

Data Structures, Dynamic Memory allocation & the Heap

(Chapter 19)

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Recap

- Memory layout...Run-time stack
- Implementing function calls
 - Activation record for each function
 - Push record onto stack when function called
 - Pop record from stack when function returns
 - Supports recursion
- Arrays
 - Consecutive locations in memory...
 - Define higher dim arrays
- Pointers
 - Link between arrays and pointers

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Structures

- Programs are solving a 'real world' problem
 - Entities in the real world are real 'objects' that need to be represented using some data structure
 - With specific attributes
 - Objects may be a collection of basic data types
 - In C we call this a structure

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Example..Structures in C

- represent all information pertaining to a student

```
char GWID[9],char lname[16],char fname[16],float gpa;
```

- We can use a **struct** to group these data together for each student, and use typedef to give this type a name called student

```
struct student_data {  
    char GWID[9];  
    char lname[16];  
    char fname[16];  
    float gpa  
};  
  
typedef struct student_data {  
    char GWID[9];  
    char lname[16];  
    char fname[16];  
    float gpa  
} student;  
  
student seniors; // seniors is  
                  var of type student
```

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Arrays and Pointers to Struct

- We can declare an array of structs

```
student enroll[100];
Enroll[25].GWID='G88881234';
```

- We can declare and create a pointer to a struct:

```
student *stPtr; //declare pointer to student type
stPtr = &enroll[34]; //points to enroll[34]
```

- To access a member of the struct addressed by Ptr:

```
(*stPtr).lname = 'smith'; //dereference ptr and
                           access field in struct
```

- Or using special syntax for accessing a struct field through a pointer:

- stPtr-> lname = 'smith';

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Passing Structs as Arguments

- Unlike an array, a struct is always passed by value into a function.

- This means the struct members are copied to the function's activation record, and changes inside the function are not reflected in the calling routine's copy.

- Most of the time, you'll want to pass a **pointer** to a struct.

```
int similar(student *studentA, student *studentB)
{
    if (studentA->lname == studentB->lname) {
        ...
    }
    else
        return 0;
}
```

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Dynamic Allocation

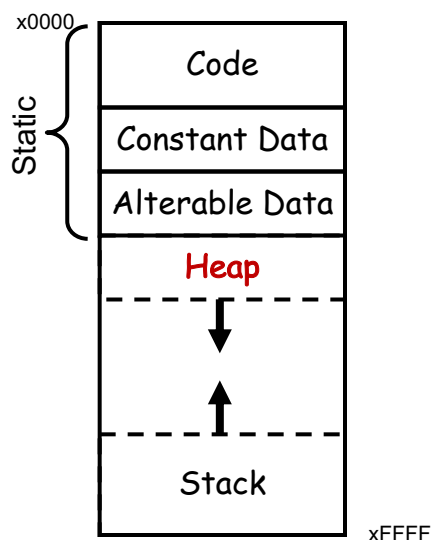
- Suppose we want our program to handle a variable number of students – as many as the user wants to enter.
 - We can't allocate an array, because we don't know the maximum number of students that might be required.
 - Even if we do know the maximum number, it might be wasteful to allocate that much memory because most of the time only a few students' worth of data is needed.
- **Solution:**
Allocate storage for data dynamically, as needed.

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Recall: Memory Layout

- Global data grows towards xFFFF
 - Global ptr R4
- Stack grows towards zero
 - Top of stack R6
 - Frame pointer R5
 - ALL local vars allocated on stack with address R5 + offset (-ve)
- Heap grows towards xFFFF
- We've used Stack and static area so far – where does Heap come in ?



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Memory allocation review: Static Memory Allocation

- In this context “static” means “at compile time”
 - I.e., compiler has information to make final, hard-coded decisions
- Static memory allocation
 - Compiler knows all variables and how big each one is
 - Can allocate space to them and generate code accordingly
 - Ex, global array: compiler knows to allocate 100 slots to `my_static_array[100]`
 - Address of array is known statically, access with `LEA`

```
#define MAX_INTS 100
int my_static_array [MAX_INTS];

my_static_array .BLKW #100 ; # 100 words, 16-bits each on LC3
```

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Automatic (variables) Memory Allocation

- Automatic memory allocation
 - Used for stack frames
 - Similar to static allocation in many ways
 - Compiler knows position and size of each variable in stack frame
 - Symbol table generated at compile time
 - Offset values for local variables (negative values for local var)
 - Local variables have address `R5 + offset`
 - Can generate code accordingly
 - Can “allocate” memory in hardcoded chunks
 - Relative to stack pointer (R6) and frame pointer (R5)

```
ADD R6, R6, #-3 ;; allocate space for 3 variables
LDR R0, R5, #-2 ; loads local variable into R0
```

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What Is Dynamic Memory Allocation?

