#### Revision

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## **Lecture 1, Introduction of Computing**

# **Key Objectives**

Upon completion of this unit you should:

- 1. *Understand* the workflow of computer programming and appreciate computer as a data processing tool.
- 2. *Program*, *debug*, *document* and *test* basic algorithms in C(++) and R, with appropriate coding paradigms.
- 3. *Decide* which programming language to use when faced with a computing task.

#### **Assessed Coursework 1**

Deadline: Friday, Week 13.

**Task**: Given a data set (MNIST) containing images of handwritten digits, implement a simple classification algorithm (k-nearest neighbor), which labels a test image with "0", "1", "2".... "9". Details will be announced in a few weeks.

#### Dataset:



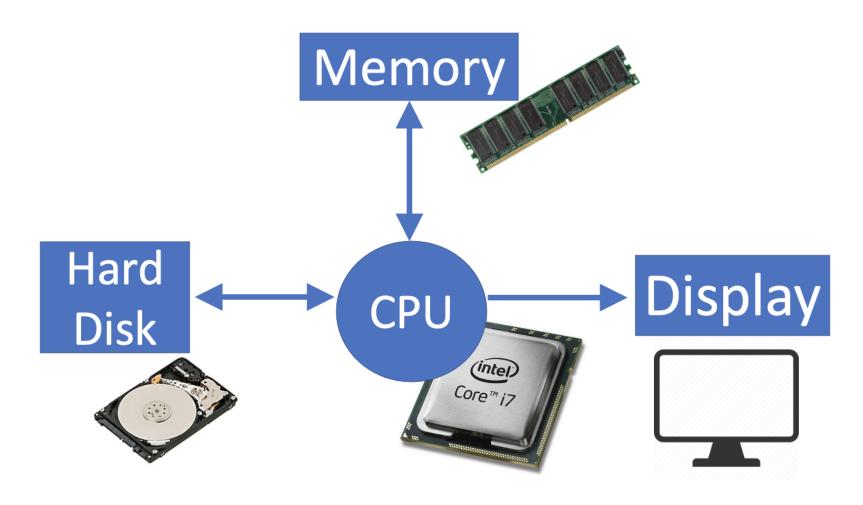
### **Assessed CW Marking Criteria:**

- 5%: You have submitted a C file.
- 10%: Your code can compile and run without any error.
  - It will be tested using gcc in the lab pack.
  - Erratic behavior includes crash, infinite loop.
- 10-30%: You have attempted the coursework "toward the right direction". However, your code does not produce any correct output given specific inputs within reasonable amount of runtime.
- 30-50%: Your code produces partially correct outcome. Though it may suffer from some issues such as memory leak.

### **Assessed CW Marking Criteria:**

- 50%-60%: Your code produces mostly correct output and uses functions/classes dividing functionalities of your program.
- 60%-70%: Your code produces the correct output and code is nicely formatted and comments are made to improve the readability of your code.
- 70%+: Not only your code produces the correct output, but it does so using highly readable and efficient algorithms. Your code is nicely formatted and comments to each function/class. No memory leak or other unpredictable runtime issues.

### **How does Computer Work?**



#### von Neumann Architecture

#### Central Processing Unit (CPU)

- Performs computational tasks.
- Controls Input/Output (IO) devices.
- Maintains data stored in the memory.

#### Memory

Stores program/data being used by CPU temporarily.

#### IO Devices

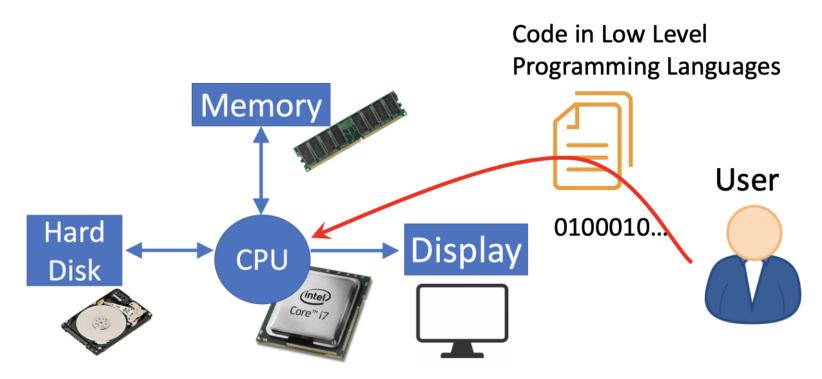
- Hard disk
- Display
- Camera
- Touch Screen, etc.

# What is Programming?

- Programming = writing a list of instructions to be executed on the CPU.
- The list of instructions is called the "code".
- The language used to write the code is called programming language.

