

Fundamentals of Computing: Lecture 1:

1.16.24

Interpreted Languages: abstract, executed directly, slower
ex. Python

Compiled Languages: more exact, converted into assembly,
faster once compiled

ex. C, Java

* course is taught in C on a Linux environment

To Access Linux Environment:

1. Open Windows PowerShell

2. ssh netID@machineLocation

ex. ssh akurama2@student[10, 11, 12, 13].cse.nd.edu

3. enter netID password

Commands:

pwd → displays location in directory

whoami → displays user

users → displays all users on machine

w → gives info about all users on machine

mkdir [name] → makes directory

ls → lists all subdirectories

cd [name] → enters subdirectory

cd .. → leaves subdirectory

tree → displays all directories

exit → logs out

Lecture 2:

10/19/24

- * Where you land in the machine is your own private home directory
- * There is another directory to submit homework

* ssh - secure shell

* If you are off campus you need to VPN to NDIP

commands:
echo \$HOSTNAME → shows your hostname
pwd → print working directory

"your home directory"
"absolute path"

symbols:

~ → home directory

.. → back up one level

* → show everything

* Directory you are in is your working directory

commands:

tree [name] → makes tree for subdirectory

* GUI's are restrictive, Unix/Linux is a command-line based OS *

* A node must only have one parent,
but can have any n children *

symbols:

/ → directory separator

\ → windows directory separator

commands:

cd [name] / [name] → one step
directory navigator

cd .. / [name] → backs up ad enters
near directory

commands:

cd .. → backs up 2 directories

cd [name]/[name] → relative path

cd /descents/homedir/[user]/[name]/[name]...
→ absolute path

relative path: from one point to another
absolute path: fixed from top

cd ~/[name]/[name] → relative path

anchored from home directory

clear → clears screen

cd ~ → takes you to home directory
(or just cd)

cd ~/[user] → takes you to another
persons home directory

flags:

-l → long listing

get ex. 18-2

commands:

touch [name]. [file type] → creates a file
into [command] → goes into
• space flips page
• q exits screen

man [command] → gives manual on command
• enter goes down a line

symbols:

. → shows current level

commands: ⌘ option

mv [filename] [new filename]
"rename" (source)

* tab autocompletes entries *

* tab again gives autofill options *

mv [filename] [directory]/[directory]...
* moves file through directories

* based on current directory

* you may not have two entries with
the same name in a directory *

* good habit to always put a
/ after mv command

* can move and rename at the same time

cp -r copy

* touch updates timestamp of file already
exists

rm -r removes a file

rmdir -r removes an empty directory

Lecture 3:

1-22-24

- Putty → different way to access more machines
 - allow many sessions and different configs
 - auto-log into ssh
 - putty.org
- VIM → text editor
 - learn it

Create a file:

vim [name].txt

VIM:

- has command mode vs edit mode
 - i → INSERT (edit mode)
 - anything typed goes into text
 - not to case in command mode
 - c → command mode
 - what is typed does not go into text
 - o → goes down (insert after)
 - dcl → deletes a line
 - x → deletes
 - a → appends
 - :w → saves file
 - :set number → shows line numbers
 - local setting
 - need a personalized setting
 - :set mouse=a → allows use of mouse
 - shift + zZ → saves and exits

command:

ls doesn't show ls -a
does

locates home directory

vi .vimrc → dot / underline file

global vim configurations

ls -al → can use ls flags

compiling

saves

exit

compile

run executable

amongst

use two sessions
to avoid this +

have one session for compiling source
and one for editing files +
n → mode in vim

compiling

gcc + give c compiler

gcc [name of file]

no msg means no error

creates a.out file

-o [name] → runs the program

(. means current directory)

(only one can exist at a time)

-O [name] makes it executable

C:

I/O → input/output

printf(); → prints stuff

\n → new line

\t → tab character

\v → vertical tab

\a → rings bell

\.d → placeholder

10.22.24

Lab 01:

vimtutor → opens a VIM Tutor
money cursor:

ch ^
; l >
v

esc → normal / command mode

:q! CENTER > → exits vim, discarding changes

x → deletes char under cursor

i → inserts text to the LEFT of cursor

a → appends text to the RIGHT of cursor

:wq → saves ad exits a file

vim <FILENAME> opens a vim file

dw → deletes a word to the RIGHT cursor

df → deletes a line to the RIGHT of cursor

d motion: 'delete' operator + motion

w → start of next word, EXCLUDING its first character

e → end of the current word, INCLUDING its last character

f → to the ad of the line, INCLUDING the last character

w → moves cursor to start of next word

e → moves cursor to end of next word

* typing a number before a motion repeats it that many times *

0 → moves to the start of the line

t works for d operator *

dd → deletes entire line

u → undo

U → returns a line to its original state

(CTR-P → undo the undo)

operator [number] motion *

wget CLINK → download files from links
o highlight link, copy, and right-click
 "NOT Control-C/C"

gcc CFILENAME.c → ENAME.c → compiles
file with given name

Lecture 4:

1.24.24

stdio.h → standard input/output library
#include → includes a library
rm .ext.sug → removes all sug files
with & acting as a variable
• .sug → removes all sug files
 \ → escapes "
 \\ → escapes \

%d → placeholder for int
%f → placeholder for floats
%lf → placeholder for double
& → address character

• white spaces occur nothing on output
Numbers are always right justified

ZyBooks assignment #1:

- compiler will sometimes predict an error
past the actual error
 - check preceding lines / never succeeds lines
- compiler will sometimes mistakenly report an error
Syntax errors → detected by compiler
 - compile-time error

Logic errors → bug, doesn't do what expected
but still compiles

Compiler warning → indicates a logic error
but does not prevent code from being compiled
gcc -Wall → shows warnings while compiling

Lecture 5:

1.26.24

selection statements model decision making

1. if statement

2. switch statement

If Statement:

if (condition) {
 then-statement

} ;

if (condition) {

then Statement;

} else {

else - Statement;

} ;

printf ("string") ;

printf ("string %d\n", variable);

scanf ("%d", &variable);

'%' operator → modulo

Expressions =

1. Arithmetic

$\rightarrow +, -, *, /, ^$

$A/B = Q$

2. Relational

$A \leq B = R$

3. Logical

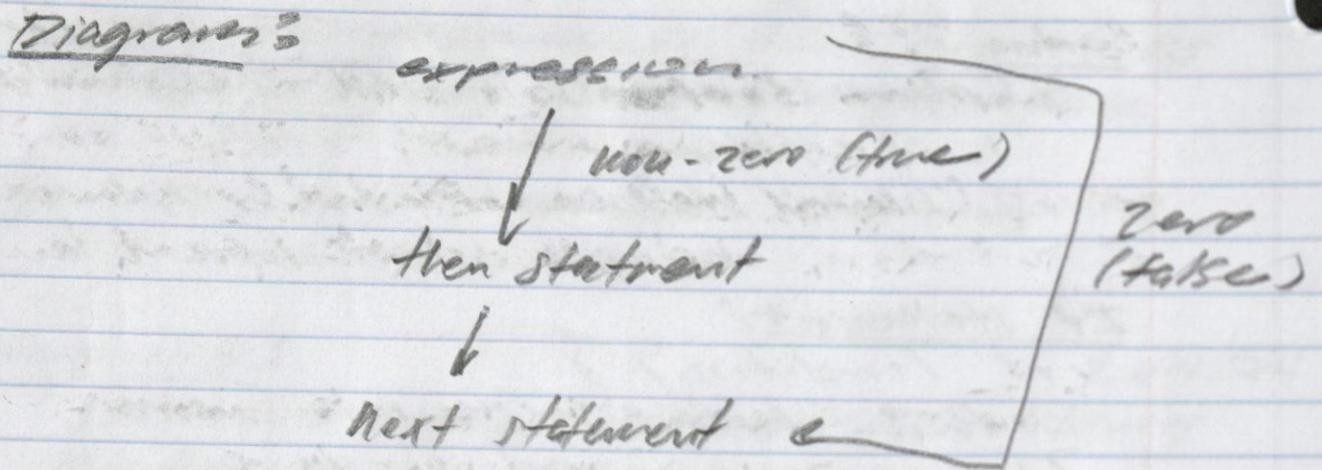
$\rightarrow ?, <, >, \leq, \geq, ==, !=$

$\rightarrow \&, ||, !$

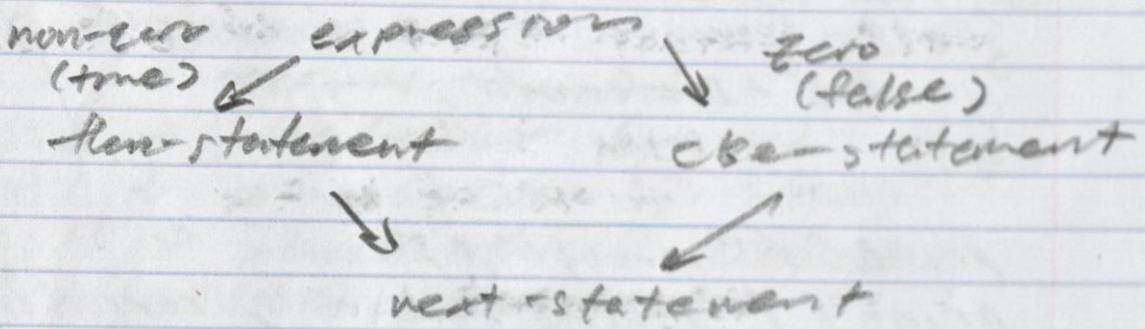
(AND) (OR) (NOT)

if an expression evaluates to 0, its T/F value is false

if an expression evaluates to a nonzero, its T/F value is true



always use curly brackets, but it is only needed if there is more than one statement



Switch Statements

switch (expression)

case value1 :

 case1-statement;

 break;

case

 ;

 ;

default:

 default-statement

next-statement

lecture 6:

1.29.24

- logic \rightarrow boolean algebra \rightarrow mutually exclusive \rightarrow either TRUE or FALSE
- $\&$ in C, logical logic are reflected by students
- $\&$ in Python, students indicate logical logic

rule:

yy \rightarrow "yanks" 1 line into memory
[#]yy \rightarrow yanks multiple lines

- $\&$ any indenting style works, but be consistent
- $\&$ if there are no curly-brackets, only first command is part of if-else statement

m = 3 assigns 3 to m

m == 3 checks if m = 3

= \rightarrow assignment

== \rightarrow equality (mathematical)

