Elementary Structures & Memory Management

Juan Mendivelso

CONTENTS

- 1. Stack
- 2. Queue
- 3. Dynamical Allocation of Nodes
- 4. Shadow Copies of Array-Based Structures

1. STACK

Stacks

- They have a bottom and a top.
- We have access only to the top.
- Insertion (push) and deletion (pop) operations are performed on the top extreme.
- LIFO: Last In First Out.
- Applications:
 - Nested blocks, local variables, recursive definitions, or backtracking.
 - Parentheses and operator priorities.
 - Search in a labyrinth with backtracking.

Stack Operations

```
{ push (obj): Put obj on the stack, making it the top item. { pop(): Return the top object from the stack and remove it from the stack. { stack_empty(): Test whether the stack is empty.
```

• We assume we want to store elements of type item t.

Stack on an Infinite Array

- This is not realistic.
- i is the position where the next element will appear.

```
int i=0;
item_t stack[\infty];
int stack_empty(void)
    return( i == 0 );
void push( item_t x)
    stack[i++] = x;
item_t pop(void)
    return(stack[--i]);
```

Stack on a Finite Array

- i is the position where the next element will appear.
- We need to have a maximum size for the array.

```
int i=0;
item_t stack[MAXSIZE];
int stack_empty(void)
   return( i == 0 );
int push( item_t x)
    if ( i < MAXSIZE )
        stack[i++] = x ; return(0);
    else
      return(-1);
item_t pop(void)
    return( stack[ --i] );
```

Problems of Arrays

- They are of fixed size.
- The size needs to be decided in advance.
- The structure needs the full size, no matter how many items are really in the structure.

```
int i=0;
item t stack[MAXSIZE];
int stack_empty(void)
    return( i == 0 );
int push( item_t x)
    if ( i < MAXSIZE )
        stack[i++] = x ; return(0)
    else
       return(-1);
item_t pop(void)
    return( stack[ --i] );
```

Underflow & Overflow

- We specify only overflow errors because they would not be present in an ideal implementation.
- We don't specify underflow errors because they are errors in the use of the data structure.
- However, we could also prevent them by checking whether the structure is empty.

```
int i=0;
item t stack[MAXSIZE];
int stack_empty(void)
    return( i == 0 );
int push( item_t x)
    if ( i < MAXSIZE )
        stack[i++] = x ; return(0)
    else
       return(-1);
item_t pop(void)
    return( stack[ --i] );
```

Stack as Data Type

- We might need multiple stacks in the same program.
- Thus, we can create a stack data type that groups:
 - st->base is the array.
 - st->top is where the next item will be stored.
 - st->size is the size of the array.
- Then, we can create each stack dynamically.

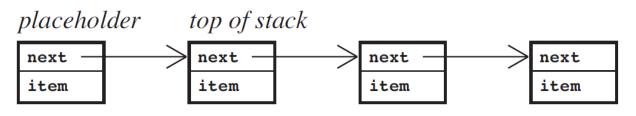
```
typedef struct {item_t *base; item_t *top;
               int size; } stack t;
stack_t *create_stack(int size)
    stack t *st;
    st = (stack_t *) malloc( sizeof(stack_t) );
    st->base = (item_t *) malloc( size *
               sizeof(item t) );
    st->size = size;
    st->top = st->base;
    return(st);
int stack_empty(stack_t *st)
    return( st->base == st->top );
```

Stack as Data Type

• st->top is the position where the next item will be stored.

```
int push( item_t x, stack_t *st)
   if ( st->top < st->base + st->size )
    \{ *(st->top) = x; st->top += 1; return(0); 
    else
       return (-1);
item_t pop(stack_t *st)
   st->top-=1;
    return( *(st->top) );
item_t top_element(stack_t *st)
   return( *(st->top -1) );
void remove stack(stack t *st)
{ free(st->base);
   free(st);
```

Stack as Linked List



• Each node has the item and a pointer to the next element.

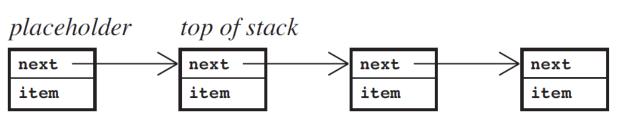
- Each node can be stored anywhere in memory.
- The first node is a **placeholder**.
- It points to the top of the stack.
- We use the following functions:
 - get_node(): allocates memory for a new node.
 - return_node (node): frees the memory allocated for node.

```
typedef struct st_t { item_t
                                      item;
                        struct st t *next; } stack t;
               stack t *create stack(void)
                   stack_t *st;
                   st = get_node();
                   st->next = NULL;
                   return(st);
               int stack empty(stack t *st)
                   return( st->next == NULL );
               void push( item_t x, stack_t *st)
                   stack_t *tmp;
                   tmp = get_node();
                   tmp->item = x;
                   tmp->next = st->next;
                   st->next = tmp;
```

Presentation made by Juan Mendivelso. Contents and figures extracted from the book: Advanced Data Structures. Peter Brass. Cambridge University Press. 2008.

