

DVA104

Data Structures, Algorithms, and Program Design.

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- Repetition
 - Memory
 - Functions
 - Pointers
- Recursion (functions that call themselves)
- Double pointers (pointers to pointers)

- Function calls
 - **Actual Parameters** are the variables passed from the calling function.
 - **Formal Parameters** are the variables written in the function declaration:
 - they belong to the function and are created upon entry into the function and destroyed upon exit;
 - they are initialized with the value passed by the actual parameters. Hence, any update made to the formal parameter does not affect the actual one.
- Pointers as parameters
 - Allows you to change the value pointed (not the pointer by itself) by the argument passed from the calling function.

Parameters (or arguments) in practice:

```
void foo(int a) {  
    printf("%d", a+1);  
}  
  
int main(void) {  
    int x = 10;  
    foo(x);  
    return 0;  
}
```

In the above example, `x` is the actual parameter, while `a` is the formal parameter.

Note that the formal and actual parameters can have the same name (e.g., the formal parameter is called `x` as well). Even in this case, they are different variables (i.e., they are stored in different locations in memory).

In general, **stacks** are arrays managed with a LIFO (Last In, First Out) policy which means that a new item is added at the end of the array as well as the extraction of an item.

In a program many functions coexist at the same time, but (for the moment) we assume that only one at a time is active and running.

The **Call Stack** is used to keep track of the active function, its variables, and where it returns the control when it ends.

- The active function is the one on the top of the stack.
- A function call corresponds to allocate (on the top of the stack) the memory for storing (at least) the variables declared inside the function.
- When a function ends (e.g., return a value), the memory allocated by the function call is removed from the stack.

```
int h(void) {  
    return 0;  
}  
int g(void) {  
    return 1+h();  
}  
int f(void) {  
    return 1+g();  
}  
int main(void) {  
    int x = 1+f();  
    return 0;  
}
```

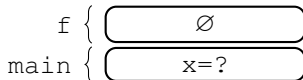
Call Stack:

main { x=? }

The first function to be called is always `main`

```
int h(void) {  
    return 0;  
}  
int g(void) {  
    return 1+h();  
}  
int f(void) {  
    return 1+g();  
}  
int main(void) {  
    int x = 1+f();  
    return 0;  
}
```

Call Stack:

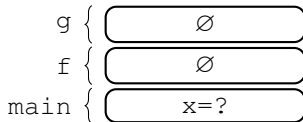


...Then `main` calls `f()`

Repetition (continued)

```
int h(void) {  
    return 0;  
}  
int g(void) {  
    return 1+h();  
}  
int f(void) {  
    return 1+g();  
}  
int main(void) {  
    int x = 1+f();  
    return 0;  
}
```

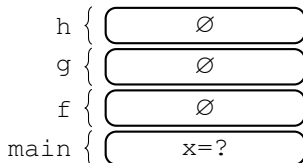
Call Stack:



...Then f calls g()


```
int h(void) {  
    return 0;  
}  
int g(void) {  
    return 1+h();  
}  
int f(void) {  
    return 1+g();  
}  
int main(void) {  
    int x = 1+f();  
    return 0;  
}
```

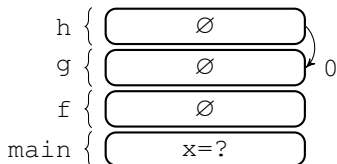
Call Stack:



... Finally g calls h ()

```
int h(void) {  
    return 0;  
}  
int g(void) {  
    return 1+h();  
}  
int f(void) {  
    return 1+g();  
}  
int main(void) {  
    int x = 1+f();  
    return 0;  
}
```

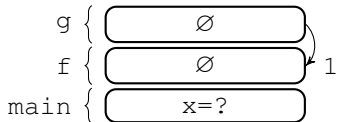
Call Stack:



...Then *h* returns 0 to the calling function *g*

```
int h(void) {  
    return 0;  
}  
int g(void) {  
    return 1+h();  
}  
int f(void) {  
    return 1+g();  
}  
int main(void) {  
    int x = 1+f();  
    return 0;  
}
```

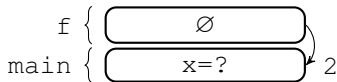
Call Stack:



...Then g returns $1+0=1$ to f

```
int h(void) {  
    return 0;  
}  
int g(void) {  
    return 1+h();  
}  
int f(void) {  
    return 1+g();  
}  
int main(void) {  
    int x = 1+f();  
    return 0;  
}
```

Call Stack:



...Then `f` returns $1+1=2$ to `main`

```
int h(void) {  
    return 0;  
}  
int g(void) {  
    return 1+h();  
}  
int f(void) {  
    return 1+g();  
}  
int main(void) {  
    int x = 1+f();  
    return 0;  
}
```

Call Stack:

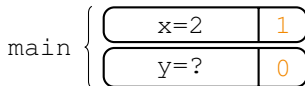
main { x=3

... Finally `main` gets the control again and $x=1+2=3$.

Parameters, Local variables and Stack: an example.

```
int foo(int a) {  
    int b = 0;  
    b = 3+a;  
    a = 10;  
    return b;  
}  
  
int main(void) {  
    int x = 2;  
    int y = foo(x);  
    return 0;  
}
```

Call Stack:



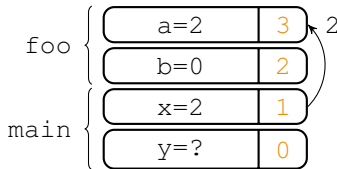
When a function is called (even `main`) its all variables are pushed into the stack!

Note: numbers between brackets denote a position in the stack but, in real, they are memory addresses.

Parameters, Local variables and Stack: an example.

```
int foo(int a) {  
    int b = 0;  
    b = 3+a;  
    a = 10;  
    return b;  
}  
  
int main(void) {  
    int x = 2;  
    int y = foo(x);  
    return 0;  
}
```

Call Stack:

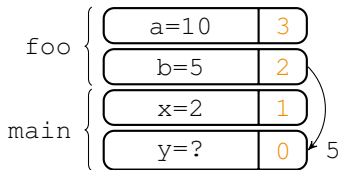


foo is called and a gets the value of x!

Parameters, Local variables and Stack: an example.

```
int foo(int a) {  
    int b = 0;  
    b = 3+a;  
    a = 10;  
    return b;  
}  
  
int main(void) {  
    int x = 2;  
    int y = foo(x);  
    return 0;  
}
```

Call Stack:

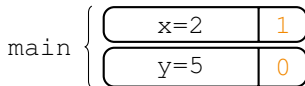


foo ends, a and b are changed and b is returned to main.

Parameters, Local variables and Stack: an example.

```
int foo(int a) {  
    int b = 0;  
    b = 3+a;  
    a = 10;  
    return b;  
}  
  
int main(void) {  
    int x = 2;  
    int y = foo(x);  
    return 0;  
}
```

Call Stack:

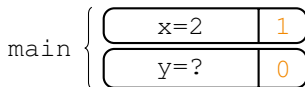


`foo` has been removed from the stack and `y` gets 5.

Pointer Parameters, Local variables and Stack: an example.

```
int foo(int * a) {  
    int b = 0;  
    b = 3 + *a;  
    *a = 10;  
    return b;  
}  
  
int main(void) {  
    int x = 2;  
    int y = foo(&x);  
    return 0;  
}
```

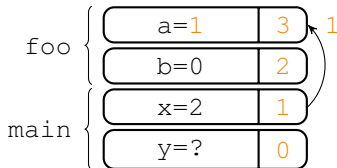
Call Stack:



Pointer Parameters, Local variables and Stack: an example.

```
int foo(int * a) {  
    int b = 0;  
    b = 3 + *a;  
    *a = 10;  
    return b;  
}  
  
int main(void) {  
    int x = 2;  
    int y = foo(&x);  
    return 0;  
}
```

Call Stack:

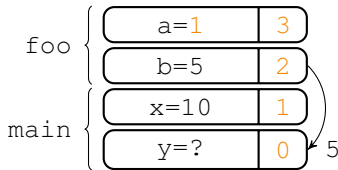


Here the parameter `a` is a pointer and it gets `&x` which is the position of `x` in the stack (i.e., its memory address).

Pointer Parameters, Local variables and Stack: an example.

```
int foo(int * a) {  
    int b = 0;  
    b = 3 + *a;  
    *a = 10;  
    return b;  
}  
  
int main(void) {  
    int x = 2;  
    int y = foo(&x);  
    return 0;  
}
```

Call Stack:

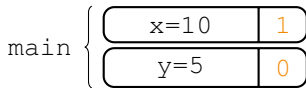


Since `a` points to `x`, to update `*a` (i.e., the value pointed by `a`) means to update `x`, while the value of `a` does **not** change.

