
Week 2, continued

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1. Introduction

- Rob Bowden teaches today, and makes fun of David for sending a vertical video to apologize for missing today's lecture.
- Today we'll talk more about data representation and cryptography, or scrambling information, but first a story from yesteryear.
 - # Radio Orphan Annie's Secret Decoder Ring is a child-friendly form of cryptography, with two discs that rotates independently, the outer ring containing the letters `A – Z` and the inner ring the numbers `1 – 26` to encode a message by mapping letters to numbers.
 - # [This clip](#)¹ from [A Christmas Story](#)² shows a child, Ralphie, excitedly decoding the secret message from the radio, only to find that it is an advertisement for Ovaltine, a beverage popular many years ago.

2. More on Strings

- Recall from Monday the following representation of a string containing Zamyła's name, with the individual ``char`s` split up into separate boxes.

¹ <http://www.youtube.be/kEAH6u1ODNI?t=1m36s>

² http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/A_Christmas_Story

| z | a | m | y | l | a |

We can access these individual characters using bracket notation, so if we assign this string to a variable called `s`, we can get the first character using `s[0]`, the second with `s[1]`, and so on up to `s[5]` (the final `a`).

This string is of length `6`, but positions in a string are 0-indexed, so it contains indices `0` through `5`.

- Now let's look at this string in a larger context of your computer's memory:

| z | a | m | y | l | a | | |

| | | | | | | | |

| | | | | | | | |

| | | | | | | | |

The computer's memory is basically one long string of bytes, but we'll represent it as a grid to save space.

- A volunteer from the audience acts as a computer implementing the following code and storing the strings in memory:

```
#include <stdio.h>
#include <cs50.h>

int main(void)
{
    // get four strings from the user
    string s1 = GetString();
    string s2 = GetString();
    string s3 = GetString();
    string s4 = GetString();

    // print the first string entered
    printf("string s1 is %s\n", s1);
}
```

Rob, as the user, provides the strings `DEAN`, `HANNAH`, `MARIA`, and `ROB`, and our volunteer fills in the computer's memory like so:

```
-----
|...| D | E | A | N |   |
-----
| H | A | N | N | A | H |
-----
|   | M | A | R | I | A |
-----
|   | R | O | B |   |...|
-----
```

Our volunteer left spaces between each string so the computer can tell where each string ends (otherwise, when we try to print just `s1`, we would get `DEANHANNAHMARIAROB` rather than just `DEAN`!).

Rather than spaces, the computer actually uses a special terminator character, `\0`, to represent the end of a string:

```
-----
|...| D | E | A | N | \0 |
-----
| H | A | N | N | A | H |
-----
|\0 | M | A | R | I | A |
```

```
-----
|\0 | R | O | B |\0 |...|
-----
```

- The `strlen` function also relies on the presence of `\0`—it just iterates over the characters of the string until it finds a `\0`.
- In memory, the character `\0` is actually represented by a byte of all `0`s (so 8 consecutive 0 bits). So what about the character `0`? Remember ASCII, the system that maps characters to underlying byte values, where `A` maps to `65` and so on; the number `0` is represented by ASCII `48`.
- We'll refer to the `\0` character as a **null-terminator** (aka **NUL**).

3. Arrays

- So this general idea of storing items in boxes, as we do under the hood in a string, is known as an **array**. An array is a type of **data structure**, with a contiguous number of the same type of data, back-to-back. A `string` is just an array of `char` variables, but we can put any of our other data types in an array as well.
- Now say we wanted to get the ages of a number of people in the room. We might start with:

```
-----
#include <cs50.h>
#include <stdio.h>

int main(void)
{
    int age0 = GetInt();
    int age1 = GetInt();
    int age2 = GetInt();

    // do something with those numbers ...
}
-----
```

- But this will force us to completely rewrite our code, and copy-paste that `GetInt` line for every person we want to get an age from.
- We can solve this problem by using an array. The general format for declaring an array of a given `type` and `size` as a variable called `name` is:

```
type name[size];
```

