



KIT107  
PROGRAMMING

*Data Structures and  
Algorithms*  
(Continued)

Dr Julian Dermoudy  
& Dr Shuxiang Xu  
School of ICT

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5.3 Stack Implementation  
using Arrays

elements    0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ... 9999

count 4

top-of-stack

What would all of this look like in C  
(which is a *procedural* programming  
language)?

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4. Abstract Data Types

- 4.1 Abstract Data Types
- 4.2 Representation
- 4.3 Example: Modelling a Time
- 4.4 ADTs in C
- 4.5 Access Modifiers

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## 4.1 Abstract Data Types

- Program language independent concept
- Describe the structure of the data being manipulated
- Capture the relationships between different components of the data
- Encapsulates the operations available on the data with the data

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## 4.3 Example: Modelling a Time

- Pick a time of day
- What does it consist of?
  - an hour, a minute, and a second
- What can you do with a time value?
  - change it, share it (in AM/PM format and in 24hr format), and compare it with another time value
- How can you model the concept and implement it?

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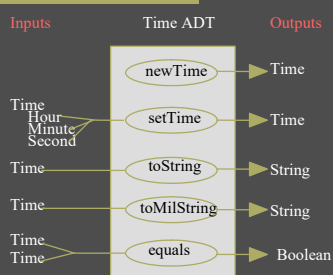
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## Example: Time (black box diagram)



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## Example: Time (UML diagram)

```
classDiagram
    class Time {
        hour : Hour
        minute : Minute
        second : Second
        Time() : Time
        setTime(hour : Hour, minute : Minute, second : Second) : void
        toString() : String
        toMilitaryString() : String
        equals(that : Time) : Boolean
    }
```

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## 4.4 ADTs in C

- A C mechanism(s) is required that:
  - allows data and operations to be declared
  - enforces security
  - facilitates portability and code re-use
  - separates specification from implementation
  - encapsulates data and operations

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## Header File

- The C mechanism for the ADT specification is the header (.h) file
- Function *headings* (declarations) and types are included but nothing else

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## Header File

```
//time.h

#include <stdbool.h>

typedef struct {
    int hour;
    int minute;
    int second;
} time;

void setTime(time *tp, int h, int m, int s);
char *toString(time t);
char *toMilString(time t);
bool equals(time this, time that);
```



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## Aside: Where *didn't* the Time go?

- **Q:** The black box diagram showed the operations (`setTime()`, `toString()`, `toMilitaryString()`, and `equals()`) required a `Time` value as a parameter — it's in the header file too. Why?
- **A:** UML and Java are object-oriented — but C is *procedural*. You've got to give variables to functions, and not methods to objects.



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## C Implementation

- The C mechanism for the ADT implementation is the source (`.c`) file
- Global variables and function bodies (definitions) are included



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## Harness (Client) Files

- ADT implementations are 'passive' (library files)
- A client/harness program is required in order for the ADT to be used to achieve some task
- The same ADT can be used for many differing purposes, the client/harness file is different for each purpose

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13

## Example Harness

```
#include <stdio.h>
#include "time.h"

int main(int argc, char *argv[])
{
    time t; /*declares t to be a Time variable*/

    setTime(&t,9,33,35);
    printf("The time is %s\n",toString(t));
}
```

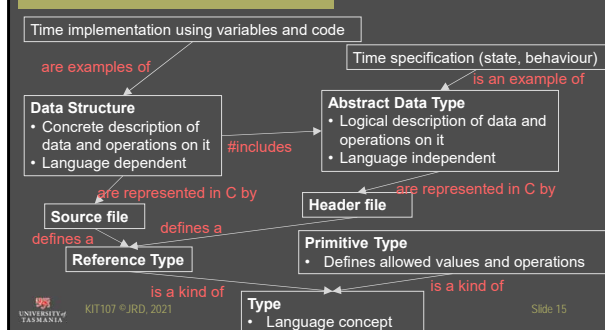
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14

## Terminology Relationships



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15

## Garbage Collection

- Memory can become unreachable when pointer variables are assigned to a different address or deleted
- When this happens the value is *garbage* and a *space leak* has occurred
- C does not possess a *garbage collector* to free memory, memory must be `free()`d by the programmer



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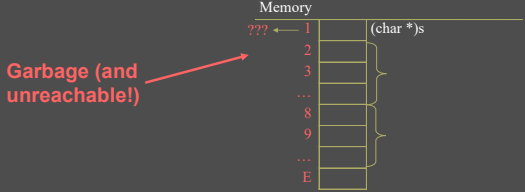
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```
#include <stdlib.h>

int main(int argc, char *argv[])
{
    char *s;
    s="cat";
    free(s);
    s="dog";
}
```





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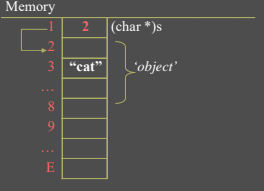
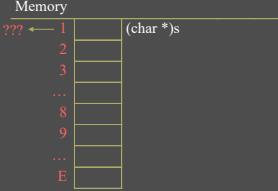
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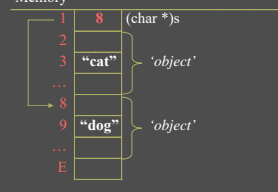
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## 5. The Stack ADT

- 5.1 The Stack ADT
- 5.2 Genericity
- 5.3 Syntax vs Semantics
- 5.4 Primitive Operations vs Derived Operations
- 5.5 Stack Implementation in C (Using Arrays)



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19

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## 5.1 The Stack ADT

- A *Stack* is either empty (*null*) or consists of a first element (the *top-of-stack*) and the remainder of the stack which is itself a stack
- The Stack is a *recursive* (or *self-referential*) data structure



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## Stack Structure and Operations

- Last-In-First-Out structure
- Only *top of stack* visible
- Can only *push* new items onto top
- Can only *pop* items off the top
- Example: stack of plates, clothes on the floor, post-fix calculator



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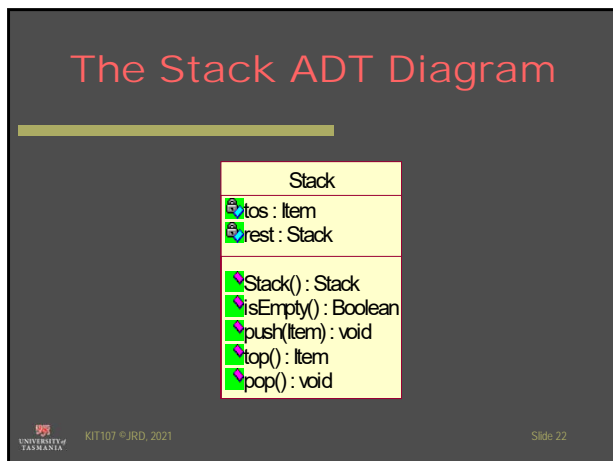
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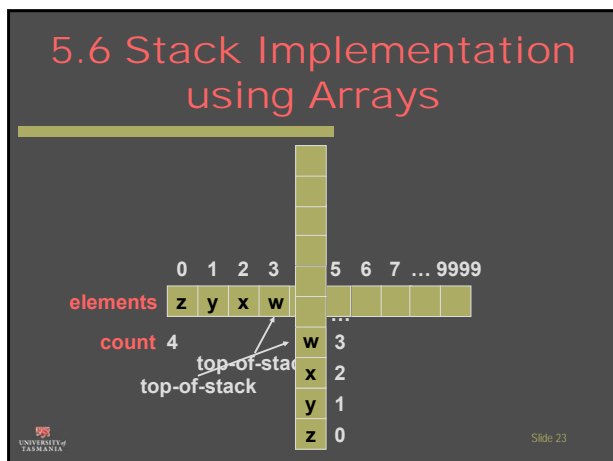
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### The Stack ADT C Header

```

#include <stdbool.h>

typedef struct {
    int count;
    char elements[10000];
} stack;

bool isEmpty(stack s);
void push(stack *sp, char i);
char top(stack s);
void pop(stack *sp);
    
```

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24

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## 5.4 Polymorphism and Genericity

- This is a stack of `char`. How can any kind of item be represented?
- A type is needed which has a fixed size and a specified type...



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## The Stack ADT C Header

```
#include <stdbool.h>

typedef struct {
    int count;
    item elements[10000];
} stack;

bool isEmpty(stack s);
void push(stack *sp, item i);
item top(stack s);
void pop(stack *sp);
```



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Slide 26

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## Polymorphism and Genericity (continued)

- The solution is to use `(void *)`. This is of fixed type and can be cast/coerced to any type required
- Thus a stack of `(void *)`s is *generic*
- (This brings two problems: consistency of type content and necessity for type casting)



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Slide 27

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## The Stack ADT C Header

```
#include <stdbool.h>

typedef struct {
    int count;
    void *elements[10000];
} stack;

bool isEmpty(stack s);
void push(stack *sp, void *i);
void *top(stack s);
void pop(stack *sp);
```



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Slide 28

28

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## 5.5 Opacity and Initialisation

- The current version has two other problems. The 'client' programmer has
  - Access to the internal representation of the ADT from the included header file
  - To create the stack knowing the internals and then guess at how to initialise it



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Slide 29

29

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## Opacity and Initialisation (continued)

- The solution is to use a forward declaration and a pointer, move the internals to the source file, and define a function which builds and initialises the ADT



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Slide 30

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## The Stack ADT C Header

```
struct stack_int;  
typedef struct stack_int *stack;  
  
void init_stack(stack *sp);  
bool isEmpty(stack s);  
void push(stack s, void *i);  
void *top(stack s);  
void pop(stack s);
```



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31

## 5.6 Primitive Operations vs Derived Operations

- All the preceding operations are *primitive operations* — they cannot be implemented without knowledge of the underlying implementation
- Those operations not requiring information of the underlying implementation are called *derived operations*



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Slide 32

32

## Example

- Derived operations:

```
height(Stack s) = 0, if isEmpty(s)  
                = 1 + height(pop(s)), otherwise  
  
join(Stack s1, Stack s2) = s2, if isEmpty(s1)  
                        = push(top(s1), join(pop(s1), s2)),  
                          otherwise
```



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33

## 6. Linked Lists

- 6.1 Linked List Concepts
- 6.2 Stack Implementation
- 6.3 Example Application
- 6.4 Arrays vs Linked Lists



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34

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## Aeroplanes!



- Planes: fixed size, size is specified at construction time, plane contains seats only



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Slide 35

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## Trains!



- Trains: variable size, size can grow/ shrink as necessary, train contains seats plus couplings



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Slide 36

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## 6.1 Linked List Concepts

- Planes versus Trains
- Arrays versus Linked Lists
  - (also direct versus sequential access)

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37

## Linked Lists (continued)

- A *linked list* is a sequence of self-referential components called *nodes*
- Each node contains a data field (traditionally called *data*) and a uni-directional coupling field (traditionally called *next*)
- The end of the list is indicated by the sentinel address `NULL`

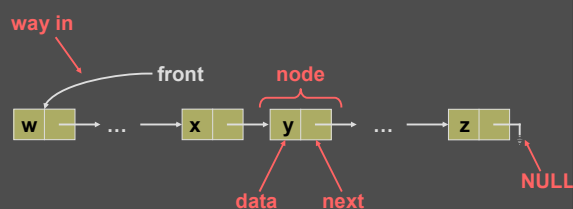
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Slide 38

38

## Example



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39

## 6.2 Stack Implementation using Linked Lists

- The specification (black box, UML diagram, and C header) don't change
- There is no need for the array global variable or its length variable (and if you didn't care about consistency/transparency, you could also eliminate the `struct`!)
- There is a need for the `node` type and associated global variable



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Slide 40

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## Stack Implementation using Linked Lists

- The implementation will use `(void *)` to represent 'anything'
- The literal value `NULL` indicates that a reference variable refers to no value, i.e. it is the end of the linked list



node.h



node.c



stack.h



stack.c



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Slide 41

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## 6.3 Example Application

- Reversing a string (or indeed a train!) can easily be achieved through the use of a stack



stack\_harness.c



Slides1.sln  
Linked List  
Project



Array  
Project



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Slide 42

42

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## 6.4 Arrays versus Linked Lists

### ● Array

- fixed, specified size
- implicit ordering by index
- no space overhead for ordering
- direct access to all elements
- insertion and deletion require shuffling

### ● Linked List

- variable size
- explicit ordering using references
- space overhead for ordering (next field)
- sequential access from first element
- insertion and deletion in place



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Slide 43

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## 7. Linked List Operations

- 7.1 Emptiness Testing
- 7.2 Traversal
- 7.3 Modification
- 7.4 Insertion
- 7.5 Deletion
- 7.6 Polymorphism



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44

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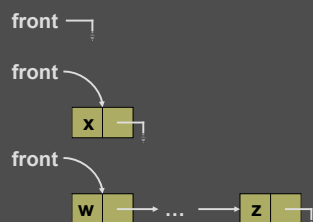
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## 7. Linked List Operations

### ● Three forms of list:

- empty list (A)
- singleton list (B)
- general list (C)



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Slide 45

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## Linked List Operations (continued)

### ● Operations:

- emptiness testing
- traversal
- modification of an element
- insertion
  - at front
  - at rear (append)
  - between
- deletion
  - from front
  - from rear
  - between



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Slide 46

46

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## Linked List Operations (continued)

### ● For some linked list type `list` declared as before...

