

Introduction to Computers and Programming

Lecture 4 – Array and function call **Chap 8 & 9**

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Chap 6 & 7

Type Definitions

- ❑ The `#define` directive can be used to create a “Boolean type” macro:

```
#define BOOL int
```

- ❑ There’s a better way using a feature known as a ***type definition***:

```
typedef int Bool;
```

- ❑ `Bool` can now be used in the same way as the built-in type names.

- ❑ Example:

```
Bool flag;    /* same as int flag; */
```

Advantages of Type Definitions

- ❑ Type definitions can make a program more understandable.
- ❑ If the variables `cash_in` and `cash_out` will be used to store dollar amounts, declaring `Dollars` as

```
typedef float Dollars;
```

and then writing

```
Dollars cash_in, cash_out;
```

is more informative than just writing

```
float cash_in, cash_out;
```

Advantages of Type Definitions

- ❑ Type definitions can also make a program easier to modify.
- ❑ To redefine `Dollars` as `double`, only the type definition need be changed:

```
typedef double Dollars;
```

- ❑ Without the type definition, we would need to locate all `float` variables that store dollar amounts and change their declarations.

Type Definitions and Portability

- ❑ Type definitions are an important tool for writing portable programs.
- ❑ One of the problems with moving a program from one computer to another is that types may have different ranges on different machines.
- ❑ If `i` is an `int` variable, an assignment like

```
i = 100000;
```

is fine on a machine with 32-bit integers, but will fail on a machine with 16-bit integers.

Type Definitions and Portability

- ❑ Instead of using the `int` type to declare quantity variables, we can define our own “quantity” type:

```
typedef int Quantity;
```

and use this type to declare variables:

```
Quantity q;
```

- ❑ When we transport the program to a machine with shorter integers, we’ll change the type definition:

```
typedef long Quantity;
```

- ❑ Note that changing the definition of `Quantity` may affect the way `Quantity` variables are used.

Type Definitions and Portability

- ❑ The C library itself uses `typedef` to create names for types that can vary from one C implementation to another; these types often have names that end with `_t`.
- ❑ Typical definitions of these types:

```
typedef long int ptrdiff_t;  
typedef unsigned long int size_t;  
typedef int wchar_t;
```
- ❑ In C99, the `<stdint.h>` header uses `typedef` to define names for integer types with a particular number of bits.

The `sizeof` Operator

- ❑ The value of the expression

`sizeof (type-name)`

is an unsigned integer representing the number of bytes required to store a value belonging to *type-name*.

- ❑ `sizeof(char)` is always 1, but the sizes of the other types may vary.
- ❑ On a 32-bit machine, `sizeof(int)` is normally 4.

The `sizeof` Operator

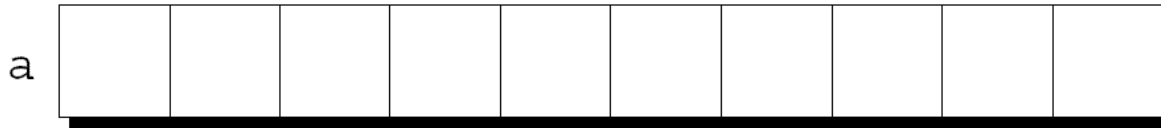
- ❑ The `sizeof` operator can also be applied to constants, variables, and expressions in general.
 - If `i` and `j` are `int` variables, then `sizeof(i)` is 4 on a 32-bit machine, as is `sizeof(i + j)`.
- ❑ When applied to an expression—as opposed to a type—`sizeof` doesn't require parentheses.
 - We could write `sizeof i` instead of `sizeof(i)`.
- ❑ Parentheses may be needed anyway because of operator precedence.
 - The compiler interprets `sizeof i + j` as `(sizeof i) + j`, because `sizeof` takes precedence over binary `+`.



Array

One-Dimensional Arrays

- ❑ An **array** is a data structure containing a number of data values, all of which have the same type.
- ❑ These values, known as **elements**, can be individually selected by their position within the array.
- ❑ The simplest kind of array has just one dimension.
- ❑ The elements of a one-dimensional array a are conceptually arranged one after another in a single row (or column):



One-Dimensional Arrays

- ❑ To declare an array, we must specify the *type* of the array's elements and the *number* of elements:

```
int a[10];
```

- ❑ The elements may be of any type; the length of the array can be any (integer) constant expression.
- ❑ Using a macro to define the length of an array is an excellent practice:

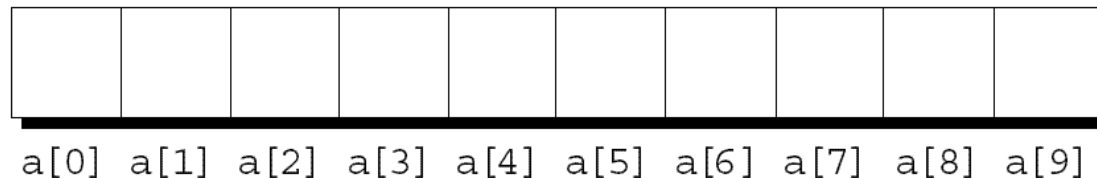
```
#define N 10
```

```
...
```

```
int a[N];
```

Array Subscripting

- ❑ This is referred to as ***subscripting*** or ***indexing*** the array.
- ❑ The elements of an array of length n are indexed from 0 to $n - 1$.



- ❑ Expressions of the form `a[i]` are lvalues, so they can be used in the same way as ordinary variables:

```
a[0] = 1;  
printf("%d\n", a[5]);  
++a[i];
```

Array Subscripting

- ❑ Many programs contain `for` loops whose job is to perform some operation on every element in an array.
- ❑ Examples of typical operations on an array `a` of length `N`:

```
for (i = 0; i < N; i++)  
    a[i] = 0;                /* clears a */
```

```
for (i = 0; i < N; i++)  
    scanf("%d", &a[i]);      /* reads data into a */
```

```
for (i = 0; i < N; i++)  
    sum += a[i];             /* sums the elements of a */
```

Array Subscripting

- ❑ C doesn't require that subscript bounds be checked; if a subscript goes out of range, the program's behavior is undefined.
- ❑ A common mistake: forgetting that an array with n elements is indexed from 0 to $n - 1$, not 1 to n :

```
int a[10], i;
```

```
for (i = 1; i <= 10; i++)  
    a[i] = 0;
```

With some compilers, this innocent-looking `for` statement causes an infinite loop.

Array Subscripting with side effect

- ❑ Be careful when an array subscript has a side effect:

```
i = 0;
while (i < N)
    a[i] = b[i++];
```

- ❑ The expression `a[i] = b[i++]` accesses the value of `i` and also modifies `i`, causing undefined behavior.
- ❑ The problem can be avoided by removing the increment from the subscript:

```
for (i = 0; i < N; i++)
    a[i] = b[i];
```

Program: Reversing a Series of Numbers

- ❑ The `reverse.c` program prompts the user to enter a series of numbers, then writes the numbers in reverse order:

Enter 10 numbers: 34 82 49 102 7 94 23 11 50 31

In reverse order: 31 50 11 23 94 7 102 49 82 34

reverse.c

```
/* Reverses a series of numbers */

#include <stdio.h>

#define N 10

int main(void)
{
    int a[N], i;

    printf("Enter %d numbers: ", N);
    for (i = 0; i < N; i++)
        scanf("%d", &a[i]);

    printf("In reverse order:");
    for (i = N - 1; i >= 0; i--)
        printf(" %d", a[i]);
    printf("\n");
}
```

Array Initialization

- ❑ If the initializer is shorter than the array, the remaining elements of the array are given the value 0:

```
int a[10] = {1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6};  
/* initial value of a is {1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 0, 0, 0, 0} */
```

- ❑ Using this feature, we can easily initialize an array to all zeros:

```
int a[10] = {0};  
/* initial value of a is {0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0} */
```

There's a single 0 inside the braces because it's illegal for an initializer to be completely empty.

Array Initialization

- ❑ If an initializer is present, the length of the array may be omitted:

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

- ❑ The compiler uses the length of the initializer to determine how long the array is.

Using the `sizeof` Operator with Arrays

- ❑ To avoid a warning, we can add a cast that converts `sizeof(a) / sizeof(a[0])` to a signed integer:

```
for (i = 0; i < (int) (sizeof(a) / sizeof(a[0])); i++)  
    a[i] = 0;
```

- ❑ Defining a macro for the size calculation is often helpful:

```
#define SIZE ((int) (sizeof(a) / sizeof(a[0])))  
  
for (i = 0; i < SIZE; i++)  
    a[i] = 0;
```

Multidimensional Arrays

- ❑ An array may have any number of dimensions.
- ❑ The following declaration creates a two-dimensional array (a *matrix*, in mathematical terminology):