- “Dynamic” means “at run-time”
 - Compiler doesn't have enough information to make final decision
- Dynamic memory allocation
 - Compiler may not know how big a variable is
 - Most common example...how many elements in an array
 - Compiler may not even know that some variables exist
 - ?
- How does it figure out what to do then?
 - It doesn't, programmer has to orchestrate this manually

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Dynamic Allocation

- What if size of array is only known at run-time ?
- Dynamic allocation
 - Ask for space at run-time...How?
 - Need run-time support – call system to do this allocation
 - Provide a library call in C for users
- Where do you allocate this space – heap

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Static vs. Dynamic Allocation

- There are two different ways that multidimensional arrays could be implemented in C.
- Static: When you know the size at compile time
 - A Static implementation which is more efficient in terms of space and probably more efficient in terms of time.
- Dynamic: what if you don't know the size at compile time?
 - More flexible in terms of run time definition but more complicated to understand and build
 - Dynamic data structures
- Need to allocate memory at run-time – malloc
 - Once you are done using this, then release this memory – free
- Next: Dynamic Memory Allocation

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Heap API

- How does programmer interface with “heap”?
 - Heap is managed by user-level C runtime library (**libc**)
 - Interface function declarations found in “**stdlib.h**”
 - Two basic functions...
- **void *malloc(size_t size);** /* Ask for memory
 - Gives a pointer to (address of) heap region of size **size**
 - If success, space is contiguous
 - Returns **NULL** if heap can't fulfill request
 - Note: **void *** is “generic pointer” (C for “just an address”)
 - Can pass it around, but not dereference
- **void free(void *ptr);** /* release memory
 - Returns region pointed to by **ptr** back to “heap”

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Using malloc

• To use malloc, we need to know how many bytes to allocate. The **sizeof** operator asks the compiler to calculate the size of a particular type.

- Assume **n** is number of students to enroll
- (student is struct)

• `enroll = malloc(n * sizeof(student));`

• We also need to change the type of the return value to the proper kind of pointer – this is called “**casting**.”

• `enroll =
 (student*) malloc(n* sizeof(student));`

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Example

```
int num_students;  
student *enroll;  
  
printf("How many students are enrolled?");  
scanf("%d", &num_students);  
  
enroll =  
    (student*) malloc(sizeof(student) * num_students);  
if (enroll == NULL) {  
    printf("Error in allocating the data array.\n");  
    ...  
}  
enroll[0].lname = 'smith';
```

If allocation fails,
malloc returns NULL.

Note: Can use array notation
or pointer notation.

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free

- Once the data is no longer needed, it must be released back into the heap for later use.
- This is done using the **free** function, passing it the same address that was returned by malloc.

```
void free(void*);  
free(enroll[0]);
```

- If allocated data is not freed, the program might run out of heap memory and be unable to continue.
 - *Even though it is a local variable, and the values are 'destroyed', the allocator assumes the memory is still in use!*