$\#$ include <stdbool.h> true false
allows use of bools, like "TRUE" and "FALSE"
and declare bool vars

boolean \rightarrow integer

true : 1

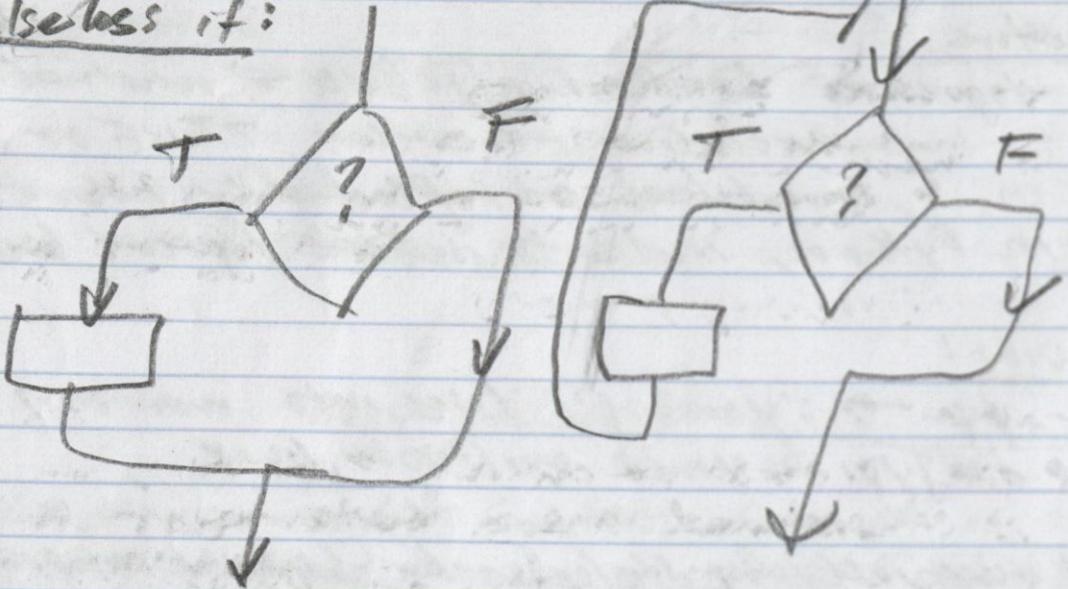
false : 0

integer \rightarrow boolean

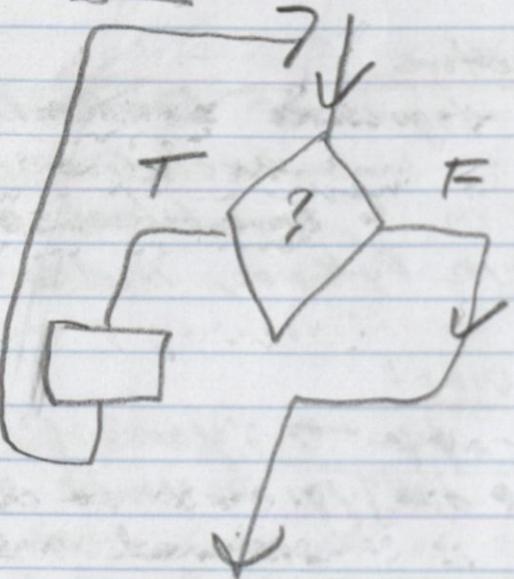
non-zero : true

zero : false

elseless if:



while:



while loop \rightarrow condition-controlled loop
for loops \rightarrow counter-controlled loop

3-key parts of loops:-

1. initial condition

2. repetition/termination condition

3. update (variable that controls loop
needs to be modified so the
loop is eventually false)

* anything that can be done with a while
loop can be done with a for-loop vice-versa

for (A; B; C)

A is done once ad before anything else

B is done at the beginning of each iteration

C is updated at the end of each iteration

break; \rightarrow kicks you out of the
CURRENT structure

continue; \rightarrow jump to the end of the current
iteration

Lab 2:

1.29.24

#include <cmath.h>

#include <math.h>

• have to use -lm in g++

= "library math"

pow(value, power)

Lecture 7:

1.31.23

one BLOCK of code (if, for, . . .)
is considered one-statement and
above blocks do not necessarily need
curly-brackets

float \rightarrow f.f (for 2 decimals \rightarrow f.2f)
double \rightarrow d.d

Lecture 8:

2.2.24

1.9 \rightarrow no decimals

operations on the same data types gives
the same data type

operations on different data types gives
precision matching the most precise number
float + double = double

lots of notes in notes.txt and slides.txt

Lecture 9:

2.5.24

- Functions are called from above
- `int main()` is called from the command line
- return 0 means the function was a success
- never put functions above `main()`
- all of C is written in functions
 - o functions in C cannot return more than 1 variable
- [type] function () dictates what it returns
- variables inside a function are local
 - we are not passing a variable yet, just a copy of its value
- must declare a function after `main`
 - o function prototype
- `void` → nothing (no return value)
- default return is `int`
- `void` can return; just cannot return value
- `exit();` leaves the whole program

Lecture 10:

27.24

```
if (x>y) z=x;  
else z=y;
```

syntactic sugar! ternary expression

$$z = (x > y) ? x : y;$$

%.g removes excessive zeros in output
global variables are bad

Lecture 11:

Loops:

A: neutralization

B: condition

C: update

you have to furnish an iteration to exit a loop

flag \rightarrow boolean operator like a mailbox flag
 $!(\text{var}) \rightarrow (\text{var}) = \text{false}$

one break is not enough to get out of a
double for-loop, obviously

Lecture 12:

20.12.24

arrays in C are static \rightarrow fixed memory size
arrays in matlab and python are dynamic
cannot hold different data types in C arrays.
similar to subscripts in matlab

$$t_1, t_2, \dots, t_{12}$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{tare} = \sum_{n=1}^{12} t_n / 12.$$

- each integer is 4 bytes.
- arr[5] is 20 bytes
- indexing begins at 0
 - (matlab starts at 1)
 - (python starts at 0)
- elements of an array are contiguous in memory
- * no negative indexes *

in matlab, python, etc., \rightarrow unassigned array indexes are 0

- * in C, there is junk "garbage" in memory \rightarrow values are not 0
- any values that are 0 is coincidence
 - must arr[size] = { };
 - ~ empty list

will initialize everything to 0
cannot initialize every byte to 0
0 is also the null character

* array offset

arr[5] = {1, 2, 3}; arr[9] & arr[5]
will be 0 b/c of {3};

extra elements in array initialization
gives a warning, but never do it

int arr[], → not allowed (in main)

int arr[] = {1, 2, 3, ..., n}; → is allowed

sizeof() → returns # of bytes allocated
to memory

- int → 4 bytes ← float too

- double → 8 bytes

- char → 1 byte or arr[0]

int size = sizeof(arr) / sizeof(int)

- only works in this scenario

+ the word size is very ambiguous &
sizeof() is not ambiguous

array size → how many values can it store

+ there is no universal way of identifying
the size of :

arr[5] = {1, 2, 3};

never initialize this way

initialize like

arr[5] = {1, 2, 3, 4, 5};

arr[] = {n, , n2, ..., nn};

n=0
00
0

19

Lecture Notes

2014-29

a) safe

`int a[5] = {1, 2, 3, 4, 5};` - safe

b) safe, impossible to calculate size

`int b[10] = {1, 2, 3};` - safe, rest are 0s

c) not safe

`int c[5] = {1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6};` - not safe

- compiler sees

- not enough memory

d) implicit

`int d[] = {1, 2, 3, 4, 5};` - implicit

to find size: `int size = sizeof(d)/sizeof(d[0]);`

`int num[3];`

`num = {1, 2, 3};` - NOT allowed

& only can fill an array at declaration time

`#define` - global macro for constants
- directly substitutes its value

no semicolon & preprocessor directive
NOT a statement

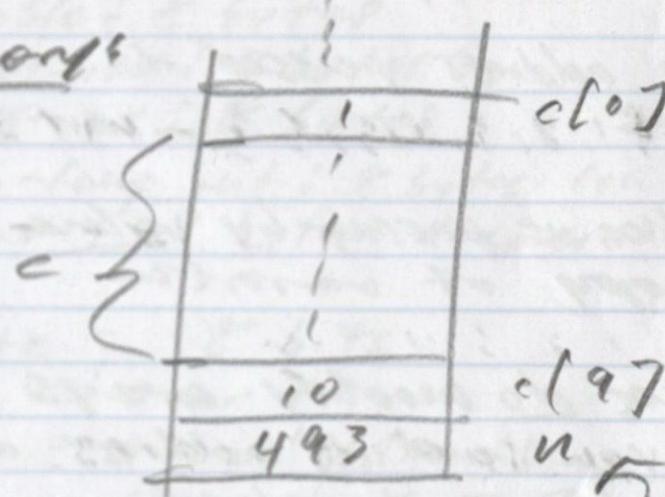
`const int (var)` - prevents change

variables evaluate, macros are replaced

```
int c[10] = {1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10};  
int n = 993;
```

c(10) = ??; ← n now = ??

memory



c(10) places it here

compilers try to be efficient
gcc will not detect out of bounds

& you need to pass the size of an
array to a function to pass it
& suddenly the array only sends its address

Lecture Notes:

2018.24

- * you don't have to pass the size of a String array
- * you otherwise always have to pass the size of an array

size of array address passed to a function
is 8 bytes

passing variables is passing by value
• Not copy of variable

BUT, functions do modify arrays

- because you send its address and size
- effects its exact values
- passing by reference

make arrays const to "pass" by
"value" as it cannot be changed

Lecture Notes

2/19/24

memory of data types:

int: 4 bytes

float: 4 bytes

double: 8 bytes

short int: 2 bytes

long int: 8 bytes

long long int: 8 bytes (on our systems)

char: 1 byte (represents characters)

1 byte = 8 bits

1 bit = 0 or 1

2 bits = 00, 01, 10, 11

amount of numbers = $2^{\text{# of bits}}$

negative numbers take up half of memory

Signed vs. unsigned variables

variables default to signed

use unsigned int to utilize more space

ASCII code (now use unicode):

encodes characters

256 bits is enough for all characters

%c : placeholder for characters

%d will print a char's ASCII code
(in decimal)

%c will display the character associated with an integer

You can deal with chars as int and not as char

This has some nice properties:

char ++;

char = char - '\$';

char = char - <char>;

if 'a', will return # of letters b/w
char and beginning of alphabet
can do loops on chars

can we chars as a for-loop COUNTER

```
for (int i=1; i<=26; i++) {
```

```
    printf("%c ", char);
```

```
    ch++;
```

}

does the same thing as

```
for (char x='a'; x<='z'; x++) {
```

```
    printf("%c ", x);
```

}

and

```
for (int n=97; n<=122; n++)
```

```
    printf("%c ", n);
```

a = 97

A = 65

→ rest can be deduced
from here

printf("%c", 8) gives much more

printf("%c", 13) control over cursor

Type casting converts variable of one
type to another

o works with chars

char arrays: ✓ string cannot be longer than array size

```
char string[20] = "notre dame";
printf("%s\n", string);
```

1. s displays strings
there are NO string data types in C
must use char arrays

individual class ' ' / size of string + 1
strings: " " ✓
o strings are 2 bytes b/c of \0
o But char arrays are 1 byte per index

```
#include <string.h>
strlen(string); // displays length of string
// starts at address of 1st char ad counts until '\0'
char string[] = "hello";
o can also display strings like this
o sizeof(string); // = 6 b/c of \0
o strlen(string); // = 5
```

✓ \0 -

every c-string ends with a NULL character
• acts as a sentinel

You do not have to pass the size of a char array when passing to a function
• because of the sentinel

VS it much different than other values
• takes the address of array passed and keeps printing characters until NULL character

String = "blah" // NOT allowed

Lecture Notes 3

2.20.24

' ' indicates chars

" " indicates strings → adds NULL character

'Y' = 52

& shows address of a variable

i.e. x → hexadecimal

i.e. p → pointer address

"0x" prefix to hexadecimal /

o memory block that stores variables

* memory location *

printf ("%s ", &str[3]);

displays string str from str[3] to '\0'

char str[20];

str = "string" NOT ALLOWED

can only define string at declaration

use strcpy (str, "string"); to
get around this

char * means string

str[6] = 'f'; YOU CAN DO THIS

strcpy(); is doing this bit-by-bit

* You do not need a & to do scanf(); with
char arrays &c

but scanf(); ends at first whitespace

To get around this:
fgets();
never use gets();
use fgets();

fgets(str, n, stdin);

stdin = "standard input"

- default input device, keyboard
stdout = default output, monitor
stderr

→ includes the NULL character

fgets(storage, maximum entry, file pointer);
gets() has no limiters, which might
overrun the parts of memory
looks for carriage character or a delimiter
• ENTER
• this is INCLUDED in its input

str[strlen(str)-1] = '\0';

replaces '\n' with '\0'

files:

FILE *fp,

fp = fopen("filename

fscanf(fp, ...)