Stack as Linked List

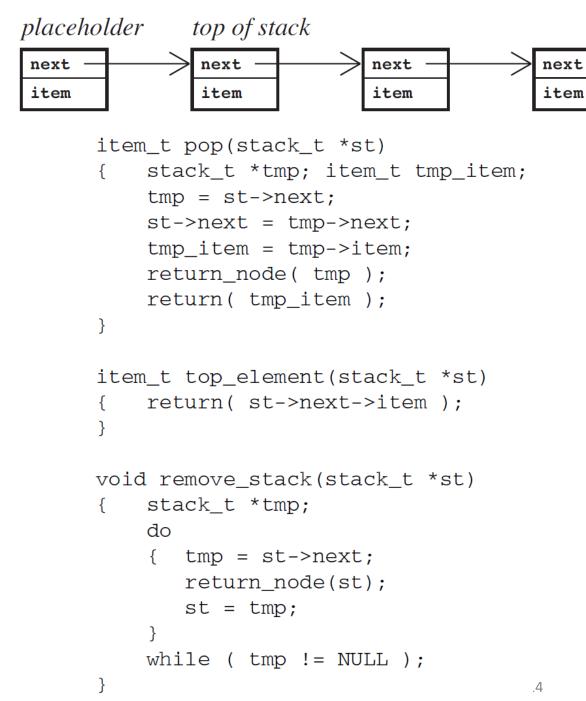
- We use the following functions:
 - get_node(): allocates memory for a new node.
 - return_node (node): frees the memory allocated for node.
- We use those rather than malloc and free because, at the end, we consider more efficient ways to manage memory.



```
item_t pop(stack_t *st)
    stack_t *tmp; item_t tmp_item;
    tmp = st->next;
    st->next = tmp->next;
    tmp_item = tmp->item;
    return_node( tmp );
    return( tmp_item );
item_t top_element(stack_t *st)
    return(st->next->item);
void remove_stack(stack_t *st)
    stack t *tmp;
    do
       tmp = st->next;
       return node(st);
       st = tmp;
    while (tmp != NULL);
```

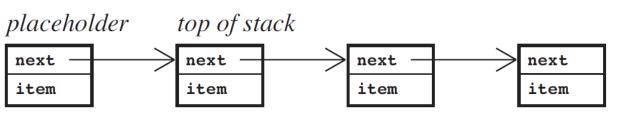
Advantages

- Frequently, it is preferable to implement the stack as a dynamically allocated structure in the form of linked list.
- This is because it is not of fixed size.
- We store only what we are using.
- There's no need to handle overflow errors assuming the computer has unbounded memory.



Disadvantages

- Possible decrease in speed.
- Dereferencing a pointer does not take longer than incrementing an index.
- But the location accessed by the pointer may be anywhere in memory, whereas the next component in an array is near.
- Arrays work well with the cache; dynamically linked lists might generate many cache misses.
- Thus, if you know the size, use arrays.



```
item_t pop(stack_t *st)
    stack t *tmp; item t tmp item;
    tmp = st->next;
    st->next = tmp->next;
    tmp_item = tmp->item;
    return_node( tmp );
    return( tmp_item );
item_t top_element(stack_t *st)
    return( st->next->item );
void remove_stack(stack_t *st)
    stack t *tmp;
    do
       tmp = st->next;
       return node(st);
       st = tmp;
            tmp != NULL );
```

- If we want to combine these advantages, one could use a linked list of blocks.
- Each block contains an array.

base

top

 When the array becomes full, we link it to a new node with a new array (with previous).

previous

```
typedef struct st_t { item_t *base;
                        item t *top;
                        int
                                 size;
                  struct st_t *previous;} stack_t;
     stack_t *create_stack(int size)
         stack_t *st;
         st = (stack_t *) malloc( sizeof(stack_t) );
         st->base = (item_t *) malloc( size *
                     sizeof(item_t) );
         st->size = size;
         st->top = st->base:
         st->previous = NULL;
         return(st);
     int stack_empty(stack_t *st)
         return( st->base == st->top &&
                 st->previous == NULL);
                       base
                        top
                                  previous
      previous
                         size
```