- Let's look at how we do this in `ages.c`³:

```
#include <cs50.h>
#include <stdio.h>

int main(void)
{
    // determine number of people
    int n;
    do
    {
        printf("Number of people in room: ");
        n = GetInt();
    }
    while (n < 1);

    // declare array in which to store everyone's age
    int ages[n];

    // get everyone's age
    for (int i = 0; i < n; i++)
    {
        printf("Age of person #%i: ", i + 1);
        ages[i] = GetInt();
    }

    // report everyone's age a year hence
    printf("Time passes...\n");
    for (int i = 0; i < n; i++)
    {
        printf("A year from now, person #%i will be %i years old.\n", i
+ 1, ages[i] + 1);
    }
}
```

³ <http://cdn.cs50.net/2015/fall/lectures/2/w/src2w/ages.c>

In line 16, we declare an array that stores exactly `n` integers. The number in this case is how big we want the array to be, whereas earlier when we used `s[i]` we were retrieving that particular item in the array since it was already declared.

This means that somewhere in memory, we have `n` integer-sized (32-bit, or 4-byte) boxes in a row.

Then we `GetInt` for each person, storing it in `ages[i]` as we go through the loop, meaning the ages will be placed in the first box, second box, and so on of the `ages[]` array.

Now it should make a little more sense why the convention is to start `for` loops from `0` rather than `1`—we very often use a `for` loop to iterate over the indices of an array, and arrays are 0-indexed.

Finally, we iterate through the array again and print out each age, with 1 added to demonstrate what we can do after we retrieve the `int` from the array.

What happens if we try to store another `int` in `ages[n+1]`? Just as we saw when we tried to read many bytes past the end of a string, this results in a **segmentation fault**, an error that indicates we've touched a segment of memory that doesn't belong to us.

What if we didn't check whether the user entered a positive number for the number of people in the room? An array cannot have a negative size—if you declare an array with a negative size directly in your code, it will not compile—so if the user gets away with entering a negative size for the array, it also results in a segmentation fault.

4. Command-Line Arguments

- Now that we've seen arrays, we can start to work with command-line arguments, which we'll need for Problem Set 2.

- Commands like `cd` don't ask for input; instead they take arguments from the command-line, so `cd pset1` changes the directory to `pset1` without a separate prompt for input. `mkdir pset2` makes a directory called `pset2`, and `make hello` builds a program called `hello`.

`clang -o hello hello.c` has three such arguments (`-o`, `hello`, and `hello.c`).

- We've been writing programs that look like this, whereby `main` does not take any arguments (as implied by the presence of `void`):

```
#include <cs50.h>
#include <stdio.h>

int main(void)
{
    // TODO
}
```

This means that no other words can be typed after the program's name and accessed within `main`, and the only way to provide input is by a function running after the program is started, like with `GetString`.

- We will start adding code like this:

```
#include <cs50.h>
#include <stdio.h>

int main(int argc, string argv[])
{
    // TODO
}
```

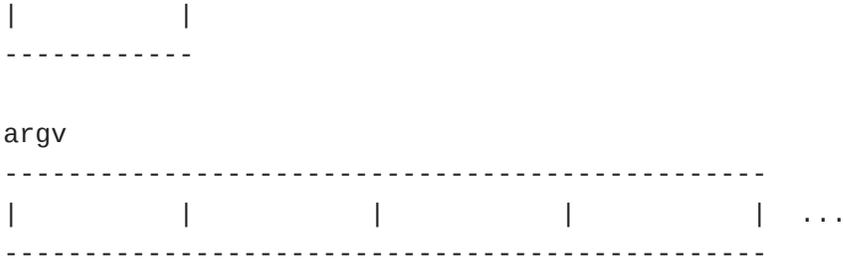
- We see that `main` now takes two arguments, `argc` which is an `int`, and `argv` which is an array of strings. We specify the name, `argv` (short for argument vector, or array of arguments), but not the size, so any array can be passed in to `main`.

This is a slightly different use of the bracket notation we haven't seen before—rather than indicating the size of an array or a position within an array, these empty brackets just mean that `argv` is an array (of unspecified size), and we know it's an array of strings because it's declared as `string argv[]`.

