Week 1: Introduction - Elementary Data and Control Structures in C

COMP9024 25T0

Data Structures and Algorithms

Michael Thielscher

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Course Convenor

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Course Goals

COMP9021 …

- gets you thinking like a *programmer*
- solving problems by developing programs
- expressing your ideas in the language Python

COMP9024 …

- gets you thinking like a *computer scientist*
- knowing fundamental data structures/algorithms
- able to reason about their applicability/effectiveness
- able to analyse the efficiency of programs
- able to code in C

Data structures

- how to store data inside a computer for efficient use

Algorithms

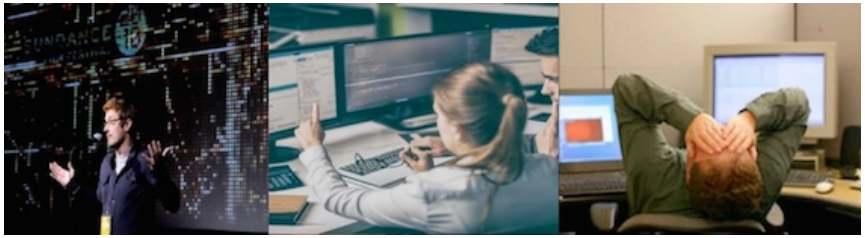
- step-by-step process for solving a problem (within finite amount of space and time)

... Course Goals

COMP9021 …

... Course Goals

COMP9024 …



Pre-conditions

There are no prerequisites for this course.
However we will move at fast pace through the necessary programming fundamentals. You may find it helpful if already you are able to:

- produce correct programs from a specification
- understand variables, assignments, function calls
- use fundamental data structures
  (characters, numbers, strings, arrays)
- use fundamental control structures (`if`, `while`, `for`)
- know fundamental programming techniques (recursion)
- fix simple bugs in incorrect programs

Post-conditions

At the *end* of this course you should be able to:

- choose/develop effective data structures (DS)
  (graphs, search trees, …)
- choose/develop algorithms (A) on these DS
  (graph algorithms, tree algorithms, string algorithms, …)
- analyse performance characteristics of algorithms
- develop and maintain C programs

Access to Course Material

All course information is placed on the main course website:

- www.cse.unsw.edu.au/~cs9024

Need to login to access material, submit homework and assignment, post on the forum, view your marks

Access lecture recordings and quizzes on Moodle:

- COMP9024 Data Structures & Algorithms - 2025 T0

Always give credit when you use someone else's work.

Ideas for the COMP9024 material are drawn from

- slides by John Shepherd (COMP1927), Hui Wu (COMP9024) and Alan Blair (COMP1917)
- Robert Sedgewick's and Alistair Moffat's books, Goodrich and Tamassia's Java book, Skiena and Revilla's programming challenges book

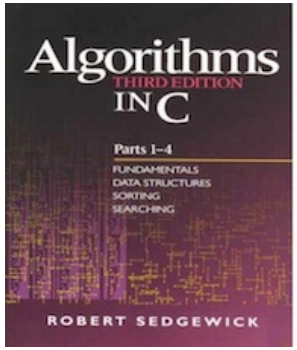
Schedule

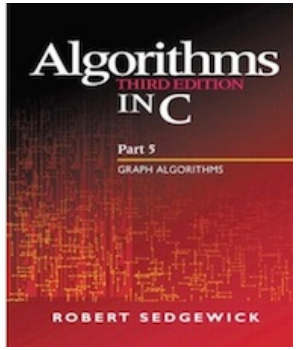
Week	Lectures	Assessment	Notes
1	Introduction, C language	programs	
2 Tue	Analysis of algorithms	quiz	
2 Thu	Dynamic data structures	programs	
3 Tue	Graph data structures	quiz	
3 Thu	Graph algorithms	programs	Large Assignment
4	**Midterm test (Tuesday AM)**		|
4 Tue	Search tree data structures	quiz	|
4 Thu	Search tree algorithms	programs	|
5 Tue	Text processing, Approximation	quiz	|
5 Thu	Randomised algorithms, Review		| due

Resources

Textbook is a "double-header"

- *Algorithms in C, Parts 1-4*, Robert Sedgewick
- *Algorithms in C, Part 5*, Robert Sedgewick



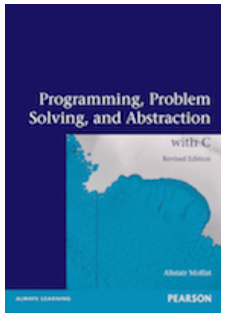


Good books, useful beyond COMP9024 (but coding style …)

... Resources

Supplementary textbook:

- Alistair Moffat
  Programming, Problem Solving, and Abstraction with C
  Pearson Educational, Australia, Revised edition 2013, ISBN 978-1-48-601097-4



Also, numerous online C resources are available.

Lectures

Lectures will:

- present theory
- demonstrate problem-solving methods
- give practical demonstrations

Lectures provide an alternative view to textbook

Lecture slides will be made available before lecture

Feel free to ask questions, but No Idle Chatting

Labs

- work on weekly programming exercises (⇒ Problem sets)
- get your weekly program submissions marked

First lab today (Tuesday) at 1pm-2pm *or* 2pm-3pm

- familiarise yourself with CSE lab room
- set yourself up to program in C on lab computer/your own device
- learn how to download and compile C programs
- learn how to write and run a small C porgram

No afternoon lecture today!