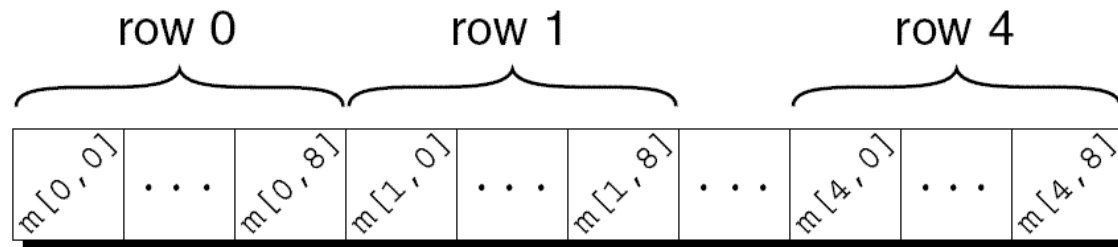
```
int m[5][9];
```

- ❑ `m` has 5 rows and 9 columns. Both rows and columns are indexed from 0:

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
0									
1									
2									
3									
4									

Multidimensional Arrays

- ❑ Although we visualize two-dimensional arrays as tables, that's not the way they're actually stored in computer memory.
- ❑ C stores arrays in **row-major order**, with row 0 first, then row 1, and so forth.
- ❑ How the m array is stored:



Multidimensional Arrays

- ❑ Nested `for` loops are ideal for processing multidimensional arrays.
- ❑ Consider the problem of initializing an array for use as an identity matrix. A pair of nested `for` loops is perfect:

```
#define N 10
```

```
double ident[N][N];
```

```
int row, col;
```

```
for (row = 0; row < N; row++)
```

```
    for (col = 0; col < N; col++)
```

```
        if (row == col)
```

```
            ident[row][col] = 1.0;
```

```
        else
```

```
            ident[row][col] = 0.0;
```

Initializing a Multidimensional Array

- ❑ We can create an initializer for a two-dimensional array by nesting one-dimensional initializers:

```
int m[5][9] = {{1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 0, 1, 1, 1},
               {0, 1, 0, 1, 0, 1, 0, 1, 0},
               {0, 1, 0, 1, 1, 0, 0, 1, 0},
               {1, 1, 0, 1, 0, 0, 0, 1, 0},
               {1, 1, 0, 1, 0, 0, 1, 1, 1}};
```

- ❑ The following initializer fills only the first three rows of `m`; the last two rows will contain zeros:

```
int m[5][9] =
{{1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 0, 1, 1, 1},
 {0, 1, 0, 1, 0, 1, 0, 1, 0},
 {0, 1, 0, 1, 1, 0, 0, 1, 0}};
```

Constant Arrays

- ❑ An array can be made “constant” by starting its declaration with the word `const`:

```
const char hex_chars[] =  
    {'0', '1', '2', '3', '4', '5', '6', '7', '8', '9',  
     'A', 'B', 'C', 'D', 'E', 'F'};
```

- ❑ An array that's been declared `const` should not be modified by the program.



Function calls

Introduction

- ❑ A function is a series of statements that have been grouped together and given a name.
- ❑ Each function is essentially a small program, with its own declarations and statements.
- ❑ Advantages of functions:
 - A program can be divided into small pieces that are easier to understand and modify.
 - We can avoid duplicating code that's used more than once.
 - A function that was originally part of one program can be reused in other programs.

Program: Computing Averages

- ❑ A function named `average` that computes the average of two `double` values:

```
double average(double a, double b)
{
    return (a + b) / 2;
}
```

- ❑ The word `double` at the beginning is the ***return type*** of `average`.
- ❑ The identifiers `a` and `b` (the function's ***parameters***) represent the numbers that will be supplied when `average` is called.

Program: Computing Averages

- ❑ Every function has an executable part, called the **body**, which is enclosed in braces.
- ❑ The body of `average` consists of a single `return` statement.
- ❑ Executing this statement causes the function to “return” to the place from which it was called; the value of $(a + b) / 2$ will be the value returned by the function.

Program: Computing Averages

- ❑ A function call consists of a function name followed by a list of *arguments*.
 - `average(x, y)` is a call of the `average` function.
- ❑ Arguments are used to supply information to a function.
 - The call `average(x, y)` causes the values of `x` and `y` to be copied into the parameters `a` and `b`.
- ❑ An argument doesn't have to be a variable; any expression of a compatible type will do.
 - `average(5.1, 8.9)` and `average(x/2, y/3)` are legal.