File input / output:

```
#include <csdio.h> // allows use of FILE*
```

// variables and functions

```
FILE* fp; // file pointer  
fp = fopen("file.txt", "r");
```

↑ indicates "read mode"

// upon success, fopen() returns a pointer to file

// upon failure, fopen() returns NULL

```
if (fp == NULL) {  
    printf("failure");  
    return -1 // returns error
```

```
fscanf(fp, "%d %d", &var1, &var2);
```

// reads two integers from fp

...

```
fclose(fp); // closes file
```

```
fopen("file.txt", "w")
```

↑ indicates "write mode"

```
fprintf(fp, "Hello\n") // writes to file
```

```
feof(); // returns 1 when previous operation reached  
end of file
```

```
while (!feof(fp)) { // example
```

...

Lecture Notes:

2.23.24

printf (" "); → # to protect
fgets (str, #, std::in);
puts (" "); → to the monitor, no choice
fputs (" ", stdout);
↳ gives choice
can output to file
or var pointer

puts (); adds '\n'
fputs (); does not add '\n'

* be careful with ENTER's and scanf()
and fgets();

· %f, %d, %lf → use space as
a delimiter
%c has no delimiter by definition

getchar(); gets the next char from file
buffer (memory)

wget (RIGHT-CLICK) (pastes from clipboard)
→ downloads files

2D-Arrays

reads by rows

can declare in one set of {},
or two sets of {} {}
array of arrays

x → columns

y → rows

Lecture Notes 1

2.26.24

2D Arrays:

`int num[n][m] = { 1, 2, ... n*m }`

`int num[n][m] = { { 1, 2, ... m } }`

n times

`int num[]()` ~~you cannot do this~~
* just like you cannot do:

`int num[]`

`int num[] [n]` // you CAN do this

`int num[] [n] [m]` // you can do this too

* you need to specify the "base" of the data structure

• only the height is variable

2D Sizes:

`int size = sizeof(nums) / sizeof(nums[0][0]) / m`

`nums[n]` // 1D array of ints

`nums` // 2D array of ints

needs to be multiplied by
+ of rows

```
void display()
{ for (int i=0; i<size; i++)
    for (int j=0; j < m; j++)
```

in declaration:

```
void display(int [ ] [m], int);
```

you don't need to specify name

```
char states[2][15] = { "Indiana",
    { 'I', 'n', 'd', 'i', 'a', 'n', 'a' }, { 'I', 'o', 'w', 'a' } };
```

both work

In memory:

Indiana 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0

Iowa 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0

print strings by char:

```
for (char i=0; i < n; i++)
    for (char j=0; j < strlen(states[i]); j++)
```

Exam 1: Review

2.28.24

Initial Linux/Unix:

Commands:

ssh, pwd, ls, clear, users, w, who, mkdir, cd, rmdir, touch, tree, mv, cp, rm

Characters:

\, ~, " , ' , *, -

Flags:

-a, -l, -O, -ln

C Compiler: gcc : (name).c → ./a.out

C Preprocessors: #include <name>

stdio.h, math.h, string.h, ctype.h,
stdlib.h, stdbool.h

Escape character:

\n, \t, \v, \a, \"

Data Types: can all be short and long and const
int, float, double, char

Placeholders:

%d (or %i), %f, %.lf, %g, %c, %s, %x, %p
%.-#, #d

- must also account for potential negative sign
- left justifies (usually right justified)

Control Structures

Conditionals / Selection:

if, switch

Iteration / Loops:

while, for

Comparison operators:

>, >=, <, <=, ==, !=

Logical Expressions:

! &&, ||

+, -, *, /, %

* whitespace is meaningless in C

* {} block together code into one statement

* & points to address of character

Arithmetic:

Examples: all can be nested as well
if (conditional) {

...
} else if (condition) {

...
} else {

...
}

switch (condition) {
case 'a':

...
break;

default:

...
break;

for (initialization; condition; update) {

...
}

while (condition) {

...
}

}

Assignment vs. Comparison:

= vs. ==, very different!

Boolean → integers:

true: 1

false: 0

integers → Boolean!

non-zero: true

zero: false

Break; → leaves current structure

continue; → jumps to the end of the current iteration in the current structure

Syntactic Sugars:

++ n → pre-increment

n++ → post-increment

++, --, +=, -=, *=, /=, %=

? = (x > y) ? x : y; → ternary operator

[var] → [var] is true

! [var] → [var] is false

Typecasting: makes a data type look like another data type to the compiler
* does not change its value

ex. $\text{average} = (\text{float}) \text{int} / \text{int}$

Functions: default return is int

Prototypes:

[datatype] [name] ([datatype] var, ...);

↳ can be "void" ↳ can be empty aka "void"

Definitions:

* same as above & { ↳ can still return;

...

}

Variables:

- local to the function
- passed and returned by value

Scope:

- vars declared inside {} only work inside {}
- cannot have two vars with the same name within the same scope

Global Vars: don't use

instead: #define VAR # ↳ NO semicolon

Flags: boolean value to tell loops to stop

Arrays: data structure

C-Arrays:

- static memory
- cannot hold different data types
- cannot have negative indices
- start at 0

in declaration, [] is size of array

in expression, [] is index of array

Memory: int, float → 4 bytes

double, long int → 8 bytes

char → 1 byte short int → 2 bytes

1 byte = 8 bits = 2⁸ numbers

Declaration:

`int arr[5] = {1, 2, 3, 4, 5}; size is 5`

`int arr[10] = {1, 2, 3}; Rest are 0s`

impossible to calculate size & so bad

`int arr[] = {1, 2, ..., n};`

to find size: `int size = sizeof(arr) / sizeof(int)`

`sizeof(); return # of allocated bytes`

DON'T:

`int arr[3] = {1, 2, 3, 4, 5}; 4 is lost in memory`

`int arr[5]; indices filled with junk`

DO:

`int arr[n] = {};`; array filled with 0s

Sentinel Value: out-of-range indicator to notify program end of array has been reached

Passing Arrays to Functions:

- passed by reference

- actual values passed and modified

- must also pass size

Ex. prototype

`void display(int arr[], int);` ^{"length"}
definition ^{~ size of array}

`void display(int arr[], int size) {}`

^{↳ address of first index}

+ use a temp var before passing values into an array

Chars: → 1 byte, 256 bits, enough for all chars

i.e. prints char, or char associated with int

i.e. prints char's ASCII code

* int and chars can be used interchangably

`a = 97, A = 65`

^{↳ chars are stored as ints}

use `' ', " "` are for strings

Char Arrays: C strings

- cannot be larger than declared array size
- size of # of chars + 1 bytes
- ends with an automatic sentinel '\0'
- size of char array does not need to be passed to functions (size of sentinel)

scanf() will only read first word of string!
white space is its natural delimiter

To get around problems like these there are multiple libraries of functions for char arrays

- o cannot assign strings after declaration

& sentinel can also be manually placed and removed

File Pointers:

FILE *fp

fp = fopen();

* shows that var type is a pointer
fp is NULL automatically

o if var, returns segmentation fault
if file is successfully connected, then
fp = !NULL, otherwise still NULL

Formatted I/O:

output: printf, fprintf, sprintf

input: scanf, fscanf, sscanf

Non-formatted I/O:

output:

char: putchar, putc, fputc

String: puts, fputs

Input:

char: getchar, getc, fgetc

String: fgets

Multi-Dimensional Arrays:

int arr[rows][columns]

stored and processed by rows

can be declared with:

int arr[m][n] = {1, 2, ..., num};

or

int arr[m][n] = { {1, 2, ..., n} }
{ {1, 2, ..., n} }

in times

CANNOT declare as: int num[][],;

NEED to define the "base": int num[][][m];

* only the height is variable

arr[m] → 1D array of ints

arr → 2D array of ints

arr[m][n] → int

Size:

int size = sizeof(arr)/sizeof(arr[0][0])/m;

int size = sizeof(arr)/sizeof(arr[0]),

Passing to Functions:

declaration:

void display(int arr[][n], int); "height"

definition:

void display(int arr[][n], int size) {

for (int i=0; i<size; i++) {

for (int j=0; j<n; j++) {

printf("%d ", arr[i][j]);

} printf("\n");

Calling:

display(arr, size);

↳ calculated implicitly

Useful Functions:

```
#include <iostream.h>
FILE* fopen(char * filename, char * mode);
    ↳ char[n]           ↳ "r", "w", "a"
success! NULL, failure: NULL
(int) fclose(FILE* stream);
    success: 0, failure: EOF
(int) fprintf(FILE* stream, char * format, ...);
    ↳ "%d", definition
(int) printf(char * format, ...);
    writes to stdout
(int) fscanf(FILE* stream, char * format, ...);
    uses white space as a delimiter
    n[] points to data type
    ↳ must be an address (& for normal vars)
(int) scanf(char * format, ...);
    reads by stdin
(int) sprintf(char * str, char * format, ...);
    ↳ char arr[n]
(int) sscanf(char * s, char * format, ...);
int fgetc(FILE* stream);
    - returns char currently pointed by internal
      file position indicator of specified stream
    - internal file position then advanced to next char
    - returns EOF when at end of file
char * fgets(char * str, int num, FILE* stream);
    - reads chars from stream until
        ° num - 1 chars read
        ° '\n' detected
        ° EOF reached
    - stores in char array * str
    - newline included in string appended
    - null character '\0' automatically appended
```

`int fputc (int character, FILE * stream);`
- writes char to stream and advances position indicator
success: char written is returned, failure: EOF + error
`int fputs (char * str, FILE * stream);`
- writes char arr[] to stream
until it reaches '\0', which is not written
success: non-negative value returned, failure: EOF + error
`int getchar (void);`
- returns next char from stdin
`int putchar (int character);`
- writes char to stdout
`int feof (FILE * stream);`
- checks whether EOF of stream is set
- indicator is set by previous operation on stream
• will not set until an operation tries to read
on EOF
returns nonzero int if EOF is set
otherwise returns 0

