

1 C

Strings end with a null terminator ('\\0') This is equivalent to zero.

C is syntactically similar to Java, but there are a few key differences:

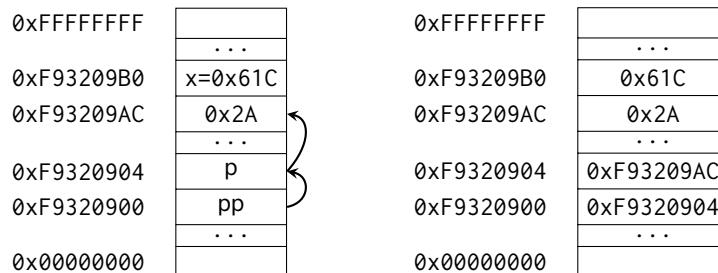
1. C is function-oriented, not object-oriented; there are no objects.
2. C does not automatically handle memory for you.

- Stack memory, or *things that are not manually allocated*: data is garbage immediately after the *function in which it was defined* returns.
- Heap memory, or *things allocated with malloc, calloc, or realloc*: data is freed only when the programmer explicitly frees it!
- There are two other sections of memory that we learn about in this course, *static* and *code*, but we'll get to those later.
- In any case, allocated memory always holds garbage until it is initialized!

3. C uses pointers explicitly. If *p* is a pointer, then **p* tells us to use the value that *p* points to, rather than the value of *p*, and *&x* gives the address of *x* rather than the value of *x*.

On the left is the memory represented as a box-and-pointer diagram.

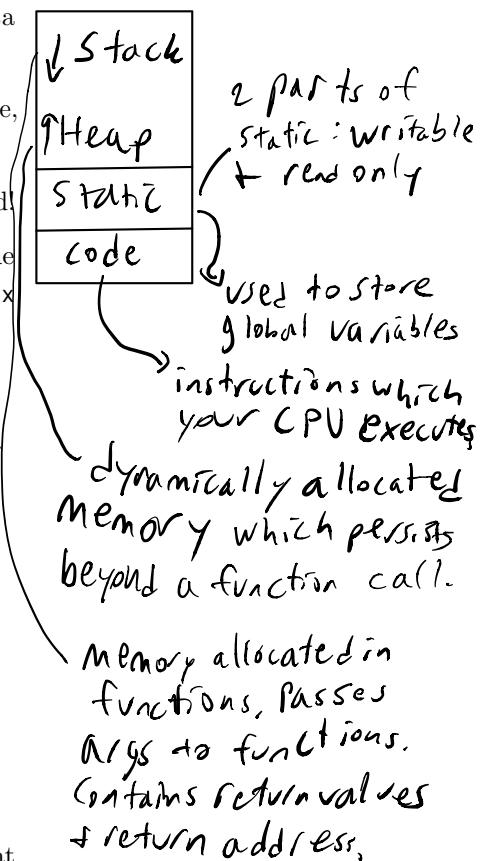
On the right, we see how the memory is really represented in the computer.



Let's assume that **int*** *p* is located at 0xF9320904 and **int** *x* is located at 0xF93209B0. As we can observe:

- **p* evaluates to 0x2A (42_{10}).
- *p* evaluates to 0xF93209AC.
- *x* evaluates to 0x61C.
- *&x* evaluates to 0xF93209B0.

Let's say we have an **int **pp** that is located at 0xF9320900.



This is the
data from the
dereferenced
deref²
C Basics

$\&pp = 0xF9320900$

$pp = 0xF9320904$

$*pp = 0xF93209AC$

dereference the address
 $0xF93209AC$ which
is $0x2A$.

- 1.1 What does pp evaluate to? How about *pp? What about **pp?

pp evaluates to $0xF9320904$. *pp evaluates to $0xF93209AC$. **pp evaluates to $0x2A$.

- 1.2 The following functions are syntactically-correct C, but written in an incomprehensible style. Describe the behavior of each function in plain English.

- (a) Recall that the ternary operator evaluates the condition before the ? and returns the value before the colon (:) if true, or the value after it if false.

```
1 int foo(int *arr, size_t n) { This is to "pop" off first elm + set next item in array
2   return n ? arr[0] + foo(arr + 1, n - 1) : 0; Tail case returns 0.
3 }
```

\rightarrow gets first elm in arr if arr has elm

Returns the sum of the first N elements in arr. \leftarrow this is equivalent to: $\text{if}(n) \{ \text{return arr[0]} + \text{foo(arr+1, n-1)} \}$

- (b) Recall that the negation operator, !, returns 0 if the value is non-zero, and 1 if the value is 0. The ~ operator performs a *bitwise not* (NOT) operation.

```
1 int bar(int *arr, size_t n) {
2   int sum = 0, i;
3   for (i = n; i > 0; i--)  $\leftarrow$  add 1 to sum if item in arr is 0.
4     sum += !arr[i - 1];
5   return ~sum + 1;  $\uparrow$  invert + add one. This is two's complement inversion!
6 }
```

Returns -1 times the number of zeroes in the first N elements of arr.