Pointer Parameters, Local variables and Stack: an example.

```
int foo(int * a) {  
    int b = 0;  
    b = 3 + *a;  
    *a = 10;  
    return b;  
}  
  
int main(void) {  
    int x = 2;  
    int y = foo(&x);  
    return 0;  
}
```

Call Stack:



When `foo` returns, `foo` and its variables are removed from the stack and the control returns to `main` with `x` changed.

A **recursive function** is a function which calls itself in the definition.

Each recursive function must have at least one **base case**, as well as the **recursive case**:

- Base case: the case for which the solution can be stated non-recursively.
- Recursive case: the case for which the solution is expressed in terms of a smaller version of itself.

Note that it can happen that a chain of function-calls returns to the method that originated the chain, in this case we have **indirect recursion**.

Recursive functions are important because they allow to define easily and in a more elegant way algorithms (e.g., sorting functions) and data-structures (e.g., linked lists and trees).

The factorial function can be defined as:

$$n! = \begin{cases} \prod_{i=1}^n i & \text{if } n > 1, \\ 1 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

... Which is equivalent to:

$$n! = \begin{cases} n \cdot (n-1)! & \text{if } n > 1, \\ 1 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

For example $5! = 5 \cdot 4 \cdot 3 \cdot \underbrace{2 \cdot 1}_{2!} = 120$

$$\underbrace{\underbrace{3 \cdot 2 \cdot 1}_{3!}}_{4!}$$

How can we implement these two definitions?

Iterative implementation:

```
int f(int n) {  
    int result = 1;  
    while(n>1) {  
        result = result*n;  
        n = n-1;  
    }  
    return result;  
}
```

Recursive implementation:

```
int f(int n) {  
    if(n>1)  
        return n*f(n-1); //recursive case  
    else  
        return 1; //base case  
}
```


Recursion and Stack: an example.

```
int f(int n) {  
    if(n>1)  
        return n*f(n-1);  
    else  
        return 1;  
}  
  
int main(void) {  
    int x = f(3);  
    return 0;  
}
```

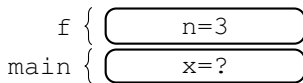
Call Stack:

main { x=?

Recursion and Stack: an example.

```
int f(int n) {  
    if(n>1)  
        return n*f(n-1);  
    else  
        return 1;  
}  
  
int main(void) {  
    int x = f(3);  
    return 0;  
}
```

Call Stack:

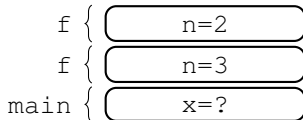


Until the formal parameter is greater than 1, the recursive case of `f` is chosen and, every time, the program pushes on the stack a new instance of `f` by passing a value of `n` decreased.

Recursion and Stack: an example.

```
int f(int n) {  
    if(n>1)  
        return n*f(n-1);  
    else  
        return 1;  
}  
  
int main(void) {  
    int x = f(3);  
    return 0;  
}
```

Call Stack:

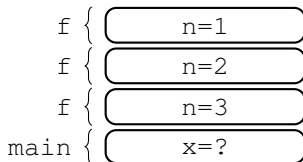


Until the formal parameter is greater than 1, the recursive case of `f` is chosen and, every time, the program pushes on the stack a new instance of `f` by passing a value of `n` decreased.

Recursion and Stack: an example.

```
int f(int n) {  
    if(n>1)  
        return n*f(n-1);  
    else  
        return 1;  
}  
  
int main(void) {  
    int x = f(3);  
    return 0;  
}
```

Call Stack:

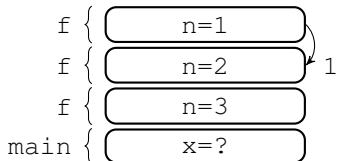


Until the formal parameter is greater than 1, the recursive case of `f` is chosen and, every time, the program pushes on the stack a new instance of `f` by passing a value of `n` decreased.