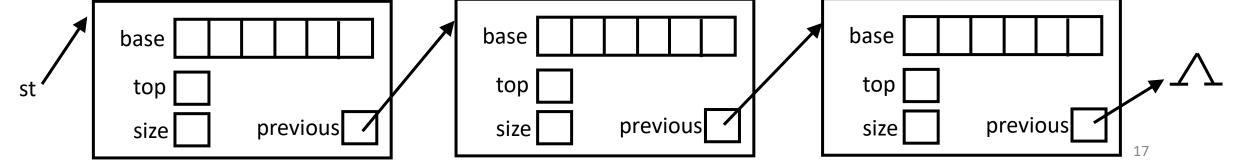
base

top

size

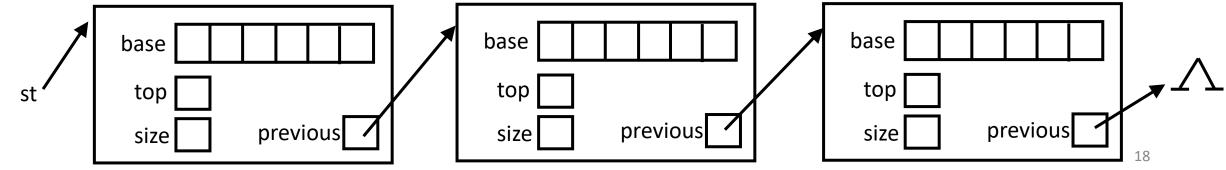
- If we want to combine these advantages, one could use a linked list of blocks.
- Each block contains an array.
- When the array becomes full, we link it to a new node with a new array (with previous).

```
void push( item_t x, stack_t *st)
       (st->top < st->base + st->size)
        *(st->top) = x; st->top += 1;
    else
        stack t *new;
        new = (stack_t *) malloc( sizeof(stack_t) );
        new->base = st->base;
        new->top = st->top;
        new->size = st->size;
        new->previous = st->previous;
        st->previous = new;
        st->base = (item_t *) malloc( st->size *
                   sizeof(item t) );
        st->top = st->base+1;
        *(st->base) = x;
```



- If we want to combine these advantages, one could use a linked list of blocks.
- Each block contains an array.
- When the array becomes full, we link it to a new node with a new array (with previous).

```
item_t pop(stack_t *st)
    if(st->top == st->base)
       stack t *old;
       old = st->previous;
       st->previous = old->previous;
       free( st->base );
       st->base = old->base;
       st->top = old->top;
       st->size = old->size;
       free( old );
    st->top-=1;
    return( *(st->top) );
```



- If we want to combine these advantages, one could use a linked list of blocks.
- Each block contains an array.

base

top

 When the array becomes full, we link it to a new node with a new array (with previous).

previous

```
item_t top_element(stack_t *st)
      if(st->top == st->base)
         return( *(st->previous->top -1) );
      else
          return ( *(st->top -1) );
   void remove_stack(stack_t *st)
       stack_t *tmp;
       do
          tmp = st->previous;
           free( st->base );
          free(st);
           st = tmp;
       while( st != NULL );
                base
                 top
                          previous
previous
                 size
```

base

top

size

2. QUEUES

Queues

- They have a front and a rear.
- We have access only to the front.
- Insertion (enqueue) and deletion (dequeue) operations are performed on the rear and front extreme, respectively.
- FIFO: First In First Out.
- Applications:
 - Tasks that have to be processed cyclically.
 - Breadth First Search (BFS).

Queue Operations

- { enqueue (obj): Insert obj at the end of the queue, making it the last item.
- { dequeue(): Return the first object from the queue and remove it from the queue.
- { queue_empty(): Test whether the queue is empty.

Queue on an Infinite Array

- This is not realistic.
- upper is the position where the next element will appear.
- lower is the position where the first element is.

```
int lower=0; int upper=0;
item_t queue[\infty];
int queue_empty(void)
    return( lower == upper );
void enqueue( item_t x)
    queue[upper++] = x ;
item_t dequeue(void)
    return( queue[ lower++] );
```

Queue on a Finite Array

- We need to use index calculation modulo the length of the array.
- Members:
 - base: array.
 - front: position of the first element.
 - rear: position of the next element.
 - size: size of the array.
- Empty Queue: front==rear.
- Full Queue: front==(rear+2) mod size.
 - Could it be front==(rear+1)
 mod size?

```
queue_t *create_queue(int size)
    queue_t *qu;
    qu = (queue_t *) malloc( sizeof(queue_t) );
    qu->base = (item_t *) malloc( size *
                 sizeof(item t) );
    qu->size = size;
    qu \rightarrow front = qu \rightarrow rear = 0;
    return ( qu );
int queue_empty(queue_t *qu)
    return( qu->front == qu->rear );
```

Queue on a Finite Array

- We need to use index calculation modulo the length of the array.
- Members:
 - base: array.
 - front: position of the first element.
 - rear: position of the next element.
 - size: size of the array.
- Empty Queue: front==rear.
- Full Queue: front==(rear+2) mod size.
 - Could it be front==(rear+1)
 mod size?

```
int enqueue( item_t x, queue_t *qu)
    if (qu->front != ((qu->rear +2)% qu->size))
         qu->base[qu->rear] = x;
         qu->rear = ((qu->rear+1)%qu->size);
         return(0);
    else
       return( -1);
item_t dequeue(queue_t *qu)
    int tmp;
    tmp = qu -> front;
    qu \rightarrow front = ((qu \rightarrow front +1) qu \rightarrow size);
    return(qu->base[tmp]);
```

Queue on a Finite Array

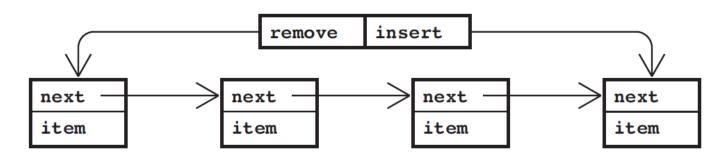
- We need to use index calculation modulo the length of the array.
- Members:
 - base: array.
 - front: position of the first element.
 - rear: position of the next element.
 - size: size of the array.
- Empty Queue: front==rear.
- Full Queue: front==(rear+2) mod size.
 - Could it be front== (rear+1)
 mod size?

```
item_t front_element(queue_t *qu)
{    return( qu->base[qu->front] );
}

void remove_queue(queue_t *qu)
{    free( qu->base );
    free( qu );
}
```