# **Low-level Programming Language**

- Coder can program in machine code.
- Then the code can be directly executed on the CPU requiring no (or very little) translation.
- Machine code (and its more human friendly variants) are referred to as "Low-Level Programming Languages".



### **Low-level Programming Language**

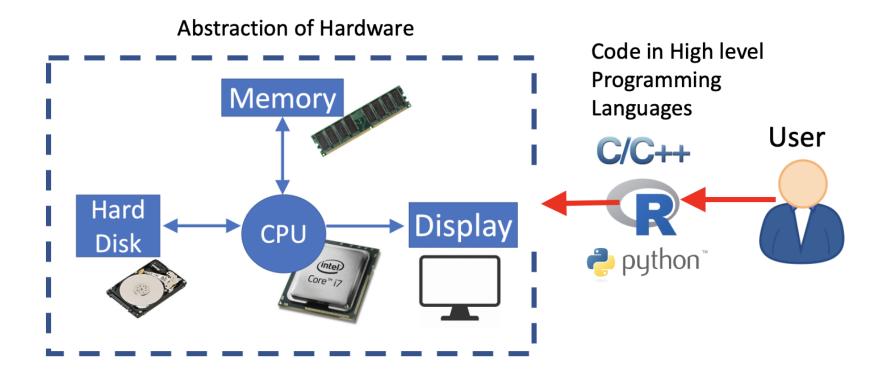
- Advantages of Low-level Programming Language:
  - total control of hardware
  - efficient
- **Disadvantages** of Low-level Programming Language:
  - can damage hardware
  - hard to read/learn
  - o not portable.

# **High-level Programming Language**

- Coder can program in a more natural language, which is then **translated** into machine code.
- This translation process is called "compilation" and the software that performs this translation is called "complier".

#### **Abstraction of Hardware**

- High-level language provides an abstraction of hardware.
- Coder interfaces with this abstraction rather than directly program for the underlying CPU and hardware.



#### **Abstraction of Hardware**

- Writing code for the abstraction has many advantages:
  - Code is portable.
  - Coding is easier since less hardware maintenance.
  - Enhancing the security of the system.

# **High-level Programming Language**

- Advantages of High-level Programming Languages
  - Easy to learn/read.
  - Code is "Portable".
- **Disadvantages** of High-level Programming Languages
  - Less efficient.
  - Cannot directly communicate with hardware.

### **Example Code: C**

Example C code for printing "Hello World!" on almost all CPUs.

```
//filename: main.c
#include <stdio.h>

void main(){
  printf("Hello World!\n");
}
```

#### Compilation:

```
gcc main.c -o main.out
```

#### Execution:

```
./main.out
Hello World!
```

# printf function

- Know the basic usage of printf function and is able to use it in your C code.
- What are specifiers (%) for different types of data. Know at least specifiers for
  - integer
  - float point numbers
  - string
  - character

### Lecture 2, Function and Recursion

# What is a Function in Programming?

- Functions are individual building blocks of your program that accomplish specific tasks.
  - Function helps you divide your code into smaller, more manageable and readable pieces.
  - Code in a function \*\*is only executed when its host function is "called". \*\*
- Some functions take input arguments.
- Some functions return an output value.
- Some functions do not have input or output.

#### **How to Write a Function Definition?**

- A function definition starts by indicating the return type
   (void means no return value will be produced.).
- 2. Followed by the **function name**.
- 3. The **Input arguments** come after that, inside (and).
- 4. The **body of the function** is enclosed by { and } .

```
return_type function_name(input argument deceleration){
   function body
}
```

### Read Example Code Carefully.

PS: You CANNOT write a function inside another function!

You should **NOT** do:

Instead do

```
int cal_length(...){
    void main(){
        ...
}
```

# main with Inputs and an Output

The main function can also take inputs and return output.

```
#include <stdio.h>
int main(int nargs, char* args[]){
   printf("%s\n", args[0]);
   return 0;
}
```

- main takes two inputs: nargs and args. These are passed on to main **from** the OS.
- In this example, main returns an integer value to OS. It returns 0 if succeeded, otherwise, returns a non-zero value.
- main is the only entrance of your program!
  - DO NOT define more than one main in your code!!!

### **Function Body**

```
function_name(...){
  declaration of variables
  other statements
}
```

### Data Types in C

- Some data types are:
  - o int or long:integers
  - float or double : float point numbers
  - char : characters
- Each declaration tells the compiler: "reserve \_\_\_ bytes of memory for this variable when function is running!".
- On modern PCs (and most smartphones):
  - o int and float occupies 4 bytes of memory.
  - long and double occupies 8 bytes of memory.
  - char occupies 1 byte of memory.