Problem Sets

The two weekly problem sets aim to:

- clarify any problems with lecture material
- work through exercises related to lecture topics
- give practice with algorithm design skills (think before coding)

Problem sets available on web at the time of the lecture

Sample solutions will be posted on Fridays (Tues homework) and Mondays (Thur homework)

Do them yourself! and Don't fall behind!

Weekly Assessments

On Thusdays (week 1 — week 4):

- you will be asked to submit 1 or 2 (small) programs
- which will be auto-marked against one or more test cases
- due four days later on *Monday 4:00:00pm*

On Tuesdays (week 2 — week 5):

- you will be given a short quiz (5 questions)
- with questions related to the exercises and the lecture
- due three days later on *Friday 4:00:00pm*

Lab work (programs and quizzes) contributes 8% + 8% to overall mark.

... Weekly Assessments

Strict deadlines (sample solutions posted right after deadline ⇒ no late submissions possible)

Your tutor will discuss with you and mark your programs in your Tues or Thur lab in the following week

- First assessment (Week 1 Problem Set) is due on *Monday, 13 January, 4:00:00pm*

COMP9024 and AI

Why AI is not permitted in COMP9024 for *any* of the assessment items …

- Can't teach you critical thinking, which is essential for *understanding* the core concepts of data structures and algorithms
- Understanding is necessary to judge GenAI output (and for the final exam)
- Only by doing the work yourself, you gain confidence and competence in your analytical and coding abilities

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... COMP9024 and AI

In later courses you will be allowed to, and learn, how to use generative AI as a programming assistant

You should then always acknowledge the use of generative AI and provide the prompts you used

Acknowldgement: The previous slide was made with the help of Microsoft Copilot using the prompt, *Give me 3-5 bullet points explaining to my students in an introductory course on data structures and algorithms why they should never use generative AI to solve their exercises*.

Large Assignment

The large assignment gives you experience applying tools/techniques
(but to a larger programming problem than the homework)

The assignment will be carried out individually.

The assignment will be released in week 3 and is due in week 5.

The assignment contributes 12% to overall mark.

Penalty of 5% of maximum mark will be applied for every day late after the deadline, capped at 5 days (120 hrs)

- 2 hours late: -0.6 marks reduction
- 2 days and 23 hrs late: -1.8 marks reduction
- 5 days and 1 hour late: 0 marks

NB: Late submissions *not* possible for weekly assessments

... Large Assignment

Advice on doing the large assignment:

Programming assignments always take longer than you expect.

Don't leave them to the last minute.

Organising your time → no late penalty.

If you do leave them to the last minute:

- take the late penalty rather than copying

Plagiarism

Just Don't Do it

We get very annoyed by people who plagiarise.

... Plagiarism

Examples of Plagiarism (student.unsw.edu.au/plagiarism/integrity):

1. Copying

   Using same or similar idea *without acknowledging the source*
   This includes copying ideas from *websites*, *chatbots*

   In particular this includes asking ChatGPT, GitHub CoPilot, Gemini, …

2. Collusion

   Presenting work as independent when produced in collusion with others
   This includes *students providing their work to another student*

   - which includes using any form of *publicly readable code repository*

Plagiarism will be checked for and punished (entry on UNSW register, 0 marks for assignment or 00FL for course)

For COMP9024 you will need to complete a short online course on Academic Integrity in Programming Courses

- We will ask for your completion certificate

Mid-term Test

1-hour online test in week 4 (*Tuesday, 28 January, at time of the AM lecture*)

Format:

- some multiple-choice questions
- some descriptive/analytical questions with short answers

The midterm test contributes 12% to overall mark

Final Exam

2-hour ~~torture~~ exam during the exam period, *in person on campus*

Format:

- some multiple-choice questions
- some descriptive/analytical questions with open answers

The final exam contributes 60% to overall mark.

Must score at least 25/60 in the final exam to pass the course.

... Final Exam

How to pass the midterm test and the Final Exam:

- do the Homework *yourself*
- do the Homework *every week*
- practise programming in C *from Day 1*
- practise programming outside classes
- read the lecture notes
- read the corresponding chapters in the textbooks

Summary

Assessment structure:

```
lab work       = mark for programs/quizzes (out of 8+8)
+ final exam   = mark for final exam       (out of 60)
+ assignment   = mark for large assignment (out of 12)
+ midterm test = mark for mid-term test    (out of 12)
```

Must score at least 25/60 in the final exam to pass the course.

... Summary

The goal is for you to become a better Computer Scientist

- more confident in your own ability to choose data structures
- more confident in your own ability to develop algorithms
- able to analyse and justify your choices
- producing a better end-product
- ultimately, enjoying the software design and development process

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C Programming Language

Why C?