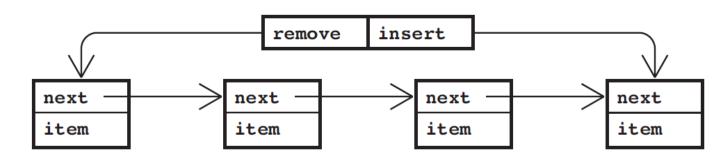
- next | next | next | item | item |
- We can implement the queue in a dynamic allocated fashion as a linked list.
- We can point the nodes from front to rear.
- We can also have a pointer to the front for dequeuing and a pointer to the rear for enqueueing:
 - remove
 - insert

```
typedef struct qu_n_t {item_t
                  struct qu n t *next; } qu node t;
typedef struct {qu_node_t *remove;
                qu node t *insert; } queue t;
queue_t *create_queue()
   queue_t *qu;
   qu = (queue t *) malloc( sizeof(queue t) );
   qu->remove = qu->insert = NULL;
   return(qu);
int queue_empty(queue_t *qu)
   return( qu->insert ==NULL );
```



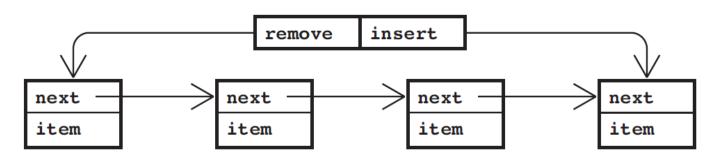
- We can implement the queue in a dynamic allocated fashion as a linked list.
- We can point the nodes from front to rear.
- We can also have a pointer to the front for dequeuing and a pointer to the rear for enqueueing:
 - remove
 - insert

```
void enqueue( item_t x, queue_t *qu)
{    qu_node_t *tmp;
    tmp = get_node();
    tmp->item = x;
    tmp->next = NULL; /* end marker */
    if ( qu->insert != NULL ) /* queue nonempty */
    {       qu->insert->next = tmp;
            qu->insert = tmp;
    }
    else /* insert in empty queue */
    {       qu->remove = qu->insert = tmp;
    }
}
```



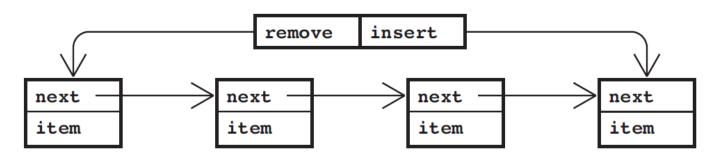
- We can implement the queue in a dynamic allocated fashion as a linked list.
- We can point the nodes from front to rear.
- We can also have a pointer to the front for dequeuing and a pointer to the rear for enqueueing:
 - remove
 - insert

```
item_t dequeue(queue_t *qu)
{    qu_node_t *tmp; item_t tmp_item;
    tmp = qu->remove; tmp_item = tmp->item;
    qu->remove = tmp->next;
    if( qu->remove == NULL ) /* reached end */
        qu->insert = NULL; /* make queue empty */
    return_node(tmp);
    return( tmp_item );
}
```



- We can implement the queue in a dynamic allocated fashion as a linked list.
- We can point the nodes from front to rear.
- We can also have a pointer to the front for dequeuing and a pointer to the rear for enqueueing:
 - remove
 - insert

```
item_t front_element(queue_t *qu)
    return ( qu->remove->item );
void remove_queue(queue_t *qu)
    qu_node_t *tmp;
    while (qu->remove != NULL)
    { tmp = qu->remove;
      qu \rightarrow remove = tmp \rightarrow next;
      return_node(tmp);
    free ( qu );
```

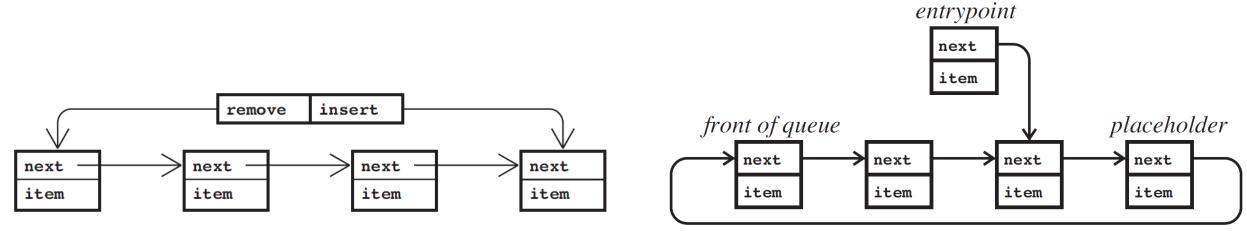


- We can implement the queue in a dynamic allocated fashion as a linked list.
- We can point the nodes from front to rear.
- We can also have a pointer to the front for dequeuing and a pointer to the rear for enqueueing:
 - remove
 - insert

```
item_t front_element(queue_t *qu)
    return ( qu->remove->item );
void remove_queue(queue_t *qu)
    qu node t *tmp;
    while (qu->remove != NULL)
    { tmp = qu->remove;
      qu \rightarrow remove = tmp \rightarrow next;
      return_node(tmp);
    free ( qu );
```