Program: Computing Averages

- ❑ The `average.c` program reads three numbers and uses the `average` function to compute their averages, one pair at a time:

Enter three numbers: 3.5 9.6 10.2

Average of 3.5 and 9.6: 6.55

Average of 9.6 and 10.2: 9.9

Average of 3.5 and 10.2: 6.85

average.c

```
/* Computes pairwise averages of three numbers */

#include <stdio.h>

double average(double a, double b)
{
    return (a + b) / 2;
}

int main(void)
{
    double x, y, z;

    printf("Enter three numbers: ");
    scanf("%lf%lf%lf", &x, &y, &z);
    printf("Average of %g and %g: %g\n", x, y, average(x, y));
    printf("Average of %g and %g: %g\n", y, z, average(y, z));
    printf("Average of %g and %g: %g\n", x, z, average(x, z));
}
```

Function Definitions

- ❑ General form of a ***function definition***:

```
return-type function-name ( parameters )  
{  
    declarations  
    statements  
}
```

Function Definitions

- ❑ The body of a function may include both declarations and statements.
- ❑ An alternative version of the `average` function:

```
double average(double a, double b)
{
    double sum;           /* declaration */

    sum = a + b;          /* statement */
    return sum / 2;       /* statement */
}
```

Function Calls

- ❑ A function call consists of a function name followed by a list of arguments, enclosed in parentheses:

```
average(x, y)
```

```
print_count(i)
```

```
print_pun()
```

- ❑ If the parentheses are missing, the function won't be called:

```
print_pun;    /*** WRONG ***/
```

This statement is legal but has no effect.

Function Calls

- ❑ A call of a `void` function is always followed by a semicolon to turn it into a statement:

```
print_count(i);  
print_pun();
```

- ❑ A call of a non-`void` function produces a value that can be stored in a variable, tested, printed, or used in some other way:

```
avg = average(x, y);  
if (average(x, y) > 0)  
    printf("Average is positive\n");  
printf("The average is %g\n", average(x, y));
```

Program: Testing Whether a Number Is Prime

- ❑ The `prime.c` program tests whether a number is prime:

```
Enter a number: 34
```

```
Not prime
```

- ❑ The program uses a function named `is_prime` that returns `true` if its parameter is a prime number and `false` if it isn't.
- ❑ `is_prime` divides its parameter `n` by each of the numbers between 2 and the square root of `n`; if the remainder is ever 0, `n` isn't prime.

prime.c

```
/* Tests whether a number is prime */

#include <stdbool.h>    /* C99 only */
#include <stdio.h>

bool is_prime(int n)
{
    int divisor;

    if (n <= 1)
        return false;
    for (divisor = 2; divisor * divisor <= n; divisor++)
        if (n % divisor == 0)
            return false;
    return true;
}
```



```
int main(void)
{
    int n;

    printf("Enter a number: ");
    scanf("%d", &n);
    if (is_prime(n))
        printf("Prime\n");
    else
        printf("Not prime\n");
    return 0;
}
```

Array Arguments

- ❑ **Example:** `/* no length specified */`

```
int sum_array(int a[], int n)
{
    int i, sum = 0;

    for (i = 0; i < n; i++)
        sum += a[i];

    return sum;
}
```

- ❑ Since `sum_array` needs to know the length of `a`, we must supply it as a second argument.

Array Arguments

- ❑ When `sum_array` is called, the first argument will be the name of an array, and the second will be its length:

```
#define LEN 100
```

```
int main(void)
```

```
{
```

```
    int b[LEN], total;
```

```
    ...
```

```
    total = sum_array(b, LEN);
```

```
    ...
```

```
}
```

- ❑ Notice that we don't put brackets after an array name when passing it to a function:

```
total = sum_array(b[], LEN);    /*** WRONG ***/
```

Array Arguments

- ❑ A function is allowed to change the elements of an array parameter, and the change is reflected in the corresponding argument.
- ❑ A function that modifies an array by storing zero into each of its elements:

```
void store_zeros(int a[], int n)
{
    int i;

    for (i = 0; i < n; i++)
        a[i] = 0;
}
```

- ❑ A call of `store_zeros`:

```
store_zeros(b, 100);
```

Array Arguments

- ❑ If a parameter is a multidimensional array, only the length of the first dimension may be omitted.
- ❑ If we revise `sum_array` so that `a` is a two-dimensional array, we must specify the number of columns in `a`:

```
#define LEN 10
```

```
int sum_two_dimensional_array(int a[][LEN], int n)
{
    int i, j, sum = 0;

    for (i = 0; i < n; i++)
        for (j = 0; j < LEN; j++)
            sum += a[i][j];

    return sum;
}
```

The return Statement

- `return` statements may appear in functions whose return type is `void`, provided that no expression is given:

```
return;    /* return in a void function */
```