#include <math.h>
& double sin(double x);
sin, cos, tan, acos, asin, atan in normal range
double atan2(double y, double x)
returns $\tan^{-1}(y/x)$ in radians from [-pi, pi]
double exp(double x)
exp, log, log10, ...
& double pow(double base, double exponent);
double sqrt(double x)
double abs(double x)

```
#include <string.h>
char * strcpy (char * destination, char * source);
    • includes '\0'
char * strcat (char * destination, char * source);
    • appends source to destination, starting at
        '\0' (overwrites '\0' and adds it on at
        end of string)
int strcmp (char * str1, char * str2);
    - compares str1 to str2
    returns 0 if equal, !0 if not equal
char * strchr (char * str, int character);
    - locates first occurrence of character in str
    • returns pointer to character
    • works with '\0', returning pointer to end of string
char * strstr (char * str1, char * str2);
    • returns pointer of first occurrence of
        str2 in str1, NULL if str2 is not in str1
size_t strlen (char * str);
    • returns length of str
        • beginning of str to '\0'
        • does NOT include '\0' in length
```

```
#include <cctype.h>
int [name] (int c);
    - checks whether char is [name]
    - returns !0 if true, 0 if false
    • isalnum, isalpha, isblank, isdigit,
        islower, isupper, isspace
int tolower (int c);
    returns lowercase c as char
int toupper (int c);
```

Practice Exam 1

2.29.24

1. void drawsquare(int n)

```
for(int f=0; f<n; f++)  
    printf("*");  
printf("\n");  
for(int i=0; i < (n-2); i++) {  
    printf("*");  
    for(int j=0; j < (n-2); j++)  
        printf("*");  
    printf("\n");  
}  
for(int f=0; f<n; f++)  
    printf("*");
```

2. bool is_perfect(int n)

```
int sum = 0;  
for(int i=1; i<n; i++) {  
    if (n % i == 0)  
        sum += i;  
}  
if (n == sum) return true;  
else return false;
```

3. void show_scramble (char str[])

```
{  
    printf("%c", str[0]);  
    for (int i=1; i<(strlen(str)-2); i++)  
        printf("%c", str[strlen(str)-i])  
}
```

4. 0 1 4 9 16

30

Old Fund Comp Exam 1 Problems

3.1.24

5. int findchar (char thestring[], char ch)

```
{  
    for (int i=0; i<strlen(thestring)-1; i++) {  
        if (ch == thestring[i]) return i;  
    }  
    return -1;  
}
```

6. void flip (int arr[], int size)

```
{  
    for (int i=0; i<size; i++) {  
        arr[0+i] = arr[size-i];  
    }  
}
```

Lecture Notes:

3.4.24

Command-Line Arguments:

- interpret strings written after executable call
 - /a.out startup.txt
- works by passing arguments to dot main()

common conversion: ↗ come after executable
argc → argument count
argv → argument vector

* int main(int argc, char * argv[]){
 ↳ # of arguments
 after executable

just typing executable makes argc = 1

char * means string, so:

char * argv[] → array of strings

- strings entered in command line
- argc total strings

argv(argc) → accessed string

char ** argv = char * argv[] = char argv[][][]

But argv[1][1] cannot be used here
because second dimension must be declared

/a.out "Mary Sue"

interpreted as 1 string

* argc = 20 is impossible

detecting return codes:

echo \$?

* returns code of the very last command you did

env list

→ lists environment commands

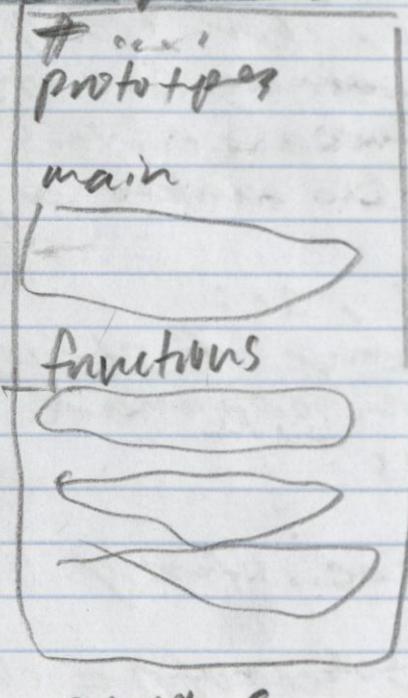
echo

→ returns stuff

return EXIT_SUCCESS;

= return 0;

Splitting Files:



{ splitting and combining
functions separately

} header (.h)

} func.h

} main (.c)

} main.c

} functions (.c)

} func.c

gcc orig.c -o runit

• translating C to machine code

• linking libraries must
• compiling → `#include "func.h"` → object file

main.c | gcc -c main.c → main.o

func.c | gcc -c func.c → func.o

func.h | gcc main.o func.o → a.out

• linking?

lecture notes:

3.6.24

Make Files:

vi makefile, linux utility

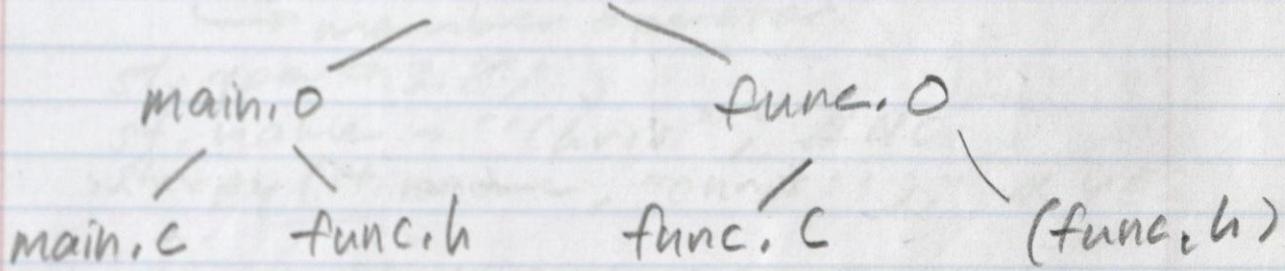
rules

each rule consists of:

target; dependences
[TAB] command

target 2; dependences ...
[TAB] command2

gcc -c main.c -o main.o } \rightarrow compile
gcc -c func.c -o func.o }
gcc main.o func.o -o runit \rightarrow link
Dependency Tree:
runit



make \rightarrow autoroutes to top rule

make [Target] \rightarrow only does that rule

Lecture Notes:

3.8.24

printf() → internal I/O

fprintf() → external I/O

* important for graphics

scanf() → reads from a string

fscanf() → reads from a file

* it is impossible to represent .1 or .2
* you can only represent diverse powers
of 2 precisely

and integer can be represented in binary
you cannot express every number like
0.1 in binary

Lecture Notes 5

3.18.24

arrays: only hold one data type

structs: can hold multiple data types

array → column of spreadsheet

struct → row of spreadsheet

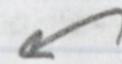
* whole spreadsheet is an array of structs

struct Student {

char name[20];

int age;

float gpa;



above main
(custom data type)

};

var of type student

int main()

struct Student st;

→ attribute/member/subvariable

st.age = 19;

→ member operator

st.gpa = 3.8;

st.name = "Chris"; // NO

strcpy(st.name, "orris"); // YES

struct Student st2 = {"Pat", 20, 3.75};
// can also assign at declarations

struct Student st3;

scanf("%s %d %f", st3.name, &st3.age);

Passing to Functions:

```
void display(struct Student);
```

```
int main() {
```

```
    display(st1);
```

```
    display(st2);
```

```
    display(st3);
```

```
}
```

```
void display(struct Student s)
```

```
{ printf("%s %.2f %.2f", s.name, s.age, s.gpa); }
```

typedef → creating an alias for a
data type

```
typedef double real;
```

```
real x; → datatype of double
```

```
typedef struct Student {
```

```
    char name[20];
```

```
    int age;
```

both work
(struct name ad typedef)

```
} Student_s;
```

CAN be same as

struct name "Student"

```
typedef struct {
```

```
    char name[20];
```

```
    int age;
```

shortest way

```
    float gpa;
```

but CANNOT use

```
} Student;
```

struct name anymore

Struct Arrays:

```
int main() {
```

```
    Student theclass[3];
```

```
    // struct Student type def
```

```
    theclass[0].age = 19
```

```
    theclass[0].gpa = 3.8;
```

```
    strcpy(theclass[0].name, "Chris");
```

If works for other 2 cases as well

theclass → array of structs

theclass[1] → struct

theclass[1].name → char array / string

theclass[1].name[2] → char

```
for (int i=0; i < 3; i++)
```

```
    display(theclass[i]);
```

↳ function from earlier

& we need CSV "comma delimited file"

to read into struct arrays

& we have already used "space delimited files"

```
void display_all(Student all[]);
```

```
int main() {
```

```
    display_all(theclass);
```

```
void display_all(Student all[]) {
```

```
    for (int i=0; i < 3; i++)
```

```
        display(all[i]);
```

Lecture Notes =

5.20.24

* sometimes read comma delimited files instead of space delimited

parse -> break a string into its elements
(can just read by character and \n at commas)
OR

printf("%s\n", strtok(chars, ", "));
char array

* does not advance internal file pointer
printf("%s\n", strtok(NULL, ", "));

NULL continues where it last left off
* so repeat with \n as final delimiter

char str[20];

strcpy(str, strtok(chars, ", "));
it works, but cannot directly assign

char sentence[] = "hello, how you?
cool; great!, ok; bye\n";

printf("%s\n", strtok(sentence, ", ?!; \n"));

char delim[] = " , ?! ; \n"; in effect
does nothing
↳ add \n

Lecture Notes:

3.22.24

Makefile Macros:

"variable" for makefiles
(it is actually a macro)

CMP = gcc
\$(CMP)

in header
in body

MAIN = playlife
\$(MAIN).o
\$(MAIN).c

in header
in body

FUNC = lfatunc
\$(FUNC).o or \$(FUNC).c

EXEC = playlife
clean =
rm *.o
rm \$(EXEC)

* You can also overwrite a macro
from the command line

make EXEC = stuffthing

You can even assign all of the
macros in the command line.

Warnings:

gcc -Wall ignores all warnings

Pointers:

int n; // declared

n = 15; // n's value is 15 predefined

printf("%d\n", n); // displays value

printf("n's address is %x\n", &n);

(or " — %x — ")

// displays address

// where n is in memory

int *p; // p is a pointer to int

it takes on another var's address

// only declared, no content

// will get a seg-fault if used!

NULL pointers return seg-faults!

int *p;

p = &n;

int *p, q;

is NOT a pointer

			&
	n	15	1200
	p	1200	

* & n will be different at each compilation
but pointers will work regardless

Pointers have to point to the addresses
of a specific data type

(until void pointers)

17 int *pi; } saves to ramsey prefers 17

18 int * pi; } all 'purists' prefer 19

19 int* p; } 18 is rare

Zybooks Notes:

3.24.25

- struct construct "declaration" just declares a new data type; no memory allocated
- variable definitions allocate memory for each object's member
- Accesses refer to an object's member's memory location
- assigning a variable of struct type automatically assigns each corresponding data member
`struct1 = struct2`

* a struct allows a function to return multiple values

`TimeHolder Comfdowns(int totalTime) {
 TimeHolder timeStruct;`

`timeStruct.hourValue = totalTime / 60;
timeStruct.minuteValue = totalTime % 60;`

`return timeStruct;`

3

reference operator: &
dereference operator: *

`int soneInt;`

`int *valpointer;`

`valpointer = &soneInt;`

`*valpointer = 10; // updates soneInt`

NULL "nothing" pointer:

NULL defined as 0 because 0 is not valid memory address

Common Pointer Errors:

Syntax ERRORS

int someint = 5;

int *valpointer;

valpointer = &someint; //ERROR, int ≠ int

int * valpointer1, valpointer2; //need * before each
valpointer1 = NULL; pointer

valpointer2 = NULL; //ERROR, int ≠ NULL

Runtime ERRORS:

int *valpointer

*valpointer = 4; //ERROR, dereferencing
unknown address

int *valpointer = NULL;

*valpointer = NULL; //ERROR, cannot
dereference a NULL pointer

lecture Notes:

3.25.24

graphics: X11 library

- old but reliable, run through
gtx.h and gtx.o

Windows Machine: Putty with -forwarding
also launch Xming

Create a Saved Session:

SSH → X11 → Enable X11 forwarding
test with xeyes

copy graphics directory to link files
#include "gtx.h"

→ imports
gtx-open(int width, int height) →
& function uses and declarations in
gtx.h file

composite window: (or with a matching)
gcc ex63.c gtx.o -lX11

Pause: while(1){};

→ "library"

gtx-color(R, G, B);

gtx-flush(); → flushes stuff out
of memory

// sometimes free issues on older PCs

Animation:

while(1){};

animations
a component
of

gtx-line(100idx, 100, 500idx, 200);

gtx-wait(); pauses screen and waits
for an event (key press etc.)