- (c) Recall that ^ is the *bitwise exclusive-or* (XOR) operator.

```
1 void baz(int x, int y) {
2   x' = x ^ y;  $y = x' \wedge y'$   $x'' = x' \wedge y' \wedge y$ 
3   y' = x' ^ y;  $y = x \wedge y' \wedge y$   $x''' = y^0$  so  $y = x + x = y$ 
4   x'' = x' ^ y';  $y = X$ 
5 }
```

Ultimately does not change the value of either x or y.

\uparrow this is because $x + y$ were changed only in the function & not globally.
Excercise: how would you make it so it affected them globally? Answer: make x & y pointers &

- 2.1 Implement the following functions so that they work as described. edit the dereferenced items.

- (a) Swap the value of two ints. Remain swapped after returning from this function.

```
1 void swap(int **x, int *y) {
2   int temp = *x;  $\leftarrow$  need to store a temp int so that when we write to *x,
3   *x = *y; we still have its value.
4   *y = temp; Note: temp only has to be an int since x is an int pointer
5 }
```

\uparrow & dereferences the pointer so it returns an int.

- (b) Return the number of bytes in a string. Do not use strlen.

```

1 int mystrlen(char* str) {
2     int count = 0;
3     while (*str++) { This is equivalent to
4         count++; & (Str++)
5     }
6     return count; There is a table
7 } online with operator
    precedence.

```

note

$X++$
(Postincrement)

$temp = X$

$X += 1$
return temp.

$++X$
(pre increment)

$X += 1$

return X

- 2.2 The following functions may contain logic or syntax errors. Find and correct them. *Exercise: What is another method we could use to determine the length/end of an array? Hint: there is a downside.*

To fix this issue, we need to pass in the size of the array. *It is necessary to pass a size alongside the pointer.*

```

1 int sum(int* summands, size_t n) {
2     int sum = 0; What is the size of (summands)
3     for (int i = 0; i < n; i++) sizeof() returns the size of the type, since summands
4         sum += *(summands + i); is an int pointer, on a standard 32 bit System, this
5     return sum; would be 4 B. (Aka sizeof(int*)=4). There is an edge case
6 } where sizeof can get the length in bytes of an array: when the compiler defined the

```

Hint: Think about strings.

Answer: Add some null byte to signify end. Drawback is you lose one integer you could have used!

- (b) Increments all of the letters in the string which is stored at the front of an array of size C. It can optimize parts of the array's memory.

The ends of strings are denoted by the null terminator rather than n . Simply having space for n characters in the array does not mean the string stored inside is also of length n .

```

1 void increment(char* string) {
2     for (i = 0; string[i] != 0; i++) Was i < n
3         string[i]++; // or (*(string + i))++; Was:
4 }

```

Does same thing

This is because the null terminator ' $\backslash 0$ ' == 0.

$0xFF = 1111\ 1111$
 $0x00 = 0000\ 0000$
 gets dropped
 $\Rightarrow 0b0000\ 0000$
 thus $0x00 == \backslash 0$

- (c) Copies the string src to dst.

```

1 void copy(char* src, char* dst) { remember
2     while (*dst++ = *src++); & dst++ means
3 }

```

No errors.

*temp = dst
 dst += 1
 return temp*

So this copies each elm to next arr. Common errors are students confusing this with $A + &dst = & + &src$ which would skip first elm & go out of bounds by 1.

- (d) Overwrites an input string src with "61C is awesome!" if there's room. Does nothing if there is not. Assume that length correctly represents the length of src.

```

1 void cs61c(char* src, size_t length) {
2     char *srcptr, replaceptr;

```

length of (61C-is-awesome!) 16

```

3     char replacement[16] = "61C is awesome!";
4     srcptr = src;
5     replaceptr = replacement;
6     if (length >= 16) {
7         for (int i = 0; i < 16; i++)
8             *srcptr++ = *replaceptr++;
9     }
10 }
```

`char *srcptr, replaceptr` initializes a `char` pointer, and a `char`—not two `char` pointers.

The correct initialization should be, `char *srcptr, *replaceptr`.