- good example of an imperative language
- gives the programmer great control
- produces fast code
- many libraries and resources
- main language for writing operating systems and compilers; and commonly used for a variety of applications in industry (and science)

Brief History of C

- C was originally designed for and implemented on UNIX
- B (author: Ken Thompson, 1970) was the predecessor to C, but there was no A
- Dennis Ritchie was the author of C (around 1971)
- American National Standards Institute (ANSI) C standard published in 1988
  - this greatly improved source code portability
- Current standard: C11 (published in 2011)

Basic Structure of a C Program


```
// include files
// global definitions

// function definitions
.
.
.

// main function
int main(arguments) {

   // local variables

   // body of main function

   return 0;
}
```

Exercise #1: What does this program compute?


```
#include <stdio.h>

int f(int m, int n) {

   while (m != n) {
      if (m > n) {
         m = m-n;
      } else {
         n = n-m;
      }
```

```
    }
    return m;
}

int main(void) {

    printf("%d\n", f(30,18));
    return 0;
}
```

Example: Insertion Sort in C

Insertion Sort algorithm:

```
insertionSort(A):
|   Input array A[0..n-1] of n elements
|
|   for all i=1..n-1 do
|   |   element=A[i], j=i-1
|   |   while j≥0 and A[j]>element do
|   |       A[j+1]=A[j]
|   |       j=j-1
|   |   end while
|   |   A[j+1]=element
|   end for
```

... Example: Insertion Sort in C


```
#include <stdio.h> // include standard I/O library defs and functions

#define SIZE 6     // define a symbolic constant

int main(void) {                                  // main: program starts here
   int i;                                         // each variable must have a type
   int numbers[SIZE] = { 3, 6, 5, 2, 4, 1 };      /* array declaration
                                                     and initialisation */
   for (i = 1; i < SIZE; i++) {                   // for-loop syntax
      int element = numbers[i];
      int j = i-1;
      while (j >= 0 && numbers[j] > element) {    // logical AND
         numbers[j+1] = numbers[j];
         j--;                                     // abbreviated assignment j=j-1
      }
      numbers[j+1] = element;                     // statements terminated by ;
   }                                              // code blocks enclosed in { }

   for (i = 0; i < SIZE; i++)
      printf("%d\n", numbers[i]);                 // printf defined in <stdio>

   return 0;             // return program status (here: no error) to environment
}
```

Compiling with gcc

C source code: `prog.c`

↓

`a.out` **(executable program)**

To compile a program `prog.c`, you type the following:

```
prompt$ gcc prog.c
```

To run the program, type:

```
prompt$ ./a.out
```

... Compiling with gcc

Command line options:

- The default with `gcc` is not to give you any warnings about potential problems
- Good practice is to be tough on yourself:

  ```
  prompt$ gcc -Wall -Werror prog.c
  ```

  which reports as errors all warnings to anything it finds that is potentially wrong or non ANSI compliant

- The `-o` option tells `gcc` to place the compiled object in the named file rather than `a.out`

  ```
  prompt$ gcc -o prog prog.c
  ```

Sidetrack: Printing Variable Values with `printf()`

Formatted output written to standard output (e.g. screen)

`printf(`*`format-string`*`, `*`expr`*$_1$*`, `*`expr`*$_2$*`, …);`

`format-string` can use the following placeholders:

`%d`	decimal	`%f`	floating-point
`%c`	character	`%s`	string
`\n`	new line	`\"`	quotation mark

Examples:

```
num = 3;
printf("The cube of %d is %d.\n", num, num*num*num);

The cube of 3 is 27.

id  = 'z';
num = 1234567;
printf("Your \"login ID\" will be in the form of %c%d.\n", id, num);
```

Your "login ID" will be in the form of z1234567.

- Can also use width and precision:

```
printf("%8.3f\n", 3.14159);
```

```
   3.142
```

Algorithms in C

Basic Elements

Algorithms are built using

- assignments
- conditionals
- loops
- function calls/return statements

Assignments

- In C, each statement is terminated by a semicolon `;`
- Curly brackets `{ }` used to enclose statements in a block
- Usual arithmetic operators: `+, -, *, /, %`
- Usual assignment operators: `=, +=, -=, *=, /=, %=`
- The operators `++` and `--` can be used to increment a variable (add 1) or decrement a variable (subtract 1)
  - It is recommended to put the increment or decrement operator after the variable:

```
         // suppose k=6 initially
k++;     // increment k by 1; afterwards, k=7
n = k--; // first assign k to n, then decrement k by 1
         // afterwards, k=6 but n=7
```

  - It is also possible (but NOT recommended) to put the operator before the variable:

```
         // again, suppose k=6 initially
++k;     // increment k by 1; afterwards, k=7
n = --k; // first decrement k by 1, then assign k to n
         // afterwards, k=6 and n=6
```

... Assignments

C assignment statements are really expressions

- they return a result: the value being assigned
- the return value is generally ignored

Frequently, assignment is used in loop continuation tests

- to combine the test with collecting the next value
- to make the expression of such loops more concise

Example: The pattern

```
v = readNextItem();
while (v != 0) {
   process(v);
   v = readNextItem();
}
```

is often written as

```
while ((v = readNextItem()) != 0) {
   process(v);
}
```

Example:

`readNextItem()` returns 42
⇒ `v = 42`
⇒ `42 != 0`
⇒ `process(42)`

Exercise #2: What are the final values of `a` and `b`?