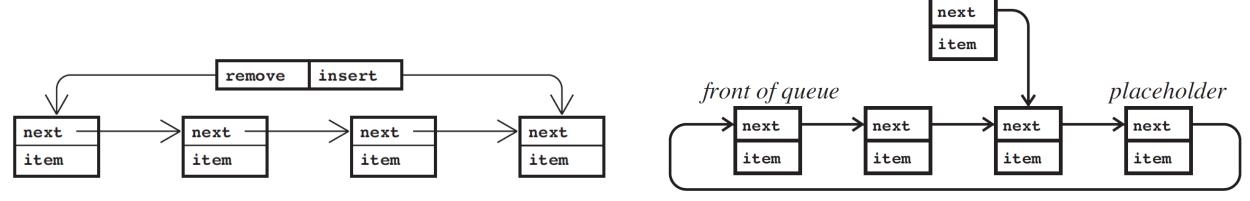
Aesthetical Disadvantages

- 1. We need an entry point structure.
 - We can join the list together by making a cyclic list.
 - We don't need the remove pointer because the insertion point's next component points to the removal point.

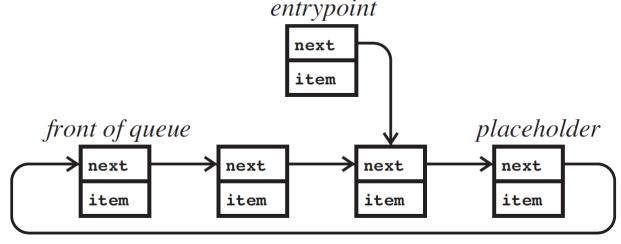


Aesthetical Disadvantages

- 2. We always need to treat the operations involving an empty queue differently.
 - We can insert a placeholder between the insertion point and the removal point.
 - The entry point still needs to point to the insertion end (or to the placeholder if the queue is empty).
 - At least for the insert, the empty list is no longer a special case. For deletion, it is not possible to dequeue in such case. entrypoint



Queue as a Circular Linked List with Placeholder



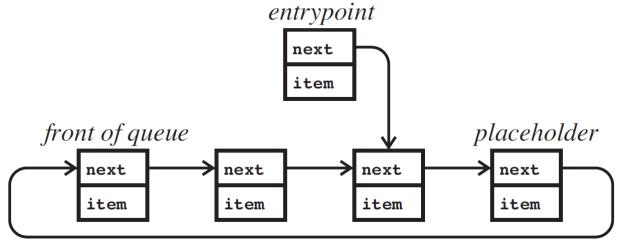
```
typedef struct qu_t { item_t
                 struct qu_t *next; } queue_t;
queue_t *create_queue()
    queue_t *entrypoint, *placeholder;
    entrypoint = (queue_t *) malloc( sizeof(queue_t) );
    placeholder = (queue_t *) malloc( sizeof(queue_t) );
    entrypoint->next = placeholder;
    placeholder->next = placeholder;
    return( entrypoint );
int queue_empty(queue_t *qu)
```

return(qu->next == qu->next->next);

- We have an entry point that points to the rear in the queue (or to the placeholder if it is empty).
- The placeholder separates the rear from the front.

Queue as a Circular Linked List with Placeholder

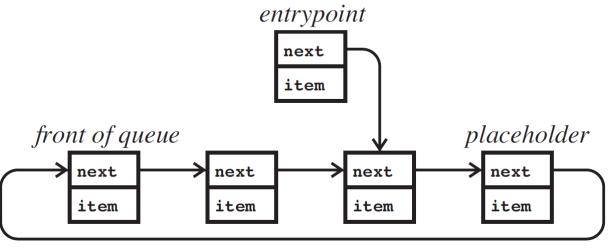
```
void enqueue( item_t x, queue_t *qu)
   queue_t *tmp, *new;
   new = get\_node(); new->item = x;
    tmp = qu->next; qu->next = new;
   new->next = tmp->next; tmp->next = new;
item_t dequeue(queue_t *qu)
           *tmp;
   queue_t
    item_t tmp_item;
    tmp = qu->next->next->next;
    qu->next->next->next = tmp->next;
    if(tmp == qu->next)
       qu->next = tmp->next;
    tmp_item = tmp->item;
    return_node( tmp );
    return( tmp_item );
```



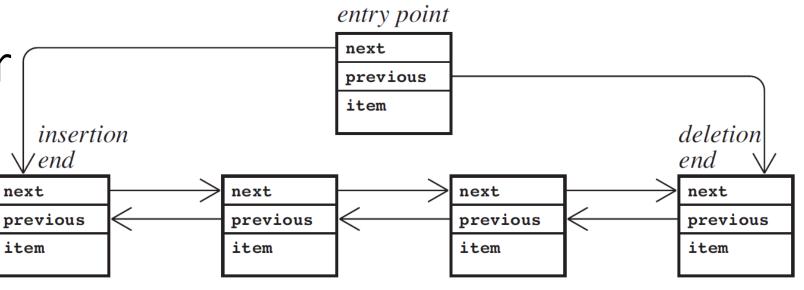
- We have an entry point that points to the rear in the queue (or to the placeholder if it is empty).
- The placeholder separates the rear from the front.

