# Session 6 : Modules

## Modularization

- Also commonly known as libraries
- Large programs can be built from many modules
- A module can be a client itself and require functions from other modules
- The module dependency graph should not have any cycles
- There must be a "**root**" that acts as a client
  - This is the program that contains the Main function and is run
- Three key advantages
  - 1. Reusability
    - Can be re-used by many clients
    - Might be able to buy or license third-party modules or subcontract parts of the implementation
  - 2. Maintainability
    - Easier to test and debug a single module using a test-suite
  - 3. Abstraction
    - Lets client know functionality without understanding how it's implemented
- Module in C is made of two files
  - One containing **module declarations**
  - Other containing **module definitions**

**DECLARATION:** introduces an identifier

**DEFINITION:** gives some content to an identifier

- Also contains an identifier, so a definition always acts as a declaration
- An identifier can be **declared multiple times**, but only **defined once**

# **Test clients**

**BLACK-BOX TESTING:** ensures correct functionality of an application without knowledge of internal implementations

WHITE-BOX TESTING: tests all internal functionality of a module

• May include tests for implementation-specific and module-scope function

# **Information hiding**

- Two key advantages
  - 1. Security
    - Prevents clients from direct access to data stored within a module
    - Client may only interact through the given interface
  - 2. Flexibility
    - Allows for changing the underlying implementation without affecting the client (as long as the interface remains unchanged)

**OPAQUE STRUCTURES:** providing an incomplete structure declaration

- Compiler does not know how much memory to allocate for a structure
- Only pointers to an opaque structure can be defined

**TRANSPARENT STRUCTURES:** structure fully declared in the interface file, letting the client know about its fields

## Abstract data types

**DATA STRUCTURE:** as the client, you **know** how the data is structured and you can **access the data directly** in any manner you desire

**ADT:** the client does **not know** how the data is structured and can only access the data through the interface provided by the ADT

**COLLECTION:** an ADT designed to store an arbitrary amount of data (or number of items)

- Include:
  - Stacks
  - Queues
  - Lists or sequences
  - Trees
  - Graphs
  - Sets

#### Stack ADT

- Items are pushed onto the top of the stack and popped off the top of the stack
- Exhibits LIFO behavior
- Typical operations
  - **Push:** adds an item to the top of the stack
  - **Top:** returns the item at the top of the stack
  - **Pop:** removes the item from the top of the stack and returns it
  - **Empty?:** determines if the stack is empty or not

#### Queue ADT

- New items are added to the back of the lines, and items are removed from the front of the line
- Exhibits **FIFO** behavior
- Typical operations:
  - **Enqueue:** adds an item to the end of the queue
  - **Front:** returns the time at the front of the queue
  - $\circ$  ~ Dequeue: removes the item from the front of the queue and returns it
  - **Empty?:** determines if the queue is empty or not

#### Sequence ADT

- Useful when you want to insert, retrieve, or delete items at an arbitrary position
- Insert-at / remove-at: change the position of items after the insertion / removal position
- Typical operations:
  - Length: return the number of items in the sequence
  - Insert: inserts a new item at a given position
  - **At:** returns the item at a given position
  - **Remove:** removes an item at a given position and returns it

### **Oversized arrays**

- Arrays of fixed length
- Keep track of current length and maximum length

# Session 7: Efficiency

ALGORITHM: step-by-step description of how to solve a "problem"

- Not restricted to computing
- "problems " are function descriptions (interfaces)

## Algorithm comparison

- Use conservative (pessimistic) and use the worst case
- Average case running time is typically more complicated

#### Problems with quantifying by time

- Make year of statement
- Unit of measurement
- Machine and model (with how much memory?)
- Computer language and operating system
- Actual CPU time, or total time elapsed
- Accuracy of time measurement

## **Big O Notation**

#### Constant – O(1)

• Operators, calls to simple functions

#### Linear – O(n)

• Simple array traversal

### Quadratic – O(n<sup>2</sup>)

- Simple array traversal with O(n) in loop body
- Nested loops

### Cubic – O(n<sup>3</sup>)

#### Logarithmic – O(log n)

- Fractioning data length
- Ex. for (int i = 1; i < len; i \*= 2)