```
struct list_int;  
typedef struct list_int *list;  
  
struct list_int {  
    node front;  
};
```



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Slide 47

47

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## 7.1 Emptiness Testing — A

```
bool isEmpty(list l)  
{  
    return (l->front == NULL);  
}
```

front →



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Slide 48

48

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## 7.1 Emptiness Testing — B

```

bool isEmpty(list l)
{
    return (l->front == NULL);
}
    
```

front

x

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49

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## 7.1 Emptiness Testing — C

```

bool isEmpty(list l)
{
    return (l->front == NULL);
}
    
```

front

w ... z

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50

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## 7.2 Traversal — C

```

void traverse(list l)
{
    node c;
    c=l->front;
    while (c != NULL) {
        f(getData(c));
        c=getNext(c);
    }
}
    
```

front

w ... z

c

Whatever f() does...

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51

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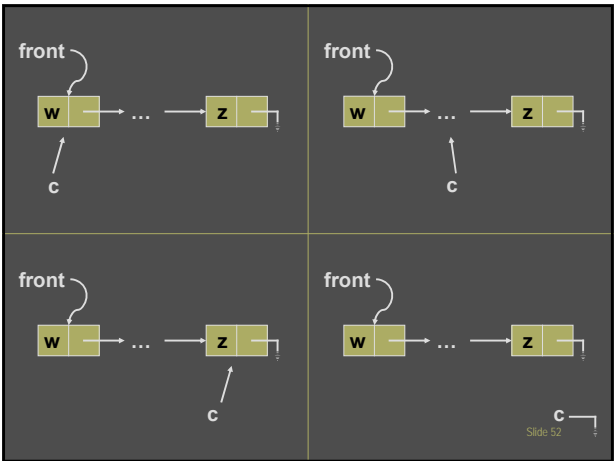
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### 7.2 Traversal — A

```
void traverse(list l)
{
    node c;

    c=l->front;
    while (c != NULL) {
        f(getData(c));
        c=getNext(c);
    }
}
```

Whatever f() does...

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Slide 53

53

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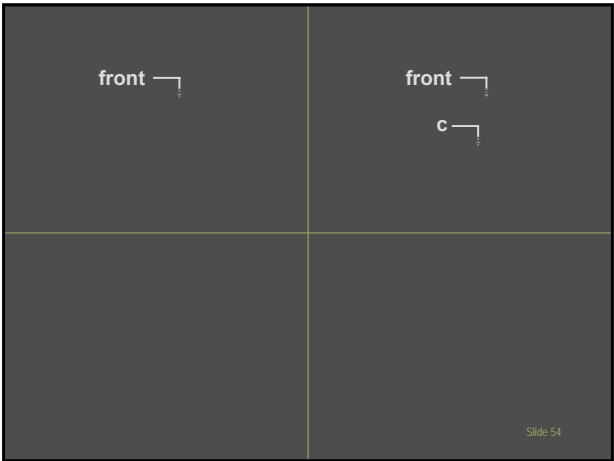
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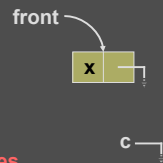
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## 7.2 Traversal — B

```
void traverse(list l)
{
    node c;

    c=l->front;
    while (c != NULL) {
        f(getData(c));
        c=getNext(c);
    }
}
```



Whatever f() does...

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Slide 55

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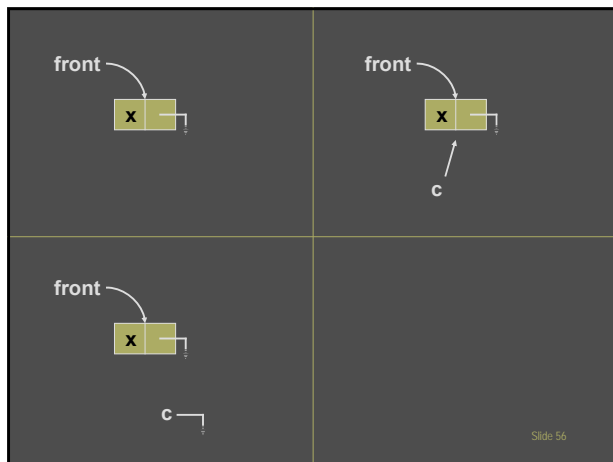
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Slide 56

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## 7.3 Modification — A

```
void modify(list l, void *o, void *n)
{
    node c;

    if (isEmpty(l))
    {
        fprintf(stderr, "list is empty.");
        exit(1);
    }
    else
    {
        ...
    }
}
```

front

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Slide 57

57

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### 7.3 Modification — C

```
void modify(list l, void *o, void *n)
{
    ...
    c = l->front;
    while ((c!=NULL) && (! equals(o,getData(c))) c=getNext(c);
    if (c == NULL) exit(1); else setData(c, n);
}
```

58

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Slide 59

59

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Slide 60

60

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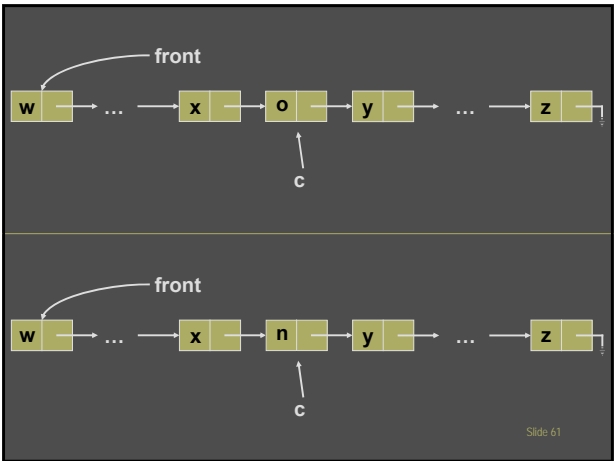
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### 7.3 Modification — B

```
void modify(list l, void *o, void *n)
{
    ...
    c = l->front;
    while ((c != NULL) &&
           (! equals(o, getData(c))))
        c = getNext(c);
    if (c == NULL)
    {
        fprintf(stderr, "list is empty.");
        exit(1);
    }
    else
        setData(c, n);
}
```

Diagram illustrating a single node 'n' with 'front' and 'c' both pointing to it.

62

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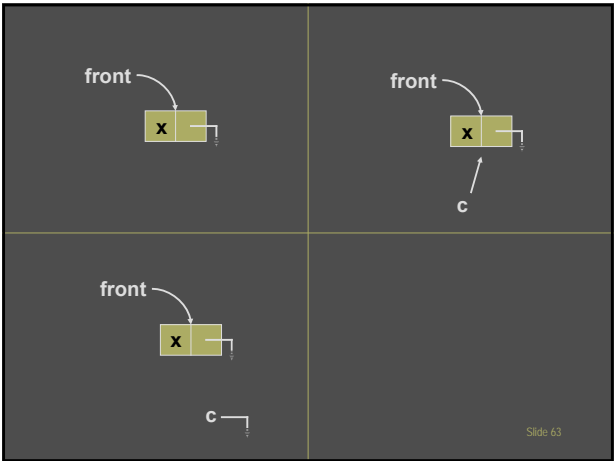
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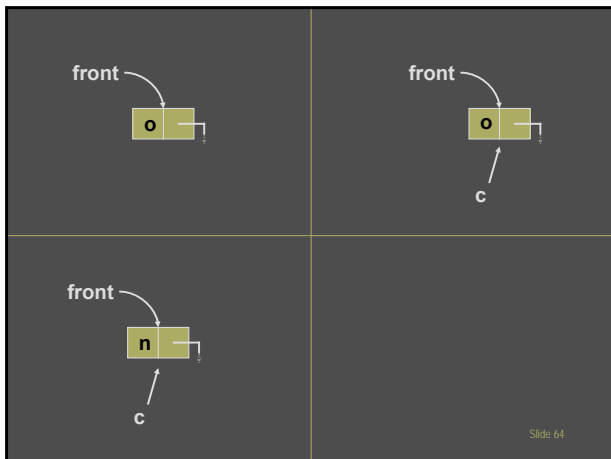
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## 7.4 Insertion

- 7.4.1 Insertion at Front
- 7.4.2 Insertion at Rear
- 7.4.3 Insertion in Middle

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65

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## 7.4.1 Insertion at Front — C

Diagram illustrating the insertion of a new node 'o' at the front of a linked list. The 'front' pointer points to node 'w', which points to 'x', which points to 'z'. A new node 'o' is being inserted, with 'n' pointing to it. The 'next' pointer of 'o' points to 'w'.

```
void insertAtFront(list l, void *o)
{
    node n;

    init_node(&n,o);
    setNext(n,l->front);
    l->front = n;
}
```

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66

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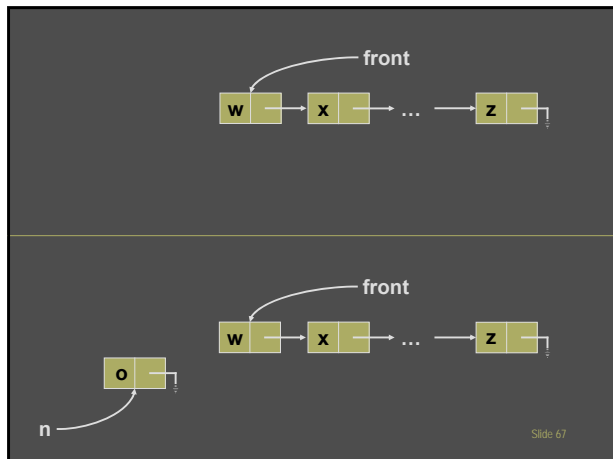
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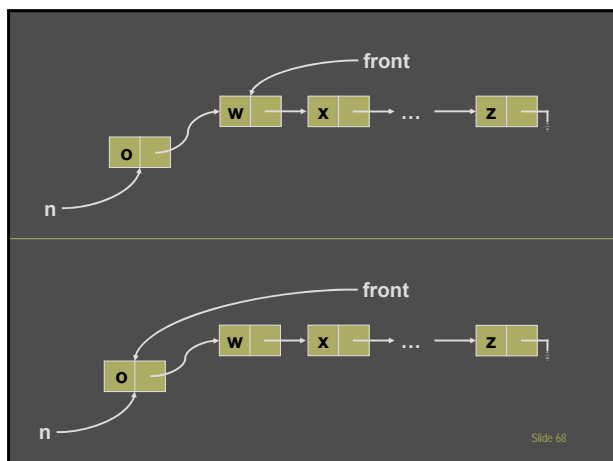
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### 7.4.1 Insertion at Front — A

```
void insertAtFront(list l, void *o)
{
    node n;

    init_node(&n,o);
    setNext(n,l->front);
    l->front = n;
}
```

Diagram showing the final state after insertion: node 'o' is at the front, and 'front' points to it. Node 'o' points to the previous front (node w).

69

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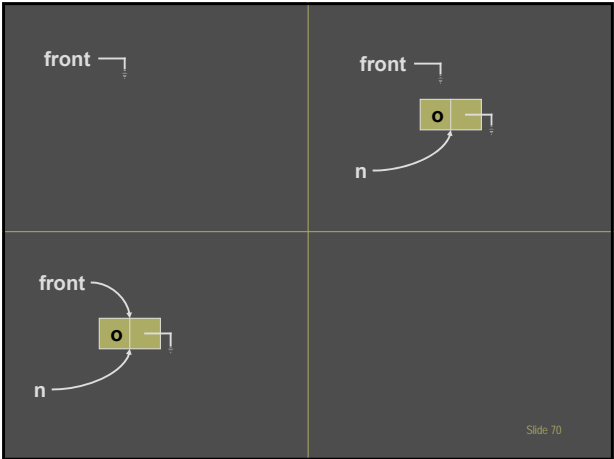
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### 7.4.1 Insertion at Front — B

```
void insertAtFront(list l, void *o)
{
    node n;
    init_node(&n,o);
    setNext(n,l->front);
    l->front = n;
}
```

The diagram shows a linked list with two nodes. The top node contains 'x' and its next pointer points to the bottom node. The bottom node contains 'o' and its next pointer is null. A pointer labeled 'front' points to the top node 'x'. A pointer labeled 'n' points to the bottom node 'o'.

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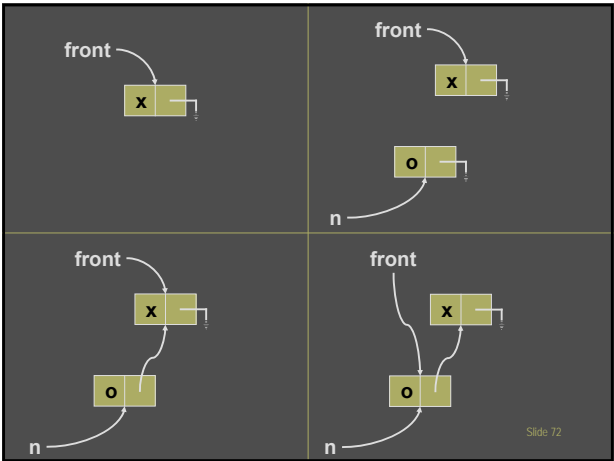
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### 7.4.2 Insertion at Rear — C

