement but evaluates the expression after execution. Because of this, the loop is always executed at least once.

**Definition 3.12. break** is used to break out of a loop.

**Definition 3.13. continue** skips the current block of execution and continues the loop.

```
1 int num = 6;
2 while (num!=0) { // 6,3,2,1, end
3  if (num == 6) {
4    num -= 3;
5    continue;
6  }
7  num --;
8 }
```

**Definition 3.14. for** is similar to a condensed form of a while loop.

```
1 for (int i = 0; i < 5; i++) { body }
```

Any component may be omitted in a for loop. An omitted expression is always true. Commas may be used for compound statements in the setup of a for loop.

### 4 Pointers

**Definition 4.1.** The **address operator** & produces the starting address of where the value of an identifier is stored in memory.

**Definition 4.2.** By adding a \* before an identifier, it becomes a pointer, and its value is an address.

**Definition 4.3.** The **indirection operator** \* is the inverse of address operator and produces the value of what a pointer points at.

```
1 int = 42;
2 int *p = &i; //points at address of i
3 int j = *p // 42
```

Note. C mostly ignores whitespace, so the following lines are all equivalent.

```
1 int *pi = &i; // style A (preferred)
2 int * pi = &i; // style B
3 int* pi = &i; // style C
```

**Definition 4.4.** By adding multiple asterisks, a pointer to a pointer may be declared.

```
1 int i = 42;
2 int *pi = &i; // address of i
3 int **ppi = π // address of pi
```

**Definition 4.5. NULL** is a pointer value that represents that the pointer points to nothing.

### 4.1 Pointer Assignment

The value of what a pointer is pointing at may be changed. They can be dereferenced to change the value of the variable they point at without actually using the variable.

```
1 int i = 5;
2 int j = 6;
3 int *p = &i;
4 int *q = p;
5 *q = j; // i = 6
```

**Note.** Pointers may be used to emulate **pass by reference** even though C is pass by value.

```
void inc(int *p) {
   *p += 1;
}

int main(void) {
   int x = 5;
   inc(&x); // note the &
   printf("x = %d\n", x); // NOW it's 6
}
```

This may also be used on structures, but brackets must be added around the dereference (\*p).x

**Definition 4.6.** The **arrow selection operator** (->) combines the indirection and selection operators. This may only be used with a pointer to a structure.

```
int sqr_dist (struct posn *p1, struct posn *p2) {
  const int xdist = p1->x - p2->x;
  const int ydist = p1->y - p2->y;
  return xdist * xdist + ydist * ydist;
}
```

Note. These parameters may also be mutated.

## 5 I/O & Testing

**Definition 5.1. fprintf** has an addition parameter that points to a file. It is similar to printf but prints directly to the file.

```
int main(void) {
  FILE * file_ptr;
  file_ptr = fopen("hello.txt","w"); // w for write
  fprintf(file_ptr, "Hello World!\n");
  fclose(file_ptr);
}
```

**Definition 5.2.** In Racket, **(read)** is used to get a value from keyboard.

```
1 (define key-inp (read))
```

Text is interpreted as symbols unless it is surrounded with double quotes.

**Definition 5.3.** In C, **scanf** is used for keyboard input. scanf returns the number of values successfully read. If there is an error, 0 is returned by scanf.

```
1 int count = scanf('', &', &i); // Reads integer, and stores it in i. Count sho
```

**Note.** When reading in characters, it may be beneficial to ignore whitespace.

```
int count = scanf(''%c'', &c); // May read whitespace
int count2 = scanf (''%c'', &c); // Skips whitespace
```

## 6 Arrays and Strings

```
1 int a[5]; // Valid, size defined
2 int b[] = {4,8,15,16,23,42}; //Valid size can be computed
3 int c[]; // Invalid
```

**Definition 6.1.** The **length** if an array is the number of elements in the array.

**Definition 6.2.** The **size of an array** is the number of bytes it occupies in memory.

**Quote.** C does not explicitly keep track of the array length.

```
int a[] = {2,4}; // a by default points to a[0]
assert(&a == &a[0]);
assert(a == &a);
assert(*a == a[0])
```

**Note.** An array cannot be mutated. Only its elements can change.

```
1 int a[3] = {0, 0, 0};
2 int b[3] = {1, 2, 3};
3 a = b; // INVALID
```

**Quote.** When passing an array to a function, typically the length of the array is unknown and must be provided as a separate parameter.

**Quote.** In an array, pointers can be subtracted. However, pointer arithmetic is only valid within an array.

**Note.** If there are two pointers p and q,

$$p - q = \frac{(p - q)}{sizeof(*p)}$$
$$p + i = p + i \times sizeof(*p)$$

p[i] is equivalent to \*(p+i).

**Example 6.1.** In **array pointer notation** square brackets are not used, and all array elements are accessed through pointer arithmetic.

```
1
   // Pointer notation
2
   int sum_array(const int *a, int len) {
3
     int sum = 0;
4
     for (const int *p = a; p < a + len; ++p) {</pre>
5
        sum += *p;
6
7
     return sum;
8
9
10
   // Square bracket notation
11
   int sum_array(const int a[], int len) {
12
     int sum = 0;
13
     for (int i = 0; i < len; ++i) {</pre>
        sum += a[i];
14
15
     }
16
     return sum;
17
```

**Definition 6.3. Multi-dimensional data** can be represented by mapping the higher dimensions down to one. That is, to select an element at a specific row and column, you would do data[row&NUMCOLS+col].

