# Introduction to Computer Science and Programming in C

Session 25: December 4, 2008 Columbia University

#### Announcements

 Final Exam: Tuesday, 12/16, 1:10 pm - 4:00 pm Mudd 233 (our normal room)

### Variables Revisited

- What actually happens when we declare variables?
   char a;
- C reserves a byte in memory to store **a**.
- Where is that memory? At an **address**.
- Under the hood, C has been keeping track of variables and their addresses.

#### Pointers

- We can work with memory addresses too. We can use variables called **pointers**.
- **pointer:** an address variable
- All pointers are the same size, regardless of what they point to

## Pointer Operators

- Declaring a pointer variable: int \* x\_ptr; /\* declares a pointer to an int \*/
- The & operator means "the address of this thing"
- The \* operator means "the thing this points to"

#### & and \*

- int \* x\_ptr; /\* declares a pointer to an int \*/ int x, y;
- x\_ptr = &x; /\* set x\_ptr to the address of x \*/
- y = \*x\_ptr; /\* set y to whatever x\_ptr points to \*/
- /\* is equivalent to \*/
  y = x;

## Some vocabulary

- \* operator is also known as **dereference**
- a pointer **references** a variable in memory

### Pointers and Arrays

- C blurs the distinction between pointers and arrays
- When we declare an array <sup>char A[10]</sup>; what is A?
  - A can be treated as a pointer to the first element of A

#### Pointers and Arrays

- In other words, the following two lines are equivalent:
  - o char \* array\_ptr = &A[0];
  - o char \* array\_ptr = A;
- This also means the following:
  - A[0] == \*array\_ptr
  - A[1] == \*(array\_ptr+1)

## Pointers and Arrays

- When we want a function to be able to modify the value of a variable, we pass it by reference sscanf(price, "\$%f", &dollars);
- Because arrays are basically pointers, this happens *automatically* when we pass arrays to functions.
- For example: strcpy(stringA, stringB);

### Pointer Arithmetic

- What if A was an array of ints?
   A[1] == \*(array\_ptr+1) ??
- Yes. C automatically keeps pointer arithmetic in terms of the size of the variable type being pointed to.
- Be careful to keep track of what C does for you and what it does not.

# Memory Management

- We discussed before that C does not like to initialize arrays with variable sizes.
- To get around this, you can use stdlib.h's **malloc()** command.
- malloc() stands for memory allocation.
- malloc(N) returns a pointer to an allocated block of memory of N bytes.

# malloc()

```
    Typical usage:
int N = 40000;
char *giantString = malloc(N*sizeof(char));
```

- Returns a null pointer if malloc fails.
- When we are done with the memory, we can free it with: free(giantString);

## Memory Leaks

```
• int N = 40000;
char *giantString = malloc(N*sizeof(char));
strcpy(giantString, argv[1]);
giantString = malloc(N*sizeof(char));
```

- Now a huge block of memory is allocated but the program has no way of finding it.
- If this code runs a lot, the amount of memory the program is using will keep growing.

# Measuring Algorithms

- In Computer Science, we want to be able to describe the running time and memory requirements of our algorithms
- A couple challenges:
  - Running time and space typically depend on input size
  - Algorithms are run on different machines

# Measuring Algorithms

- For varying input sizes, we can write our time and space requirements as functions of **N**.
- For varying implementation, we need our description to not care about constant factors.

## Example

- What is the running time of a function that sums an array of size 5 on a machine that takes 2 seconds to add numbers?
   4 \* 2 = 8
- What if array is size N? 2(N-1)
- What if it takes **c** seconds to add?

c(N-1)

## Big-O

• g(n) = O(f(n))means that for some c $g(n) \le c(f(n))$ 

- In other words, big-O means less than some constant scaling.
- In big-O notation, what is the running time to sum an array of size N? c(N-1) = O(N)

## Sorting

- One of the most studied problems in CompSci
- We are given N numbers
- Put the numbers in order
  - least to greatest, greatest to least, alphabetical, etc.
  - compare two numbers at at time

## Algorithm for Sorting

- In English: Given 50 index cards with numbers on them, how do you put them in order?
- Lots of different algorithms. We'll go over three

## Bubble Sort

- Worst algorithm ever
- Start at beginning of deck
- Compare current and next cards. If next card should be before current, swap. Move to next card.
- Keep passing through deck until no more swaps necessary.

## Selection Sort

- Smarter cousin of Bubble Sort
- Find the smallest unsorted card
- Swap smallest with the first unsorted card
- Consider that card sorted, and repeat

## Merge Sort

- If deck is 2 or less cards, just sort and return
- Split deck into two halves
- Merge Sort each half-deck (recursion!)
- Then, merge the two half-decks:
  - Look at top of each deck. Take the smallest of the two. Repeat until decks are combined.