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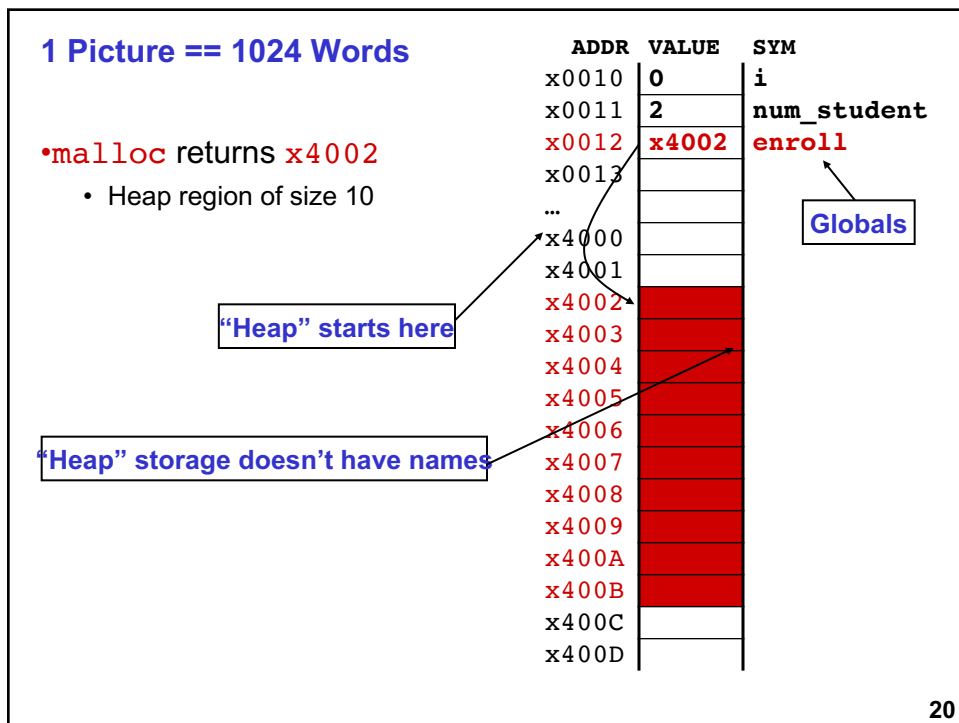
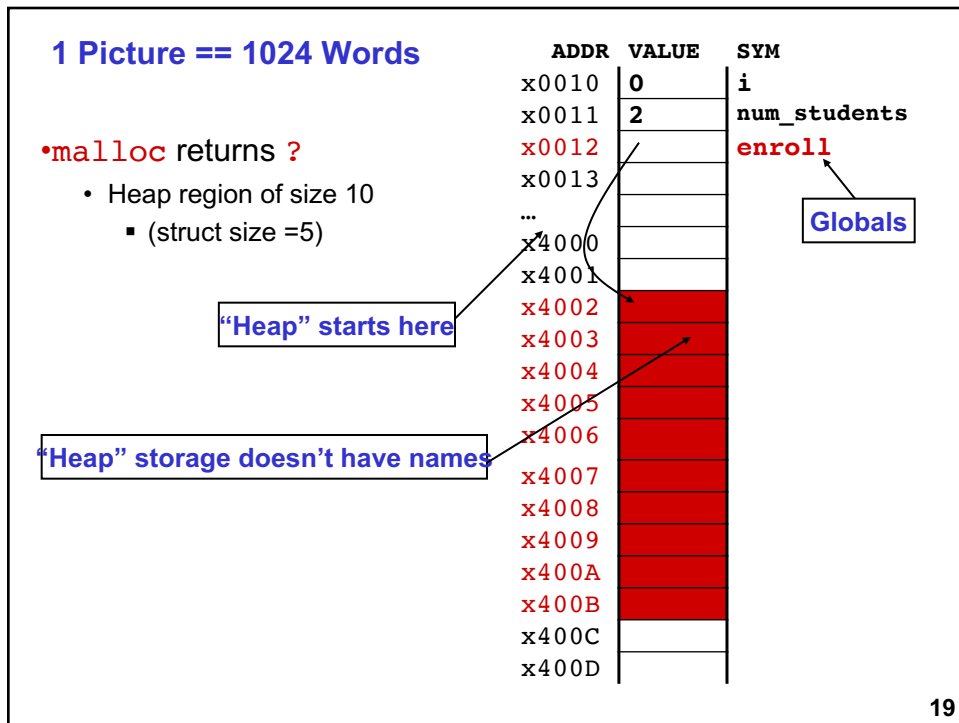
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Heap API Example

```
unsigned int i, num_students;  
struct enroll *student; /* assume student has size 5 */  
  
/* prompt user for number of students */  
printf("enter maximum number of students: ");  
scanf("%u\n", &num_students);  
  
/* allocate student array */  
enroll =  
    malloc(num_students * sizeof(struct student));  
  
/* do something with them */  
  
/* free students array */  
free(enroll);
```

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1 Picture == 1024 Words

• **malloc** returns **x4002**

- Heap region of size 10

• What if enroll was local var ?