**Definition 6.4. Function pointers** store the starting address of a function within the code section. A function pointer in C can only point to a function that already exists.

```
1 int add1(int i) {
2   return i + 1;
3 }
4 
5 int (*fp)(int) = add1;
```

```
// Return value first, then name of function, then its parameters
// Now you can call the function with fp(int i)
// Another is to use it as a parameter
// The below function adds 70 to a number, n
int doSomething(int (*fcn)(int), int n) {
   return fcn(n) + 69;
}
```

Note. These function pointers are useful for abstract list functions seen in Racket.

```
void array_map(int (*f)(int), int a[], int len) {
for (int i = 0; i < len; ++i) {
    a[i] = f(a[i]);
}
</pre>
```

### 6.1 Strings

**Definition 6.5.** A **string** in C is just an array of characters terminated by a null character '0'. If a string is initialized as an array, the null terminator is necessary, but if it is initialized with double quotes, then the null terminator is automatically added.

```
1 char a[] = {'c', 'a', 't', '\0'};
2 char b[] = ''cat'' // Equivalent
```

**Definition 6.6.** C strings used in statements (eg with printf) are known as **string literals**. For these statements, a null terminated const char array is created in the **read-only data section**.

**Definition 6.7.** The **strlen** function returns the length of the string, NOT THE LENGTH OF THE ARRAY. It also does not include the null character. It is found in the <string.h> library.

**Definition 6.8.** Strings are compared by their **lexicographical order**. That is, for each character, sort by the ASCII values of the characters. If the end of one string is encountered, it precedes teh other string. The **strcmp(s1,s2)** function returns 0 if the strings are identical, -1 if s1 < s2, and 1 if s1 > s2.

**Note.** Do not compare strings directly (eg: s1 == s2). This only compares pointers, not the actual content!.

**Quote.** When allocating space for a string, DO NOT FORGET THE NULL CHARACTER.

**Definition 6.9. strcpy(char \* dest, const char \*src)** copies the content of the string src to dest. **strcat(char \* dest, const char \*src)** appends the content of src to dest. Make sure that array is large enough so the content may be copied without **buffer overflow**.

# 7 Efficiency

**Definition 7.1.** An **algorithm** is a step-by-step description of how to solve a problem.

**Definition 7.2. Time efficiency** is how long an algorithm takes to solve a problem.

**Definition 7.3. Space efficiency** is how much space/memory an algorithm requires to solve a problem.

**Definition 7.4.** In this course, the running time of a function is a function of n, denoted T(n). n is usually the length of the input (array, number size, etc). They are usually measured in the worst case.

**Definition 7.5. Big O Notation** showcases the **order** of a running time. That is, it is the dominant power as  $n \to \infty$ .

**Example 7.1.** When adding two orders, the result is the largest of the two orders.

$$O(\log n) + O(n) = (n)$$
 and  $O(1) + O(1) = O(1)$ .

**Example 7.2.** When multiplying two orders, the result is the product of the two orders.

$$O(\log n) \times O(n) = O(n \log n)$$
 and  $O(1) \times O(n) = O(n)$ .

**Definition 7.6. Simple functions** are functions without recursion or iteration. In C, all operations and O(1), so the running time of a simple function is

$$O(1) + \cdots + O(1) = O(1)$$

Should include racket running times slide?

**Definition 7.7.** For recursive functions, we analyze the **recurrence relation**. For now, use a table to determine the runtime.

$$T(n) = O(1) + T(n - k_1) = O(n)$$

$$T(n) = O(n) + T(n - k_1) = O(n^2)$$

$$T(n) = O(1) + T(\frac{n}{k_2})$$

$$T(n) = O(1) + k_2 \cdot T(\frac{n}{k_2})$$

$$T(n) = O(n) + k_2 \cdot T(\frac{n}{k_2})$$

$$T(n) = O(1) + T(n - k_1) + T(n - k_1') = O(2^n)$$

An example of  $2^n$  is the recursive fibonacci sequence.

#### Method 7.1. Procedure for recursive functions:

1. Identify order of function excluding recursion

- 2. Determine size of input for next recursive calls
- 3. Write full recurrence relation, and look up in a table

**Definition 7.8. Iterative analysis** utilizes **summations** instead of recurrence relations.

```
1 for (i = 1; i <=n; i++) {
2  printf("*");
3 } //O(n) time</pre>
```

$$T(n) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} O(1) = \underbrace{O(1) + \dots + O(1)}_{n} = n \times o(1) = O(n)$$

**Note.** If a given list is of constant length (not dependant on input size), all operations are O(1).

```
1 for (int i = 0; i < 696969; i++) {
2   sum+=a[i];
3 }
4 // O(1) linear time because a large number is still a constant.</pre>
```

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} O(1) = O(\log n)$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} O(1) = O(n)$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} O(n) = O(n^{2})$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} O(i) = O(n^{2})$$

#### Method 7.2. Procedure for iteration

- 1. Work from innermst loop to outermost
- 2. Determine number of iterations in the loop
- 3. Determine running time per iteration
- 4. Write summation and simplify expression

**Note.** When the loop counter changes geometrically, the number of lterations is often logarithmic.

```
1 while (n > 0) {
2   // Do something
3   n /= 10;
4 }
```

#### **Example 7.3. Sorting Algorithm:**

- Insertion Sort:  $O(n^2)$
- Selection Sort:  $O(n^2)$
- Merge Sort:  $O(n \log n)$
- Quick Sort:  $O(n^2)$

**Definition 7.9.** A function is **tail recursive** if the recursive call is always the last expression to be evaluated. With tail recursion, the previous stack frame can be **reused** for the next recursion.

# 8 Dynamic Memory

**Definition 8.1. Dynamic memory** is allocaetd from the **heap** while the programming is running.



## 9 Linked Data

**Definition 9.1.** A **linked list node** usually contains an item and a link (pointer) to the next node.

```
1 struct llnode {
2  int item;
3  struct llnode * next;
4 }
```