## Running time

- Bubble Sort: O(N^2)
- Selection Sort: O(N^2)
   But the algorithm seems better organized.
- Merge Sort: O(N log(N))

### Pseudocode

- Mix of English and programming language
- Use programming constructs to keep thoughts organized: loops, conditionals, variables
- But use any syntax that is clear and consistent
- And use functions that are obvious to abstract busywork

## Pseudocode example

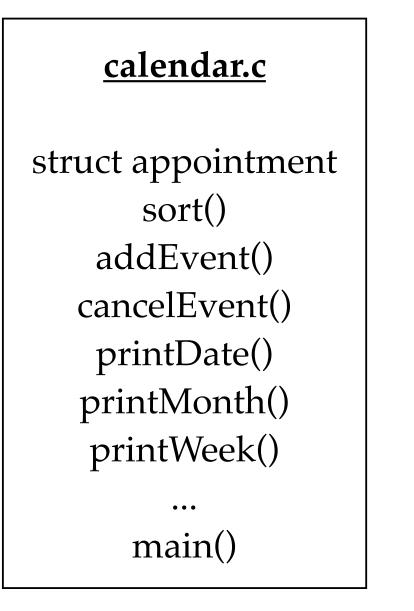
 print "Enter your friends' names:" while input is not "quit" input = keyboardInput add input to array Contacts

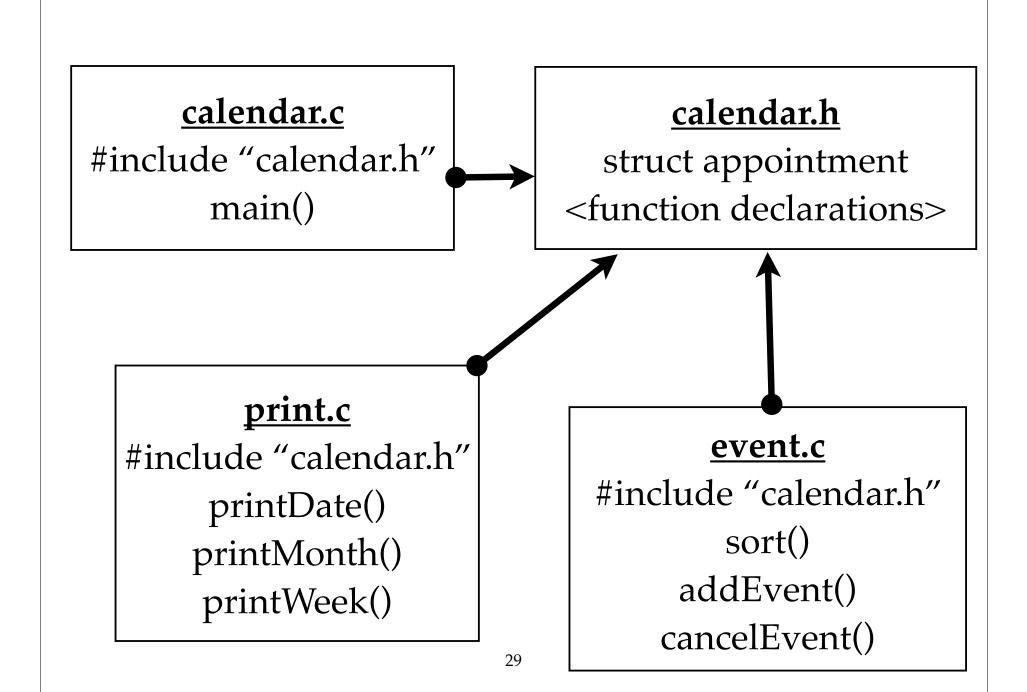
sort Contacts output Contacts

• Even though this is a simple piece of code, if it were written in C, it would be much harder to understand

# Modular Programming

- **modular** Designed with standardized units or dimensions, as for easy assembly and repair or flexible arrangement and use: *modular furniture; modular homes*.
- Organize programs into interchangeable parts
- Keep functions that deal with a certain type together, but separate them from functions that deal with other types.

