

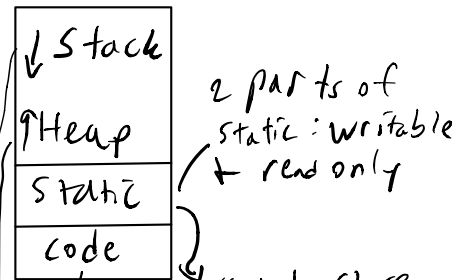
1 C

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*.

Array size is not kept so you must keep it yourself.  
sizeof gets size of the type passed in and not the length of the array.

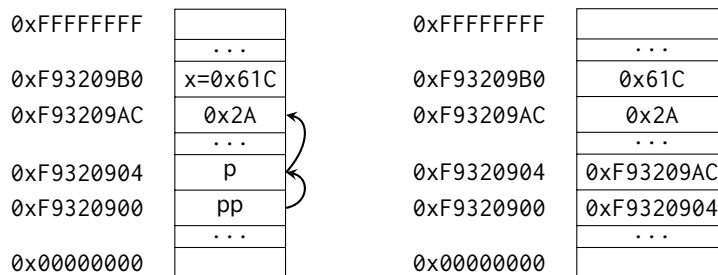


2 parts of static: writable + read only  
used to store global variables  
instructions which your CPU executes

dynamically allocated memory which persists beyond a function call.  
memory allocated in functions, passes args to functions. Contains return values + return address.

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 pp dereferenced  
 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) {
2     return n ? arr[0] + foo(arr + 1, n - 1) : 0;
3 }
```

This is to "pop" off first elem + set next item in array  
 Tail case returns 0.  
 gets first elem in arr if arr has elem  
 gets sum of the rest of the elem

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

(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--)
4         sum += !arr[i - 1];
5     return ~sum + 1;
6 }
```

add 1 to sum if item in arr is 0.  
 invert + add one. This is two's complement inversion!

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;
3     y' = x' ^ y;
4     x'' = x' ^ y';
5 }
```

$x'' = x' \wedge y'$   
 $x'' = x' \wedge x' \wedge y$   
 $x'' = y^0$  so  $y = x \oplus x = y$   
 $y = x$

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

↑ this is because x & y were changed only in the function & not globally.

## 2 Programming with Pointers Exercise: How would you make it so it affected them globally? Answer: make x & y pointers & edit the dereferenced items.

2.1 Implement the following functions so that they work as described.

(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;
3     *x = *y;
4     *y = temp;
5 }
```

need to store a temp int so that when we write to \*x, we still have its value.  
 Note: temp only has to be an int since x is an int pointer & x 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++) {
4         count++;
5     }
6     return count;
7 }

```

This is equivalent to  $*(str++)$

There is a table online with operator precedence.

note

$x++$ (post increment)	$++x$ (pre increment)
$temp = x$	$x += 1$
$x += 1$	$return x$
$return temp;$	

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 downsized).

To fix this issue, we need to pass in the size of the array.

(a) Returns the sum of all the elements in summands.

It is necessary to pass a size alongside the pointer.

```

1 int sum(int* summands, size_t n) {
2     int sum = 0;
3     for (int i = 0; i < n; i++)
4         sum += *(summands + i);
5     return sum;
6 }

```

Hint: Think about strings. Answer: Add some null byte to signify end. Drawback: you lose one integer you could have used.

Why size of (summands) is an int pointer, on a standard 32 bit system this would be 4 B. (aka  $sizeof(int*) = 4$ ). There is an edge case where  $sizeof$  can get the length in bytes of an array; when the compiler defined the

(b) Increments all of the letters in the string which is stored at the front of an array of arbitrary length,  $n \geq strlen(string)$ . Does not modify any other 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++)
3         string[i]++; // or (*(string + i))++;
4 }

```

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

0xFF = 1111 1111  
 0000 0000  
 gets dropped  
 so 060000 0000  
 thus 0000 == '\0'

Another common bug to watch out for is the corner case that occurs when incrementing the character with the value 0xFF. Adding 1 to 0xFF will overflow back to 0, producing a null terminator and unintentionally shortening the string.

This means you need to check for a null before incrementing.

(c) Copies the string src to dst.

```

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

```

No errors.

remember  $dst++$  means  $temp = dst$   
 $dst += 1$   
 $return temp$

So this copies each elm to next arr. Common errors are students confusing this with  $*++dst = *++src$  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!\0)  
= 16

```

4 C Basics
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 }
  
```

↖ instatic

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

Ex Fn: int x = 0 ← global variable

(b) Local variables

Stack

— Function variables

void foo() { int y = x; ← y is a local variable. }  
k++;

(c) Global variables — program variables

Static

char \*static = "Hello!";  
char stack[] = "CS61C";

(d) Constants

Code, static, or stack

↑ 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.

→ ex. add a0 (a0) 1  
a0 = x which is a variable  
constant in Assembly  
Note a0 == register in CPU

```

1 #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 as compile. It is NOT
5     return x; ← a variable one compiled.
6 }
  
```

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

read only

```

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

```

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)

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.

(f) Result of malloc

Heap

o other things which allocate heap = malloc, realloc, free can free any of these.

(g) String Literals

Static or stack.

Note: the `ALL` return 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 for any alloc!

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.

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));
```

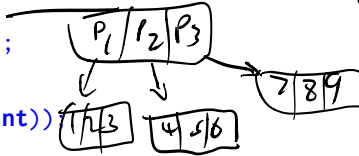
← linear array where

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));
    
```

where:



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;
4     item->rest = *lst;
5     *lst = item;
6 }

```

↑ makes new struct ll\_node in the heap  
 ← puts value to newly created structure.  
 ← sets rest to current start.  
 ← 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) {
3         free_ll(&((*lst)->rest));
4         free(*lst);
5     }
6     *lst = NULL; // Make writes to **lst fail instead of writing to unusable memory.
7 }

```

← checks to see if has actual node & not null.  
 ← recursively frees the rest structure.  
 ← frees current structure

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