Queue as a Circular Linked List with Placeholder

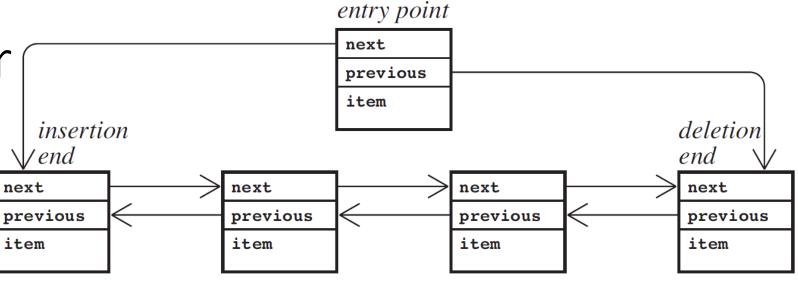
```
item_t front_element(queue_t *qu)
    return( qu->next->next->item );
void remove_queue(queue_t *qu)
    queue_t *tmp;
    tmp = qu->next->next;
    while (tmp != qu->next)
    { qu->next->next = tmp->next;
      return_node( tmp );
       tmp = qu->next->next;
     return_node( qu->next );
     return_node( qu );
```



- We have an entry point that points to the rear in the queue (or to the placeholder if it is empty).
- The placeholder separates the rear from the front.



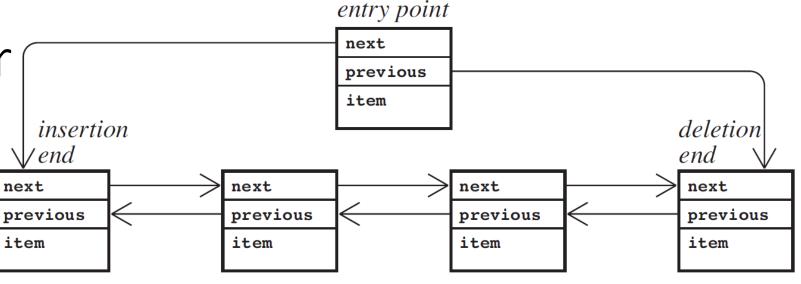
- With two pointers per node, no case distinctions are needed.
- But we need more space.
- We need extra work to keep the structure consistent.



```
int queue_empty(queue_t *qu)
{    return( qu->next == qu );
}

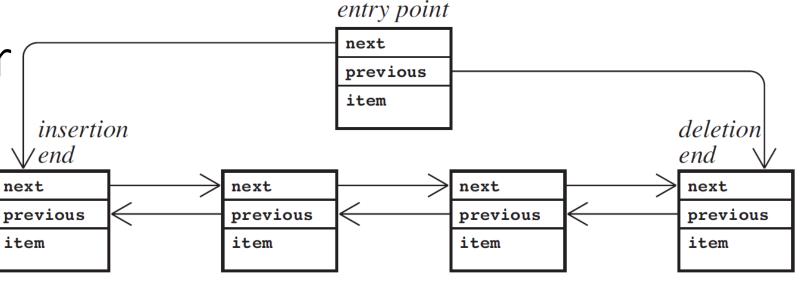
void enqueue( item_t x, queue_t *qu)
{    queue_t *new;
    new = get_node(); new->item = x;
    new->next = qu->next; qu->next = new;
    new->next->previous = new; new->previous = qu;
}
```

- With two pointers per node, no case distinctions are needed.
- But we need more space.
- We need extra work to keep the structure consistent.



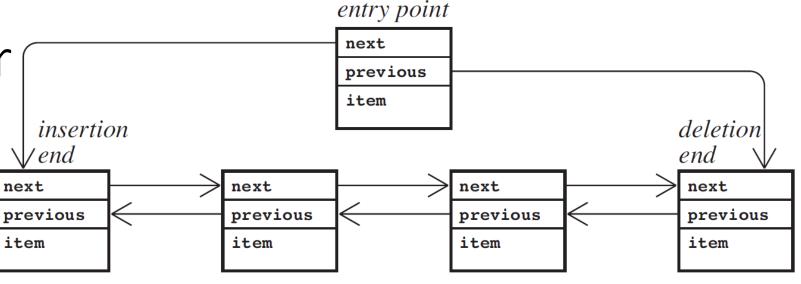
```
item_t dequeue(queue_t *qu)
{    queue_t *tmp; item_t tmp_item;
    tmp = qu->previous; tmp_item = tmp->item;
    tmp->previous->next = qu;
    qu->previous = tmp->previous;
    return_node( tmp );
    return( tmp_item );
}
```

- With two pointers per node, no case distinctions are needed.
- But we need more space.
- We need extra work to keep the structure consistent.



```
item_t front_element(queue_t *qu)
{    return( qu->previous->item );
}
```

- With two pointers per node, no case distinctions are needed.
- But we need more space.
- We need extra work to keep the structure consistent.



```
void remove_queue(queue_t *qu)
    queue_t *tmp;
    qu->previous->next = NULL;
    do
      tmp = qu->next;
      return_node( qu );
      qu = tmp;
    while ( qu != NULL );
```

- With two pointers per node, no case distinctions are needed.
- But we need more space.
- We need extra work to keep the structure consistent.