1.
```
a = 1; b = 5;
while (a < b) {
   a++;
   b--;
}
```

2.
```
a = 1; b = 5;
while ((a += 2) < b) {   // careful: assignment used in expression!
   b--;
}
```

---

1. `a == 3, b == 3`
2. `a == 5, b == 4`

Conditionals

Relational and logical operators

`a > b`	`a` greater than `b`
`a >= b`	`a` greater than or equal `b`
`a < b`	`a` less than `b`
`a <= b`	`a` less than or equal `b`

`a == b`	`a` equal to `b`
`a != b`	`a` not equal to `b`
`a && b`	`a` logical and `b`
`a || b`	`a` logical or `b`
`! a`	logical not `a`

A relational or logical expression evaluates to **1** if true, and to **0** if false

---

... Conditionals


```
if (expression) {
   some statements;
}

if (expression) {
   some statements1;
} else {
   some statements2;
}
```

- *some statements* executed if, and only if, the evaluation of *expression* is non-zero
- *some statements*$_1$ executed when the evaluation of *expression* is non-zero
- *some statements*$_2$ executed when the evaluation of *expression* is zero
- Statements can be single instructions or blocks enclosed in `{ }`

... Conditionals

Indentation is very important in promoting the readability of the code

Each logical block of code is indented:

```
// Style 1
if (x)
{
   statements;
}
```

```
// Style 2 (my preference)
if (x) {
   statements;
}
```

```
// Preferred else-if style
if (expression1) {
   statements1;
} else if (exp2) {
   statements2;
} else if (exp3) {
   statements3;
} else {
   statements4;
}
```

Exercise #3: Conditionals

1. What is the output of the following program fragment?

```
if ((x > y) && !(y-x <= 0)) {
    printf("Aye\n");
} else {
    printf("Nay\n");
}
```

2. What is the resulting value of `x` after the following assignment?

```
x = (x >= 0) + (x < 0);
```

---

1. The condition is unsatisfiable, hence the output will always be

   `Nay`

2. No matter what the value of `x`, one of the conditions will be true (==1) and the other false (==0)
   Hence the resulting value will be `x == 1`

Loops

C has two different "while loop" constructs

```
// while loop
while (expression) {
    some statements;
}
```

```
// do .. while loop
do {
   some statements;
} while (expression);
```

The `do .. while` loop ensures the statements will be executed at least once

---

... Loops

The "for loop" in C

```
for (expr1; expr2; expr3) {
   some statements;
}
```

- `expr1` is evaluated before the loop starts
- `expr2` is evaluated at the beginning of each loop
  - if it is non-zero, the loop is repeated
- `expr3` is evaluated at the end of each loop

Example:

```
for (i = 1; i < 10; i++) {
   printf("%d %d\n", i, i * i);
}
```

Each **`expr`** can be empty ⇒ nothing to evaluate

- `expr2` empty ⇒ always true

Exercise #4: What is the output of this program?


```
int i, j;
for (i = 8; i > 1; i /= 2) {
    for (j = i; j >= 1; j--) {
        printf("%d%d\n", i, j);
    }
    printf("\n");
}
```

```
88
87
..
81

44
..
41

22
21
```

Functions

Functions have the form

```
return-type function-name(parameters) {

    local variable declarations

    statements

    return …;
}
```

- if *`return_type`* is **`void`** then the function does not return a value
- if *`parameters`* is **`void`** then the function has no arguments

... Functions

When a function is called:

1. the arguments in the *calling* function are evaluated
2. C uses "call-by-value" parameter passing …
   - the function works only on its own local copies of the parameters, not the ones in the calling function
3. function code is executed, until a **`return`** statement is reached

   ```
   return expression;
   ```

   - the returned *`expression`* will be evaluated
   - the calling function is free to use the returned value, or to ignore it

   The return statement can also be used to terminate a function of return-type `void`:

   ```
   return;
   ```

... Functions

Example:

```
// Euclid's gcd algorithm (recursive version)
int euclid_gcd(int m, int n) {
    if (n == 0) {
        return m;
    } else {
        return euclid_gcd(n, m % n);
    }
}
```

```
x = euclid_gcd(30, 12)
  ⇒ return euclid_gcd(12, 6)
    ⇒ return euclid_gcd(6, 0)
      ⇒ return 6
    ⇒ return 6
  ⇒ return 6
⇒ x = 6
```

Data Structures in C

Basic Data Types

- In C each variable must have a type
- C has the following generic data types:

`char`	character	`'A'`, `'e'`, `'#'`, …
`int`	integer	`2`, `17`, `-5`, …
`float`	floating-point number	`3.14159`, …
`double`	double precision floating-point	`3.14159265358979`, …

- Variable declaration must specify a data type and a name; they can be initialised when they are declared:

```
float x;
char  ch = 'A';
int   j = i;
```

... Basic Data Types

Value of a variable can be converted into a different type in expressions:

```
int m = 7, n = 4;

int x;
x = m / n;
// x is 1

float y;

//   Type conversion
y = (float)m / (float)n;
// y is 1.75
```

Arrays

An *array* is

- a collection of same-type variables
- arranged as a linear sequence
- accessed using an integer subscript
- for an array of size *N*, valid subscripts are 0..*N-1*

Examples:

```
int  a[20];    // array of 20 integer values/variables
char b[10];    // array of 10 character values/variables
```

... Arrays

Larger example:

```
#define MAX 20

int i;           // integer value used as index
int fact[MAX];   // array of 20 integer values

fact[0] = 1;
for (i = 1; i < MAX; i++) {
    fact[i] = i * fact[i-1];
}
```

Sidetrack: C Style

We can define a symbolic constant at the top of the file

```
#define SPEED_OF_LIGHT 299792458.0
#define ERROR_MESSAGE "Out of memory.\n"
```

Symbolic constants make the code easier to understand and maintain

```
#define NAME replacement_text
```