“Heap” starts here

“Heap” storage doesn’t have names

ADDR	VALUE	SYM
x0010	0	i
x0011	2	num_bullets
x0012		
x0013		
...		
x4000		
x4001		
x4002		
x4003		
x4004		
x4005		
x4006		
x4007		
x4008		
x4009		
x400A		
x400B		
x400C		
x400D		

Globals

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Malloc & local vars

Heap starts at

x3000

Address	Content	Value
x3000	*x	
x3001	*B: B[0]	
x3002	B[1]	
x3FFE	i	10
x3FFF	B	x3001
x4000	x	x3000

R5

(frame ptr for function test)

```
int test( int a){
    int* x,B;
    int i= 10;
    x = (int*)malloc(1*sizeof(int));
    B= (int*) malloc(2*sizeof(int));
    .....
    free(x);
    return i;
}
```

x, B are local vars of type pointer
in Function test..
Allocated on stack
but to addresses on Heap

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malloc, free & memory leaks

Address	Content	Value
x3000		
x3001	*B: B[0]	
x3002	B[1]	
x3FFF		
x4000		

- After function test Returns...
 - x was freed
 - B was not
- Stack does not contain Local vars x,B
- Heap still thinks B[0],B[1] are being used
 - ➔ Program no longer has pointers that. can access this space....
memory leak !

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Heap: Managing Malloc

How does it work?

What is a good malloc implementation ?

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Malloc Package

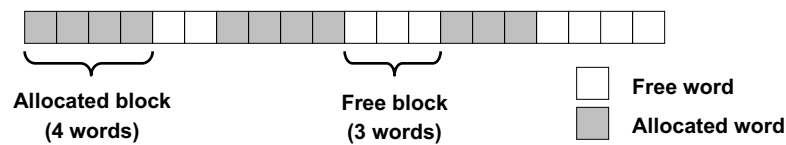
- `#include <stdlib.h>`
- `void *malloc(size_t size)`
 - If successful:
 - Returns a pointer to a memory block of at least `size` bytes, (typically) aligned to 8-byte boundary.
 - If `size == 0`, returns `NULL`
 - If unsuccessful: returns `NULL` (0) and sets `errno`.
- `void free(void *p)`
 - Returns the block pointed at by `p` to pool of available memory
 - `p` must come from a previous call to `malloc` or `realloc`.
- `void *realloc(void *p, size_t size)`
 - Changes size of block `p` and returns pointer to new block.

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Assumptions

- Assumptions
 - Memory is word addressed (each word can hold a pointer)



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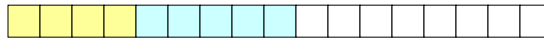
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Allocation Examples

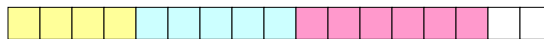
`p1 = malloc(4)`



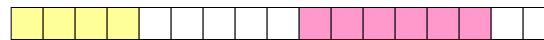
`p2 = malloc(5)`



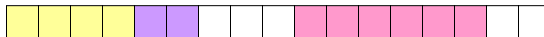
`p3 = malloc(6)`



`free(p2)`



`p4 = malloc(2)`



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Goals of Good malloc/free

•Primary goals

- Good time performance for `malloc` and `free`
 - Ideally should take constant time (not always possible)
 - Should certainly not take linear time in the number of blocks
- Good space utilization
 - User allocated structures should be large fraction of the heap.
 - Want to minimize “fragmentation”.

•Some other goals

- Good locality properties – *motivation for this will be discussed later in course*
 - Structures allocated close in time should be close in space
 - “Similar” objects should be allocated close in space
- Robust
 - Can check that `free(p1)` is on a valid allocated object `p1`
 - Can check that memory references are to allocated space

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Challenges & problems with Dynamic allocation

- What can go wrong ?
- How to fix it ?