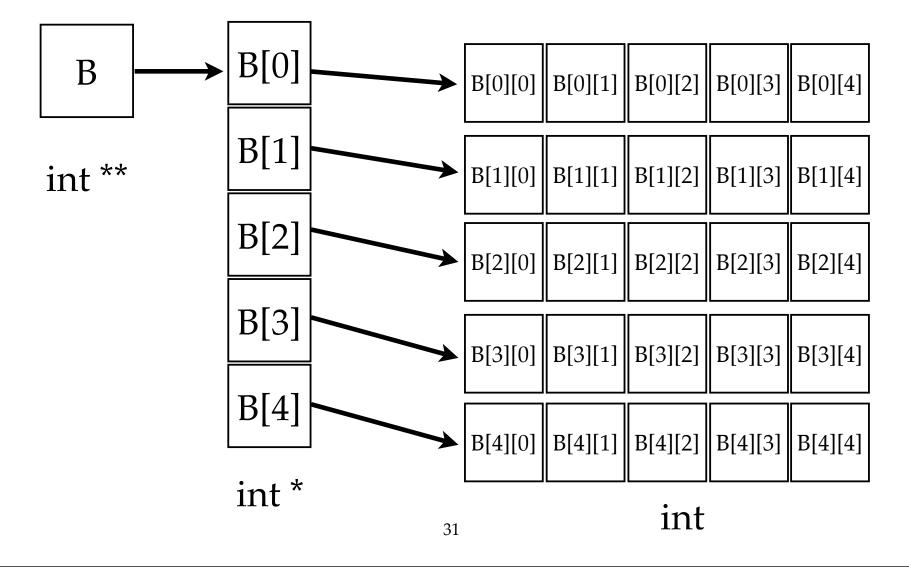




### Pointers to pointers

- Recall that C arrays and pointers are basically the same: int A[10]; int \*A ptr = A;
- How does C store 2d arrays?
   int B[10][10];
- **B** is a pointer to an array of pointers

### Pointers to pointers



## malloc()

• We can dynamically allocate multidimensional arrays

```
    int **C;
C = (int**) malloc(N*sizeof(int*));
    for (i=0; i<N; i++) {
C[i] = (int*)malloc(N*sizeof(int));
    }
```

## Pointers to functions

- It is occasionally useful to use pointers to functions
- Since functions are stored in memory, we can reason about their addresses too
- This allows us to say, "run the function at address \_\_\_\_\_ on these arguments"
- Useful for being truly general, e.g. stdlib qsort

# Function Pointer Syntax

- int (\*f\_ptr)();
   /\* pointer to function that returns an int \*/
- Parentheses are important. Without parentheses, f\_ptr looks like it returns a pointer to an int.
- int (\*f\_ptr)(int, int);
   /\* function takes 2 ints as arguments \*/
- int greater\_than(int a, int b);
  f\_ptr = greater\_than;

### qsort example

- Stdlib's qsort function is a general sorting function.
- Sort an array of any type, using any comparison criterion
- Define that comparison as a function pointer

```
    void qsort(void *base, size_t n, size_t size,
int (*cmp)(const void *, const void *));
```

#### qsort example

- Compare function should take two entries A and B,
  - return +1 if A>B
  - return -1 if A<B
  - return 0 if A==B

## qsort example

```
int greater than(const void *x, const void *y)
{
  float *a = (float^*)x, *b = (float^*)y;
  if (*a>*b)
    return 1;
  if (*a<*b)
    return -1;
  return 0;
}
void mySort(float A[], int N)
{
  int (*f ptr)(const void *, const void *)
          = greater than;
  qsort((void*)A, N, sizeof(float), f_ptr);
}
```

### Linked Lists

- Store each element in a struct that contains the data and a pointer to the next struct: a **node**
- Keep a pointer to the first node
- Following a linked list is like a scavenger hunt

#### Linked Lists

```
• struct node {
    int data;
    struct node * next;
};
```

```
struct node *start;
```

- How do we add a node at beginning of list?
  - Allocate new node, set **next** pointer to **start**, set **start** to new node.

### Linked Lists

- How do we add a node to the end of the list?
  - Follow pointers to last node, allocate new node, set last node's **next** to new node.
- How do we add in the middle of the list?
  - Set previous node's **next** to new node, set new node's **next** to next node.
- How do we delete a node?

## Doubly Linked Lists

- Keep a **next** pointer and a **previous** pointer.
- A little extra work for adding and removing, but allows for faster backtracking.

- Finding an item in a list or array is usually an O(N) operation.
- We can create a structure that makes it faster (at a cost; a tradeoff)
- We use a tree structure, which is like a linked list, except each node has more than one pointer.

- Binary tree: Each node has left and right child.
  - Left child is less than, right child is greater than

```
• struct node {
    int data;
    struct node *left;
    struct node *right;
}
```

struct node \*root;

- Inserting number **x** into a Binary Tree:
  - 0. Start at root
  - If current node is NULL, create new node and set node to x
  - 2. Otherwise,

if **x** >= current node, follow right pointer, else follow left pointer. Goto 1.

- Finding an item **x** in a binary tree:
  - 0. Start at root
  - 1. If current node is **x**, return
  - 2. If x >= current node, follow right pointer else, follow left pointer
  - 3. If node is NULL, return "not found", otherwise goto 1.

• On average, lookup and insertion take O(log N) time

• But worst case is still O(N)