- The compiler's pre-processor will replace all occurrences of `NAME` with `replacement_text`
- it will **not** make the replacement if `NAME` is inside quotes (`"..."`) or part of another name

---

... Sidetrack: C Style

UNSW Computing provides a style guide for C programs:

C Coding Style Guide (http://wiki.cse.unsw.edu.au/info/CoreCourses/StyleGuide)

Not strictly mandatory for COMP9024, but very useful guideline

Style considerations that *do* matter for your COMP9024 assignments:

- use proper layout, including consistent indentation
  - 3 spaces throughout, or 4 spaces throughout
    do *not* use TABs
- keep functions short and break into sub-functions as required
- use meaningful names (for variables, functions etc)
- use symbolic constants to avoid burying "magic numbers" in the code
- comment your code

... Sidetrack: C Style

C has a reputation for allowing obscure code, leading to …

The International Obfuscated C Code Contest

- Run each year since 1984
- Goal is to produce
  - a working C program
  - whose appearance is obscure
  - whose functionality unfathomable
- Web site: `www.ioccc.org`
- 100's of examples of bizarre C code
  (understand these → you are a C master)

... Sidetrack: C Style

Most artistic code (Eric Marshall, 1986)

```
                                                  extern int
                                                      errno
                                                        ;char
                                                           grrr
                              ;main(                         r,
  argv, argc )              int    argc                        ,
   r        ;               char *argv[];{int                    P( );
#define x  int i,          j,cc[4];printf("      choo choo\n"     ) ;
x  ;if     (P(  !          i               )        |  cc[  !      j ]
&  P(j     )>2  ?          j               :        i  ){*  argv[i++ +!-i]
;              for     (i=               0;;    i++                    );
_exit(argv[argc- 2     / cc[1*argc]|-1<4 ]    ) ;printf("%d",P(""));}}
  P  (     a  )    char a    ;  {     a  ;   while(     a  >       "  B   "
  /* -     by E             ricM    arsh              all-      */);    }
```

... Sidetrack: C Style

Just plain obscure (Ed Lycklama, 1985)

```
#define o define
#o ___o write
#o ooo (unsigned)
#o o_o_ 1
#o _o_ char
#o _oo goto
#o _oo_ read
#o o_o for
#o o_ main
#o o__ if
#o oo_ 0
#o _o(_,__,___)(void)___o(_,__,ooo(___))
#o __o (o_o_<<((o_o_<<(o_o_<<o_o_))+(o_o_<<o_o_)))+(o_o_<<(o_o_<<(o_o_<<o_o_)))
o_(){_o_ _=oo_,__,___,____[__o];_oo ______;_____:___=__o-o_o_; _______:
_o(o_o_,____,__=(_-o_o_<___?_-o_o_:___));o_o(;__;_o(o_o_,"\b",o_o_),__--);
_o(o_o_," ",o_o_);o__(--___)_oo _______;_o(o_o_,"\n",o_o_);______:o__(_=_oo_(
oo_,____,__o))_oo _____;}
```

Strings

"String" is a special word for an array of characters

- end-of-string is denoted by `'\0'` (of type `char` and always implemented as 0)

Example:

If a character array `s[11]` contains the string `"hello"`, this is how it would look in memory:

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
h	e	l	l	o	\0					

Array Initialisation

Arrays can be initialised by code, or you can specify an initial set of values in declaration.

Examples:

```
char s[6]   = {'h', 'e', 'l', 'l', 'o', '\0'};

char t[6]   = "hello";

int fib[20] = {1, 1};

int vec[]   = {5, 4, 3, 2, 1};
```

In the third case, `fib[0] == fib[1] == 1` while the initial values `fib[2] .. fib[19]` are undefined.

In the last case, C infers the array length (as if we declared `vec[5]`).

Exercise #5: What is the output of this program?


```
 1  #include <stdio.h>
 2
 3  int main(void) {
 4     int arr[3] = {10,10,10};
 5     char str[] = "Art";
 6     int i;
 7
 8     for (i = 1; i < 3; i++) {
 9        arr[i] = arr[i-1] + arr[i] + 1;
10        str[i] = str[i+1];
11     }
12     printf("Array[2] = %d\n", arr[2]);
13     printf("String = \"%s\"\n", str);
14     return 0;
15  }
```

```
Array[2] = 32
String = "At"
```

Sidetrack: Reading Variable Values with `scanf()` and `atoi()`

Formatted input read from standard input (e.g. keyboard)

`scanf(`*`format-string`*`, `*`expr`*$_1$*`, `*`expr`*$_2$*`, …);`

Converting string into integer

```
int value = atoi(string);
```

Example:

```
#include <stdio.h>   // includes definition of and scanf()
#include <stdlib.h>  // includes definition of atoi()

#define INPUT_STRLEN 20

...

char str[INPUT_STRLEN];
int n;

printf("Enter a string: ");
scanf("%19s", str);  // placeholder for string with at most 19 chars read
n = atoi(str);
printf("You entered: \"%s\". This converts to integer %d.\n", str, n);


Enter a string: 9024
You entered: "9024". This converts to integer 9024.
```

Arrays and Functions

When an array is passed as a parameter to a function

- the address of the start of the array is actually passed

  → an exception to the 'call-by-value' parameter passing in C!