Double-Ended Queue

- Generalization of stack and queue.
- It is a queue in which one can insert and delete at either end.
- Its implementation can be done as an array or as a doubly linked list.
- It does not have many applications.

3. DYNAMIC ALLOCATION OF NODES

Dynamic Allocation of Nodes through the OS Interface

- In a dynamically allocated structure, nodes are allocated and deallocated constantly.
- We could do so by using the operating-system interface functions malloc and free.
- However, they don't necessarily take constant time.
- Operating system memory allocation is ultimately the only way to get memory, but it is a complicated process.
- In any efficient implementation of a dynamically allocated structure, we cannot afford to access this operating-system-level memory management for every operation.

Dynamic Allocation of Nodes through an Intermediate Layer

- Instead, we introduce an intermediate layer.
- It only occasionally accesses operating-system-level memory management to get a large block of memory.
- Then, it gives out and receives back such memory, in small constantsized pieces: the nodes.
- This layer includes the functions we presented in the previous sections:
 - get_node (): allocates memory for a node of a given type.
 - return_node (node): deallocates memory of node.
- Those run in constant time.

Dynamic Allocation of Nodes through an Intermediate Layer

In particular, we will two collections of nodes to allocate nodes:

- 1. A stack free list.
 - Comprised of the nodes that have been returned (from deletions).
 - When a new node needs to be allocated, we pop a node from this list.
- 2. An array block, called *currentblock, of BLOCKSIZE elements of the type of the node.
 - When a node needs to be allocated and free_list is empty, we allocate it from *currentblock.
 - In case it is empty, we allocate memory with malloc and then assign it one of its elements.

```
typedef struct nd_t { struct nd_t *next;
              /*and other components*/ } node_t;
#define BLOCKSIZE 256
node t *currentblock = NULL;
int size left;
node_t *free_list = NULL;
node_t *get_node()
{ node_t *tmp;
  if( free_list != NULL )
  { tmp = free_list;
     free_list = free_list -> next;
  else
    if( currentblock == NULL | size_left == 0)
        currentblock =
                (node_t *) malloc( BLOCKSIZE *
                           sizeof(node_t) );
        size_left = BLOCKSIZE;
     tmp = currentblock++;
     size_left -= 1;
  return (tmp);
```

Intermediate Layer

```
void return_node(node_t *node)
{  node->next = free_list;
  free_list = node;
}
```

- Note that we never return memory to the system before the program ends.
- The amount of memory taken is the máximum amount taken by the data structure up to this moment.

Precautions in Dynamic Allocation

- Dynamic memory allocation is traditionally a source of many programming errors.
- It is hard to debug.
- A simple additional precaution to avoid some common errors is to add to the node another component: int valid.
- It can be filled with different values, depending on whether it has just been received back by return_node (node) or is given out by get node().

4. SHADOW COPIES OF ARRAY-BASED STRUCTURES

- There is a systematic way to avoid the maximum-size problem of array-based structures.
- The program becomes less simple.
- We maintain two copies of the structure:
 - The currently active copy.
 - A larger-size structure that is under construction.
- We have to schedule the construction of the larger structure in such a
 way that it is finished and ready for use before the active copy
 reaches its maximum size.
- For this, we copy, in each operation of the old structure, a fixed number of elements from the old structure to the new structure.

- When the content of the old structure is completely copied into the new larger structure, the old structure is removed and the new is taken as the active structure.
- This is also done when there is a deletion that yields the situation of the old structure being completely copied into the new one.
- When necessary, construction of an even larger structure is begun.
- The program is still simple.
- It only introduces a constant overhead.
- However, whenever there are changes in the active structure, they must also be applied in the structure under construction.

The connection between copying threshold size, new maximum size, and the number of items copied is as follows:

- If the current structure has maximum size s_{max} , and
- we begin copying as soon as its actual size has reached αs_{max} , with $\frac{1}{2} \leq \alpha$,
- the new structure has maximum size $2s_{max}$, and
- each operation increases the actual size by at most 1,

Then, there are at least $(1 - \alpha)s_{max}$ steps left to complete the copying of at most s_{max} elements in the structure.

We need to copy
$$\left[\frac{s_{max}}{(1-\alpha)s_{max}}\right] = \left[\frac{1}{1-\alpha}\right]$$
 elements in each operation.

- We doubled the maximum size when creating the new structure.
- But we could have chosen any size βs_{max} , $\beta > 1$, as long as $\alpha \beta > 1$.
- Otherwise, we would have to start copying again before the previous copying process was finished.
- In the next slide, we see a particular example with $\alpha = 0.75$.

The connection between copying threshold size, new maximum size, and the number of items copied is as follows:

- If the current structure has maximum size s_{max} , and
- we begin copying as soon as its actual size has reached $0.75s_{max}$.
- the new structure has maximum size $2s_{max}$, and
- each operation increases the actual size by at most 1,

Then, there are at least $0.25s_{max}$ steps left to complete the copying of at most s_{max} elements in the structure.