```
void insertAtRear(list l, void *o)
{
    ...
    c = l->front;
    while (getNext(c) != NULL)
        c = getNext(c);
    setNext(c, n);
}
```

Slide 73

73

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Slide 74

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Slide 75

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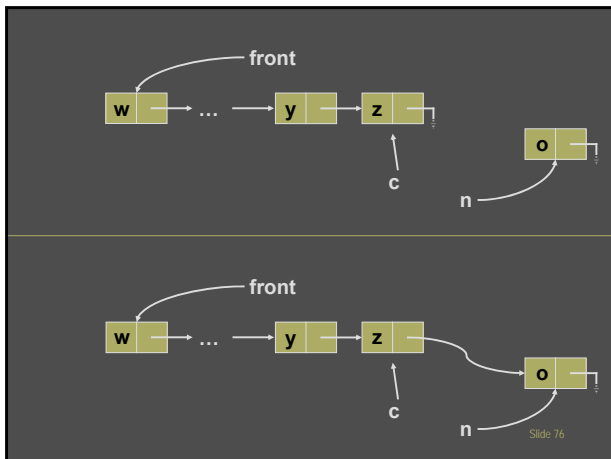
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### 7.4.2 Insertion at Rear — A

```
void insertAtRear(list l, void *o)
{
    node n, c;

    init_node(&n, o);
    if (isEmpty(l))
        l->front = n;
    else
    {
        c = l->front;
        while (getNext(c) != NULL)
            c = getNext(c);
        setNext(c, n);
    }
}
```

Slide 77

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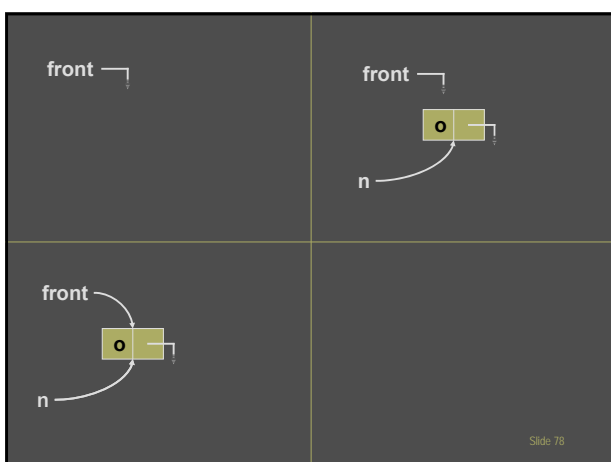
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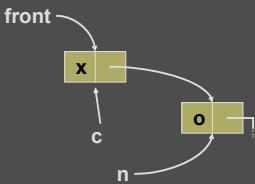
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### 7.4.2 Insertion at Rear — B

```
void insertAtRear(list l, void *o)
{
    node n, c;

    init_node(&n, o);
    if (isEmpty(l))
        l->front = n;
    else
    {
        c = l->front;
        while (getNext(c) != NULL)
            c = getNext(c);
        setNext(c, n);
    }
}
```



Slide 79

79

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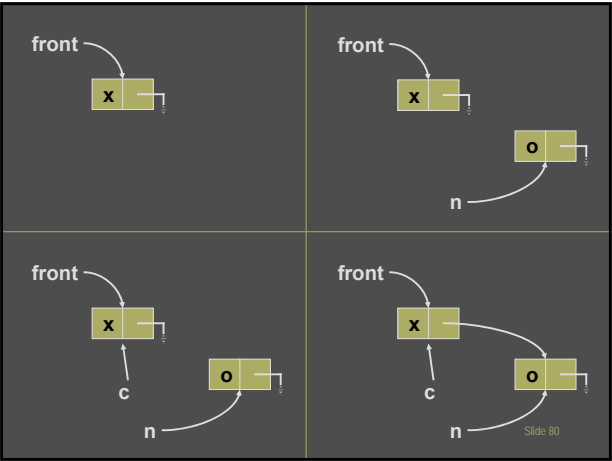
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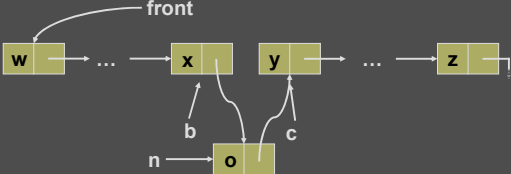
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### 7.4.3 Insertion in Middle — C



```
void insertBetween(list l, void *o)
{
    ...
    b = NULL;
    c = l->front;
    while (!done)
    {
        b = c;
        c = getNext(c);
    }
    if (b == NULL)
        l->front = n;
    else
        setNext(b, n);
    setNext(n, c);
}
```

Whatever done is...

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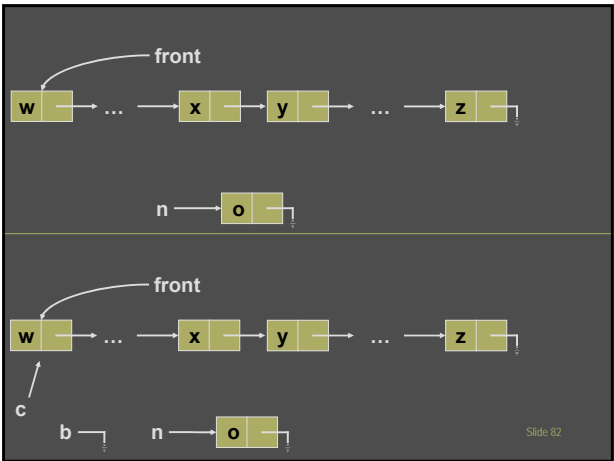
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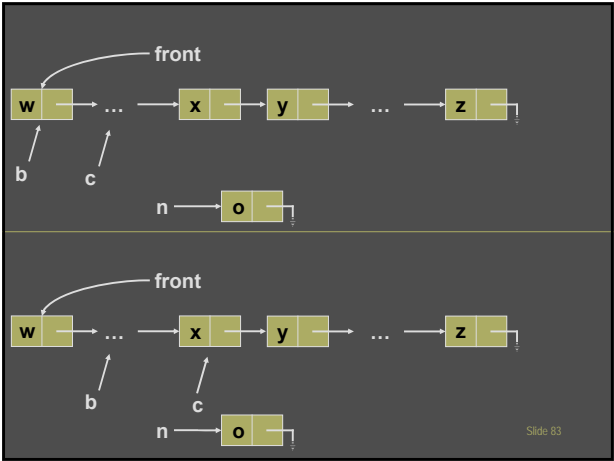
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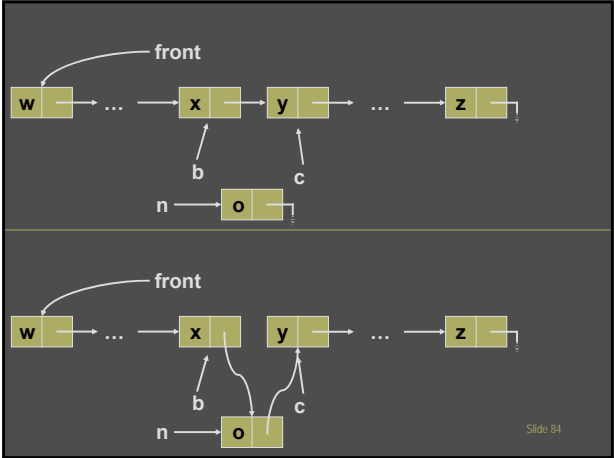
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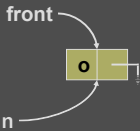
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7.4.3 Insertion in Middle — A

```
void insertBetween(list l, void *o)
{
    node n, c, b;

    init_node(&n, o);

    if (isEmpty(l))
        l->front = n;
    else
    {
        ...
    }
}
```



Slide 85

85

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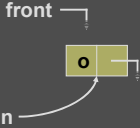
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front



Slide 86

86

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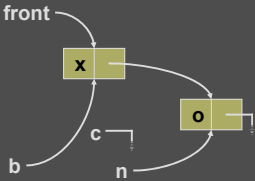
front



7.4.3 Insertion in Middle — B

```
void insertBetween(list l, void *o)
{
    ...
    b = NULL;
    c = l->front;
    while (!done)
    {
        b = c;
        c = getNext(c);
    }
    if (b == NULL) l->front = n;
    else setNext(b, n);
    setNext(n, c);
}
```

Whatever done is...



Slide 87

87

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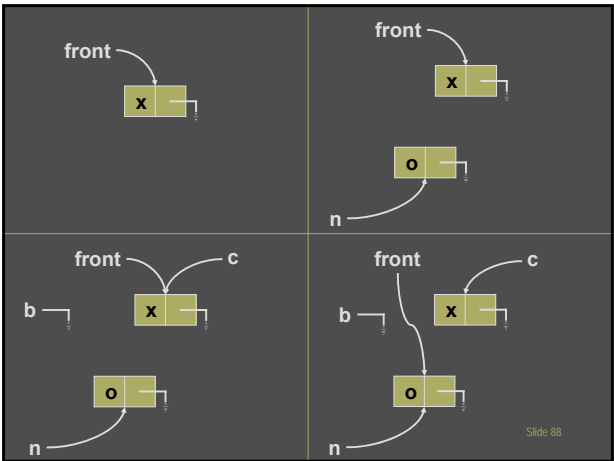
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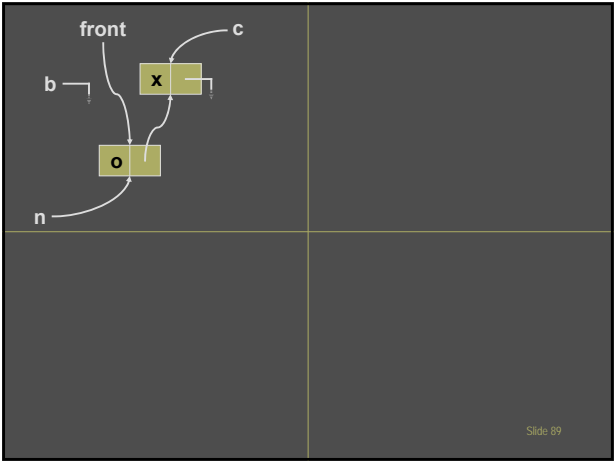
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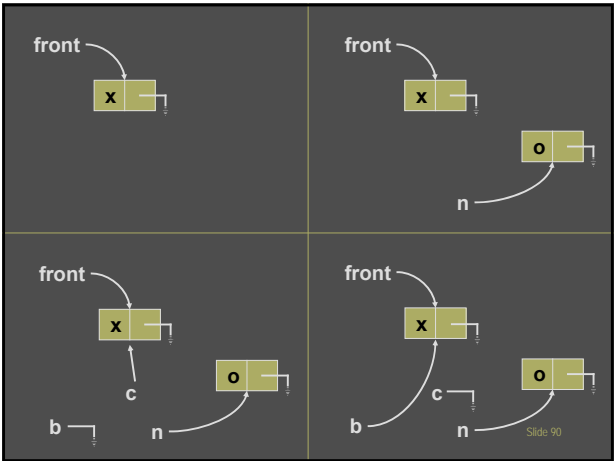
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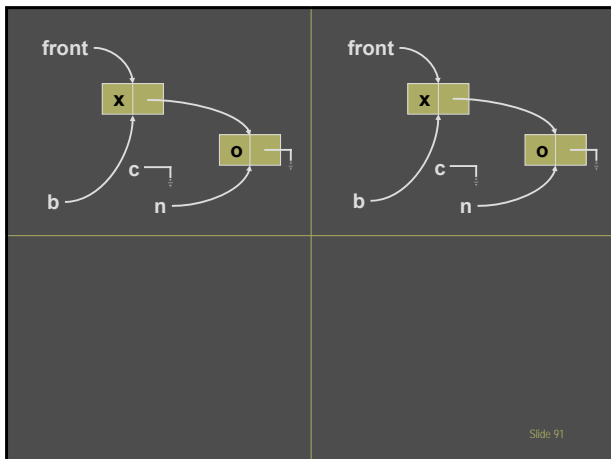
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## 7.5 Deletion

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- 7.5.1 Deletion from Front
- 7.5.2 Deletion from Back
- 7.5.3 Deletion from Middle

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92

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## 7.5.1 Deletion from Front — C

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```

void removeFromFront(list l)
{
    if (isEmpty(l))
        ...
    else
        l->front = getNext(l->front);
}
    
```

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93

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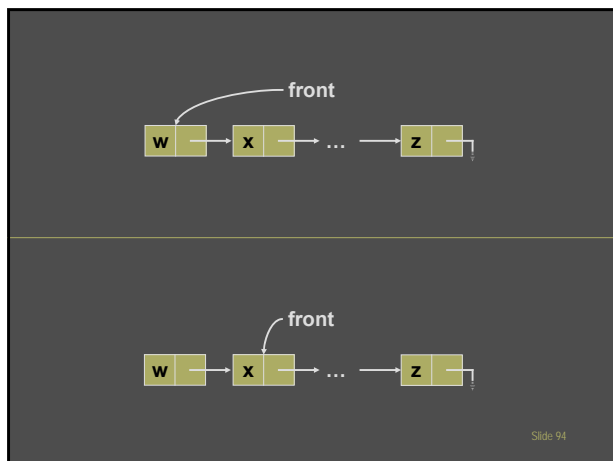
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### 7.5.1 Deletion from Front — A

```
void removeFromFront(list l)
{
    if (isEmpty(l))
    {
        fprintf(stderr, "list is empty.");
        exit(1);
    }
    else
        l->front = getNext(l->front);
}
```

The diagram shows the 'front' pointer as a straight arrow pointing to the data part of the first node in the list.