Example:

```
int total, vec[20];
…
total = sum(vec);
```

Within the function …

- the size of the array is unknown

... Arrays and Functions

Since functions do not know how large an array is:

- pass in the size of the array as an extra parameter, or
- include a "termination value" to mark the end of the array

So, the previous example would be more likely done as:

```
int total, vec[20];
…
total = sum(vec,20);
```

Also, since the function doesn't know the array size, it can't check whether we've written an invalid subscript (e.g. in the above example 100 or 20).

Exercise #6: Arrays and Functions

Implement a function that sums up all elements in an array.

Use the *prototype*

```
int sum(int[], int)
```

```
int sum(int vec[], int dim) {
   int i, total = 0;

   for (i = 0; i < dim; i++) {
      total += vec[i];
   }
   return total;
}
```

Multi-dimensional Arrays

Examples:

```
float q[2][2];
```

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0.5 & 2.7 \\ 3.1 & 0.1 \end{bmatrix}$$

```
int r[3][4];
```

$$\begin{bmatrix} 5 & 10 & -2 & 4 \\ 0 & 2 & 4 & 8 \\ 21 & 2 & 1 & 42 \end{bmatrix}$$

Note: `q[0][1]==2.7  r[1][3]==8  q[1]=={3.1,0.1}`

Multi-dimensional arrays can also be initialised:

```
float q[][] = {
   { 0.5, 2.7 },
   { 3.1, 0.1 }
};
```

Sidetrack: Defining New Data Types

C allows us to define new data type (names) via `typedef`:

```
typedef ExistingDataType NewTypeName;
```

Examples:

```
typedef float Temperature;

typedef int Matrix[20][20];

…

Temperature x;
Matrix M;
```

... Sidetrack: Defining New Data Types

Reasons to use `typedef`:

- give meaningful names to value types (documentation)
  - is a given number `Temperature`, `Dollars`, `Volts`, …?
- allow for easy changes to underlying type

```
typedef float Real;
Real complex_calculation(Real a, Real b) {
    Real c = log(a+b); … return c;
}
```

- "package up" complex type definitions for easy re-use
  - many examples to follow; `Matrix` is a simple example

Structures

A *structure*

- is a collection of variables, perhaps of different types, grouped together under a single name
- helps to organise complicated data into manageable entities
- exposes the connection between data within an entity
- is defined using the `struct` keyword

Example:

```
typedef struct {
    char name[30];
    int  zID;
} StudentT;
```

... Structures

One structure can be *nested* inside another:

```
typedef struct {
        int day, month;
} DateT;

typedef struct {
        int hour, minute;
} TimeT;

typedef struct {
        char   plate[7];   // e.g. "DSA42X"
        double speed;
        DateT  d;
        TimeT  t;
} TicketT;
```

... Structures

Possible memory layout produced for `TicketT` object:

```
---------------------------------
| D | S | A | 4 | 2 | X | \0|   |    7 bytes + 1 unused ("padding")
---------------------------------
|                         68.4 |    8 bytes
---------------------------------
|             2 |             6 |    8 bytes
---------------------------------
|            20 |            45 |    8 bytes
---------------------------------
```

Note: padding is automatically added to ensure that `speed` starts at a memory address divisible by 8 (because it's an 8-byte data type).

Don't normally care about internal layout, since fields are accessed by their name.

Sidetrack: Numeral Systems

Numeral system … system for representing numbers using digits or other symbols.

- Most cultures have developed a *decimal* system (based on 10)
- For computers it is convenient to use a *binary* (base 2) or a *hexadecimal* (base 16) system

---

... Sidetrack: Numeral Systems

Decimal representation

- The base is 10; digits 0 - 9
- Example: decimal number 4705 can be interpreted as

$$4 \cdot 10^3 + 7 \cdot 10^2 + 0 \cdot 10^1 + 5 \cdot 10^0$$

- Place values:

…	1000	100	10	1
…	10^3	10^2	10^1	10^0

... Sidetrack: Numeral Systems

Binary representation

- The base is 2; digits 0 and 1
- Example: binary number 1101 can be interpreted as

$$1 \cdot 2^3 + 1 \cdot 2^2 + 0 \cdot 2^1 + 1 \cdot 2^0$$

- Place values:

…	8	4	2	1
…	2^3	2^2	2^1	2^0

- Write number as `0b1101` (= 13)

... Sidetrack: Numeral Systems

Hexadecimal representation

- The base is 16; digits 0,1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,A,B,C,D,E,F
- Example: hexadecimal number 3AF1 can be interpreted as

$$3 \cdot 16^3 + 10 \cdot 16^2 + 15 \cdot 16^1 + 1 \cdot 16^0$$

- Place values:

…	4096	256	16	1
…	16^3	16^2	16^1	16^0

- Write number as `0x3AF1` (= 15089)

Exercise #7: Conversion Between Different Numeral Systems

1. Convert `74` to base 2
2. Convert `0x2D` to base 10
3. Convert `0b1011111000101001` to base 16
   - Hint: `1011111000101001`
4. Convert `0x12D` to base 2

---

1. `0b1001010`
2. `45`
3. `0xBE29`
4. `0b100101101`

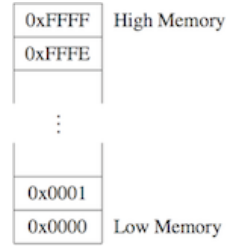
Memory

Computer memory … large array of consecutive data cells or *bytes*

- 1 byte = 8 bits = `0x00` … `0xFF`
- `char` … 1 byte `int,float` … 4 bytes `double` … 8 bytes

When a variable is declared, the operating system finds a place in memory to store the appropriate number of bytes.