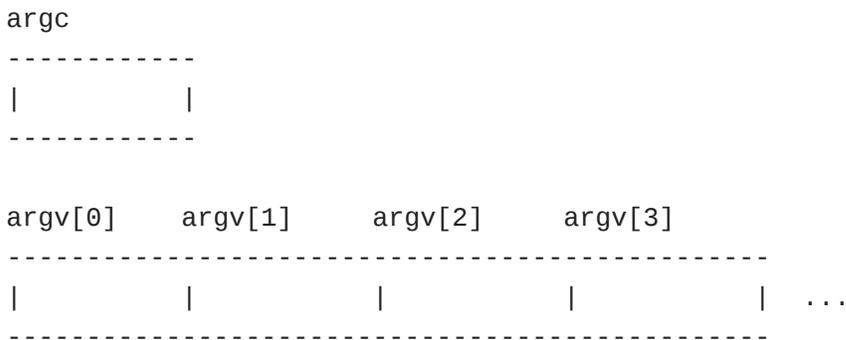
We need the size of `argv` to be unspecified because many programs (such as `clang`) can take different numbers of command-line arguments depending on what you're trying to do with them.

- So command-line arguments look like this in memory:

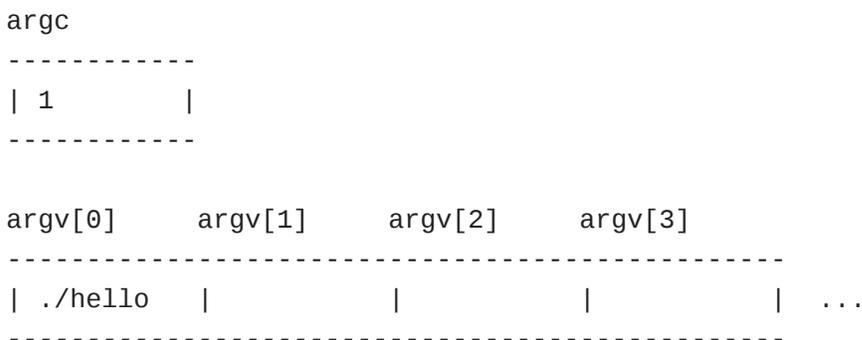
```
argc
-----
```



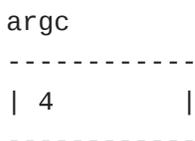
- `argv` is a chunk of memory that stores one `string` after another, and `argc` is a single chunk of memory that holds an `int`.
- We can access each string individually:



- If we run a program with `./hello`, the contents of `argc` and `argv[0]` would be as follows:



- If we ran `clang -o hello hello.c`, however, we get:



```

argv[0]    argv[1]    argv[2]    argv[3]
-----
| clang    | -o          | hello     | hello.c    | ...
-----

```

- Since we don't know where `argv` will end by itself, we need `argc` to tell us where to stop looking.
- Let's write a program that uses these arguments. What about a program that says `hello` without using `GetString`? Instead, it'll take arguments like this:

```

argc
-----
| 2      |
-----

argv[0]    argv[1]    argv[2]    argv[3]
-----
| ./hello  | Zamyła     |           |           | ...
-----

```

- We'll call this `hello-3.c`⁴:

```

#include <cs50.h>
#include <stdio.h>

int main(int argc, string argv[])
{
    printf("hello, %s\n", argv[1]);
}

```

`argv[1]` contains whatever `string` is passed in after the name of our program.

- But what happens if we don't type someone's name in?

```

jharvard@ide50:~/workspace/src2w $ make hello-3
clang -ggdb3 -O0 -std=c99 -Wall -Werror    hello-3.c -lcs50 -lm -o
hello-3
jharvard@ide50:~/workspace/src2w $ ./hello-3
hello, (null)

```

⁴ <http://cdn.cs50.net/2015/fall/lectures/2/w/src2w/hello-3.c>

`printf` is printing `(null)` because there's nothing (well, technically, `NULL`) in `argv[1]`.

When we run just `./hello-3`, `argc` is 1, so the length of the array `argv` is 1, so the only valid index in `argv` is `argv[0]`.