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### 7.5.1 Deletion from Front — B

```
void removeFromFront(list l)
{
    if (isEmpty(l))
    {
        fprintf(stderr, "list is empty.");
        exit(1);
    }
    else
        l->front = getNext(l->front);
}
```

The diagram shows the 'front' pointer as a straight arrow pointing to the data part of the first node, which contains the letter 'x'.

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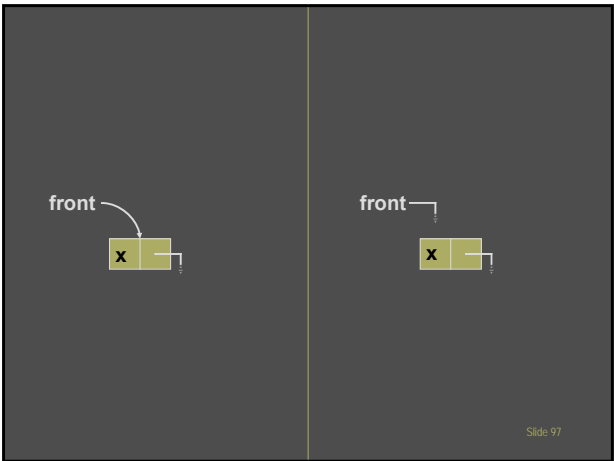
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### 7.5.2 Deletion from Back — C

The diagram shows a linked list with nodes 'w', 'y', and 'z'. The 'front' pointer points to 'w'. Node 'y' has a pointer 'b' and node 'z' has a pointer 'c'. The list is represented as 'w' -> ... -> 'y' -> 'z'.

```
void removeFromBack(list l)
{
    ...
    b = NULL; c = l->front;
    while (getNext(c) != NULL)
    {
        b = c; c = getNext(c);
    }
    if (b == NULL)
        l->front = NULL;
    else
        setNext(b, NULL);
}
```

98

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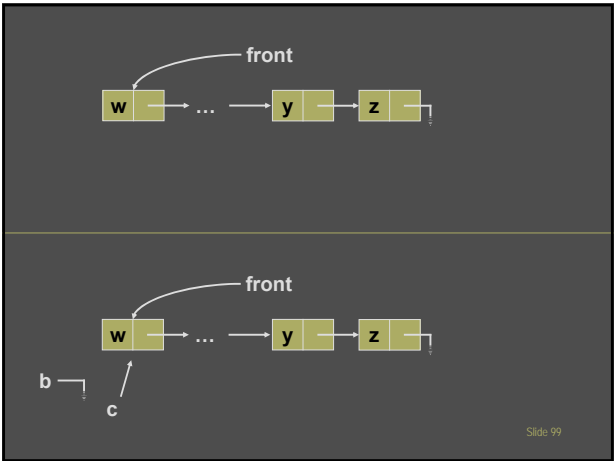
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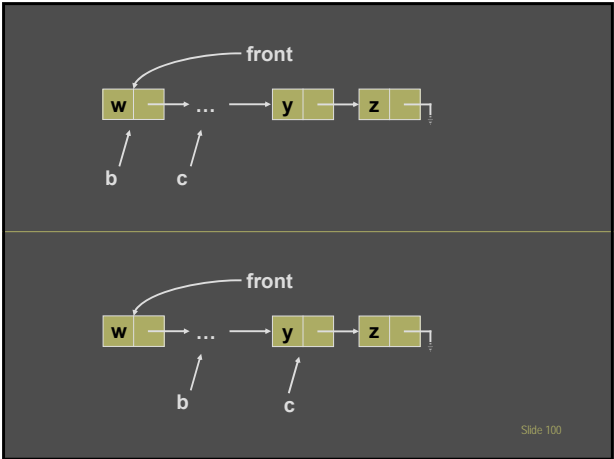
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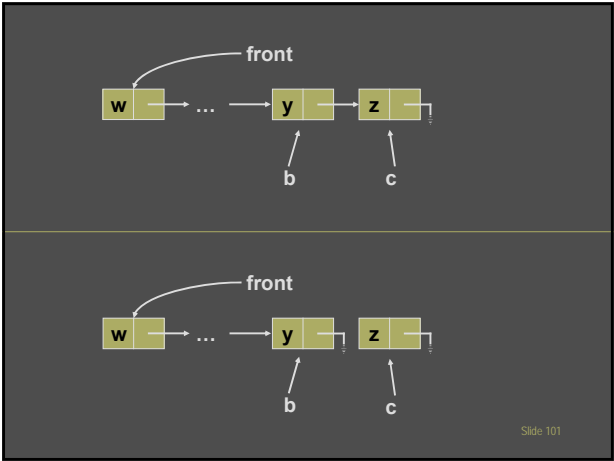
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### 7.5.2 Deletion from Back — B

```
void removeFromBack(list l)
{
    ...
    b = NULL;
    c = l->front;
    while (getNext(c) != NULL)
    {
        b = c;
        c = getNext(c);
    }
    if (b == NULL)
        l->front = NULL;
    else
        setNext(b, NULL);
}
```

Diagram illustrating a linked list structure. The list contains node x. Node x is the head of the list, pointed to by 'front' and 'b'. Node c is the last node. The diagram shows the state of the list after a deletion operation.

102

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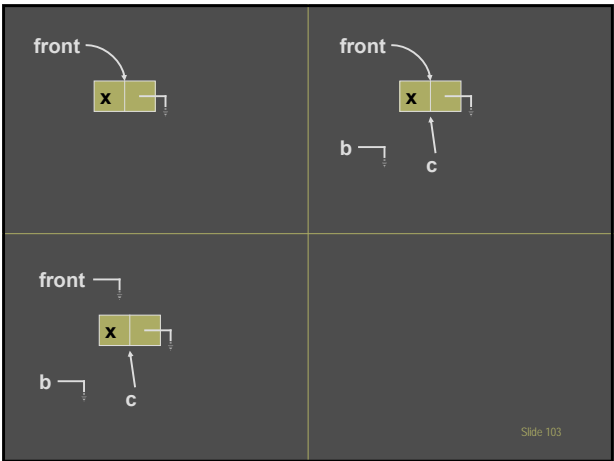
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### 7.5.2 Deletion from Back — A

```
void removeFromBack(list l)
{
    node b, c;

    if (isEmpty(l))
    {
        fprintf(stderr, "list is empty.");
        exit(1);
    }
    else
    {
        ...
    }
}
```

front

Slide 104

104

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### 7.5.3 Deletion from Middle — C

```
void removeFromMiddle(list l)
{
    ...
    b = NULL;
    c = l->front;
    while (!done)
    {
        b = c;
        c = getNext(c);
    }
    if (b == NULL)
        l->front = getNext(c);
    else
        setNext(b, getNext(c));
}
```

Whatever done is

105

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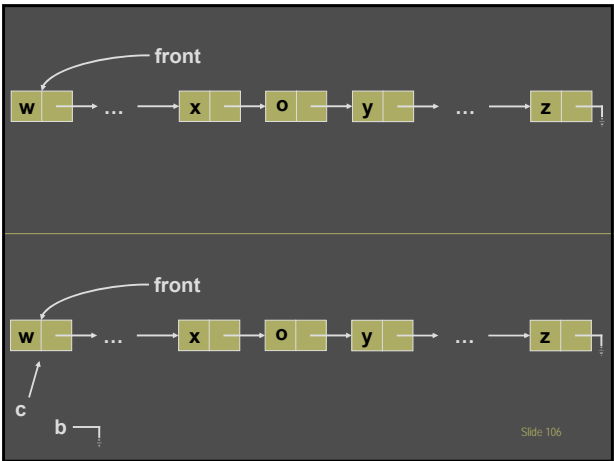
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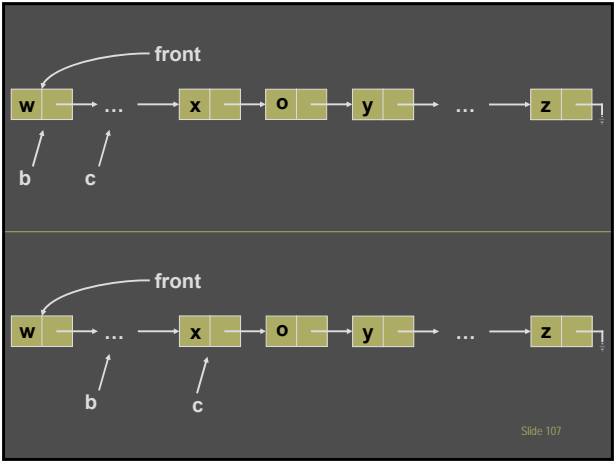
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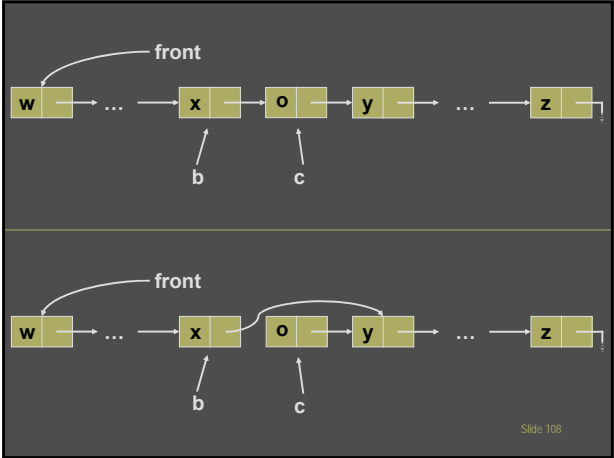
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7.5.3 Deletion from Middle —  
B

```
void removeFromMiddle(list l)
{
    ...
    b = NULL;
    c = l->front;
    while (!done)
    {
        b = c;
        c = getNext(c);
    }
    if (b == NULL)
        l->front = getNext(c);
    else
        setNext(b, getNext(c));
}
```

Whatever done is...

front  
b  
c

Slide 109

109

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front  
b  
c

front  
b  
c

front  
b  
c

front  
b  
c

Slide 110

110

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7.5.3 Deletion from Middle —  
A

```
void removeFromMiddle(list l)
{
    node b, c;

    if (isEmpty(l))
    {
        fprintf(stderr, "list is empty.");
        exit(1);
    }
    else
    {
        ...
    }
}
```

front

Slide 111

111

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## 7.6 Polymorphism

- Recall traverse...
- Q: How can `f()` be specified so that it is whatever we need it to be?

```
void traverse(list l)
{
    node c;

    c=l->front;
    while (c != NULL) {
        f(getData(c));
        c=getNext(c);
    }
}
```

Whatever `f()` does...