- Example:

```
void print_int(int i)
{
    if (i < 0)
        return;
    printf("%d", i);
}
```

Program Termination

- ❑ Normally, the return type of `main` is `int`:

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

- ❑ Older C programs often omit `main`'s return type, taking advantage of the fact that it traditionally defaults to `int`:

```
main()
{
    ...
}
```

The `exit` Function

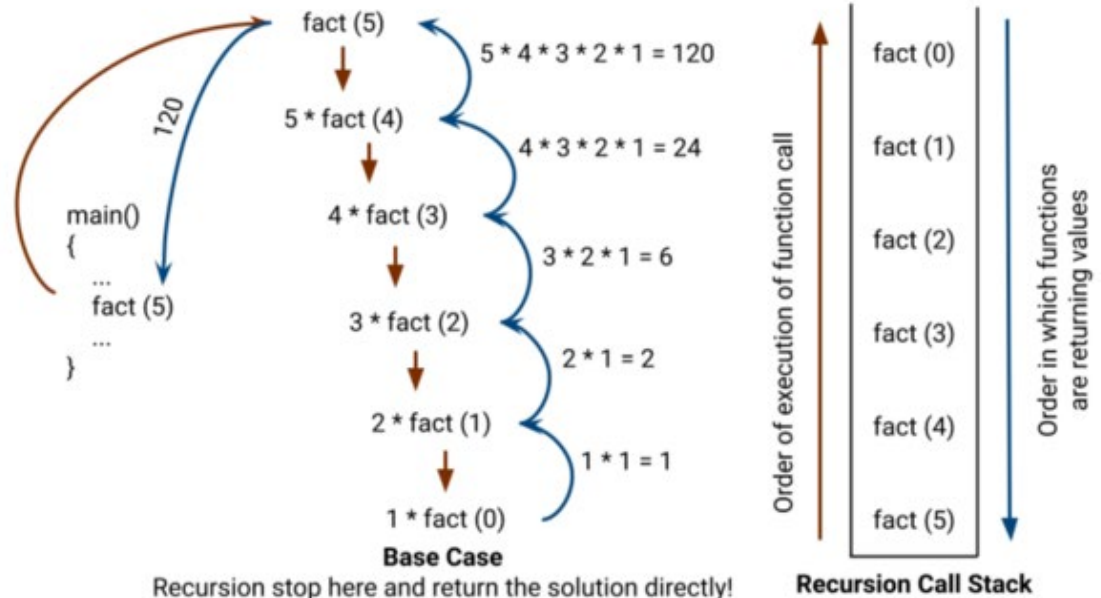
- ❑ Executing a `return` statement in `main` is one way to terminate a program.
- ❑ Another is calling the `exit` function, which belongs to `<stdlib.h>`.
- ❑ The argument passed to `exit` has the same meaning as `main`'s return value: both indicate the program's status at termination.
- ❑ To indicate normal termination, we'd pass 0:

```
exit(0);    /* normal termination */
```


Recursion

- ❑ A function is **recursive** if it calls itself.
- ❑ The following function computes $n!$ recursively, using the formula $n! = n \times (n - 1)!$:

```
int fact(int n) {  
    if (n <= 1)  
        return 1;  
    else  
        return n * fact(n - 1);  
}
```