It is convenient to print memory addresses in Hexadecimal notation



... Memory

Defining a structured data type itself does not allocate any memory

We need to declare a variable in order to allocate memory

```
DateT christmas;
```

The components of the structure can be accessed using the "dot" operator

```
christmas.day   =   25;
christmas.month =   12;
```

... Memory

With the above `TicketT` type, we declare and use variables as …

```
#define NUM_TICKETS 1500

typedef struct {…} TicketT;

TicketT tickets[NUM_TICKETS];  // array of structs

// Print all speeding tickets in a readable format
for (i = 0; i < NUM_TICKETS; i++) {
    printf("%s %6.2f %d/%d at %d:%d\n", tickets[i].plate,
                                        tickets[i].speed,
                                        tickets[i].d.day,
                                        tickets[i].d.month,
                                        tickets[i].t.hour,
                                        tickets[i].t.minute);
}

// Sample output:
//
// DSA42X  68.40 2/6 at 20:45
```

... Memory

A structure can be passed as a parameter to a function:

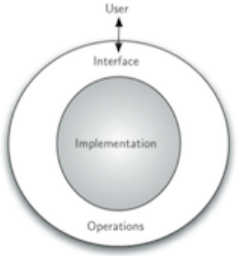
```
void print_date(DateT d) {

        printf("%d/%d\n", d.day, d.month);
}

int is_winter(DateT d) {

        return ( (d.month >= 6) && (d.month <= 8) );
}
```

Data Abstraction

Abstraction

An *abstract data structure* …

- is a logical description of how we view the data and operations
- without regard to how they will be implemented
- creates an *encapsulation* around the data
- is a form of *information hiding*



... Abstraction

Clients of an abstract data structure see only the *interface*

- a user-view of the data structure
- function signatures (prototypes) for all operations
- semantics of operations (via documentation)

Builders of the abstract data structure provide an *implementation*

- concrete definition of the data structures
- function implementations for all operations

... Abstraction

An interface is always *opaque*

- clients *cannot* see the implementation via the interface

Abstraction is important because …

- it facilitates decomposition of complex programs
- makes implementation changes invisible to clients
- improves readability and structuring of software
- allows for reuse of modules in other systems

Example: A Stack as an Abstract Data Object (ADO)

Stack, aka *pushdown stack* or *LIFO data structure* (last in, first out)

Assume (for the time being) a stack of `int` values

Operations:

- *create* empty stack
- insert (*push*) an item onto stack
- remove (*pop*) most recently pushed item
- check whether stack *is empty*

Applications:

- conversion to binary number
- undo sequence in a text editor
- bracket matching algorithm
- …

... Example: A Stack as an Abstract Data Object (ADO)

Example of use:

Stack	Operation	Return value
?	create	-
-	isempty	true
-	push 90	-
90	push 24	-
90 24	push 42	-
90 24 42	pop	42
90 24	isempty	false

Stack vs Queue

Queue, aka *FIFO data structure* (first in, first out)

Insert and delete are called *enqueue* and *dequeue*

Applications:

- the checkout at a supermarket
- objects flowing through a pipe (where they cannot overtake each other)
- chat messages
- printing jobs arriving at a printer
- …

Exercise #8: Stack vs Queue

Consider the previous example but with a queue instead of a stack.

Which element would have been taken out ("dequeued") first?

90

Stack as ADO

Interface (a file named **`stack.h`**)

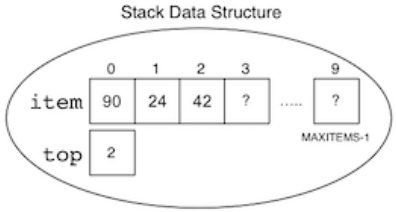
```
// Stack ADO header file

#define MAXITEMS 10

void StackInit();      // set up empty stack
int  StackIsEmpty();   // check whether stack is empty
void StackPush(int);   // insert int on top of stack
int  StackPop();       // remove int from top of stack
```

Note:

- no explicit reference to Stack object
- this makes it an *Abstract* Data Object (ADO)
- gives you *one* stack to work with

... Stack as ADO

Implementation may use the following data structure:




```
typedef struct {
   int item[MAXITEMS];
   int top;
} stackRep;
```

Exercise #9: Stack Functions

Implement the stack function

```
void StackPush(int)
```

Assume the stack, `stackObject`, is defined as

```
stackRep stackObject;
```

```
void StackPush(int v) {
   stackObject.top++;
   int i = stackObject.top;
   stackObject.item[i] = v;
}
```

... Stack as ADO

Implementation (a file named **`stack.c`**):

```
#include "stack.h"
#include <assert.h>

// define the Data Structure
typedef struct {
   int item[MAXITEMS];
   int top;
} stackRep;

// define the Data Object
static stackRep stackObject;

// set up empty stack
void StackInit() {
   stackObject.top = -1;
}

// check whether stack is empty

// insert int on top of stack
void StackPush(int v) {
   assert(stackObject.top < MAXITEMS-1);
   stackObject.top++;
   int i = stackObject.top;
   stackObject.item[i] = v;
}

// remove int from top of stack
char StackPop() {
   assert(stackObject.top > -1);
   int i = stackObject.top;
   int v = stackObject.item[i];
   stackObject.top--;
```

```
int StackIsEmpty() {                    return v;
   return (stackObject.top < 0);    }
}
```

- **`assert(test)`** terminates program with error message if *test* fails
- `static` *`Type Var`* declares *`Var`* as *local* to `stack.c`

... Stack as ADO

A stack can be used to convert a decimal number to another base.