Buffered Programming = Press a key
and then press ENTER for the program
to respond

Event Programming = Program reacts immediately
after a key press

E XII reacts to just key press and mouse click
char c;
c = gftx - wait();
if (c == 'q') break;

WASP controls = ↪ or any argument

```
char c;  
while (1) {  
    gftx - clear();  
    c = gftx - wait();  
    if (c == 'a') dx--;  
    if (c == 'd') dx++;  
}
```

& gftx-color changes whatever comes next

```
int gftx - xpos(); } if (c == 1)  
int gftx - ypos(); }
```

gives the position of the mouse
AFTER a click (current)

F integers 1, 2, 3 are reserved for mouse clicks

More Pointers:

int arr[5] = {34, 62, 31, 44, 77};

int *p;

p = &arr[0];

NOR → do the same thing

p++ moves to pointer toward the next number.

(arrays are contiguous in memory)

Lecture Notes

3.27.24

c = gtx_wait(); // can return char or int
basically just returns an int

+ examples in public directory

#include "gtx.h" NOT <gtx.h>

top-left is (0,0)

down the window increases y }
across the window increases x }

Animation:

```
int main()
{
    char c; int dx = 0;
    gfx-open(800, 600, "title");
    while(1)
    {
        gfx-clear();
        gfx-circle(100, 100, 20);
        c = gfx-wait();
        if (c == 'q') break;
        gfx-flush();
        dx++;
    }
}
```

* problem: `gfx-wait()`
◦ prevents the loop from iterating
◦ but is needed for interaction

* solution: `gfx-event-waiting()`

```
if (gfx-event-waiting())
{
    c = gfx-wait();
```

3

also utilize `usleep()`;
#include <unistd.h>

can also `dx += 6;`

Velocity Vectors:

int xc = 100, yc = 100

int dx = 1; * can change to floats
int dy = 1; to make even slower

while(1) {

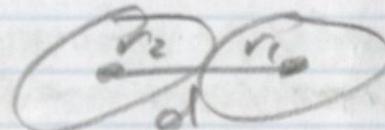
 ...

 xc += dx;

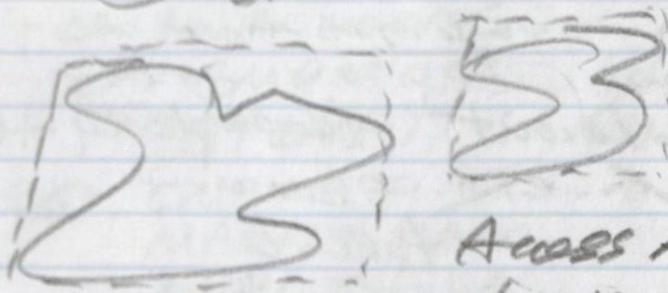
 yc += dy;

}

Collision Detection:



if ($d < (r_1 + r_2)$)
collision



AABB

Access Aligned Bounding Box
(\Rightarrow parallel to screen)

int rad = 20;

int wid = 600, ht = 500;

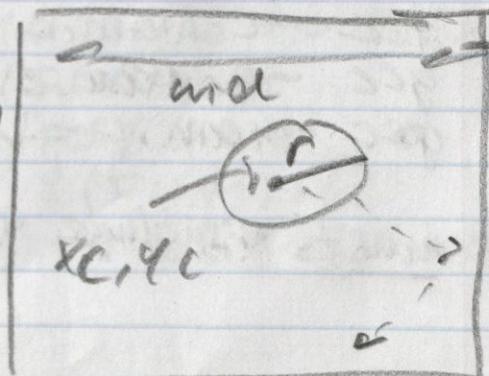
while(1) {

 ...

 if((xc + radius) >= wid)

{

 dx = -dx



$dx = -dx$

$dy = -dy$

Exam 2 Review 3

4.4.24

Command-line Arguments: argc/argv

int main(int argc, char *argv[]) { }

argc → # of arguments after executable

argv[] → array of char arrays with CL info

ex: argv[0] = "./a.out" argc = 1

· ./a.out startup.text argc = 2
 argv[0] argv[1] · · ·

note: char **argv = char *argv[] = char argv[1][]

argv[1][] cannot be used because "base" is undefined

argc == 0 is impossible

· ./a.out "Mary Sue"

interpreted as 1 string

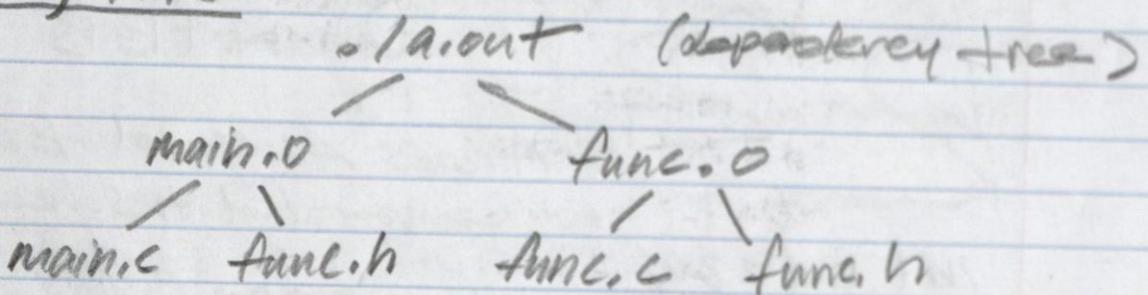
Detecting Return Codes 3

echo → returns stuff

echo \$? → returns code of last command

env list → lists environment commands

Splitting Files 3



gcc -c main.c → main.o

gcc -c func.c → func.o

gcc main.o func.o → a.out

must #include "func.h" to main.c and func.c
↳ file path to header file

func.h → function prototypes, preprocessor directives (#include), global variables and macros, and data type definitions

func.c → function definitions

main.c → main function

-c means to just compile, while no flag defaults to both compile and link

-o can also be used to name the files directly (good practice)

Makefiles = vi Makefile, linux utility

organized in rules =

target & dependencies

[TAB] command

:

* can call any specific target: make [target]

* or can easily call top target: make
can have macros:

ex. CMP = gcc declarations
\$(CMP) usage

ex. CMP = gcc
MAIN = main
FUNC = func
EXEC = a.out

\$(EXEC): \$(FUNC).o \$(MAIN).o

\$(CMP) \$(FUNC).o \$(MAIN).o -o \$(EXEC)

\$(FUNC).o: \$(FUNC).c \$(FUNC).h

\$(CMP) -c \$(FUNC).c -o \$(FUNC).o

\$(MAIN).o: \$(MAIN).c \$(FUNC).h

\$(CMP) -c \$(MAIN).c -o \$(MAIN).o

clean:

rm *.o

rm \$(EXEC)

Standard I/O: `stdin`, `stdout`

`scanf("format string", &var1, ...);`

`printf("format string", var1, ...);`

File I/O: `FILE *fp`

`fscanf(fp, "format string", &var1, ...);`

`fprintf(fp, "format string", var1, ...);`

Buffer I/O: `char *string`

`sscanf(string, "format string", &var1, ...);`

`sprintf(string, "format string", var1, ...);`

Comparison: `%d` and `%f` should only be used with ints and char's, never float's or double's

- any integer can be represented in binary
- not every float can be represented in binary

Placeholder: `%*s` allows `scanf` to skip unneeded strings in buffered or file I/O

Structs: Self defined datatype that can hold various data types as "members"

Definition: 3 ways

struct Student {

}; //datatype "struct Student"

typedef struct Student S;

S Student_s; //datatype "Student_s" OR
"struct Student"

typedef struct {

S Students; //datatype "Student"

member operator (`.`): allows you to access a member of a struct

typedef: creates an alias for a datatype

Declarations: MUST declare variables after defining the datatype

[datatype] [name];

- can assign values at declaration:

Student = { "Adam", "Smith", 21, 3.82 };

* only works at declaration

- can also read-in values from stdin or file
(one member/attribute at a time)

- can also declare struct arrays

NOTE:

- structs are passed to functions by value
- you can return a struct object from a function
- they are passed and returned the same as other datatypes, but not the same as arrays
(unless it is a struct array)
- can assign one struct to another and all members copy over

struct1 = struct2;

Ex- Student ndlStudents[8000];

ndlStudents → struct array

ndlStudents[2] → struct

ndlStudents[2].name → string (char array)

ndlStudents[2].name[3] → char

NON-space delimited files:

Parse: break a string into its elements

strtok() → string.h function that

tokenizes (parses) a string

- returns a pointer to the beginning of the next token that is picked up and NULL when it is done
- does not advance internal file pointer

- on first use you pass the address of where the string starts and it returns the tokens (substring until first delimiter is reached)
- on subsequent use you pass NULL for the first argument and it continues where it left off (so use '\n' as final delimiter)
 - also stops if it finds '\0'

Ex:

```

typedef struct {
    char dorm[20];
    char mascot[20];
    int capacity;
} Dorm;
int read_dorms(FILE *fp, Dorm all[]) {
    int n = 0;
    char line[60];
    while(1) {
        fgets(line, 60, fp);
        if (feof(fp)) break;
        strcpy(all[n].dorm, strtok(line, "\n"));
        strcpy(all[n].mascot, strtok(NULL, "\n"));
        all[n].capacity = atoi(strtok(NULL, "\n"));
        n++;
    }
    return n;
}
  
```

↑
can be "- | \n ... "
delimeter(s)

↑
where its stored
in memory

Pointers = stores a variables address

int n = ?; // n's value is ? and stored in n
int *p;

p = &n; // n's address is &n and stored in p
printf("%x %p", n, p); // displays address of n
X must point to a specific datatype

(for now address and pointer datatypes must be the same)

-Wall /~~if~~ flag that generates all warnings

reference operators: * Note: &arr[0]
dereference operators: & \leftrightarrow arr
* can be placed anywhere!
 $\text{int } p \rightarrow \text{int } * p \leftrightarrow \text{int } \& p$

Graphics / Event Programming: X11 library

events: unbuffered (computer reads right away)

X11: requires gfx.h ad gfx.o

must #include "gfx.h"

compile with -lX11 flag

uses many QOL functions

* down the window increases y

* across the window increases x

Animation / Collision Detection:

Ex:

```
int main() {  
    gfx-open(mid, ht, "name");  
    int xc, yc, dx, dy; //center and velocity vector  
    char c; //all equal to values  
    while(1) {  
        gfx-clear();  
        gfx-circle(xc, yc, RAD);  
        c = gfx-wait();
```

gfx
functions

collision
detection

```
        if(c == 1) {  
            xc = gfx-xpos();  
            yc = gfx-ypos();  
            if((xc + RAD) >= mid) dx = -dx;  
            if((xc - RAD) <= 0) dx = -dx;  
            if((yc + RAD) >= ht) dy = -dy;  
            if((yc - RAD) <= 0) dy = -dy;  
            xc += dx; yc += dy;  
            usleep(1000); if(c == 'q') break;
```

updates
velocity
vector

Random Numbers: rand(), in `#include <stdlib.h>`

- returns an integer b/w 0 and INT_MAX with normal distribution probability
- by default will use the default seed; will get the same sequence every time
- Use the srand() function to choose the seed
 - use time() as the input to randomize the seed (time() returns the number of seconds since 1/1/1970) requires `#include <time.h>`
- use the modulo operator (%) to control the range of random numbers
 $\text{rand}() \% (\text{upper-bound} - \text{lower-bound} + 1) + \text{lower-bound}$

Useful Functions:

`#include <gft.h>`

```
void gft-open(int width, int height, ClearStyle);  
void gft-line(int x1, int y1, int x2, int y2);  
void gft-circle(int xc, int yc, int r);  
void gft-color(int R, int G, int B);  
void gft-clear();  
void gft-clear-color(int R, int G, int B);  
Clear gft-clear();  
int gft-event-waiting();  
int gft-xpos;  
int gft-ypos;  
void gft-flush;  
void gft-text(int x, int y, char ch);
```

```
#include <cctype.h>
int (char c)
    isalnum, isalpha, isblank, isdigit, islower,
    isupper, ispace, isupper, tolower, toupper
```

```
#include <cmath.h>
```

```
double (double)
```

```
cos, sin, tan, acos, asin, atan, atan2,
exp, log, pow, sqrt, abs, INFINITY
```

```
#include <stdlib.h>
```

```
int atoi(char *str), int rand(), srand (seed)
```

```
#include <cstring.h>
```

```
char * strcpy (char *destination, char *source)
```

```
int strcmp (char *str1, char *str2)
```

```
0 = equal, != 0 = not equal
```

```
#include <time.h>
```

```
time()
```

```
#include <stdio.h>
```

```
FILE * fopen (char *filename, char *mode));
mode = "r", "w", "a"
```

```
fclose (FILE *fp);
```

```
FILE I/O
```

```
STANDARD I/O
```

```
BUFFER I/O
```

```
Character I/O
```

```
int fgetc(FILE *fp);
```

```
char * fgets (char *str, int n, FILE *fp);
```

```
int getchar();
```

```
int feof (FILE *fp);
```

```
default → 0, EOF → 10
```

```
if (feof(fp)); // EOF
```

```
while (!feof(fp)); // default
```

```
#include <unistd.h>
```

```
usleep (int microseconds);
```

Lecture Notes:

4.10.24

Pointers: store a var's address

& every var is stored in memory somewhere

int *p; //declared, seg-fault on its own
p = &n; //defined

p = &arr[0]; } // same value
p = arr;

Dereferencing: access memory from the pointer

int *p; // * means symbol to recognize pointer
p = #

printf("%d %d", num, *p); //prints something
↳ it's dereferencing

- * Pointers give more control over memory
 - int cannot be moved in mem
 - int* can be moved

Ex.

int num = 43;

int *p = #

*p = 58; // changes value of num

printf("%d", num); // prints 58

Arrays:

int arr[] = {2, 2, 3, 4, 5};

int *p;

p = arr;

printf("%d", p[2]); // prints 3

printf("%d", *p); // prints 2

p++; // moves the pointer the correct

amount of bytes of its data type

printf("%d", *p); // prints 2

$p += 2$; // advances pointer 2 elements down
printf("%d", *p); // prints 4
(// out of bounds of original array
 $\hookrightarrow p = 10$; // advances pointer to garbage
printf("%d", *p); // gives seg-fault or garbage

int arr[5] = {1, 2, 3, 4, 5};
int *p;
 $p = \text{arr}$ $\Leftrightarrow \text{int } *p = \text{arr}$

$*p = \text{arr}$ is NOT possible but
 $\text{int } *p = \text{arr}$ is possible

for (int i=0; i < 5; i++) {
 printf("%d ", *p);
 p++;
} \nwarrow advances the pointer
// can also update the array or the pointer

$p = \text{arr}$; // MUST reset the pointer to
point values again

display(int [], int);

display(arr, 5); // do same thing
display(p, 5);

for (int i=0; i < 5; i++) {
 *p += 3;
 p++;

} // adds 3 to every value of arr
without touching arr

display(p, 5); // does NOT work, need
to reset pointer

→ any regular variable
Functions: ints are normally passed
by VALUE

can pass a pointer to an int to pass
any data type by REFERENCE

Ex:

```
void func(int);  
void func_p(int *);
```

```
int main() {  
    int a = 23;  
    printf("%d\n", a);  
    func(a);           // does NOT change  
    printf("%d\n", a);  
  
    func_p(&a);      // does change  
                      // send address of a
```

3
void func(int n) { n=55; }
void func_p(int *p) {
 *p = 77;

3
* allows multiple "outputs" from
a function

Lecture Notes

4.12.24

* can also pass structs by reference with pointers

Snap 2 Variables = in a function

swap (&a, &b);

void swap (int *p1, int *p2) {

int temp;

temp = *p1;

*p1 = *p2;

*p2 = temp;

} // no return needed

prototype would be swap (int *, int *);

Sum and Differences

compute (a, b, &sum, &diff);

void compute (int a, int b, int *ps, int *pd)

{ *ps = a + b;

*pd = a - b;

}

returns of these kinds of functions
are usually error codes

Pointers to Strings

```
char str[] = "notre dame";  
char *p;
```

$p = str;$

(str represents an address,
must manually convert to
a pointer)

```
printf("%s\n", str); (do the  
printf("%s\n", p); same thing)
```

%s takes an address and prints chars until '\0'

```
printf("%c\n", *p); // prints 'n'  
b/c *p pointing at first char
```

CANNOT do str++ to iterate

CAN do p++ to iterate

$p = p + 3;$

```
printf("%c\n", *p); // prints 'r'
```

```
printf("%s\n", p); // prints "re dame"
```

$p = p + 3;$

$*p = f$,

```
printf("%s\n", str); // "notre dame"
```

```
printf("%s\n", p); // "fame"
```

$(*p)++$

```
printf("%s\n", str); // "notre game"
```

parenthesis due to operator precedence

CAN:

pass array to array
pass array to pointer
pass pointer to array
pass pointer to pointer

* And they all work the same

* for now char[] and char* are the same

Zybooks Assignment #7:

4.14.24

#include <stdlib.h>

malloc(bytes); Returns pointer to newly allocated memory of size `bytes`

common use: `malloc(sizeof(type));`
returns: `(type*)malloc(sizeof(type));`

↳ typecasting

free(pointer); Addeallocates memory allocated by malloc; inverse of malloc function

& often used with structs

Member Access Operator: → do the same thing

StructPtr → memberName // (StructPtr).memberName

$$\text{bytes} = \frac{\text{size}}{8}$$

Lecture Notes:

4/15/24

Pointers and Arrays =

when printing and passing to functions,
pointers and arrays behave the same

BUT pointers and arrays are NOT the same

```
char str1[] = "notre dame";  
printf("%s\n", str1);
```

```
char *p1 = "champions"; // both do the  
printf("%s\n", p1); same thing
```

```
char str2[20];  
str2 = "computer"; // CANNOT do this  
strcpy(str2, "computer"); // solution 1
```

```
char *p2;  
p2 = "program"; // CAN do this  
printf("%s\n", p2);
```

- str2 cannot equal an address, it is fixed
- p2 can equal a address, and stores the location of *p2

Memory Leaks = assigning memory to a pointer and then reassigning a pointer thus losing the location of the content

```
char *p3;  
strcpy(p3, "memory"); // CANNOT do this  
printf("%s\n", p3))
```

- when declaring a `char[]`, you declare memory for the string
- when declaring a `char*`, you do NOT declare memory for strings

`strcpy()`; requires memory while
`p1 = " "` does not; just sends address of first char

`strcpy(p3, "memory")`; will segfault

`char *p4;`

`char temp[20];`

`p4 = temp`)

`strcpy(p4, "good stuff");`

// This would work, but bad practice
 and static... instead

Malloc Function: dynamically allocate memory
`p4 = malloc(20 * sizeof(int));`
 // allocates 20 bytes
`strcpy(p4, "good");` // works now

C typecasts automatically, while

C++ requires typecasting w/ void pointer

Stack vs. Heap:

Stack mem \rightarrow static memory; variables

Heap mem \rightarrow dynamic allocated memory

- anything declared on the stack releases its memory when complete \rightarrow no memory leaks
- heap does not do this \rightarrow memory leaks
`free(p4);` // frees memory and returns pointer to initial NULL state

Lecture Notes =

4/17/24

#define _GNU_SOURCE
strfry(str); //scrambles a string

Pointers to Structs :

typedef struct {
 float w;
 char name[20];
} Square;

Square sq1;
Square *p;
p = &sq1;

*p.name; //does not work b/c
of C Operator Precedence

(*p).name; //must use parentheses

Syntactic Sugar: p->name //goes to

Pointers to Struct Arrays =

Square shapes[];
Square *p;
p = shapes //no & since array
Square *p = shapes //also works

for (int i=0; i < 4; i++) {
 printf("%s", p->name, p->w);
 p++; //no address, just advance
 //the pointer

3
p<shapes; //MUST reset pointer after

Void Pointers:

```
int n = 5;  
int double x = 3.75;  
int float y = 36.15;
```

```
int *p1; } redundant ...  
double *p2; } need a "universal  
float *p3; } remote control"
```

Want a single pointer that can access multiple vars:

void *p; // cannot dereference this yet

(computer does not know how much memory to allocate)

Must Typecast:

$p = \&n;$ \rightarrow typecasts to int pointer
 $\text{printf}("%d", *(int *)p);$ \rightarrow dereferences new int pointer

The $(*)$'s have different purposes

$p = \&n;$

$\text{printf}("%d", *(int *)p);$

$p = \&x;$

$\text{printf}("%f", *(float *)p);$

$p = \&y;$

$\text{printf}("%f", *(double *)p);$

Crossword Planning 3

$j = 0 \dots 234567 [=0]$ y_{pos-k}

(S)	A	SEBALL				
1	K					
2	T					
3	S					
4	Y					

$x_{pos, y_{pos}}$

$k = 0 \dots 1234$ $i = 2$

(SMELL)

board \rightarrow list $[i][j] ==$ board \rightarrow list $[word][k]$

Lecture Notes:

4.22.24

- everytime a function is called, its contents are sent to the stack
 - and removed after it is run

Recursive Functions : functions that call themselves

Stack : memory storage like a "stack of plates" → can only retrieve from the top of storage
LIFO → last in first out
FIFO → first in first out

- * functions when stored are LIFO
- * recursive functions act similarly

- infinite recursion causes stack overflow
 - seg fault

Modify Parameter:

```
void func(int n) {  
    printf("id\\n", n);  
    funct(n+1);  
}
```

copy of ENTIRE function is stored in stack, and memory back-tracks as soon as it can

- functions can work prior or after the recursive call

ex

```
void fun(int n) {  
    if (n > 3) return; // base case  
    printf("n is %d\n", n);  
    fun(n+1);  
    printf("n is now %d\n", n);  
}
```

Output :

n is 1
n is 2
n is 3
n is now 3
n is now 2
n is now 1

because of how
memory in the stack
functions (LIFO)

Factorials :

iterative (loop) definition:

$$n! = n \cdot (n-1) \cdot (n-2) \cdots 2 \cdot 1$$

recursive definition

$$n! = n \cdot (n-1)!$$

$$1! = 1$$

$$0! = 1$$

$$4! = 4 \cdot 3!$$

$$3 \cdot 2!$$

$$2 \cdot 1!$$

$$1$$

& recursion can waste a lot of time

GCF:

```
int gcd(int a, int b) {  
    if (b == 0)  
        return a;  
    else  
        return gcd(b, a % b);  
}
```

OR

```
return (b == 0) ? a : gcd(b, a % b);
```

```
int fact(int n) {  
    int f;
```

```
    if (n == 1 || n == 0)  
        f = 1;
```

```
    else  
        f = n * fact(n - 1);
```

```
    return f; //NECESSARY
```

3

as stack returns up its backup
in memory these returns are needed

```
return (n == 1 || n == 0) ? 1 : n * fact(n - 1);
```

1. what am I doing?