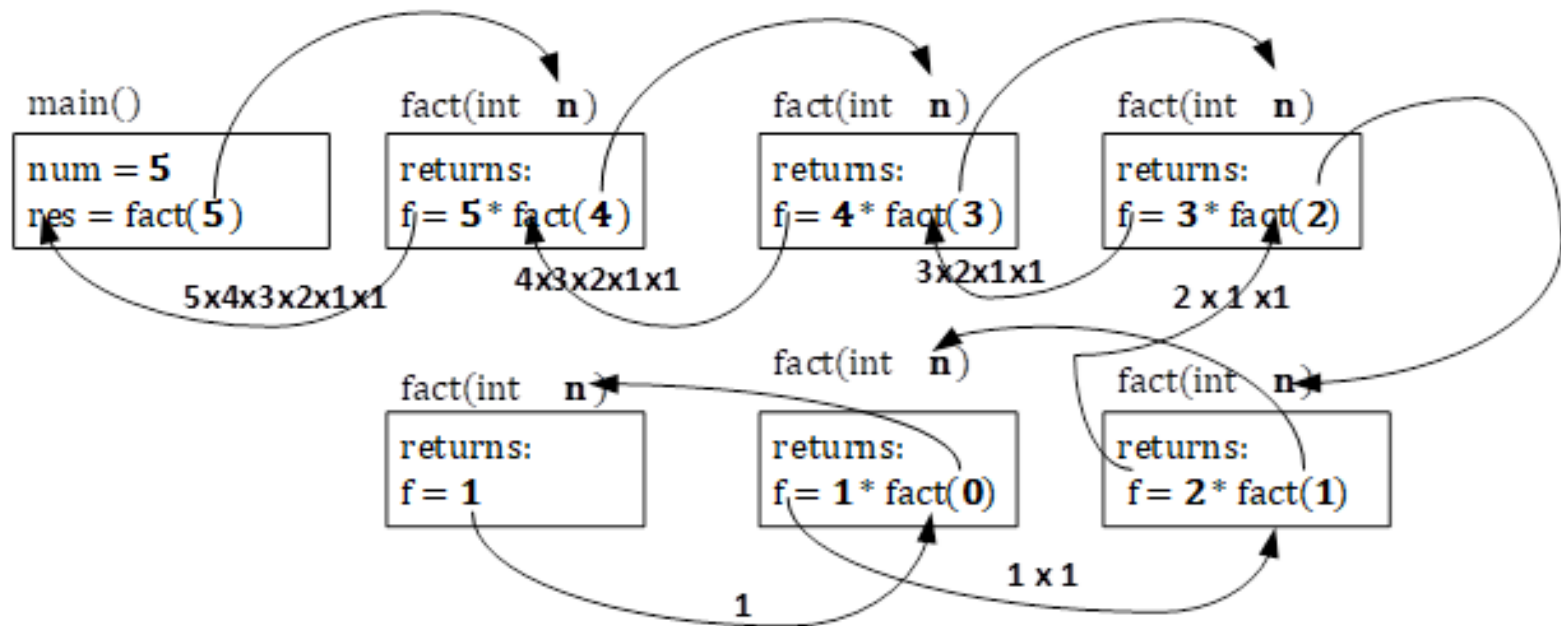
Recursion

- ❑ To see how recursion works, let's trace the execution of the statement

```
i = fact(3);
```

`fact(3)` finds that 3 is not less than or equal to 1, so it calls `fact(2)`, which finds that 2 is not less than or equal to 1, so it calls `fact(1)`, which finds that 1 is less than or equal to 1, so it returns 1, causing `fact(2)` to return $2 \times 1 = 2$, causing `fact(3)` to return $3 \times 2 = 6$.

Illustration of Recursive Function



Recursion

- ❑ The following recursive function computes x^n , using the formula $x^n = x \times x^{n-1}$.

```
int power(int x, int n)
{
    if (n == 0)
        return 1;
    else
        return x * power(x, n - 1);
}
```

Recursion

- ❑ We can condense the `power` function by putting a conditional expression in the `return` statement:

```
int power(int x, int n)
{
    return n == 0 ? 1 : x * power(x, n - 1);
}
```

- ❑ Both `fact` and `power` are careful to test a “termination condition” as soon as they’re called.
- ❑ All recursive functions need some kind of termination condition in order to prevent infinite recursion.

Recursion vs Iteration

- ❑ Any problem that can be solved recursively
 - Can also be solved iteratively (nonrecursively)?
- ❑ Avoiding Stack Overflow errors using tail-recursive functions
- ❑ Avoid using recursion in performance situations
 - Recursive calls take time
 - And consume additional memory