We need to copy
$$\left[\frac{1}{1-\alpha}\right] = \left[\frac{1}{0.25}\right] = 4$$
 elements in each operation.

Shadow Copies of Array-Based Stack

```
typedef struct { item_t *base;
                 int size;
                 int max size;
                 item_t *copy;
                 int copy_size; } stack_t;
stack t *create stack(int size)
   stack t *st;
   st = (stack_t *) malloc( sizeof(stack_t) );
   st->base = (item t *) malloc( size *
               sizeof(item t) );
   st->max_size = size;
   st->size = 0; st->copy = NULL; st->copy\_size = 0;
   return(st);
```

Shadow Copies of Array-Based Stack

```
int stack empty(stack t *st)
    return( st->size == 0);
                                                    /* continue copying: at most 4 items
                                                       per push operation */
                                                   while( additional_copies > 0 &&
void push( item_t x, stack_t *st)
                                                           st->copy_size < st->size )
    *(st->base + st->size) = x;
                                                    { (st->copv + st->copv size) = }
    st->size += 1;
                                                                      *(st->base + st->copy size);
    if (st->copy != NULL ||
                                                       st->copy_size += 1; additional_copies -= 1;
    st->size >= 0.75*st->max size )
    { /* have to continue or start copying */
                                                   if( st->copy size == st->size)
       int additional_copies = 4;
                                                    /* copy complete */
       if( st->copy == NULL )
                                                    { free(st->base);
       /* start copying: allocate space */
                                                       st->base = st-> copy;
          st->copy =
                                                       st->max size *= 2;
          (item_t *) malloc( 2 * st->max_size *
                                                       st->copy = NULL;
           sizeof(item_t) );
                                                       st->copy size = 0;
```

Shadow Copies of Array-Based Stack

```
item_t pop(stack_t *st)
    item_t tmp_item;
    st->size -= 1:
    tmp item = *(st->base + st->size);
    if (st->copy size == st->size) /* copy complete */
    { free(st->base);
       st->base = st-> copy;
       st->max size *= 2;
                                           item_t top_element(stack_t *st)
       st->copy = NULL;
                                               return( *(st->base + st->size - 1));
       st->copy\_size = 0;
    return( tmp_item );
                                           void remove_stack(stack_t *st)
                                              free(st->base);
                                               if (st->copy != NULL)
                                                  free (st->copy);
                                               free(st);
```

Normal Array

- Normal arrays need to be declared of a fixed size.
- They are allocated somewhere in memory.
- The space that is reserved cannot be increase because it might conflict with space allocated for other variables.
- Access to an array element is fast: it is just one address computation.

Extendible Array

- Some systems support a different type of array, which can be made larger.
- Accessing an element is more complicated and it is really an operation of a nontrivial data structure.
- This structure supports the following operations:

```
{ create_array creates an array of a given size,
{ set_value assigns the array element at a given index a value,
{ get_value returns the value of the array element at a given index,
{ extend_array increases the length of the array.
```

Extendible Array

- To implement this structure, we use the same technique of building shadow copies.
- The difference is that this structure does not just grow by a single item in each operation.
- The function extend_array can make it much larger in a single operation.
- Still, we can achieve an amortized constant time per operation.

Extendible Array

- When an array of size s is created, we allocate more space than requested.
- In particular, we always allocate is always a power of 2.
- We initially allocate an array of size $2^{\lceil \lg s \rceil}$ and store the start position of the array.
- We also store the current and maximum size in a structure that identifies the array.
- Each time extend_array is performed, we need to check whether the maximum size is larger than the requested size.
 - In that case, we just increase the current size.
 - Otherwise, we have to create another array whose size is the next number 2^k that is greater than the requested size. And of course, copy all elements.

Complexity of Extendible Array Operations

- Accessing an array element is always done in O(1) time.
- Extending the array can take linear time in the size of the array.
- But the amortized complexity is not that bad:
- If the ultimate size of the array is $2^{\lceil \lg k \rceil}$, then we would have to have copied arrays of size 1,2,4,..., $2^{\lceil \lg k \rceil 1}$.
- So, we spend a total time of O(k) with extend_array because [lg k]-1

$$\sum_{i=1}^{\lceil \lg k \rceil - 1} 2^i = \frac{2^{\lceil \lg k \rceil} - 1}{1} = k - 1$$

• Then, we spend O(1) with each extend_array operation that did not copy the array.

Complexity of Extendible Array Operations

• Theorem: An extendible array structure with shadow copies performs any sequence of n set_value, get_value, and extend_array operations on an array whose final size is k in time O(n + k).

• If we assume that each element of the array is accessed at least once, so that the final size is at most the number of elements access operations, this gives an amortized O(1) time per operation.

Problems with Extendible Array

• It would be natural to distribute the copying of the elements over the later access operations; however, it is not possible because we don't control over the extend_array operations.

• Pointers to array elements are different from normal pointers because the position of the array can change.

• Thus, in general, extendible arrays should be avoided, even if the language supports them.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

 Peter Brass. Advanced Data Structures. Cambridge University Press. 2008.