3 Memory Management

- 3.1 For each part, choose one or more of the following memory segments where the data could be located: **code**, **static**, **heap**, **stack**.

(a) Static variables

Static

(b) Local variables

Stack — Function variables

(c) Global variables — program variables

Static

(d) Constants

Code, static, or stack

Ex Fn:
int x = 0 ↗ global variable

Void foo() {
 int y = x; ↗ y is a local variable.
 x++;

char static = "Hello!"

char stack[] = "61C"

This is a
pointer to read
only static data

This is a pointer to a part
of the stack.

Constants can be compiled directly into the code. $x = x + 1$ can compile with the number 1 stored directly in the machine instruction in the code. That instruction will always increment the value of the variable x by 1, so it can be stored directly in the machine instruction without reference to other memory. This can also occur with pre-processor macros.

#define y 5

2

```

3 int plus_y(int x) { x is local variable (stack)
4     x = x + y;      y is just 1 which is changed at compile. It IS NOT
5     return x;      available once compiled.
6 }
```

→ ex. add a0 @0
a0 = x which
is a variable
constant;
Assembly
Note a0 = register in CPU

Constants can also be found in the stack or static storage depending on if it's declared in a function or not.

```

1 const int x = 1;      (Same as int const x = 1;)
2
3 int sum(int* arr) {
```

func
only

```

4     int total = 0;
5     ...
6 }

```

In this example, `x` is a variable whose value will be stored in the static storage, while `total` is a local variable whose value will be stored on the stack. Variables declared `const` are not allowed to change, but the usage of `const` can get more tricky when combined with pointers.

(e) Machine Instructions

Code (text)

(f) Result of `malloc`

Heap `allocate_heap = malloc.`

(g) String Literals

Static or stack. Note: the `ALL` returns a pointer to the location on the heap where the data is stored. If it returns `NULL`, then it could not allocate any more memory. DON'T FORGET `NULL` CHECK!

When declared in a function, string literals can be stored in different places.

`char* s = "string"` is stored in the static memory segment while `char[7] s = "string"` will be stored in the stack.

aka where it points to is the same but the data there can change depending on where it is stored/what parameters it was stored with.

Also `realloc` may or may not use the same location in memory!

3.2 Write the code necessary to allocate memory on the heap in the following scenarios

(a) An array `arr` of k integers

`arr = (int*) malloc(sizeof(int)* k);` to make it computable w/all systems. If you put just 4, it would be only computable with systems where `sizeof(int) == 4` which is not generally true

(b) A string `str` containing p characters

`str = (char*) malloc(sizeof(char) * (p + 1));` Don't forget the null terminator!

(c) An $n \times m$ matrix `mat` of integers initialized to zero.

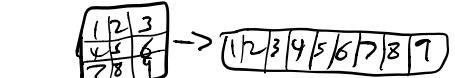
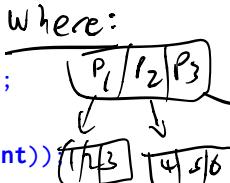
`mat = (int*) calloc(n * m, sizeof(int));` ← linear array where

Alternative solution. This might be needed if you wanted to efficiently permute the rows of the matrix.

```

1 mat = (int**) calloc(n, sizeof(int *));
2 for (int i = 0; i < n; i++)
3     mat[i] = (int*) calloc(m, sizeof(int))

```



could do same but store rows. Different methods useful in different types of accesses.

Suppose we've defined a linked list `struct` as follows. Assume `*lst` points to the first element of the list, or is `NULL` if the list is empty.

```

struct ll_node {
    int first;
    struct ll_node* rest;
}

```

- 3.3 Implement prepend, which adds one new value to the front of the linked list. Hint: why use `ll_node ** lst` instead of `ll_node* lst`?

```

1 void prepend(struct ll_node** lst, int value) {
2     struct ll_node* item = (struct ll_node*) malloc(sizeof(struct ll_node));
3     item->first = value;    ↗ Makes new struct ll-node in the heap
4     item->rest = *lst;     ↗ puts value to newly created structure.
5     *lst = item;          ↗ Sets rest to current start.
6 }
```

Sets start to newly created & new setup structure

- 3.4 Implement free_ll, which frees all the memory consumed by the linked list.

```

1 void free_ll(struct ll_node** lst) {
2     if (*lst) {           ↗ checks to see if has actual node & not null.
3         free_ll(&(*lst)->rest);    ↗ recursively frees the rest structure.
4         free(*lst);           ↗ frees current structure
5     }
6     *lst = NULL; // Make writes to **lst fail instead of writing to unusable memory.
7 }
```

Remember since this is a recursive call it will free
ALL structs in the linked list.