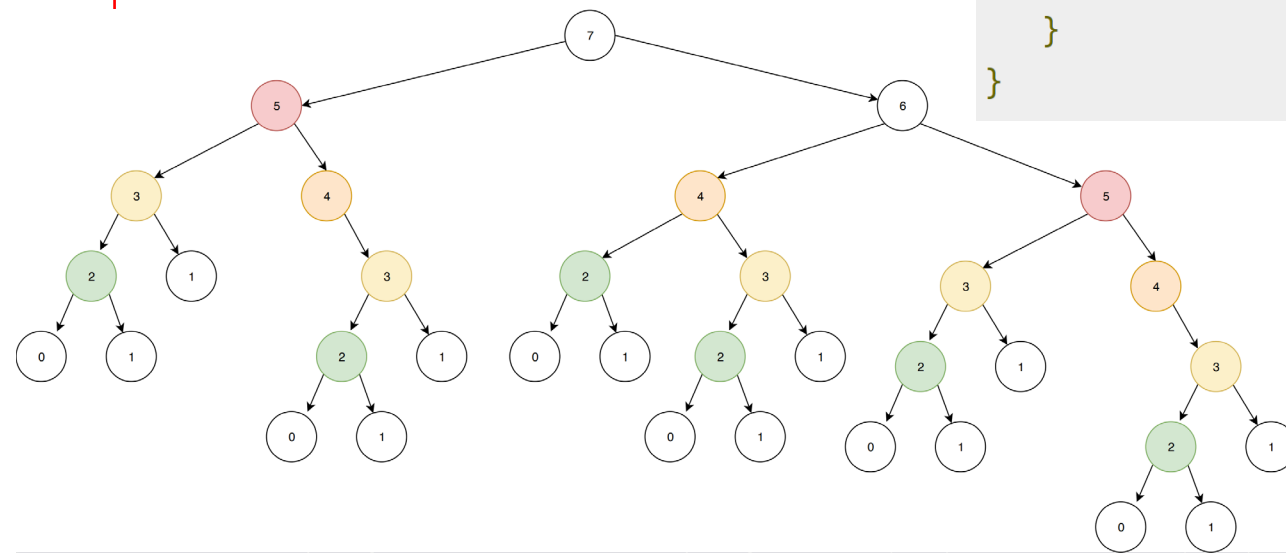
```
int fact(int n) {  
    int i, prod=1;  
    for (i=1; i<=n; i++)  
        prod = prod * i;  
  
    return prod;  
}
```

```
int fact(int n) {  
    if (n <= 1)  
        return 1;  
    Else  
        return n *  
            fact(n - 1);  
}
```

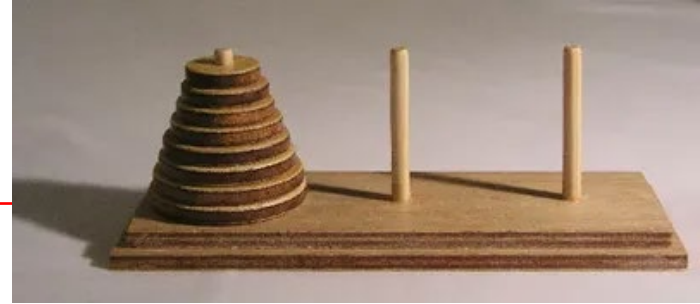
Fibonacci numbers

- ❑ The Fibonacci numbers are the integer sequence.
0, 1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 13, 21, 34, 55, 89, 144,
- ❑ $F_n = F_{n-1} + F_{n-2}$ $F_0 = 0$ and $F_1 = 1$

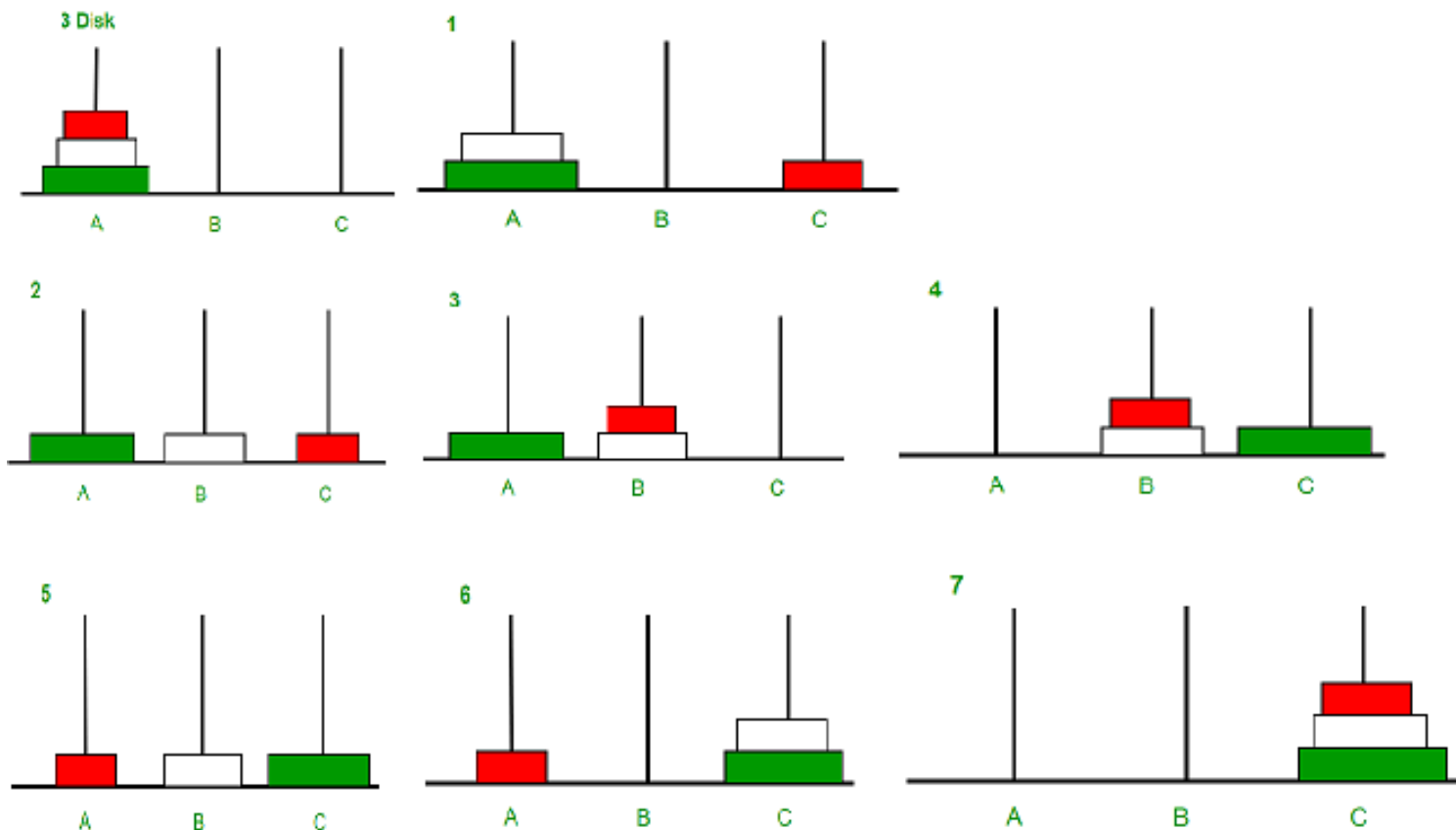
```
int fibonacci(int n) {  
    if(n == 0){  
        return 0;  
    } else if(n == 1) {  
        return 1;  
    } else {  
        return (fibonacci(n-1) + fibonacci(n-2));  
    }  
}
```