Algorithm, to be implemented as a *client* for stack ADO:

```
numeralConversion(n, k):
|   Input  positive integer n, base k
|   Output conversion of n to base k
|
|   initialise empty stack
|   while n > 0 do
|   |   push n%k onto stack    // modulo division
|   |   n = n / k              // integer division
|   end while
|
|   while stack is not empty do
|   |   n = pop top off stack
|   |   print n
|   end while
```

Exercise #10: Number Conversion With a Stack

Trace the algorithm on n = 13 and k = 2

```
n = 13           --> push 1 (= 13%2)
n = 6  (= 13/2) --> push 0 (= 6%2)
n = 3  (=  6/2) --> push 1 (= 3%2)
n = 1  (=  3/2) --> push 1 (= 1%2)
n = 0  (=  1/2)

pop --> 1
pop --> 1
pop --> 0
pop --> 1

Output: 1101
```

Exercise #11: Implement Number Conversion Algorithm in C

- Use Stack ADO

```
#include "stack.h"
```

Managing Abstract Data Structures in C

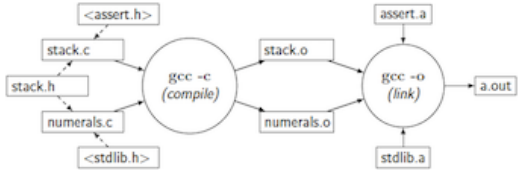
Compilers

Compilers are programs that

- convert program source code to executable form
- "executable" might be machine code or bytecode

The Gnu C compiler (**`gcc`**)

- applies source-to-source transformation (pre-processor)
- compiles *source code* to produce *object files*
- links object files and *libraries* to produce *executables*



... Compilers

Compilation/linking with `gcc`

```
gcc -c stack.c
// produces stack.o, from stack.c (and stack.h)

gcc -c numerals.c
// produces numerals.o, from numerals.c (and stack.h)

gcc -o prog numerals.o stack.o
// links numerals.o, stack.o and libraries
// producing executable program called prog
```

Note `stdio`,`assert` are included implicitly.

`gcc` is a multi-purpose tool

- compiles (`-c`), links, makes executables (`-o`)

Sidetrack: Make/Makefiles

Compilation process is complex for large systems.

How much to compile?

- ideally, only what's changed since last compile

The **make** command assists by allowing

- programmers to document *dependencies* in code
- minimal re-compilation, based on dependencies

... Sidetrack: Make/Makefiles

Example multi-module program …

... Sidetrack: Make/Makefiles

make is driven by dependencies given in a **Makefile**

A *dependency* specifies

```
target : source1 source2 …
        commands to build target from sources
```

e.g.

```
game : main.o graphics.o world.o
        gcc -o game main.o graphics.o world.o
```

Rule: *target* is rebuilt if older than any $source_i$

... Sidetrack: Make/Makefiles

A **Makefile** for the example program:

```
game : main.o graphics.o world.o
        gcc -o game main.o graphics.o world.o

main.o : main.c world.h graphics.h
        gcc -Wall -Werror -std=c11 -c main.c

graphics.o : graphics.c world.h
        gcc -Wall -Werror -std=c11 -c graphics.c

world.o : world.c
        gcc -Wall -Werror -std=c11 -c world.c
```

Things to note:

- A *target* (`game`, `main.o`, …) is on a newline
  - followed by a **:**
  - then followed by the files that the target is dependent on
- The *action* (`gcc …`) is always on a newline
  - and must be indented with a *TAB*

... Sidetrack: Make/Makefiles

If `make` arguments are targets, build just those targets:

```
prompt$ make world.o
gcc -Wall -Werror -std=c11 -c world.c
```

If no args, build first target in the `Makefile`.

```
prompt$ make
gcc -Wall -Werror -std=c11 -c main.c
gcc -Wall -Werror -std=c11 -c graphics.c
gcc -Wall -Werror -std=c11 -c world.c
gcc -o game main.o graphics.o world.o
```

Exercise #12: Makefile

Write a `Makefile` for the number conversion program.

Summary

- Introduction to Algorithms and Data Structures
- C programming language, compiling with `gcc`
  - Basic data types (`char`, `int`, `float`)
  - Basic programming constructs (`if` … `else` conditionals, `while` loops, `for` loops)
  - Basic data structures (atomic data types, arrays, structures)
- Introduction to Abstract Data Structures
  - Compilation

- Suggested reading (Moffat):
  - introduction to C … Ch. 1; Ch. 2.1-2.3, 2.5-2.6;

    - conditionals and loops … Ch. 3.1-3.3; Ch. 4.1-4.4
    - arrays … Ch. 7.1, 7.5-7.6
    - structures … Ch. 8.1
- Suggested reading (Sedgewick):
    - introduction to ADTs … Ch. 4.1-4.3
- Coming up …
    - Principles of algorithm analysis ([S] 2.1-2.4, 2.6)

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