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112

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## Polymorphism (continued)

- Q: How can `f()` be specified so that it is whatever we need it to be?
- A: Pointers!

```
void traverse(list l,
              void (*fp)(void *))
{
    node c;

    c=l->front;
    while (c != NULL) {
        (*fp)(getData(c));
        c=getNext(c);
    }
}
```

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113

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## Polymorphism (continued)

- To use, we just write the function we want and pass its address as a parameter...

```
void print(void *o)
{
    printf("%s\n", (char *)o);
}

...
traverse(l, (&print));
...
```

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114

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## Polymorphism (continued)

- We can do the same thing for `equals()` in `modify()`...

```
void modify(list l, void *o, void *n,  
    bool (*equals)(void *,void *))  
{  
    ...  
    while ((c != NULL) &&  
        (! (*equals)(o, getData(c))))  
        ...  
}
```

115

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## Polymorphism (continued)

- And the definition and use might be:

```
bool same(void *a, void *b)  
{  
    return (strcmp(a, b) == 0);  
}  
...  
modify(l, "one", "four", &same);  
...
```

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Slide 116

116

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## 8. The Queue ADT

- 8.1 The Queue ADT
- 8.2 Queue Implementation in C (Using Linked Lists)
- 8.3 Queue Implementation in C (Using Arrays)
- 8.4 Queue Example

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117

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## 8.1 The Queue ADT

- A *Queue* is either empty (*null*) or consists of a first element (the *head/front*) and the remainder of the queue (the *tail*) which is itself a queue
- The Queue is a *recursive* (or *self-referential*) data structure



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Slide 118

118

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## The Queue ADT (continued)

- First-In-First-Out structure
- Only *front* of queue visible
- Can only *add* new items onto rear
- Can only *remove* items from the front
- Examples: traffic intersection, bus stop, bank, cashier



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Slide 119

119

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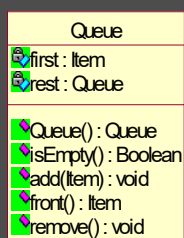
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## The Queue UML Diagram



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Slide 120

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## The Queue ADT C Header

```
struct queue_int;  
typedef struct queue_int *queue;  
  
void init_queue(queue *qp);  
bool isEmpty(queue q);  
void add(queue q, void *i);  
void *front(queue q);  
void rear(queue q);
```

121

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## 8.2 Queue Implementation in C (Using Linked Lists)

- Exercise: see tutorial

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Slide 122

122

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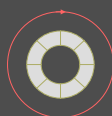
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## 8.3 Queue Implementation in C (Using Arrays)

- Two alternative solutions are presented here:



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Slide 123

123

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8.3.1 Array Implementation  
(version 1)

- Bounded implementation :
  - advance front-of-queue index (which will repeatedly shrink the size of the available array)

01234567...9999

elements

first1

last4

w

x

y

z


front

back

queue.h

queue.c

Slide134.sln

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Slide 124

124

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8.3.2 Array Implementation  
(version 2)

- Wrapped implementation allow the front-and back-of-queue indices to wrap around the ends of the array thus providing a 'virtual queue' within the physical confines of the array

01234567...9999

elements

first9999

last2

x

y

z

w


back

front

queue.h

queue.c

Slide135.sln

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Slide 125

125

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8.4 Queue Example

- Driving across a road intersection can be achieved through the use of a queue

harness.c

Slide134.sln

Slide135.sln

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Slide 126

126

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## 9. Searching

- 9.1 Linked List Searching
- 9.2 Array Searching

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127

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## Searching

- Linear search if only sequential access is possible
- Binary search if direct access is possible and the data are sorted

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128

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## 9.1 Linked List Searching

- Can only access the first element and then move sequentially through the elements in the list

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129

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## Time Taken for Linear Search

- The best case — searching for the first node  
 $B(n) = 1$
- The worst case — searching for the last node  
( $n$  is the size of the list)  
 $W(n) = n$
- Average case  

$$A(n) = \frac{1 + 2 + \dots + n}{n} = \frac{n + 1}{2}$$

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130

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## 9.2 Array Searching

- Unsorted array:
  - Step through the array to find a particular item
  - The time spent is the same as the case of linked list

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ...

elements y w z x

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131

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## Array Searching

- Sorted array:
  - Start in the middle of the used portion
  - (\*) Get the value of the 'current' element
  - Compare it to the required value
    - if equal stop
    - if current value is smaller discard bottom half of remaining array, go back to (\*)
    - discard top half of remaining arrays, go back to (\*)

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132

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Array Searching  
(continued)

- There are  $\log_2(n+1)$  layers

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Slide 133

133

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Aside: Logarithms!

- $4 + 5 = 9$
- The inverse of  $+$  is  $-$
- $9 - 4 = 5$
- The symbols change and the order of operands changes

- $2 \times 2 \times 2 = 2^3 = 8$
- The inverse of exponentiation is the logarithm
- $\log_2 8 = 3$
- is just another arithmetic operator

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Slide 134

134

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Array Searching  
(continued)

- There are  $\log_2(n+1)$  layers (approximately)

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Slide 135

135

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## Time Taken for Binary Search

- The best case — searching for the middle element  
 $B(n) = 1$
- The worst case — searching for an element at the lowest level  
 $W(n) = \log_2(n+1)$
- The average case — searching for an element at mid depth  
 $A(n) = \log_2(n+1) - 1$

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Slide 136

136

## 10. Trees

- 10.1 Introduction
- 10.2 Binary Trees
- 10.3 Tree Traversal
- 10.4 Binary Search Trees
- 10.5 General Search Trees

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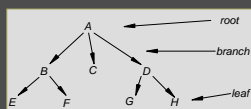
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137

## 10.1 Introduction

- Trees are hierarchical structures
- Relationships exist:
  - *parent-child*
  - *siblings*
  - *ancestor-descendant*
- The ancestor of all is the *root*
- A node without a child is a *leaf*
- The number of child nodes is the *degree*



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Slide 138

138

## 10.2 Binary Trees

- A tree of degree 2 is a *binary tree*
- Branches are called *left* and *right*
- A binary tree has the form:
  - empty, or
  - a node with a value and two branches (each of which is a binary tree)

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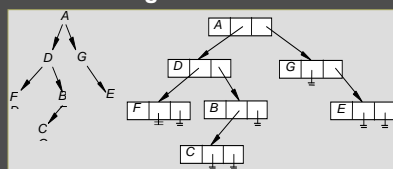
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## Structure

- Conceptually, a binary tree may be drawn as below on the left
- When implemented in C it appears as below on the right



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Slide 140

140

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## The Binary Tree UML Diagram



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Slide 141

141

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## BTreeNode and BinTree Classes

```

struct btnode_int;
typedef struct btnode_int *btnode;

struct btnode_int {
    void *data;
    btnode left;
    btnode right;
};
    
```

UNIVERSITY OF TASMANIA KIT107 ©JRD, 2021 BTreeNode.h BTreeNode.c BinTree.h BinTree.c Lab10S2.sln Slide 142

142

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## Alternative Node Definitions

- One variable per branch (`left` and `right`) is fine for a small number of branches
- Two alternatives:
  - array of branches
  - linked list of branches

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143

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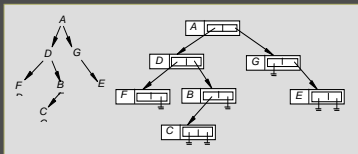
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## Binary Tree using An Array

- First alternative
  - array of branches



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144

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## Binary Tree using An Array

```

struct btnode_int;
typedef struct btnode_int *btnode;

struct btnode_int {
    void *data;
    btnode branches[];
};
    
```

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145

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## Binary Tree using References

- Second alternative
  - linked list of branches

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## Binary Tree using References

```

struct btnode_int;
typedef struct btnode_int *btnode;

struct btnode_int {
    void *data;
    btnode child;
    btnode sibling;
};
    
```

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147

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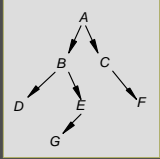
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## 10.3 Tree Traversal



- Node first, then branches:  
ABDEGCF (*depth-first pre-order*)
- Left first, then node, then right:  
DBGEACF (*depth-first in-order*)
- Branches first, then node:  
DGEBFCA (*depth-first post-order*)
- In levels: ABCDEFG (*breadth-first*)

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148

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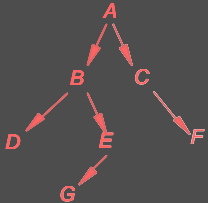
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## 10.3.1 Depth-First Pre-Order Traversal

ABDEGCF



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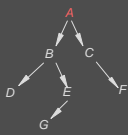
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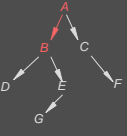
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A



AB



ABD



Slide 150

150

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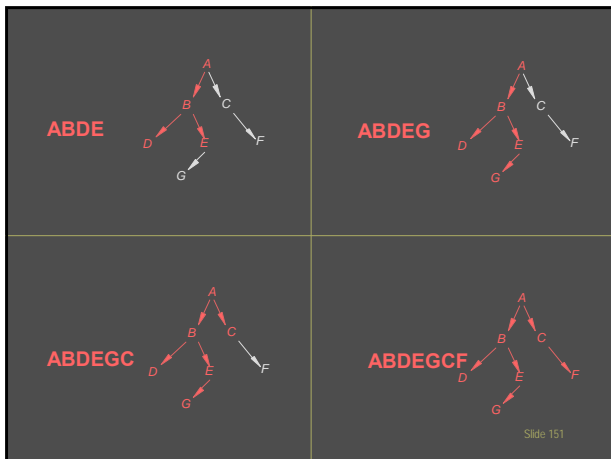
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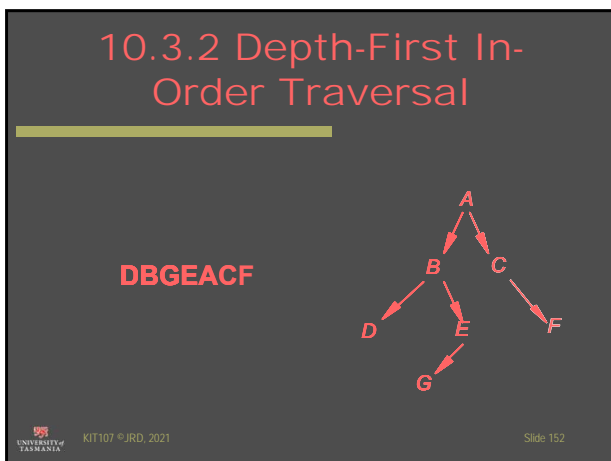
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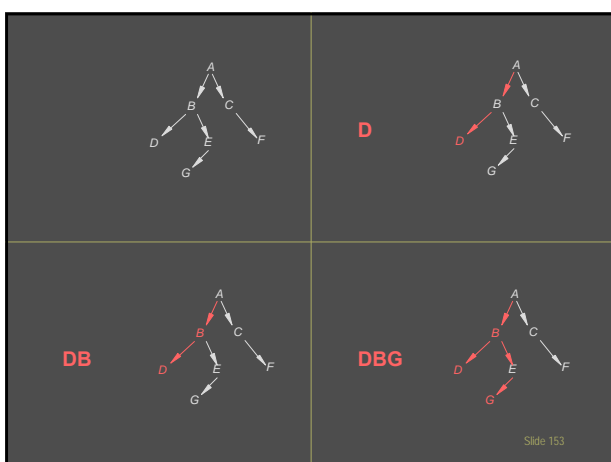
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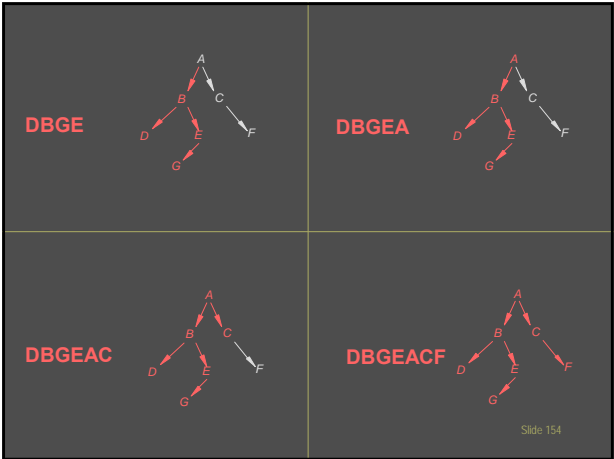
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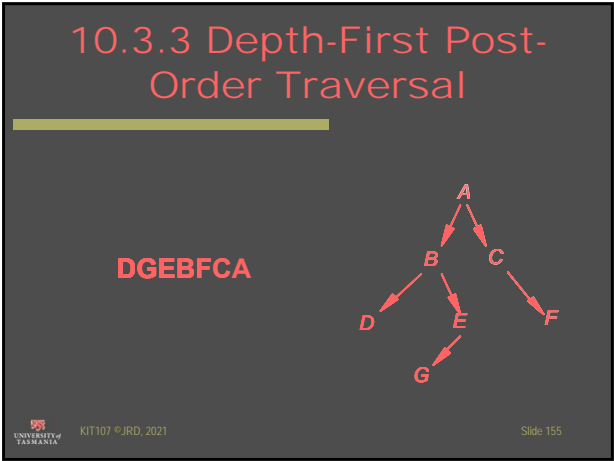
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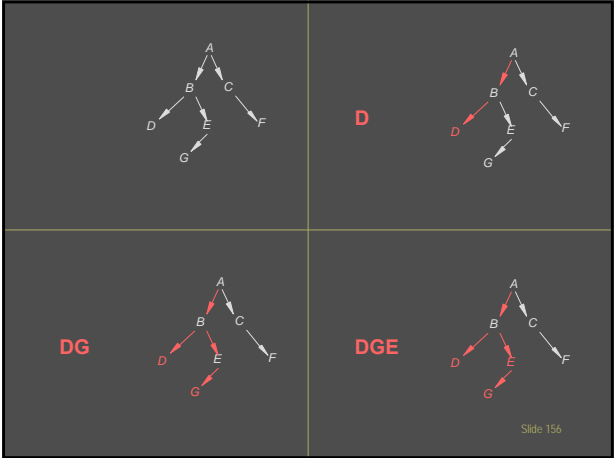
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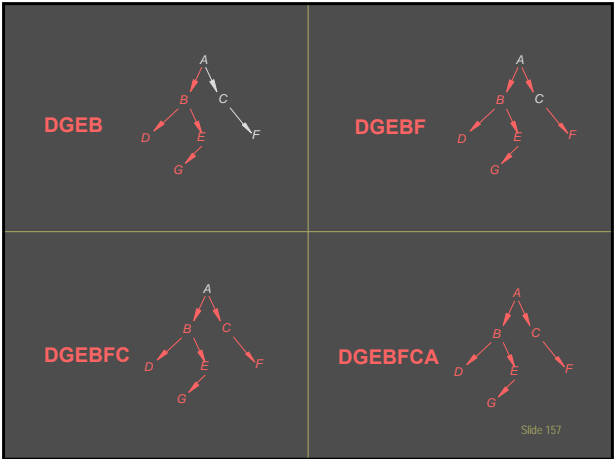
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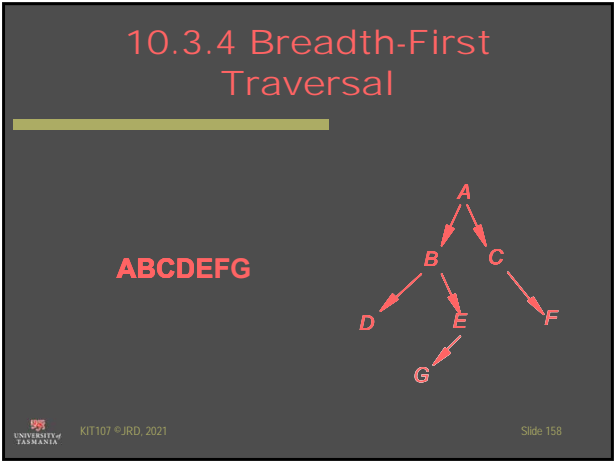
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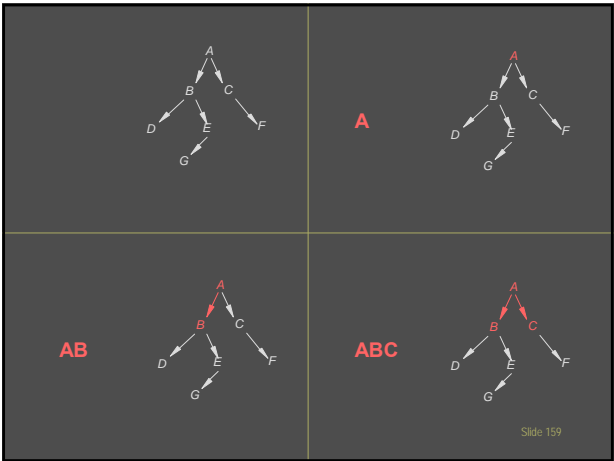
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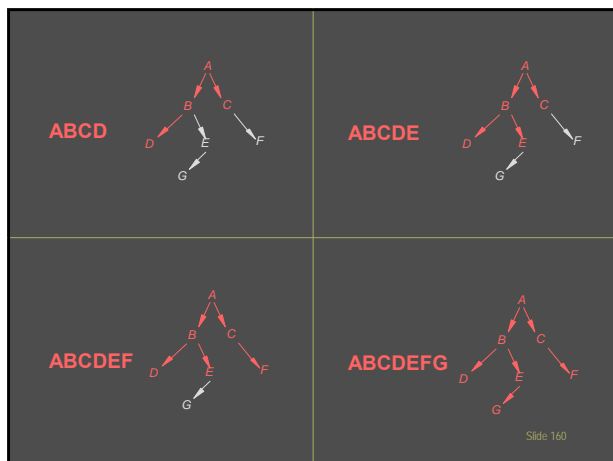
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### 10.3.5 Traversal Algorithms