### Logarithmic - O(n log n)

• Having a nested loop, with one of the loops as O(log n)

#### Exponential – O(2<sup>n</sup>)

• Complex recursion

## **Big O arithmetic**

- When adding two orders, the result is the largest of the two orders
  - Two unnested orders within a function
  - $\circ$  O(1) + O(1) = O(1)
  - $\circ$  O(1) + O(n) = O(n)
- When multiplying two orders, the result is the product of the two orders
  - One order being applied to another
  - $O(\log n) \times O(n) = O(n \log n)$
  - $\circ$  O(1) x O(n) = O(n)

#### **Iterative algorithms**

- 1. Work from innermost loop to outermost
- 2. Determine number of iterations (in the worst case) in relation to the size of the data (n) or an outer loop counter
- 3. Determine running time per iteration
- 4. Write summation(s) and simplify the expression

#### **Recursive algorithms**

- 1. Identify the order of the function **excluding** recursion
- 2. Determine the size of the data for the next recursive call(s)
- 3. Write the full recurrence relation (combine step 1 & 2)
- 4. Look up the closed-form solution in a table
  - Recurrence relations:
    - $\circ$  T(n) = O(1) + T(n k<sub>1</sub>) = O(n)
    - $\circ$  T(n) = O(n) + T(n k<sub>1</sub>) = O(n<sup>2</sup>)
    - $T(n) = O(n^2) + T(n k_1) = O(n^3)$
    - $\circ \quad T(n) = O(1) + T(n k_1) + T(n k_1') = O(2^n)$
    - $T(n) = O(1) + T(n / k_2) = O(\log n)$
    - $T(n) = O(1) + k_2 * T(n / k_2) = O(n)$
    - $T(n) = O(n) + k_2 * T(n / k_2) = O(n \log n)$  where  $k_0 \ge 1$ ;  $k_2 \ge 2$
    - TABLE WILL BE PROVIDED IN EXAMS

# Efficiency of sorting algorithms

- Selection sort
  - Best case :  $O(n^2)$
  - Worst case :  $O(n^2)$
- Insertion sort
  - Best case : O(n)
  - $\circ$  Worst case : O(n<sup>2</sup>)
- Quick sort
  - Best case : O(n log n)
  - Worst case :  $O(n^2)$
- Binary search
  - O(log n)

## Session 8: Strings

- No built-in string type
- "Convention" is an array of characters, terminated by the null-character '\0'
- Since strings are null-terminated, no need to pass length to functions
- Good style of have **const parameters** to communicate **no mutations** occur to the string

# **String functions**

#### Strlen

- Returns the length of a string
- Time complexity : O(n)

#### Strcmp

- Compares two strings lexicographically
- Returns a negative value if str1 appears before str2, a positive value if str2 appears before str1, and 0 if both strings are equal
- Time complexity : O(n)

### Printf

• The printf placeholder for strings is "%s"

• Time complexity : O(n), where n is the length of the string

#### Strcpy

- Copies the content of a string src, including the null terminator, into dst
- Can be a source of buffer overflows
  - Always ensure that dst array is large enough, including null-terminator
- Time complexity : O(n), where n is the length of src

#### Strcat

- Appends the content of string src onto dst
- Time complexity : O(n), where n is the length of src

#### Strdup

- Makes a duplicate of a string
- Similar to strcat, but allocates heap memory instead

## **String literals**

**STRING LITERAL:** C strings are not initialized as an array

- For each string literal, a null-terminated const char[] is created in the global read-only section of memory
- In the code, the occurrence of the String literal is replaced with the address of the corresponding array
- Do not behave like an array
  - Content is immutable
  - Identifier is reassignable

## Session 9: Dynamic Memory

### The Heap

- Memory is **allocated** from the heap upon request
- This memory s "borrows" and must be "returned" (freed) back to the heap when it is no longer needed (memory deallocation)

• If too much memory has already been allocated, attempts to borrow additional memory may fail

## Advantages of the Heap

- Dynamic
  - Size of the memory to be allocated can be determined at runtime
- Resizable
  - Allocated memory can be "resized"
- Scope
  - Allocated memory persists until is it "freed"
  - A function can allocate memory that continues to be valid after the function returns
- Safety
  - If memory runs out, it can be detected and handled properly (unlike stack overflows)