#### **Declarations**

Once a variable is declared, the variable is assigned a memory location by the compiler. If the variable is uninitialized, the variable can contain whatever (rubbish) value that is already in that memory location!

### **Expressions**

- Computing operations are done using **expressions**:
  - G\*m1\*m2/dist/dist
  - Each expression has a value. The value of
     G\*m1\*m2/dist/dist is its computation outcome.
- m1 = 1.0, m2 = 2.0, gravity = G\*m1\*m2/dist/dist are all assignment expressions.
  - It assigns the value of expression on the RHS to the variable on the LHS.
  - The equality sign does not represent equality.

#### Relational and Logical Expressions

#### Relational Expression

- $\circ$  expressions like a>b, a!=1 and a==1 && b = 2 are relational expressions. They have values 0 or 1.
- 2>1 has value 1,
- 2>=3 has value 0.
- 1 == 1 has value 1, where == means equal.
- 1 != 1 has value 0, where != means not equal.

#### Logical Expression

- 1==1 && 1 > 2 has value 0, where && means logical
   AND.
- $\circ$  1==1 || 1 > 2 has value 1, where || means logical OR.

### Relational and Logical Expressions

- In C, logical FALSE is expressed by an integer 0.
- Logical TRUE is expressed by any non-zero integer.
- Read this tutorial Operators in C.
- Precedence of Operators

# **Calling a Function**

- You can call a function and obtain its returned value after its definition.
- Calls are made using the function name with all input values in the same order they are declared!
- Read the code example in the original slides.

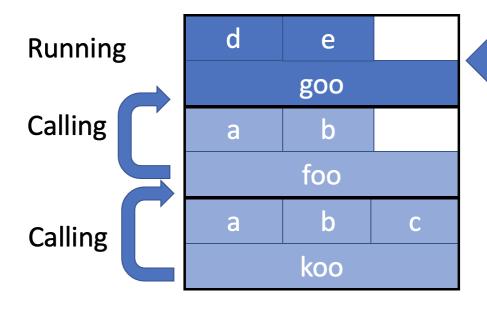
#### Calling a Function: Recursion

- A function can call itself!
  - This is called recursive call.

```
#include <stdio.h>
void countdown_to_1(int n){
    if (n<1) {;}
    else{
        printf("%d\n",n);
        countdown_to_1(n-1);
void main(){
    //It prints 10, 9, 8 ... 1
    countdown_to_1(10);
```

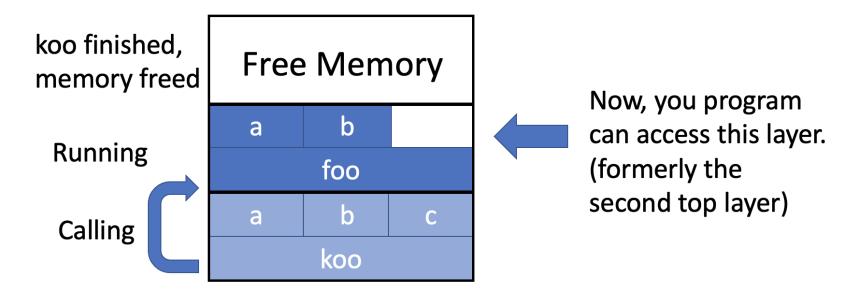
- When the function is being executed on the CPU, its data (such as variables declared in the function) are temporarily stored in the memory.
- The memory region for storing function data in the current program is called "stack".
- When a function is called, its data is added to the top of the stack. You program can access them.
- When a function finishes its execution, its data is removed from the stack and the space it occupies is freed for future calls of functions.

Consider a situation where function koo calls foo and foo calls goo . Below is the stack while goo is running.



Your program can only access the top layer of the stack while goo is running!

When goo finishes running, its memory is freed.



When foo finishes running, its memory will be freed too and only variables in koo will be accessible.

#### **Local Variables**

Variables declared inside the function are called **local variables** (This includes all input argument variables!).

- They can only be accessed by the function where it is defined.
  - They cannot be accessed by other functions.
- Why? The program can only access the top layer of the stack, which stores variables of the function that is currently running.
- In the "koo-foo-goo" example, your program cannot access a and b defined in koo while foo is running.

Stack is a highly efficient memory allocation/release mechanism.

- The memory allocation and release are all automatically handled by the OS.
- However, there is only a limited stack space for each program (determined by the OS). If a single function occupies a large memory space, or the call stack gets too "tall", we may run out of stack memory and an execution error will be raised by the OS.
  - This out-of-memory error is called "Stack Overflow".