2. what is modify parameter?

3. what is base case?

Lecture Notes:

4.26.24

void reverse() {

if stuff before
 recursive();

if stuff after
 }

called on the way
to base case

called during backtracking

- WILL have to rewrite loops as recursive functions on exams
- examples in public directory

Standard C++:

#include <iostream>

using namespace std;

int main()

cout << "Hello world" << endl;

};

• compile with: g++ "name".cpp

• C++ is back compatible!!

• Use renamed standard libraries!

Either add namespace, OR:

std::cout << "hi" << std::endl;

 ^ scope operator

• In C, I/O are functions

• In C++, I/O is done through streams, << = output stream operator

file extensions: [name].cpp

I/O =

cout << "enter a variable:" >> i

cin >> n; // input / output

operator &

cout << "you entered " << n << endl;

cout << "enter the values:" >> n >> m;

cout << "entered " << n << " and " << m;

- no placeholders!

- no formatters!

directly, most things done
with classes

C++ has classes!

classes are like structs that can also
hold functions

#include <string> // C++ Library

#include <cstring> // C Library

string str;

str = "notre dame"

this works now

bc str is now not an address
• passed by VALUE

Lesson Notes 3: C++

4.29

input: cin >> var
output: cout << var
no formatting needed!

C++ is backwards compatible with C
C strings and C++ strings are very different

#include <cstring>

char str[30];

strcpy(line, "what"); str = "no the alone"

#include <string>

string str

strat(line, " cat"); str = str + " cat";

can cout << str or endl both!

strat(line, " cat"); str = str + " cat";

length: both the same

strlen(cstring);

string.length() // since C++ strings are
classes!

Functions in classes are called methods

size:

sizeof(cstring); // smaller

cstring.size(); // larger

C++ strings do NOT have '\0' attached

Check parameters of C functions when
using C++ strings

cpysting.c_str();

C++ passing by Reference :-

```
word func(int &);  
int main() {  
    int n = 5;  
    cout << n << endl;  
    func(n);  
    cout << n << endl;
```

```
3  
word func(int &x)  
{ x=57; }  
3
```

Outputs :-

5

57

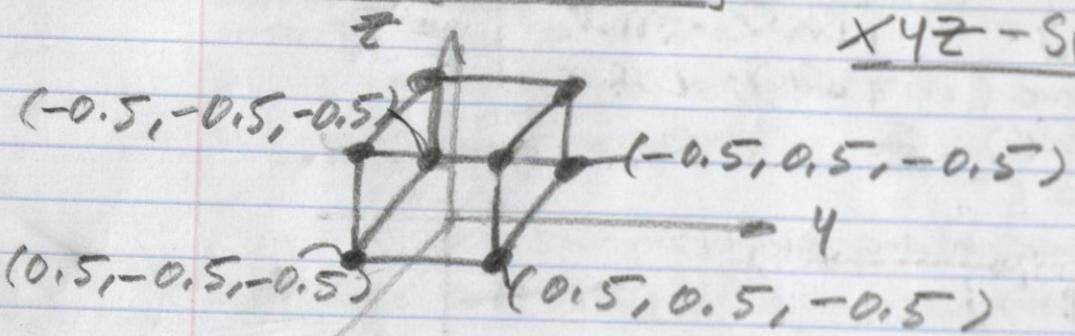
1) done inside of methods :-

- Has dots ...
- no way to tell without looking at functions

* functions can have the same name in CPP
"function overloading"

- computers tell which function to call based on data types or arguments

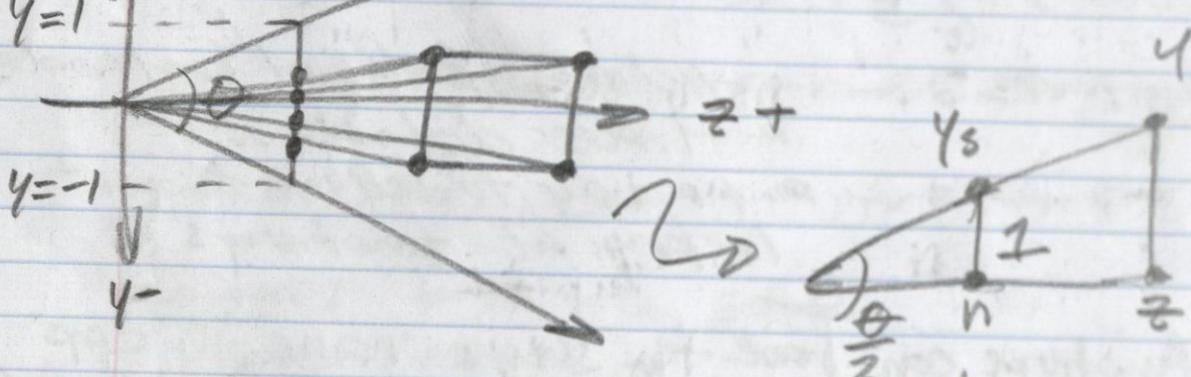
Final Project Planning:



X Y Z-Space:

* top face same but z-coords pos

Y Z-Space:



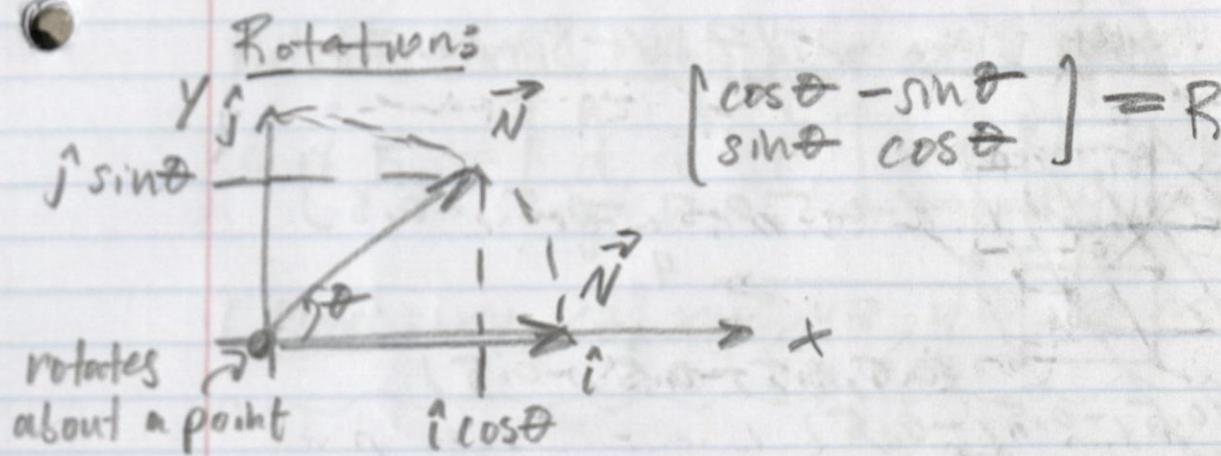
$$\Rightarrow \tan\left(\frac{\theta}{2}\right) = \frac{1}{n} \Rightarrow n = \frac{1}{\tan\left(\frac{\theta}{2}\right)}$$

$$\frac{y_s}{n} = \frac{y}{z} \Rightarrow y_s = \frac{yn}{z} = y \frac{1}{\tan\left(\frac{\theta}{2}\right)}$$

$$\Rightarrow y_s = \frac{y}{z \tan\left(\frac{\theta}{2}\right)}$$

Same for X:

$$\Rightarrow x_s = \frac{x}{z \tan\left(\frac{\theta}{2}\right)}$$



in \mathbb{R}^3 ; rotates about all 3 axis

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \cos\theta & -\sin\theta \\ 0 & \sin\theta & \cos\theta \end{bmatrix}$$

about x-axis

$$R_x(\gamma)$$

"roll"

$$\begin{bmatrix} \cos\theta & 0 & \sin\theta \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ -\sin\theta & 0 & \cos\theta \end{bmatrix}$$

about y-axis

$$R_y(\beta)$$

"pitch"

$$\begin{bmatrix} \cos\theta & -\sin\theta & 0 \\ \sin\theta & \cos\theta & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

about z-axis

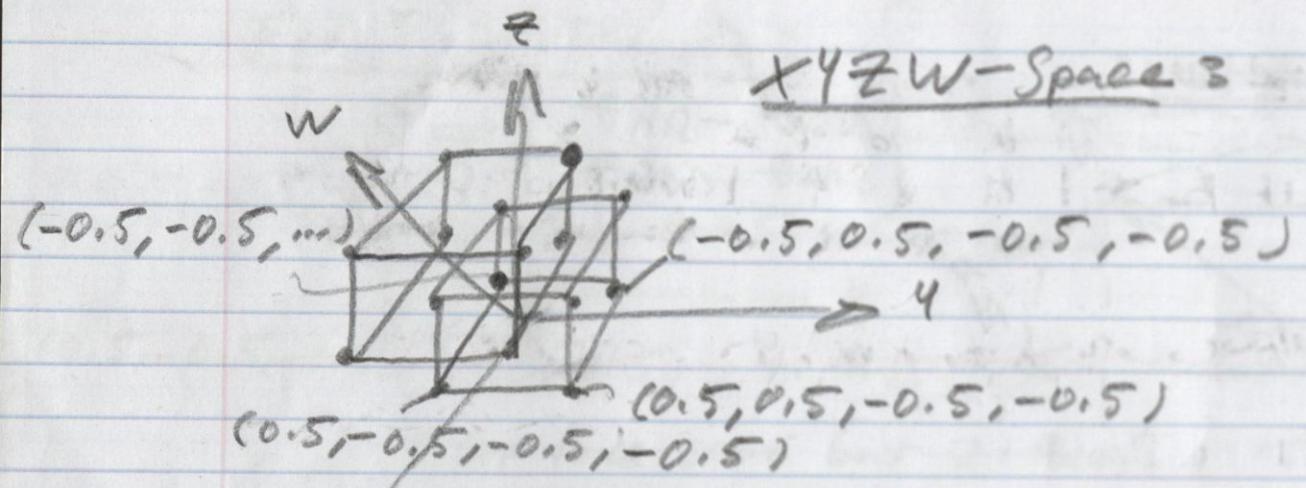
$$R_z(\alpha)$$

"yaw"