- So let's look at how we can prevent something like this happening in `hello-4.c`⁵:

```
#include <cs50.h>
#include <stdio.h>

int main(int argc, string argv[])
{
    if (argc == 2)
    {
        printf("hello, %s\n", argv[1]);
    }
    else
    {
        printf("hello, you\n");
    }
}
```

On line 6 we make sure that `argc` has a value of `2`, and if so, we know we have a single name string to plug in and say hello to the user. If not, we instead substitute a generic message of "hello, you".

```
jharvard@ide50:~/workspace/src2w $ ./hello-4
hello, you
jharvard@ide50:~/workspace/src2w $ ./hello-4 Rob
hello, Rob
jharvard@ide50:~/workspace/src2w $ ./hello-4 Rob Maria
hello, you
jharvard@ide50:~/workspace/src2w $
```

- Let's look at `argv-1.c`⁶:

⁵ <http://cdn.cs50.net/2015/fall/lectures/2/w/src2w/hello-4.c>

⁶ <http://cdn.cs50.net/2015/fall/lectures/2/w/src2w/argv-1.c>

```
#include <cs50.h>
#include <stdio.h>

int main(int argc, string argv[])
{
    // print arguments
    for (int i = 0; i < argc; i++)
    {
        printf("%s\n", argv[i]);
    }
}
```

We're iterating over the `argv` array, using its length, `argc`, to know when to stop.

This will print each argument, one per line:

```
jharvard@ide50:~/workspace/src2w $ make argv-1
clang -ggdb3 -O0 -std=c99 -Wall -Werror argv-1.c -lcs50 -lm -o
argv-1
jharvard@ide50:~/workspace/src2w $ ./argv-1
./argv-1
jharvard@ide50:~/workspace/src2w $ ./argv-1 Rob
./argv-1
Rob
jharvard@ide50:~/workspace/src2w $ ./argv-1 Rob Maria Hannah
./argv-1
Rob
Maria
Hannah
```

Note that `argc` can never be less than 1, because there will always at least be the name of the program itself.

- We can take this further in `argv-2.c`⁷:

⁷ <http://cdn.cs50.net/2015/fall/lectures/2/w/src2w/argv-2.c>

```

#include <cs50.h>
#include <stdio.h>
#include <string.h>

int main(int argc, string argv[])
{
    // print arguments
    for (int i = 0; i < argc; i++)
    {
        for (int j = 0, n = strlen(argv[i]); j < n; j++)
        {
            printf("%c\n", argv[i][j]);
        }
        printf("\n");
    }
}

```

Now we go through each argument with line 8, but in line 10 we check the length of the argument stored in `argv[i]`, store it in `n`, and use `j` as a counter to iterate through `argv[i]` since `i` was already used.

Then in line 12 we use this new syntax, `argv[i][j]` that gets the `i`'th string and the `j`'th character in that string. This relies on the fact that `argv` is an array of strings, which are themselves arrays of characters, so `argv` is a nested array of arrays.

```

jharvard@ide50:~/workspace/src2w $ make argv-2
clang -ggdb3 -O0 -std=c99 -Wall -Werror argv-2.c -lcs50 -lm -o
argv-2

```

```

jharvard@ide50:~/workspace/src2w $ ./argv-2

```

```

.
/
a
r
g
v
-
2

```

```

jharvard@ide50:~/workspace/src2w $ ./argv-2 foo bar

```

```

.
/

```

```
a  
r  
g  
v  
-  
2  
  
f  
o  
o  
  
b  
a  
r
```

- One thing to note is that command-line arguments are generally separated by spaces, as you'd expect, but if you want to pass an argument that itself contains a space, you can do it as follows:

```
jharvard@ide50:~/workspace/src2w $ ./argv-2 Rob Maria 'Hannah Blumberg'
```

By enclosing `Hannah Blumberg` in quotes, we tell the program that it's not two separate arguments, but rather only one.

5. Cryptography

- In **Problem Set 2** we introduce you to cryptography, specifically **secret-key crypto**, which can only be decoded by someone who knows the secret key that was used to encode the message.
- In the Hacker Edition, we'll give you some usernames and encrypted (well, "hashed") passwords that look like `{crypt}1L1BcWwQn$pxTB3yAjbVS/HTD2xuXFI0`, challenging you to crack them and finding the original passwords.
- After this problem set, you'll be able to decode what this means:

```
or fher gb qevax lbhe Binygvar
```

- As well as this URL, which you may remember from Week 0:

```
uggcf://lbhgh.or/bUt5FWLEUN0
```