Recursion and Stack: an example.

```
int f(int n) {  
    if(n>1)  
        return n*f(n-1);  
    else  
        return 1;  
}  
  
int main(void) {  
    int x = f(3);  
    return 0;  
}
```

Call Stack:

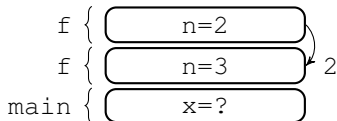


When the formal parameter equals 1, the base case of `f` is chosen and 1 is returned to the previous instance of `f` in the stack.

Recursion and Stack: an example.

```
int f(int n) {  
    if(n>1)  
        return n*f(n-1);  
    else  
        return 1;  
}  
  
int main(void) {  
    int x = f(3);  
    return 0;  
}
```

Call Stack:

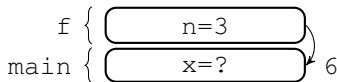


One by one, the instances of `f`, that followed the general case, restart and return their value of `n` (which has never changed) multiplied by the value returned by `f` that they called.

Recursion and Stack: an example.

```
int f(int n) {  
    if(n>1)  
        return n*f(n-1);  
    else  
        return 1;  
}  
  
int main(void) {  
    int x = f(3);  
    return 0;  
}
```

Call Stack:



Recursion and Stack: an example.

```
int f(int n) {  
    if(n>1)  
        return n*f(n-1);  
    else  
        return 1;  
}  
  
int main(void) {  
    int x = f(3);  
    return 0;  
}
```

Call Stack:

main { x=6

- Iterations (or Loops)
 - have at least one termination (e.g., `while(...)`),
 - something has to change in each turn so that the condition is reached (e.g., `n = n-1`).
- Recursion
 - has at least one base case (e.g., `if(...) return 0;`),
 - the argument must change in each recursive call so that the base case occurs (e.g., `f(n-1)`).

Loops and recursion are computationally equivalent, that is everything can be done with a loop can be also done with recursion and vice-versa. However, it may be some differences in practice/effectiveness.

Consider the following function:

```
int f(int i, int x) {  
    if(i>0 && x<=15)  
        return 2+f(i-1, x*2);  
    else  
        return i;  
}
```

What is the result from the call $f(2, 5)$ and $f(5, 1)$?

- Stack (repetita iuvant)
 - When a function is called, a block is reserved on the top of the stack for local variables (and something more). When the function returns, the block becomes unused and, then, it's freed.
 - Memory blocks is reserved in a LIFO order: the most recently reserved block is always the next block to be freed.
 - It is "automagically" managed by the system.
- **Heap**
 - It is for dynamic allocation.
 - Unlike the stack, there's no specific pattern for the allocation of blocks.
 - It is managed by the programmer: `malloc()`, `calloc()`, `realloc()`, `free()`, ...
 - Memory is byte addressed. Each variable type has a specific size which can be get by means of the function `sizeof()`.

Consider the following program:

```
void foo(int *A, int n) {  
    int i = 0;  
    int s = sizeof(int);  
    A = (int*)malloc(n*s);  
    while(i<n)  
        A[i++] = 10;  
}  
  
int main(void) {  
    int *x = NULL;  
    foo(x,3);  
    printf("%d", x[0]);  
}
```

What does it print?

```
void foo(int *A, int n) {  
    int i = 0;  
    int s = sizeof(int);  
    A = (int*)malloc(n*s);  
    while(i<n)  
        A[i++] = 10;  
}
```

```
int main(void) {  
    int *x = NULL;  
    foo(x,3);  
    printf("%d", x[0]);  
}
```

Call Stack:

main { x=NULL

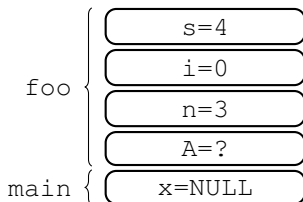
Heap:

Ø

The computation starts from the `main` function...

```
void foo(int *A, int n) {  
    int i = 0;  
    int s = sizeof(int);  
    A = (int*)malloc(n*s);  
    while(i<n)  
        A[i++] = 10;  
}  
  
int main(void) {  
    int *x = NULL;  
    foo(x, 3);  
    printf("%d", x[0]);  
}
```

Call Stack:



Heap:

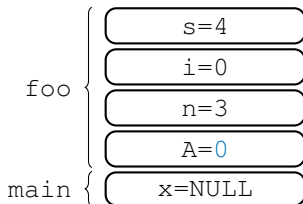
Ø

...The main function calls `foo`. Here `s` equals 4 since we need 4 bytes to store an `int`...