#### Malloc

- Short **m**emory **alloc**ation
- Function which dynamically allocates memory from the heap memory section
- Declared in **<stdlib.h>**
- Use ex. struct posn \*my\_posn = malloc(sizeof(struct posn));
- Heap memory provided by malloc is **uninitialized**
- Should always use **sizeof** with malloc to improve portability and to improve communication
- An unsuccessful call to malloc returns NULL
  - Good style to check every malloc return value and handle a NULL instead of crashing

#### Free

- Every block of memory obtained through malloc must be **manually freed** before the program terminates
  - Free function deallocates the space previously allocated by malloc, calloc, or realloc
- Once a block of heap memory has been freed, reading from or writing to it is invalid and may cause errors
- Once a block of heap memory has been freed, freeing it again could cause errors
- Calling free does **not mutate** the value of a pointer
  - While the memory the pointer is pointing at has been freed and is now invalid, the pointer is still pointing at it
  - A pointer to a freed allocation is known as a **dangling pointer**
  - Sometimes advisable to assign NULL to a dangling pointer
- Run-time error occurs when calling free with memory that was not returned by malloc
- **MEMORY LEAK:** occurs when allocated heap memory is not freed before the program terminates

#### Realloc

- Realloc(ptr, newsize) turns a block of heap memory of newsize. If ptr is not NULL, the content of • \*ptr is copied over, and ptr is freed
- Preserves the contents of the old array
- The pointer returned by realloc may be the original pointer, depending on circumstances
  - Regardless only the new returned pointer can be used

### Scope and side effects

- Advantage of dynamic memory is that a function can obtain memory that persists after the function has returned
- Allocating (and deallocating) memory has a side effect: modifies the "state" of the heap
  - Must be documented
  - Ex. "effects: allocates heap memory [caller must free]"
- Inversely, a function could free memory it did not allocate
  - Side effect: "effects: data becomes invalid" 0

#### **Merge Sort**

- 1. The array is split (in half) into two separate arrays
- 2. The two arrays are sorted and then merged back together into the original array

39

3. Uses helper function "merge"

```
// merge(dest, src1, len1, src2, len2) modifies dest[] to contain
int pos1 = 0;
  int pos2 = 0;
  for (int i = 0; i < len1 + len2; ++i) {
    if (pos1 == len1 || (pos2 < len2 && src2[pos2] < src1[pos1])) {</pre>
       // taking data from src2
      dest[i] = src2[pos2];
      ++pos2;
    } else {
   // taking data from src1
   // taking data from src1
      dest[i] = src1[pos1];
       ++pos1;
    }
}
```

## **Doubling strategy**

```
if (*len_cur == len_max) {
    len_max *= 2;
    *lines = realloc(*lines, len_max * sizeof(char *));
}
```

## Session 10 : Linked Data Structures

NODE: contains some data and a link to the next node in the list

- Implemented as structures (llnode)
- The link between nodes is implemented as a pointer
  - Pointer value of the last node is NULL, which indicates the end of a linked list

### LINKED LIST: a sequence of nodes

- The last node in a linked list does not link to another node
- Can grow and shrink at run-time
- Significant advantage over an array is that it's possible to add and remove items from the front and middle
- Beginning of a linked list is usually implemented as a separate wrapper structure (llist)
  - Contains a link to the front of the linked list
- Clients interact with the linked list only through the wrapper structure llist
  - Prevents the client from directly accessing and manipulating linked data

• Llnode is a recursive data structure, whereas llist is not

#### Link list creation

```
// llist.h [INTERFACE]
// ll_create() creates a new empty linked list.
// effects: allocates heap memory [client must call ll_destroy]
// time: 0(1)
struct llist *ll_create(void);
// llist.c [IMPLEMENTATION]
struct llist *llst = malloc(sizeof(struct llist));
assert(llst);
llst->front = NULL;
return llst;
}
```

#### Linked list node creation

```
// llist.c [IMPLEMENTATION]
struct llnode *lln_create(int data) {
   struct llnode *lln = malloc(sizeof(struct llnode));
   assert(lln);
   lln->data = data;
   lln->next = NULL;
   return lln;
}
```