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Memory leak

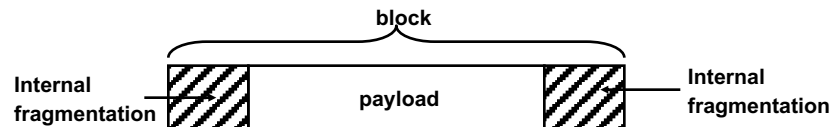
- forgot to free()
 - Allocator assumes the memory is still in use
- Overwrote pointer to block...oops: cannot get to the memory anymore
- Thumb rule:
 - For every malloc there should be an associated free
 - Will this solve all your problems ?

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Internal Fragmentation

- Poor memory utilization caused by *fragmentation*.
 - Comes in two forms: internal and external fragmentation
- Internal fragmentation
 - For some block, internal fragmentation is the difference between the block size and the payload size.



- Caused by overhead of maintaining heap data structures, padding for alignment purposes, or explicit policy decisions (e.g., not to split the block).
- Depends only on the pattern of *previous* requests, and thus is easy to measure.

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External Fragmentation

Occurs when there is enough aggregate heap memory, but no single free block is large enough

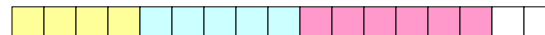
`p1 = malloc(4)`



`p2 = malloc(5)`



`p3 = malloc(6)`



`free(p2)`



`p4 = malloc(6)`

oops! We have 7 free blocks
but not 6 contiguous free blocks.

External fragmentation depends on the pattern of *future* requests, and thus is difficult to measure.

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Implementation issues

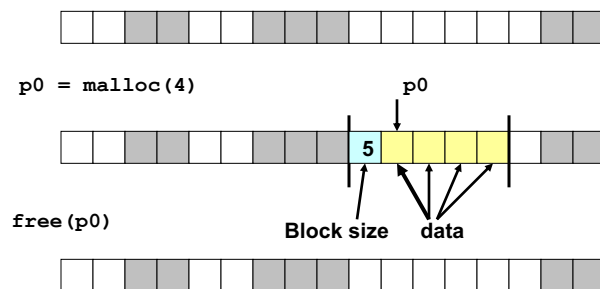
- How to 'collect' all the free blocks
 - How to keep track of them
 - Where to insert free block
 - How to determine amount of free memory ?
- Compaction ?
 - Can alleviate external fragmentation problems

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Knowing How Much to Free

- Standard method
 - Keep the length of a block in the word preceding the block.
 - This word is often called the *header field* or *header*
 - Requires an extra word for every allocated block

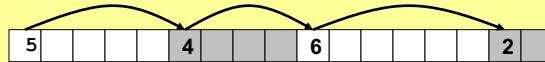


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Keeping Track of Free Blocks

- **Method 1: Implicit list** using lengths -- links all blocks



- **Method 2: Explicit list** among the free blocks using pointers within the free blocks



- **Method 3: Segregated free list**
 - Different free lists for different size classes
 - Ex: one list for size 4, one for size 8, etc.
- **Method 4: Blocks sorted by size**
 - Can use a balanced tree (e.g. Red-Black tree) with pointers within each free block, and the length used as a key

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What to do with sets of free blocks?

- During program run-time, blocks are no longer in use but may not have been freed
 - So need to determine blocks no longer in use
 - Keeping track of free blocks allows us to navigate the memory to determine blocks
 - But when should we 'run' this process?
- But we still have fragmentation problem
- So what do we do...

Garbage Collection !

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Implicit Memory Management: Garbage Collection

- **Garbage collection**: automatic reclamation of heap-allocated storage -- application never has to free

```
void foo() {  
    int *p = malloc(128);  
    return; /* p block is now garbage */  
}
```

Common in functional languages, scripting languages, and modern object oriented languages:

- Lisp, ML, Java, Perl, Mathematica,
- **This is why you never worried about this problem in Java!**