- Traversal algorithms could be written in a straight-forward manner to emulate the previous diagrams, or
- Data Structures could be used to allow a generic algorithm to provide both depth-first and breadth-first traversal

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161

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### DFT without Intermediate Data Structures

```
void traverseDF(bintree t)
{
    bintree l,r;

    if (! isEmpty(t))
    {
        l=getLeft(t);
        r=getRight(t);
        traverseDF(l);
        traverseDF(r);
        f(getRootData(t)); // post-order
    }
}
```

*Whatever f() does...*

BinTree.c Slide 172.sln Slide 162

162

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BFT without  
Intermediate Data  
Structures

```
void traverseBF(bintree t)
{
    int i;

    for (i=1; i<=height(t);i++)
        processLevel(t,i);
}

int height(bintree t)
{
    ... See lab class
}
```

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163

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BFT without  
Intermediate Data  
Structures (continued)

```
void processLevel(bintree t,int n)
{
    bintree l,r;

    if (! isEmpty(t)) {
        if (n==1) //terminating case
            f(getRootData(t));
        else //recursive case
        {
            l=getLeft(t);
            r=getRight(t);
            processLevel(l,n-1);
            processLevel(r,n-1);
        }
    }
}
```

Whatever f() does...

 BinTree.c

 Slide 172.cin

Slide 164

164

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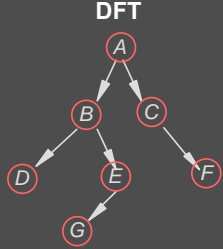
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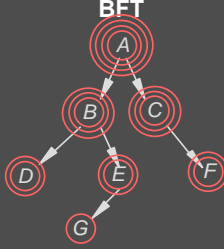
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Comparison


DFT



BFT



Plus visits from height()

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165

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## Comparison

- Both are special purpose (i.e. different) algorithms
- DFT has worst case of  $W(n)=n$
- BFT has worst case of  $W(n) \gg n$
- Could a data structure replace specialised algorithms to improve performance?



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Slide 166

166

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## Intermediate Data Structures

- For DFT the aim is to visit nodes on the current branch, i.e. we want to start again at the *most* recent node
- For BFT the aim is to process in levels and abandon the current branch, i.e. we want to start at the *least* recent node



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Slide 167

167

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## DFT with Intermediate Stack

- If root of tree is empty, stop
- If root of tree is stop condition, stop
- From the left-most child to the right-most child of the root, if the child is not empty, then push the child onto the stack
- If the stack is not empty then
  - pop the top item from the stack
  - recurse with the tree which is rooted at the popped item and the current stack



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Slide 168

168

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# Example

The diagram illustrates a search tree for a 3-disk Tower of Hanoi problem. The root node is A, which branches to B and C. B branches to D and E, and C branches to H. E branches to G. Below the tree, a sequence of nodes is shown in a grid-like structure, representing the search space. The nodes are: A (H, C, B), AH (C, B), AHC (F, B), AHC F (B), AHC F B (E, D), AHC F B E (G, D), AHC F B E G (D), and AHC F B E G D (empty).

169

# BFT with Intermediate Queue

- If root of tree is empty, stop
- If root of tree is stop condition, stop
- From the left-most child to the right-most child of the root, if the child is not empty, then add the child onto the queue
- If the queue is not empty then
  - remove the front item from the queue
  - recurse with the tree which is rooted at the removed item and the current queue

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Slide 170

170

# Example

```
graph TD; A --> B; A --> C; B --> D; B --> E; C --> F; E --> G;
```

BCH	CHDE	HDEF	.....	
A	AB	ABC	.....	ABCHDEFG

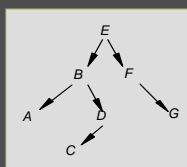
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171

## 10.4 Binary Search Trees

- **Binary search trees** are Binary Trees in which nodes are ordered:

- all nodes in left sub-tree have values smaller than parent
- all nodes in right sub-tree have values larger than parent



172

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### 10.4.1 Insertion Algorithm

- **Insertion occurs only at empty branches**
- **Begin at the root node**
  - if the value to be added is smaller go left otherwise go right; repeat search
- **When no further movement is possible**
  - add value as new left child if smaller; add value as new right child if larger

173

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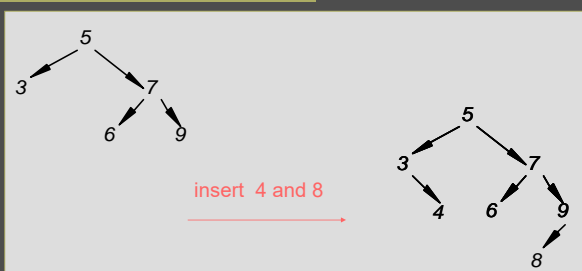
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### Insertion Example



174

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## 10.4.2 Deletion Algorithm (Overview)

- Deletion can occur anywhere in the tree
- If a leaf node is to be deleted it may simply be removed
- If a non-leaf node is to be deleted it can be replaced by its only branch, or if it has two branches by a node within the sub-tree



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Slide 175

175

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## Deletion Algorithm

- Locate the value to be deleted by searching (as done in the Insertion Algorithm)
- If the value cannot be found report an error and stop
- If the node containing the value is a leaf node delete it and stop



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Slide 176

176

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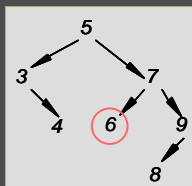
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## Deletion Algorithm

- If the node containing the value is a leaf node delete it and stop



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Slide 177

177

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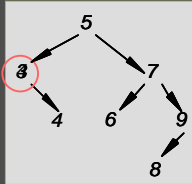
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## Deletion Algorithm (continued)

- If the node has one branch replace the node with the branch



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178

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## Deletion Algorithm (continued)

- If the node has one branch replace the node with the branch
- If the node has two branches
  - either replace the node with the right-subtree's left-most node (smallest value)
  - or replace the node with left-subtree's right-most node (largest value)
  - and delete the value from the sub-tree

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179

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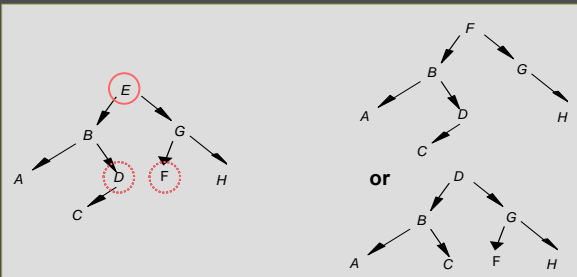
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## Deletion Example



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180

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## 10.5 Search Trees in General

- A *search tree of degree  $n$*  is a tree where each node has a maximum of  $n$  branches
- Nodes may have up to  $n-1$  values — a node with  $k-1$  values has  $k$  branches (some of which may be empty)
- Node values are ordered...

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Slide 181

181

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## Search Trees in General (continued)

- Nodes containing  $k$  branches have  $k-1$  values such that:
  - all values in the sub-tree of branch  $i$  have values *less than* value  $i$
  - all values in the sub-tree of branch  $i+1$  have values *greater than* value  $i$

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Slide 182

182

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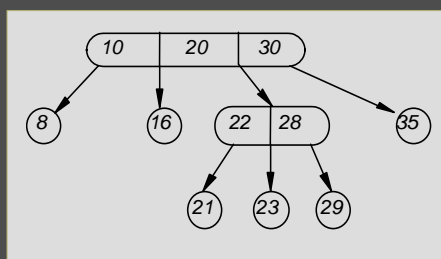
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## Example



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Slide 183

183

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## 11. Doubly-Linked Lists

- 11.1 Concept
- 11.2 Implementation
- 11.3 Example: Stack

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184

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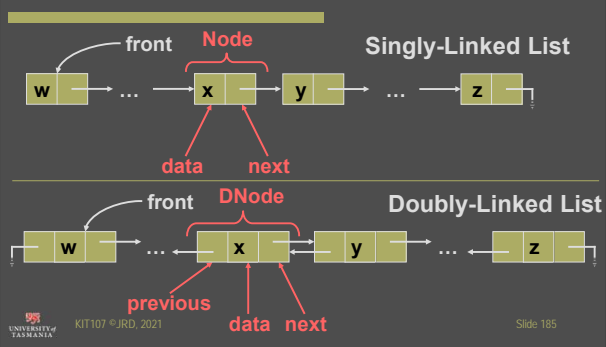
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### 11.1 Concept



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Slide 185

185

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### 11.2 Implementation

```
struct dnode_int {  
    dnode prev;  
    void *data;  
    dnode next;  
};  
typedef struct dnode_int *dnode;
```

- A dnode is a triple of prev, data, and next
- prev refers to the preceding node just as next refers to the succeeding node

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Slide 186

186

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## Implementation (continued)

```

struct dnode_int {
    bnode prev;
    void *data;
    bnode next;
};
typedef struct dnode_int *dnode;
    
```

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187

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## 11.3 Example: Stack

- Note: the use of a doubly-linked list as the underlying implementation for the Stack ADT does not utilise all the functionality of the doubly-linked list data structure

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188

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## 12. Variations on the Queue

- 12.1 Double-ended queue (deque)
- 12.2 Circular queue (cirque)
- 12.3 Priority queue (priqueue)

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189

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12.1 Double-Ended Queue

- A *double-ended queue* (deque) is a data structure with ‘queues at both ends’ — items may be added at either end and removed from either end, but only the ends are accessible
- The Deque ADT may be implemented in C using an array, a singly-linked list, or a doubly-linked list

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Slide 190

190

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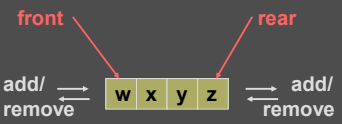
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12.1 Double-Ended Queue



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Slide 191

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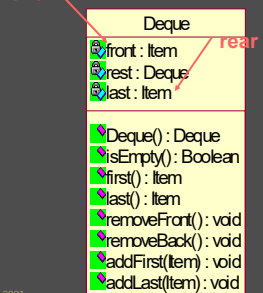
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12.1.1 Deque UML Diagram



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Slide 192

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12.1.2 Deque Implementation

```
struct deque_int;
typedef struct deque_int *deque;

void init_deque(deque *d);
bool isEmpty(deque d);
void *first(deque d);
void *last(deque d);
void addFirst(deque d,void *o);
void addLast(deque d,void *o);
void removeFront(deque d);
void removeBack(deque d);
```

193

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12.1.2 Deque Implementation

- Array — exercise!