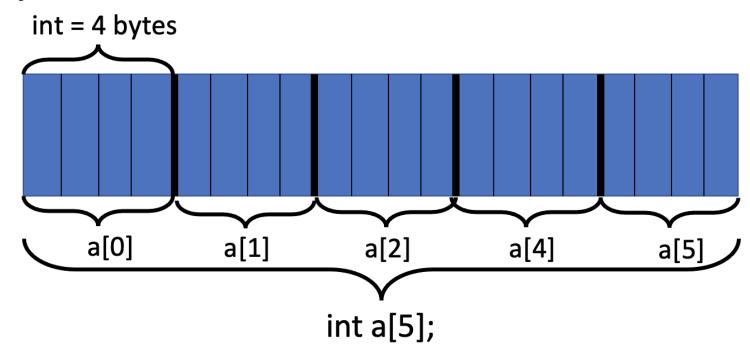
**Lecture 3: Array and Loops** 

#### **Array**

- Array is a fundamental data structure in C programming language that stores a sequence of elements.
- You can declare an array using the syntax:
  - o data\_type variable\_name[array\_size]; .
  - e.g., int a[100]; declares an 100 int elements array.
- You can initialize it using the syntax:
  - o data\_type variable\_name[] = {elements}; .
  - $\circ$  e.g., int a[] = {1,2,3}; . No need to specify the array size.

# **Array**

- You refer to the first element in the array as a [0], the second element as a [1], and so on.
  - o e.g., a[2] = 3; assigns 3 to the third element of a.
- Array is stored in the memory as a continuous chunk of bytes.



## Loops

- When encounter loops, the CPU will continue to execute a block of code, until certain exit conditions are met.
  - If the exit conditions are not set properly, CPU may stuck in a loop and will not exit, wasting computational resources.
  - This situation is called infinite loop.

## While Loop

The simplest loop is while-loop and its syntax is:

```
while(expression){
    statements
}
```

The statements inside of the brackets will only run if expression is true. 3D vector addition can be written as

```
int i = 0;
while(i<3){
    c[i] = a[i] + b[i];
    i = i + 1;
}</pre>
```

## For Loop

- In previous examples, we all maintained a variable i, which increases by one at each iteration.
- The initialization of i, exit condition check and increment of i are all scattered in the code and are difficult to spot.
- for loop would gather these three pieces all in one place.

```
for(init; exit_condition_check; increment){
    ...
}
```

# **Vector Addition, Revisited 2**

```
#include <stdio.h>
void main(){
    double a[] = \{1.0, 2.0, 3.0\},\
           b[] = \{2.0, 3.0, 4.0\};
    double c[3];
    //addition
    for(int i = 0; i < 3; i=i+1){
        c[i] = a[i] + b[i];
    //display each element in the array c
    for(int i = 0; i < 3; i=i+1){
        printf("%f\n", c[i]);
}
```

- This code does the exactly the same thing as the previous while loop, but is arguably more compact.
- Notice i is only accessible inside each for loop!

# **Early Loop Exit**

Using break statement to exit the loop immediately.

```
// finding the smallest number <= 1000000 that
// can be divided by 32 and 23.
int i = 1;
while(i <= 1000000){
   if(i%32 == 0 && i%23== 0){ // & is logical "AND"
        break;
   }
   i = i + 1;
}
printf("%d\n", i);
//displays "736"</pre>
```

# **Early Loop Restart**

Use the continue to restart the next loop immediately.

```
// print numbers < 1000 that can be divided by 39.
for(int i = 1; i < 1000; i++){
   if(i % 39 != 0){
      continue;
      // this statement immediately
      // finishes the current iteration
      // and move on to the next iteration.
   }
   printf("%d\n", i);
}</pre>
```

You can rewrite this program without using continue. How?

# **Array as Input Argument**

You can pass array as input variables of a function:

```
//compute dot product between a and b.
double dot(double a[], double b[]){
   double s = 0;
   for(int i = 0; i < 3; i++){
      s+ = a[i]*b[i];
   }
   return s;
}</pre>
```

If you specify the size of array,

```
double dot(double a[3], double b[3]){
    ...
}
```

The size will be ignored by the compiler.

# **Array as Input Argument**

If I do not know the length of the array, what can I do?