Variants (conservative garbage collectors) exist for C and C++

- Cannot collect all garbage

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Garbage Collection

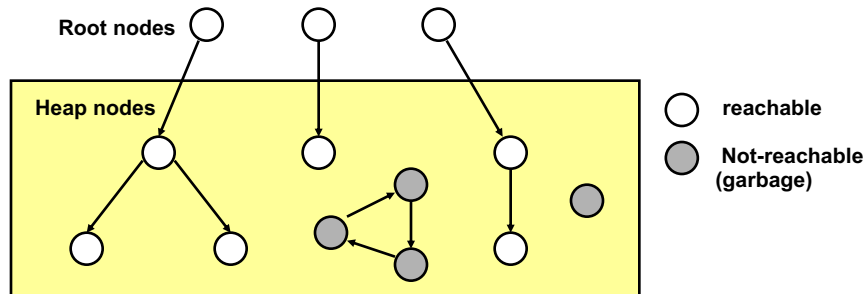
- How does the memory manager know when memory can be freed?
 - In general we cannot know what is going to be used in the future since it depends on conditionals
 - But we can tell that certain blocks cannot be used if there are no pointers to them
- Need to make certain assumptions about pointers
 - Memory manager can distinguish pointers from non-pointers
 - All pointers point to the start of a block
 - Cannot hide pointers (e.g., by coercing them to an `int`, and then back again)
- Garbage collection process runs **during** program execution!

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Garbage Collection: Memory as a Graph

- We view memory as a directed graph
 - Each block is a node in the graph
 - Each pointer is an edge in the graph
 - Locations not in the heap that contain pointers into the heap are called *root* nodes (e.g. registers, locations on the stack, global variables)



A node (block) is *reachable* if there is a path from any root to that node.

Non-reachable nodes are *garbage* (never needed by the application)

And you thought graphs were not useful 😊

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Dynamic Data Structures

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Recap...

- Static vs dynamic allocation
- Dynamic mem allocated on Heap
- Interface to Heap via:
 - Malloc – ask for space, it returns pointer to space
 - Free – return space to allocator when done

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dynamic data structures ...review

- Example 1: Linked List
 - Read example in textbook (or review your code from prior classes)
- Example 2. Dynamic arrays
- Example 3. Hash Tables
 - Project 5 and HW7

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Data Structures

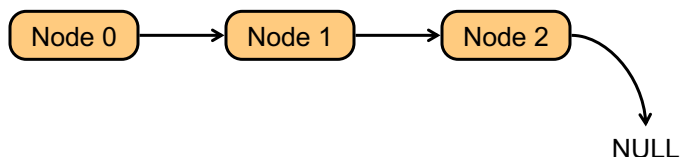
- A **data structure** is a particular organization of data in memory.
 - We want to group related items together.
 - We want to organize these data bundles in a way that is convenient to program and efficient to execute.
- An **array** is one kind of data structure.
- **struct** – directly supported by C
- **linked list** – built from **struct** and **dynamic memory allocation**

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Example 1: The Linked List Data Structure

- A **linked list** is an ordered collection of **nodes**, each of which contains some data, connected using **pointers**.
 - Each node points to the next node in the list.
 - The first node in the list is called the **head**.
 - The last node in the list is called the **tail**.



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student data structure in linked list

- Each student has the following characteristics:
GWID, lname, fname, gpa.
- Because it's a linked list, we also need a pointer to the next node in the list:

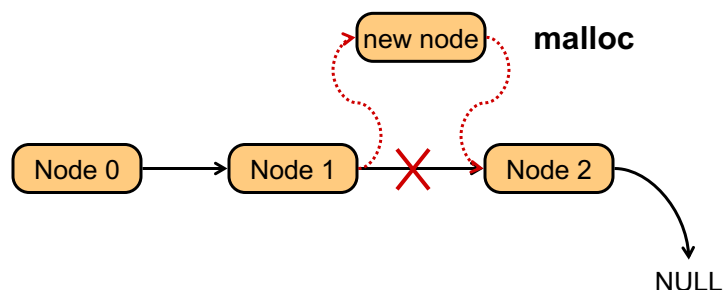
```
•  
struct student {  
    char[9] GWID;  
    char lname[10];  
    char fname[10];  
    float gpa;  
    student *next; /* ptr to next student in list */  
}
```

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Adding a Node

- Create a new node with the proper info.
- Find the node (if any) with a greater GWID.
- “Splice” the new node into the list:

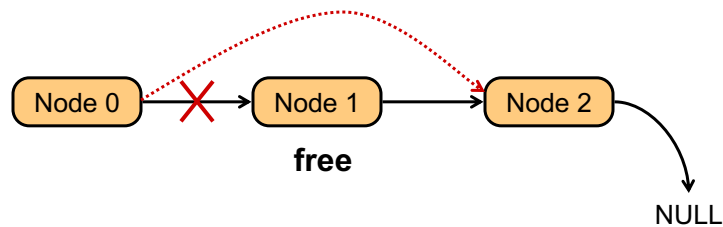


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Deleting a Node

- Find the node that **points to** the desired node.
Redirect that node's pointer to the next node (or NULL).
Free the deleted node's memory.