#### **List insertion**

Inserting at the front

```
// llist.c [IMPLEMENTATION]
void ll_insert_front(struct llist *lst, int itm) {
   struct llnode *new_node = lln_create(itm);
   new_node->next = lst->front; // either NULL or existing node
   lst->front = new_node;
}
```

Inserting at the back

```
// llist.c [IMPLEMENTATION]
void ll_insert_back(struct llist *lst, int itm) {
   struct llnode *new_node = lln_create(itm);
   if (lst->front == NULL) { // empty list: insert at front
        lst->front = new_node;
   } else { // non-empty list: find the node AFTER which to insert
        struct llnode *insert_after = lst->front;
        while (insert_after->next != NULL) {
            insert_after = insert_after->next;
        }
        insert_after->next = new_node;
   }
}
```

#### Inserting at an arbitrary position

```
// llist.c [IMPLEMENTATION]
void slst_insert(struct llist *slst, int itm) {
  struct llnode *new_node = lln_create(itm);
  if (slst->front == NULL || itm <= slst->front->data) {
    new_node->next = slst->front;
    slst->front = new_node;
  } else {
    struct llnode *insert_after = slst->front;
    while (insert_after->next != NULL &&
        itm > insert_after->next.>data) {
        insert_after = insert_after->next;
    }
    new_node->next = insert_after->next;
    }
}
```

### List traversal

```
int ll_length(const struct llist *llst) {
    int len = 0;
    const struct llnode *current = llst->front;
    while (current) { // current != NULL
        ++len;
        current = current->next;
    }
    return len;
}
```

#### Node removal

**Removal from the front** 

```
// llist.c [IMPLEMENTATION]
void ll_remove_front(struct llist *lst) {
  assert(lst->front);
  struct llnode *to_remove = lst->front;
  lst->front = lst->front->next;
  lln_destroy(to_remove);
}
```

#### **Removal from the back**

```
// llist.c [IMPLEMENTATION]
void ll_remove_back(struct llist *lst) {
  assert(lst->front);
  struct llnode *destroy_after = lst->front;
  struct llnode *to_destroy = lst->front;
  while (to_destroy->next != NULL) {
    destroy_after = to_destroy;
    to_destroy = to_destroy->next;
  3
  if (to_destroy == lst->front) { // remove only element
    lst->front = NULL;
                                  // remove non-only element
  } else {
    destroy_after->next = NULL;
  lln_destroy(to_destroy);
}
```

#### Removal from an arbitrary position

```
// ll_remove_item(lst, itm) removes the first occurrence of
   item itm in list *lst and returns true if item is
11
// successfully removed, and false otherwise.
bool ll_remove_item(struct llist *lst, int itm) {
 if (lst->front == NULL) return false;
  if (lst->front->data == itm) {
   ll_remove_front(lst);
    return true;
  }
  struct llnode *remove_after = lst->front;
  while (remove_after->next && itm != remove_after->next->data) {
   remove_after = remove_after->next;
  }
  if (remove_after->next == NULL) return false;
  struct llnode *to_remove = remove_after->next;
  remove_after->next = remove_after->next->next;
  lln_destroy(to_remove);
  return true;
}
```

## **List destruction**

```
// llist.c [IMPLEMENTATION]
void ll_destroy(struct llist *lst) {
  struct llnode *current = lst->front; // basic list traversal
  while (current) { // basic list traversal
    struct llnode *to_destroy = current;
    current = current->next; // basic list traversal
    lln_destroy(to_destroy); // destroying the llnode
  }
  free(lst); // destroying the llist wrapper structure
}
```

## Node augmentation

	Linked list	Linked list with back pointer	Doubly linked list with back pointer
Insert_front	O(1)	O(1)	O(1)
Insert_back	O(n)	O(1)	O(1)
Remove_front	O(1)	O(1)	O(1)
Remove_back	O(n)	O(n)	O(1)

### Trees

- Nodes may have multiple children
- In a binary tree, each node has at most two children
- **ROOT NODE:** node which has no parent, whereas all others have exactly one
- LEAF NODE: node which has no children
- **HEIGHT:** maximum possible number of nodes from the root a leaf
  - Height of an empty tree is 0
- NODE COUNT: number of nodes in a tree