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	...	9999
elements	x	y	z							w
first	9999									
last	2									

rear points to index 2, front points to index 9999

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Slide 194

194

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12.1.3 Deque Implementation

- Singly-linked list — exercise!

front points to node w, rear points to node z

w → x → y → z → null

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Slide 195

195

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## 12.1.4 Deque Implementation

- Doubly-linked list — follows...

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196

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## 12.2 Circular Queues

- A *circular queue* (cirque) is a queue in which the rear of the queue is connected to the front of the queue

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197

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## 12.2 Circular Queues (continued)

- A double-ended circular queue is a deque in which the rear of the queue is connected to the front, and the front of the is connected to the rear
- Double-ended circular queue using a doubly-linked list:

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198

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## Circular Queues with a Cursor

- It is also possible to have a reference to the 'current' node
- This concept is called a *cursor* and is analogous to a computer screen's cursor



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Slide 199

199

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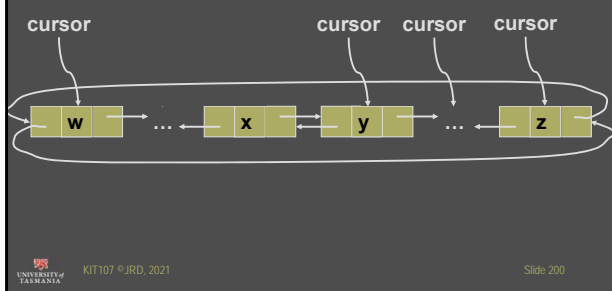
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## Circular Queues with a Cursor (continued)



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Slide 200

200

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## Circular Queues with a Cursor (continued)

- When a cursor is used, two additional routines are required
  - `nextOne()` which returns the current node and advances the cursor to the next node
  - `reset()` which sets the cursor back to be the first item in the circular queue
  - `add()` and `remove()` are also possible



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Slide 201

201

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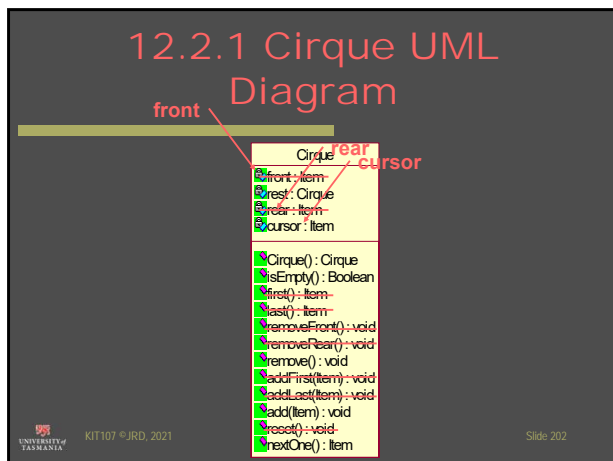
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### 12.2.2-4 Cirque Implementation

- Doubly-linked list — see lab class
- Singly-linked list — exercise!
- Array — exercise!

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203

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### 12.3 Priority Queues

- Every ADT seen so far stores data in a place determined by the ADT and not the value of the data
- Search trees have been an exception
- Priority queues are another exception

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204

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## 12.3 Priority Queues (continued)

- A *priority queue* (priqueue) is a queue in which the items are inserted into a place in the queue that is determined by that item's priority/importance/value
- Apart from changes to the `add()` operation, the `Priqueue` implementation is unchanged from the `Queue`



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Slide 205

205

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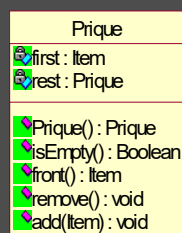
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### 12.3.1 Priqueue UML Diagram



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Slide 206

206

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## Comparing Apples and Oranges

- A comparison function must exist (or be provided) in order for arbitrary priorities to be compared
- This comparison function is needed within `add()`
- In order for it to be available it must be passed in on the parameter list



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Slide 207

207

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## Comparing Apples and Oranges (continued)

```
void add(priqueue p, void *o,  
    bool (*greaterThan)(void *,void *))  
{  
    ...  
    while ((c!=NULL) &&  
        ((*greaterThan)(getData(c),o)))  
    {  
        ...  
    }  
    ...  
}
```

208

## 12.3.2 Priqueue ADT Implementation

- Doubly-linked list — see lab class
- Singly-linked list — exercise!
- Array — exercise!



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Slide 209

209

## 13. Cloning

- 13.1 Copying Variables



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210

## 13.1 Copying Variables

- All of the ADTs implemented so far have been *destructive* — the `push()`, `pop()`, `add()`, `remove()`, `insert()`, `delete()`, ..., `union()`, `intersection()`, and `difference()` functions have all changed the contents of the passed variable



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Slide 211

211

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## Destructive vs Constructive Implementations

- It is possible to write *constructive* implementations instead — a new dynamic variable is created by copying the original one, the modification is made to the new one, and then the new one is returned.
- How can you tell if an implementation is destructive/constructive?



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Slide 212

212

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## The Queue ADT C Header

```
struct queue_int;
typedef struct queue_int *queue;

void init_queue(queue *q);
bool isEmpty(queue q);
queue add(queue q, void *i);
void *front(queue q);
queue rear(queue q);
```

213

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## Copying Dynamic Variables: Cloning

- Three ways to 'copy' a variable:
  - Copying the reference variable
  - Shallow cloning
  - Deep cloning



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Slide 214

214

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## Copying Values

```
int a[]={10,20,30};  
  
int *copy;  
copy=a;  
  
copy[0]=40;  
printf("%d",a[0]);
```

- This only copies the pointer it doesn't copy the array



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Slide 215

215

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## Copying Values

```
int a[]={10,20,30};  
int *copy;  
int i;  
  
copy=(int *)malloc(3*sizeof(int));  
for (i=0;i<3;i++) { copy[i]=a[i]; }  
  
copy[0]=40;  
printf("%d",a[0]);
```

- This copies the pointer and the array



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Slide 216

216

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Copying Values

```
char *a[]={"a","b","c"};
char **copy;
int i;

copy=(char **)malloc(3*sizeof(char *));
for (i=0;i<3;i++) { copy[i]=a[i]; }

copy[0]="x";
printf("%s",a[0]);
```

- This copies the pointer and the array, but not the pointees

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Slide 217

217

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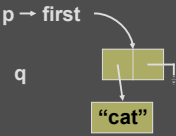
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Cloning (continued)

```
queue p,q;
char s[]={ "cat" };

init_queue(&p);
add(p,s);
clone(p,&q);
```

Copy p into q



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Slide 218

218

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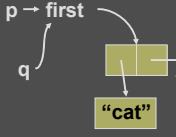
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Cloning (continued)

```
clone(p,&q);
-----
q=p;
-----
void clone(queue p,queue *qp)
{
    *qp=p;
}
```

Copying the reference



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Slide 219

219

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## Cloning (continued)

```

clone(p,&q);
-----
q->first=p->first;

void clone(queue p,queue *qp)
{
    queue r;

    init_queue(&r);
    r->first=p->first;
    *qp=r;
}
    
```

Shallow cloning

Slide 220

220

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Slide 221

221

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## Cloning (continued)

```

clone(p,&q);
-----
void clone(queue p,queue *qp)
{
    char *s;
    queue r;
    node c=p->first;

    init_queue(&r);
    while (c != NULL) {
        s=(char *)malloc((strlen(getData(c))+1)*sizeof(char));
        strcpy(s,getData(c));
        add(r,s);
        c=getNext(c);
    }
    *qp=r;
}
    
```

Deep cloning

222

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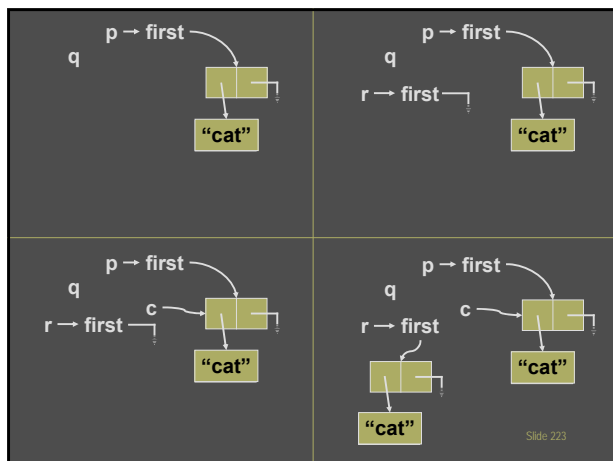
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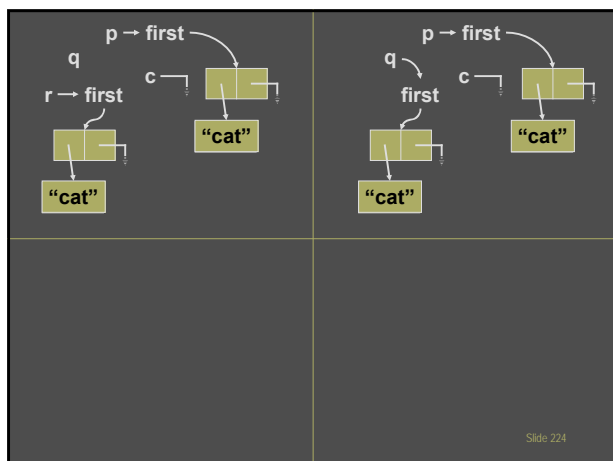
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### How do we clone the contents?

- The data field is `(void *)`
- Q. How do we copy the pointee as well as the pointer?
- A. Pass a function to do it!
- (or use `memcpy()` from `<string.h>`)

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225

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## Cloning (continued)

```
void clone(queue p, queue *qp,
    void(*cloneData)(void *,void **))
{
    void *o;
    queue r;
    node c=p->first;

    init_queue(&r);
    while (c != NULL) {
        (*cloneData)(getData(c),&o);
        add(r,o);
        c=getNext(c);
    }
    *qp=r;
}
```

226

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## The Queue ADT C Header

```
void init_queue(queue *q);
bool isEmpty(queue q);
queue add(queue q, void *i,
    void(*cloneData)(void *,void **));
void *front(queue q);
queue rear(queue q,
    void(*cloneData)(void *,void **));
void clone(queue p, queue *q,
    void(*cloneData)(void *,void **));
```

227

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## Exercise

- Once we've seen the Set, re-write the implementation to provide a constructive rather than destructive implementation

228

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## 14. Algorithm Efficiency

- 14.1 Measuring Efficiency
- 14.2 Comparing Efficiency
- 14.3 Example



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229

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## 14.1 Measuring Efficiency

- A measure is required that describes the work done by (or memory usage of) an algorithm
- This measure is called *complexity*
- Given such a measure, comparisons of algorithms can be made so that efficient algorithms may be selected for use



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Slide 230

230

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## Different Complexities

- Space Complexity
  - Memory consumed by algorithm
  - Measure: number of variables and count x size of dynamically created objects
- Time Complexity
  - Measure count of executions of a 'fundamental operation'



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Slide 231

231

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## Example

Problem	Most important operation
Search a list	Comparisons with current list element and desired value
Sorting a list	Comparing pairs of list elements
Traverse a list	Traversing a reference

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232

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## Describing Complexity

- Complexity depends upon the size of the input — small data-set requires little work, large data-set requires great work
- Let  $T_A(n)$  stand for the time complexity of an algorithm  $A$  given input of size  $n$

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233

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## Example

- Assuming `getNext()` is the fundamental operation and that the list contains  $n$  nodes

```

0      c=front;
? x    while (c != NULL)
1      c=getNext(c);
    
```

the time complexity of this program fragment,  $T(n)=0+? * 1 = ? * 1 = n * 1 = n$

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234

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Best, Worst, Average

- For all inputs of size  $i$ ,  $1 \leq i \leq n$ 
  - The *best case* complexity for algorithm A is  $B_A(n)=\text{minimum}(T_A(i))$
  - The *worst case* complexity is  $W_A(n)=\text{maximum}(T_A(i))$
  - The *average case* complexity is  $A_A(n)=\sum(p(i)T_A(i))$  where input  $i$  occurs with probability  $p(i)$

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Slide 235

235

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14.2 Comparing Efficiency

- Counts of fundamental operations are only indicative of work done
- Approximations of time complexities only are compared
- Algorithms are classified into groups/families based on the dominant term of the approximated time complexity