Tower of Hanoi



- ❑ a mathematical puzzle where we have three rods and n disks.



C recursive for hanoi tower

```
#include <stdio.h>

void Hanoi(int n, char from_rod, char to_rod, char aux_rod)
{
    if (n == 1)
    {
        printf("\n Move disk 1 from rod %c to rod %c",
            from_rod, to_rod);
        return;
    }
    Hanoi(n-1, from_rod, aux_rod, to_rod);
    printf("\n Move disk %d from rod %c to rod %c",
        n, from_rod, to_rod);
    Hanoi(n-1, aux_rod, to_rod, from_rod);
}

int main()
{
    int n = 3; // Number of disks
    Hanoi(n, 'A', 'C', 'B');
    // A, B and C are names of rods
}
```

Time Complexity: $O(2^n)$

Auxiliary Space: $O(n)$

Output:

Disk 1 moved from A to C

Disk 2 moved from A to B

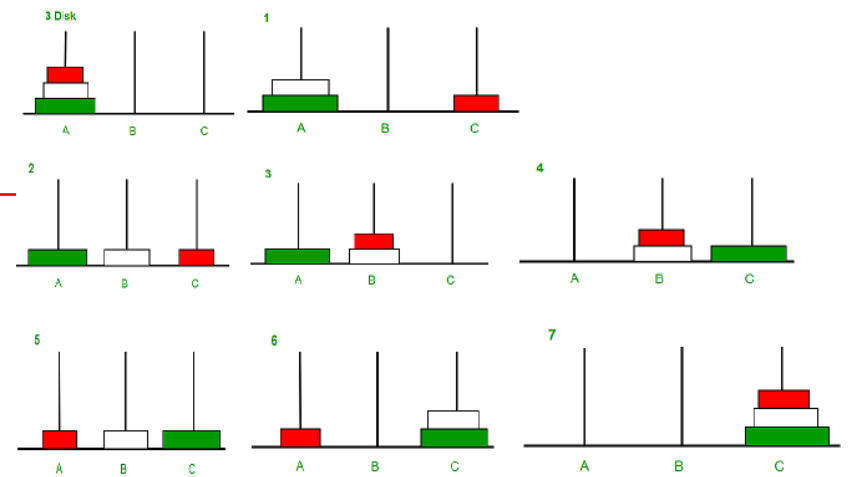
Disk 1 moved from C to B

Disk 3 moved from A to C

Disk 1 moved from B to A

Disk 2 moved from B to C

Disk 1 moved from A to C



Memory segment in Linux system

1. Text segment (i.e. instructions)
2. Initialized data segment
3. Uninitialized data segment (bss)
4. Heap
5. Stack