## **Binary Search Tree Implementation**

#### Definition

```
struct btnode {
    int data;
    struct btnode *left;
    struct btnode *right;
};
struct bst {
    struct btnode *root;
};
```

#### Creation

```
// bst_create() creates a new empty BST.
// effects: allocates heap memory [client must call bst_destroy]
// time: 0(1)
struct bst *bst_create(void) {
  struct bst *bst = malloc(sizeof(struct bst));
  bst->root = NULL;
  return bst;
}
```

#### Traversal

```
// bst_traverse(bst) traverses the tree bst.
// time: O(n)
void bst_traverse(const struct bst *bst) {
   assert(bst);
   if (bst->root != NULL) {
      bst_traverse_wrkr(bst->root);
   }
}
void bst_traverse_wrkr(const struct btnode *node) {
   if (node != NULL) {
      bst_traverse_wrkr(node->left);
      bst_traverse_wrkr(node->right);
   }
}
```

#### **Node creation**

```
struct btnode *node_create(int data) {
   struct btnode *node = malloc(sizeof(struct btnode));
   node->data = data;
   node->left = NULL;
   node->right = NULL;
   return node;
}
void node_destroy(struct btnode *node) {
   assert(node);
   free(node);
}
```

#### Insertion

```
void bst_insert_wrkr(struct btnode *node, int data) {
  // find node after which to insert
  struct btnode *insert_after = NULL;
  while (node != NULL) {
    insert_after = node;
                               // data should go left
    if (data < node->data) {
      node = node->left;
    } else if (data > node->data) { // data should go right
      node = node->right;
                                   // data already exists
    } else {
      return;
    }
  }
  // inserting new data
  if (data < insert_after->data) {
    insert_after->left = node_create(data);
  } else if (data > insert_after->data) {
    insert_after->right = node_create(data);
  }
}
```

## **Trees and efficiency**

- Worst case is when the tree is **unbalanced**, and every node must be visited
- Runtime of bst\_insert is O(h)
  - Dependant on the height (h) rather than number of nodes (n)
  - **BALANCED TREE:** a tree with a height that is O(log n)
    - Runtime of standard tree functions is O(n)
  - **UNBALANCED TREE:** tree with a height that is not O(log n), but O(n)
  - SELF-BALANCING TREE: tree which "rearranges" the nodes to ensure the tree is always balanced

### **Array-based trees**

- Some types of trees can be stored in arrays
  - Root is stored at index 0
  - For the node at index i:
    - Left child is stored at index 2i + 1
    - Right child is stored at index 2i + 2
    - Parent is stored at index (i 1) / 2
  - Special sentinel value can be used to indicate an empty node (ex. NULL)

- Tree of height h requires an array of length 2h 1
- An array can be re-allocated as the tree height grows

Session 11 : Generic Abstract Data Types

## **Void pointers**

- Void pointer (void \*) is the closest C has to a "generic" type
- Can store the address of **any type** of data (except functions)
- It is not possible to dereference void pointers
  - Address stored in a void pointer can be assigned to any pointer type variable, and then be dereferenced
  - Why malloc works for any data type

## **Generic functions**

**GENERIC FUNCTION:** Functions that operate on any type of data

- Signature (void (\*) (void \*))
- Examples from <stdlib.h>
  - Qsort : sort an array of any type given a type-specific comparator function comp
  - Bsearch : either returns a pointer to the key in a sorted array, or NULL if not found

## **Generic ADT**

- Generic container ADTS that can store any type of data by storing void pointers
- Generic ADT **does not know** the type of items it stores, and therefore **does not have** any information about the internal format of the data
  - ADT cannot perform actions that require knowledge about the internal format of the data (ex. Printing and destroying the data)
- Generally stores the data in an array of void pointers
  - I.e. void \*\*
  - **Void \*\* is not generic**; it is a pointer to a void \* and therefore can be dereferenced and behaves like any other array

# **Design decisions**

- Array : for frequently accessing elements at **specific positions** (random access)
- Linked list : for sequenced data if frequently adding and removing elements at the start
- Self-balancing BST : for unsequenced data if frequently searching for, adding, and removing items
- Sorted array : for rarely adding and removing elements, but frequently searching for elements and selecting the data in sorted order