Pass another input argument, specifying the array length.

```
//compute dot product between a and b.
double dot(double a[], double b[], int len){
   double s = 0;
   for(int i = 0; i < len; i++){
      s+ = a[i]*b[i];
   }
   return s;
}</pre>
```

## Pass by Value

When you pass an input argument to a function, you are passing by value: The program will copy the value to the input variable.

```
double square(double a){
    a = a*a;
    return a;
void main(){
    double in = 2;
    double out = square(in);
    printf("%f %f\n", out, in);
    //display 4 2
    //square function does not change the value of
    //its input variable.
}
```

The value of in is copied to the input argument a, thus operations on a has no effect on in.

# Pass by Reference

- However, comparing to ordinary variables, the array occupies a much bigger memory space, thus pass by value can be inefficient.
- In C, array is passed by reference.
  - If callee changes the array, caller's array will also be changed.

## Pass by Reference, Example

```
//add all elements in an array by 1
void addone(double a[], int len){
    for(int i = 0; i< len; i++){</pre>
        a[i] += 1;
void main(){
    double a[] = {1.0, 2.0};
    addone(a,2);
    printf("%f %f\n", a[0], a[1]);
    //display 2 3, NOT 1, 2!!
```

## Return an Array

- Array cannot be returned by a function.
- However, since a function can make changes to caller's array, you can pass an array as input argument, and store results in that array.

```
//compute a+b and store the result in c
void add(double a[], double b[], double c[], int len){
    for(int i = 0; i< len; i++){</pre>
        c[i] = a[i] + b[i];
    }
void main(){
    double a[] = \{1.0, 2.0\}, b[] = \{2.0, 3.0\};
    double c[2];
    add(a,b,c,2);
    printf("%f %f\n", c[0], c[1]);
    //display 3 5
```

# Multidim. Array

Matrix is a rectangle of numbers, arranged in rows and columns.

$$m{A} = egin{bmatrix} 1, & 2, & 3 \ 4, & 5, & 6 \ 7, & 8, & 9 \end{bmatrix}.$$

We can use multidimensional array to store a matrix.

```
//an integer 2D array used to store a 3 by 3 matrix.
//The initialization is row-first.
int A[3][3] = {{1,2,3}, {4,5,6}, {7,8,9}};
```

## Multidim. Array Example

We can use multidimensional array to store a matrix. The following function trace computes the trace of a matrix.

```
#include<stdio.h>
int trace(int nrow, int ncol, int A[nrow][ncol]){
    if (nrow != ncol) {
        printf("not a square matrix!\n");
        return 0;
    int tr = 0;
    for(int i =0; i<nrow; i++){</pre>
        tr += A[i][i];
    return tr;
void main(){
    int A[3][3] = \{\{1,2,3\}, \{4,5,6\}, \{7,8,9\}\};
    printf("%d\n", trace(3, 3, A));
```

# Multidim. Array Example

- It is important to perform a sanity check at your code!
  - Trace operation is only defined on square matrices!
- The compiler does need to know all dimensions of the array!
  - If you want to use other arguments (nrow and ncol in the example above) to specify the dimensions, make sure they are declared before the array.
  - o int trace(int A[nrow][ncol],int nrow, int ncol) will not work!
- Multidimensional array is also passed by reference.

#### Week 4 Lab,

1. Write a function that prints out elements in a matrix A.

```
void print_matrix(int nr, int nc, int A[nr][nc])
```

- Remember to add a space between elements in the same row and add line breaks between rows.
- For example, a matrix

$$oldsymbol{A} = egin{bmatrix} 1, & 20, & 3 \ 4, & 5, & 6 \end{bmatrix}$$

Should be printed out as

```
1.00 20.00 3.00
4.00 5.00 6.00
```

#### Week 4 Lab,

2. Write a function performs the matrix multiplication using multi-dimensional arrays

- Use the skeleton function that is already provided in the lab pack.
- Test your function with dummy inputs, using the function you just wrote in Q1 to print out the outcome and check the correctness of your function.

#### Week 4 Lab,

- 3. (submit) Write a function, that "flattens" a 2D array into 1D array. For example, 2D array {{1,2},{3,4}} is flattened into {1,2,3,4}.
  - i. void flatten(int nrow, int ncol, int a[nrow]
     [ncol], int a\_f[]);
  - ii. After the execution, a\_f stores the flattened array.

#### Week 4 Lab

- 4. Write a function that reads an element from the flattened array as if it is reading from the corresponding 2D array.
  - i. double get\_elem(int nc, double a\_f[], int i, int j), where nc is the number of columns of the unflattend 2D array and i, j are indices of the unflattend 2D array.
  - ii. For example, given a 2D array a , and its flattened version a\_f, get\_elem(nc, a\_f, i, j) should output the value a[i][j].
  - iii. Write no more than one line of code in your get\_elem function.