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Slide 236

236

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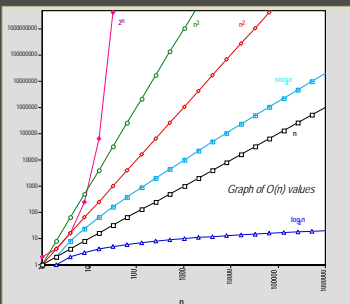
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Some Typical 'Families'



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Slide 237

237

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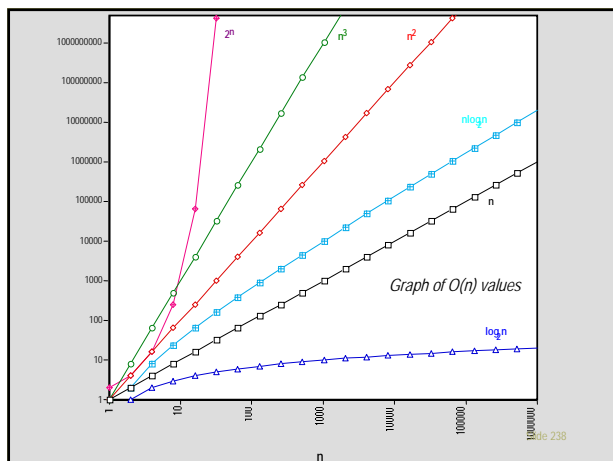
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## Big-oh Notation

- Big-oh notation,  $O()$ , is used to indicate an approximation of algorithm complexity
- An algorithm's time complexity may be expressed in big-oh notation by keeping the term of highest exponent, discarding all other terms, and discarding the coefficient

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239

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## Examples

$W(n) = 5n^3 + n^2 + n + 10$

**This complexity is  $O(n^3)$**

$W(n) = 50$  ( $= 50n^0 = 50 \times 1$ )

**This complexity is  $O(1)$**

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240

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## 14.2.1 Definition of Big-oh

- Given functions  $f(n)$  and  $g(n)$ , if there exist constants  $c$  and  $M$  such that:  $f(n) \leq cg(n)$  for  $n \geq M$ , where  $c > 0$  and  $M > 0$ , then,  $f(n)$  is said to be  $O(g(n))$ .
- Example:
  - $W(n) = 5n^3 + n$   
For  $M=1$  and  $c=6$ ,  $5n^3 + n \leq 6n^3$  is true  
hence,  $5n^3 + n$  is  $O(n^3)$



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Slide 241

241

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## 14.3 Example

- Four algorithms (A, B, C, and D) perform the same task but possess different complexities
- The fundamental operation requires 0.000001s

Algorithm	$n=1$	$n=50$	$n=100$	$n=1000$	$n=10000$
$W_A(n) O(n)$					
$W_B(n) O(\log_2 n)$				1	
$W_C(n) O(n^2)$				1	
$W_D(n) O(2^n)$					



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Slide 242

242

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## 15. Sets and Bags

- 15.1 Operations
- 15.2 UML Diagram
- 15.3 Implementation
- 15.4 Sample Harness
- 15.5 Bags



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243

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## 15.1 Set Operations

- A **set** is an unordered collection of zero or more elements in which no element occurs more than once
- A **bag** is an unordered collection of zero or more elements in which elements may occur more than once
- The empty set/bag is written  $\{\}$  or sometimes  $\emptyset$



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Slide 244

244

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## Set Operations (continued)

- **elementOf** ( $\in$ ) — check whether a value is in a set, e.g.  $5 \in \{3,1,5,2\}$  is true and  $7 \in \{3,1,5,2\}$  is false
- **cardinality** ( $||$ ) — calculate the number of elements in a set, e.g.  $|\{\}| = 0$  and  $|\{3,1,5,2\}| = 4$



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Slide 245

245

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## Set Operations (continued)

- **union** ( $\cup$ ) — the union of two sets A and B is the set of elements in A or B, e.g.  $\{3,1,5,2\} \cup \{5,6,1,3\} = \{2,5,1,6,3\}$
- **intersection** ( $\cap$ ) — the intersection of two sets A and B is the set of elements in both A and B, e.g.  $\{3,1,5,2\} \cap \{5,6,1,3\} = \{1,5,3\}$



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Slide 246

246

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## Set Operations (continued)

- **difference** ( $\setminus$  or  $-$ ) — the difference of a set A from a set B is the set of all elements in A that are not in B, e.g.  $\{3,1,5,2\} \setminus \{5,6,1,3\} = \{2\}$



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Slide 247

247

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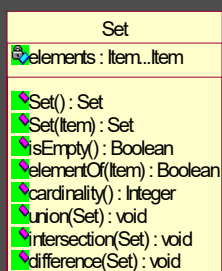
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## 15.2 The Set UML Diagram



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Slide 248

248

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## 15.3 Set Implementations

- There are many alternatives including:
  - a linked list of (void \*) values
    - exercise!
  - an array of (void \*) values (the total number of potential elements must be known)
    - exercise!



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Slide 249

249

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## Set Implementations (continued)

### • and

- an array of `bool` where each set element has a corresponding array element that indicates whether the set element is in the array (`true`) or not (`false`) (the total number of potential elements must be known)
  - following...
  - Consider the set of possible colours {RED, BLUE, YELLOW, PURPLE, GREEN, ORANGE}



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Slide 250

250

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## Example

```
typedef enum {RED=0, BLUE=1, YELLOW=2,
             PURPLE=3, GREEN=4, ORANGE=5}
             colours;
```

```
bool elements[];
```

	RED	BLUE	YELLOW	PURPLE	GREEN	ORANGE
elements	false	true	true	false	false	false



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Slide 251

251

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## Set ADT Header File

```
struct set_int;
typedef struct set_int *set;

void init_set(set *sp, int n, bool x,
              int e);
bool isEmpty(set s);
void setUnion(set s1, set s2);
void intersection(set s1, set s2);
void difference(set s1, set s2);
bool elementOf(set s, int e);
int cardinality(set s);
```

252

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## 15.4 Set Implementation



set.h



set.c



set\_harness.c



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Slide 253

253

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## 15.5 Bags

- Bags have similar operations to sets
- Bag operations use addition/subtraction rather than checking/defining the presence of elements
- An additional operation is required:
  - `count(Item) : int` — this determines the number of times a particular element is present in a bag



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Slide 254

254

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## Exercise

- Modify the implementation of the Set ADT to provide a definition and implementation of the Bag



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Slide 255

255

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## 16. Bitwise Operations

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### 16.1 Operators

### 16.2 Example

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## 16.1 Operators

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- $\&$  — bit-wise *and*
- $|$  — bit-wise *or*
- $\wedge$  — bit-wise *exclusive or (xor)*
- $\sim$  — bit-wise *complement (twiddle)*
- $\ll$  — left shift
- $\gg$  — right shift

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257

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## Bit-wise and

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- $x \& y$  sets the bits whenever the same bits are set in each of  $x$  and  $y$

2 & 6 is 2  
4 & 9 is 0

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258

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## Bit-wise or

- $x \mid y$  sets the bits whenever the same bits are set in either or both of  $x$  and  $y$

2 | 6 is 6  
4 | 9 is 13



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259

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## Bit-wise xor

- $x \wedge y$  sets the bits whenever the same bits are set in either (*but not both*) of  $x$  and  $y$

2 ^ 6 is 4  
4 ^ 9 is 13



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## Bit-wise complement

- $\sim x$  swaps all the bits in  $x$  so that all 0s become 1s and vice-versa



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## Left shift

- $x \ll y$  shifts all the bits in  $x$  to the left by  $y$  bits, i.e. multiply by  $2^y$

2  $\ll$  6 is 128, i.e.  $2 * 64$

9  $\ll$  1 is 18, i.e.  $9 * 2$



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262

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## Right shift

- $x \gg y$  shifts all the bits in  $x$  to the right by  $y$  bits, i.e. divide by  $2^y$

135  $\gg$  3 is 16, i.e.  $135 / 8$

9  $\gg$  1 is 4, i.e.  $9 / 2$



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263

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## 16.2 Example

- Revisit the set to provide a more space-efficient implementation



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Example

```
typedef enum {RED=1, BLUE=2, YELLOW=4,
             PURPLE=8, GREEN=16, ORANGE=32}
             colours;

char* elements;
```

Only 8 bits (1 byte!)

	RED	BLUE	YELLOW	PURPLE	GREEN	ORANGE		
elements	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	

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265

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Set ADT Header File

```
struct set_int;
typedef struct set_int *set;

void init_set(set *s,bool x,int e);
bool isEmpty(set s);
void setUnion(set s1,set s2);
void intersection(set s1,set s2);
void difference(set s1,set s2);
bool elementOf(set s,int e);
int cardinality(set s);
```

266

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Implementation

set.h

set.c

set\_harness.c

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Slide 100001011

267

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## Problem

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```
typedef enum {RED=1, BLUE=2, YELLOW=4,
             PURPLE=8, GREEN=16, ORANGE=32}
             colours;
```

- The numbers for the values give away the implementation
- The data structure shouldn't be apparent in the ADT

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268

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## Example

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```
typedef enum {RED, BLUE, YELLOW,
             PURPLE, GREEN, ORANGE}
             colours;
```

char elements;

	RED	BLUE	YELLOW	PURPLE	GREEN	ORANGE
elements	0	0	0	0	0	0

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269

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## Implementation

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set.h

  
set.c

  
set\_harness.c

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270

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## 17. A Java Priority Queue

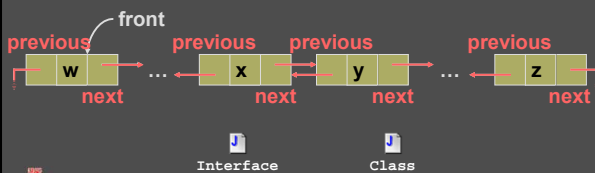
- 17.1 Linked Lists
- 17.2 Genericity
- 17.3 Cloning
- 17.4 Constructive Implementations
- 17.5 Generics
- 17.6 Inheritance
- 17.7 Comparisons and Helper Functions

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271








## 17.1 Linked Lists

- A dnode is a triple of prev, data, and next
- prev refers to the preceding node just as next refers to the succeeding node



272

- The `Object` class represents any item
- Example: Queue ADT

Queue	
	first : Item
	rest : Queue
	Queue() : Queue
	isEmpty() : Boolean
	add(Item) : void
	front() : Item
	remove() : void

Interface      Class      Driver

273

## 17.3 Cloning

```
Queue p,q;  
String s = "cat";  
  
p = new Queue();  
p.add(s);  
q = p.clone();
```

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274

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## Cloning (continued)

- Convention is to write a method called `clone()`
- To advertise that this exists, we implement the `Cloneable` interface

 Interface    Class

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Slide 275

275

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## 17.4 Constructive Implementations

```
public interface QueueInterface  
{  
    //public Queue();  
    //public Queue(Object o);  
    public boolean isEmpty();  
    public Object front() throws  
        EmptyQueueException;  
    public Queue add(Object o);  
    public Queue remove() throws  
        EmptyQueueException;  
}
```

 Class

Slide 276

276

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## 17.5 Generics (‘Templates’)

- Using `Object` brings two problems that we identified earlier:
  - consistency of type content and
  - necessity for type casting
- If we could specify what ‘kind’ of `Objects` we would accept, that would solve the problems — we can use ‘templates’



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Slide 277

277

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## Generics (continued)

- *Generics* are a kind of combination between:
  - giving the class definition a ‘type parameter’ and
  - using a pre-processor to ‘re-write’ the program substituting the type parameter for `Object`



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Slide 278

278

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## Generics (continued)

```
public interface QueueInterface<T>
{
    //public Queue();
    //public Queue(T o);
    public boolean isEmpty();
    public T front() throws
        EmptyQueueException;
    public Queue<T> add(T o);
    public Queue<T> remove() throws
        EmptyQueueException;
}
```

Type parameter



Class

Slide 279

279

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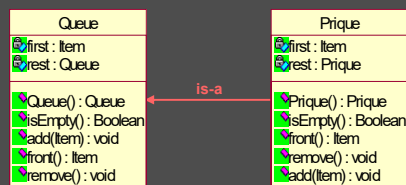
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## 17.6 Inheritance

- A priority queue is a queue with special behaviour for `add()`



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Slide 280

280

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## Inheritance (continued)

```

public class Prique<T> extends Queue<T>
    implements PriqueInterface<T>, Cloneable
{
    public Prique<T> add(T o)
    {
        ...
    }
}
    
```

- Everything else is inherited!

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Slide 281

281

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## Comparing Apples and Oranges

- `add()` needs a comparison method so that arbitrary types of values can be compared
- We can use type polymorphism to help by restricting the kinds of values we want to just those which are known to be comparable

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Slide 282

282

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## Comparable Interface

- Like Cloneable, there exists an interface called Comparable which can be implemented to indicate values are able to be compared
- The interface specifies only one method: compareTo( )
- We need to restrict our implementation to only accept Comparable types



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Slide 283

283

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## Comparable Interface (continued)

```
public class Prique <T extends Comparable<T>>
    extends Queue<T>
    implements PriqueInterface<T>, Cloneable
{
    ...
}
```



Interface



Class



Driver



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Slide 284

284

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