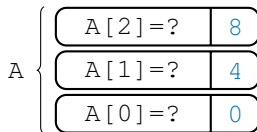
```
void foo(int *A, int n) {  
    int i = 0;  
    int s = sizeof(int);  
    A = (int*)malloc(n*s);  
    while(i<n)  
        A[i++] = 10;  
}
```

```
int main(void) {  
    int *x = NULL;  
    foo(x, 3);  
    printf("%d", x[0]);  
}
```

Call Stack:



Heap:

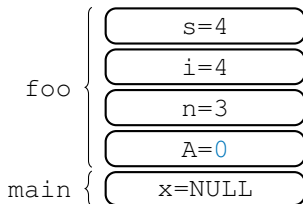


...The `malloc` function allocates 12 bytes in the heap...

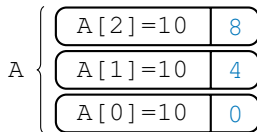
```
void foo(int *A, int n) {  
    int i = 0;  
    int s = sizeof(int);  
    A = (int*)malloc(n*s);  
    while(i<n)  
        A[i++] = 10;  
}
```

```
int main(void) {  
    int *x = NULL;  
    foo(x, 3);  
    printf("%d", x[0]);  
}
```

Call Stack:



Heap:



...Then the array A is initialized...


```
void foo(int *A, int n) {  
    int i = 0;  
    int s = sizeof(int);  
    A = (int*)malloc(n*s);  
    while(i<n)  
        A[i++] = 10;  
}  
  
int main(void) {  
    int *x = NULL;  
    foo(x, 3);  
    printf("%d", x[0]);  
}
```

Call Stack:

main { x=NULL

Heap:

A {	A[2]=10	8
	A[1]=10	4
	A[0]=10	0

...The function `foo` ends and is removed from the stack: `A` is still alive in the heap, but `x` is still `NULL`. When `main` accesses `x[0]`, we get a Segmentation fault error!

```
int* foo(int n) {  
    int i = 0;  
    int s = sizeof(int);  
    int *A = (int*)malloc(n*s);  
    while(i<n)  
        A[i++] = 10;  
    return A;  
}  
  
int main(void) {  
    int *x = NULL;  
    x = foo(3);  
    printf("%d", x[0]);  
}
```

Pointers are variables, like `int`, so that they are stored somewhere in memory. As a consequence, we can handle their memory address as we usually do with `int`:

```
int main(void) {  
    int x = 5;  
    int * px = &x;  
    int ** ppx = &px;  
    //we could continue with triple pointers and so on  
}
```

ppx=1	2
px=0	1
x=5	0

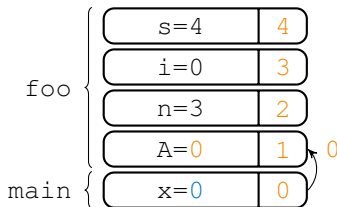
```
void foo(int **A, int n) {
    int i = 0;
    int s = sizeof(int);
    *A = (int*)malloc(n*s);
    while(i<n)
        (*A)[i++] = 10;
}

int main(void) {
    int *x = NULL;
    foo(&x, 3);
    printf("%d", x[0]);
}
```

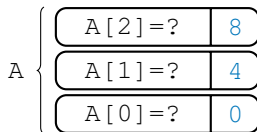
```
void foo(int **A, int n) {  
    int i = 0;  
    int s = sizeof(int);  
    *A = (int*)malloc(n*s);  
    while(i<n)  
        (*A)[i++] = 10;  
}
```

```
int main(void) {  
    int *x = NULL;  
    foo(&x, 3);  
    printf("%d", x[0]);  
}
```

Call Stack:



Heap:



...The `malloc` function still allocates 12 bytes in the heap, but this time the target variable is `x` (which is denoted by `*A`).

Do we forget something?

Do we forget something? Yes, we didn't dispose the memory!

Heap management is your responsibility. Heap is not boundless:
if you don't `free` the next `malloc` could fail!

```
int main(void) {  
    int *x = NULL;  
    foo(&x, 3);  
    printf("%d", x[0]);  
    free(x);  
}
```