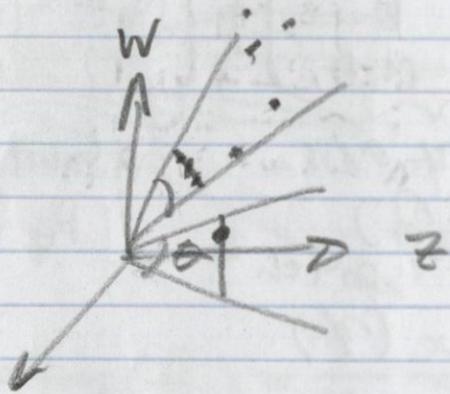
$$R = R_z(\alpha) R_y(\beta) R_x(\gamma)$$

$$\rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} \cos\alpha \cos\beta & \cos\alpha \sin\beta \sin\gamma - \sin\alpha \cos\gamma & \cos\alpha \sin\beta \cos\gamma + \sin\alpha \sin\gamma \\ \sin\alpha \cos\beta & \sin\alpha \sin\beta \sin\gamma + \cos\alpha \cos\gamma & \sin\alpha \sin\beta \cos\gamma - \cos\alpha \sin\gamma \\ -\sin\beta & \cos\beta \sin\gamma & \cos\beta \cos\gamma \end{bmatrix}$$

XYZW-Space



X \downarrow * top face same but z-cards pos
 * left cube same but w-cards pos



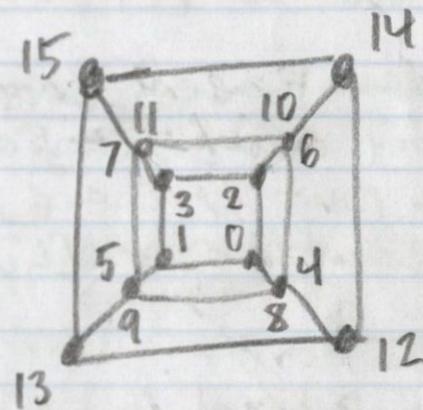
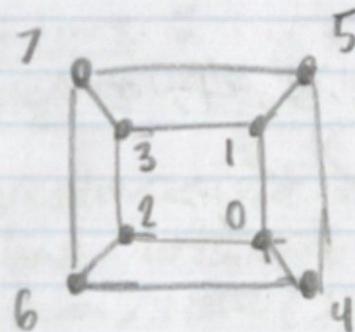
$$y_1 = \frac{y_0}{z \tan(\frac{\theta}{2})}, x_1 = \frac{x_0}{z \tan(\frac{\theta}{2})}$$

$$y_s = \frac{y_1}{w \tan(\frac{\theta}{2})}, x_s = \frac{x_1}{w \tan(\frac{\theta}{2})}$$

Rotations: in \mathbb{R}^4 , rotate about all 6 planes

so if $R_3 = \begin{bmatrix} a & b & c \\ d & e & f \\ g & h & i \end{bmatrix}$ where $a-i$ already
on other page

6 Planes: $X_4, X_2, X_W, Y_2, Y_W, Z_W$



12 edges:

$$0 \rightarrow 1 \quad 3 \rightarrow 1$$

$$0 \rightarrow 2 \quad 3 \rightarrow 2$$

$$0 \rightarrow 4 \quad 3 \rightarrow 7$$

$$2 \rightarrow 6 \quad 1 \rightarrow 5$$

$$4 \rightarrow 5 \quad 7 \rightarrow 5$$

$$4 \rightarrow 6 \quad 7 \rightarrow 6$$

Lecture Notes:

5.1.24

- A void fun(int); // pass by value
- B void fun(int&); // pass by reference in C
- C void fun(int&); // pass by reference in C++

A and C cannot be function overloaded
as it takes the same call

- no way to overcome ambiguity

Index-Based Loop:

```
int arr[] = {0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5};  
for (int i = 0; i < 6; i++)  
    cout << arr[i] << " ";  
}
```

Range-Based Loop: → n & arr

```
for (int n : arr)           must be some  
                           data type  
    cout << n << " ";
```

automatically navigates through every
element of the set arr

- lose control

```
string college = "Notre Dame";  
for (int i = 0; i < college.length(); i++)  
    cout << college[i] << " ";
```

```
for (char w : college)  
    cout << w << " ";
```

Static Vars =

static int n;

Static variables retain its scope
after leaving its function

in theory would never need to pass
by reference either

Vectors =

#include <vector> // dynamic arrays

vector<int> vec = {0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5};

o has lots of useful members

vec.size(); // contains info about its size

o can be indexed

for (int i=0; i < vec.size(); i++)
cout << vec[i] << "

→ cout << vec.at(i) << "

same thing

2D =

vector<vector<int>> vec2d =

{ {0, 1, 2},

 {3, 4, 5} }

for (int i=0; i < vec2d.size(); i++) {

 for (int j=0; j < vec2d[i].size(); j++)
 cout << vec2d[i][j] << "

}

Final Exam Review:

5.6.24

Pointers = variable that stores another variable's address

- `int *p;` // declare a pointer to int
- `p=&n;` // assign n's address to p
- "p points to n"

Dereferencing = access memory content from pointer

- `*p=58;` // changes value of n to 58 (write mode)
- `printf("%d", *p);` // prints 58 (read mode)

Pointing to Arrays 3

- `int arr[] = {0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5}; int *p;`
- `arr` \Rightarrow address of `arr[0]`
- `p=arr;` // p points to `arr[0]`
- `p=&arr[0];` // equivalent statement
- `*p;` // access '0' in `arr[0]`
- Can advance pointer with `(++ -- + -)`:
 - `p++;` // advances the pointer by 1 block
 - block \Rightarrow amount of memory equal to the data type p was declared to point to
 - since arrays are contiguous in memory
 - this allows p to access any element of arr
 - also means pointer can leave array and begin to point to garbage
 - o must reset pointer to prevent this
- `p=arr;`

Note. `int *p=arr;` is possible

\hookrightarrow `*p=arr;` is not possible

different operations

Note. `display(int []);`

`display(arr);` and `display(p);`

do the same thing (both addresses)

Pointers and Functions = can use pointers to pass
any data-type by reference

- by using a pointer you are sending an address to a data-type (like arrays), so the function knows where the variable is stored in memory

void func(int *); // declaration

int main() {

func(&n); // calling in main

Ex. void swap(int *, int *);

swap(&a, &b);

void swap(int *p1, int *p2) {

int temp;

temp = *p1;

*p1 = *p2;

*p2 = temp

Note: can now have
multiple "returns"
from functions

} // no return needed →

Pointing to Chars: basically a C string

• char str[] = "notre dame";

char *p;

p = str;

printf("%s", str); // equivalent

printf("%s", p); // statements

• pointers give more flexibility

cannot do str++; to iterate

can do p++; to iterate

Note. (*p)++; // advances char at location p

*p++; // advances char at location p+1
and accesses its memory

• check C operator precedence

Pointers VS. Arrays:

- Passing to function is very similar
 - can pass an array and take it in as an array
 - can pass an array and take it in as a pointer
 - can pass a pointer and take it in as an array
 - can pass a pointer and take it as a pointer
- But an array allocates (static) memory at declaration while a pointer does not
 - `char str[] = "notre dame";`
 - `char *p = str;`
 - `str = "notre dame"; // CANNOT do this`
 - `p = "notre dame"; // CAN do this`
 - `str` is fixed and cannot take in a new address
 - `p` can take in a new address and stores the location of '`n`' (with rest of string being contingently stored in memory)
 - `strcpy(str, "CSE"); // CAN do this`
 - `strcpy(p, "CSE"); // CANNOT do this`
 - `strcpy()` requires memory whereas `p = "n"` does not
 - arrays allocate memory at declaration
 - pointers do not allocate any memory

malloc(): dynamically allocate memory for pointers

- `p = malloc(20 * sizeof(int));`
- allocates 20 bytes so `strcpy()` works now

free(): must free memory block after use to prevent memory leaks

- `free(p); // frees memory and returns p to initial NULL state`

Memory Leaks: assigning memory to a pointer and then reassigning that pointer without freeing the memory, thus losing the location of the memory

Stack = static memory \rightarrow variables

- automatically releases its memory

Heap = dynamic memory \rightarrow malloc()

- does not release its memory \rightarrow memory leaks

```
#define __GNU_SOURCE
```

```
strncpy(str); // scrambles a string
```

Pointing to Structs:

typedef struct {

int l;

char name[20];

} Square;

Square s1;

Square *p;

p = &s1;

*p.name; // does NOT work

(*p).name; // fixes this

Syntactic Sugar: p->name;

because of C

operator precedence

Pointing to Struct Arrays:

Square shapes[];

p = shapes; // already an address

for (int i = 0; i < n; i++) {

printf("%s %d\n", p->name, p->l);

p++; // prints entire arrays with no addresses

}

p = shapes; // MUST reset pointer after

Void Pointers = generic pointer that can be given the address of any datatype

- Void *P; // cannot dereference yet
- Must typecast for dereference
 $p = \&v;$
 $\&(int *)p;$ accesses int
 $\&(float *)p;$ accesses float
etc...

LIFO = last in-first out memory

ex: stack of plates or pancakes

FIFO = first in-first out memory

ex: standing in line / queues

Note: every time a function is called, its contents are sent to the stack, and stored (LIFO)
(and removed after run)

Stack Overflow: error caused by running out of stack memory (often occurs with infinite recursion)

Recursive Functions: functions that call themselves

Void reverse(int n) { // recursive var

 if ($n \geq 3$) return; // base case ①

 // commands (called on the way down to base case)

 reverse(n+1); // recursive call ②

 └ // modify parameter ⑤

 // commands (called after base case during backtracking)

* practice rewriting loops as recursive functions * !!

C++ Basics

#include <iostream> // math I/O methods
Call #include for different values

File Extension: .cpp

Compile with: g++

Must add using namespace std;
otherwise std:: is argument for everything!
↳ scope operator

Streams: I/O is done in streams
cin >> variable;
cout << variable << endl;
(no formatting needed)

Strings: ~~std::string~~ introduces C++ strings

- treated as objects
- passed by value now (b/c not an address)
- str = "string" works (also str + "string")
- str.length(); returns length
 ↳ memory, OOP paradigm
- NO '\0' appended
- `const string::c_str()` returns C string

Note, Cpp is backwards compatible with C

- heavier focus on abstractions in both
- and object oriented programming

Passing by Reference :

void func(int); passed by value

void func(int&); passed by reference in C

→ void func(int&); passed by reference in C++

(called with : func(n)) in main

(C++ abstracts main)

Function Overloading : 2 functions can have the same name if they have different arguments or datatypes

⇒ compiler automatically discerns this

o void func(int) and void func(int&)

CANNOT be overloaded because they have the same call

o must have Ø ambiguity to be overloaded

Range-Based Loops : automatically navigates through array elements of an array set
for (int n : arr)

cout << n;

close control → more abstraction

for (char w : str)

cout << w;

Static Variables : variables that remain in memory after its scope terminates

o permanent variables, kind of like global variables

static int n;

in the upper left corner of the page.