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Building on Linked Lists

- The linked list is a fundamental data structure.
 - Dynamic
 - Easy to add and delete nodes
 - Doubly linked list – is more efficient in some apps
- The concepts described here are helpful when learning about more elaborate data structures:
 - *Trees, linked lists, array list, ...* – CS1112?
 - [Hash Tables – HW7, project 5](#)

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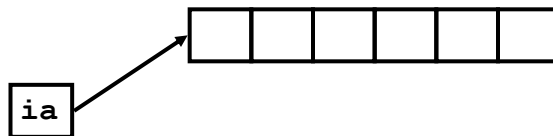
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Example 2: Dynamic Arrays & Multi- dimensional arrays

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Static 1-D Arrays

```
int ia[6];
```



- `ia[4]` means `*(ia + 4)`

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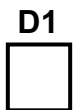
Dynamic arrays

- Don't know size of array until run time
- Example: store an array of student records
 - Do not know number of students until run time
 - Size if specified by user at run-time
- Using static array of max size is a bad idea
 - Wasting space

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Pictorially



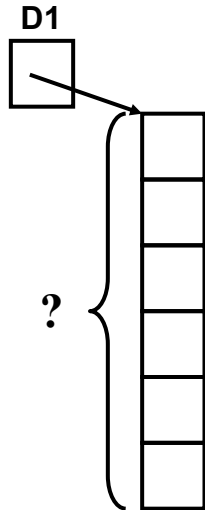
1-D array D1[n] – n determined at run-time

- D1 is an address – points to start of array!
- Type of D1 = pointer to < array type >

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Pictorially



1-D array $D1[n]$ – n determined at run-time

- $D1$ is an address – points to start of array
- Type of $D1$ = pointer to $\langle \text{arraytype} \rangle$

call `malloc()` and ask for space for n blocks
how much: $n * \text{sizeof}(\text{type})$

$D1$ points to the start of these n blocks

After that access $D1$ as you would an array:

$D1[i]$ accesses element i of the array

Once done, need to free $D1$

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1-D Dynamic Array allocation

• Example 1-D dynamic array: `D-array1.c`

• C-code: download and complete the code

Outline:

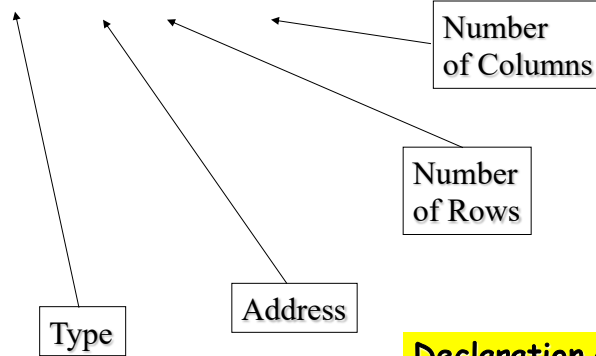
- Prompt user for size of array, call function **`allocarray`** to malloc space for the array, return to main and work on the array
- Declare dynamic array variable – pass this to function
- Call function **`allocarray`**: this function calls `malloc` to allocate space for the array
 - type returned by function: pointer to int
– Pointer to a block of ints....array
 - Arguments to the function: size of array

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Static 2-D array Declaration

```
int ia[3][4];
```



Declaration at compile time
i.e. size must be known

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How does a two dimensional array work?

	0	1	2	3
0				
1				
2				

How would you store it?

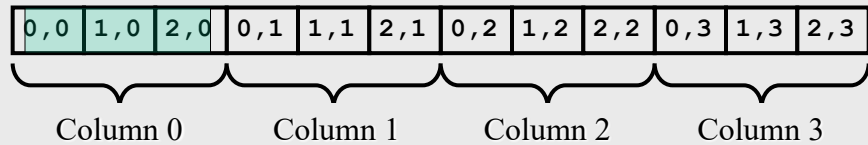
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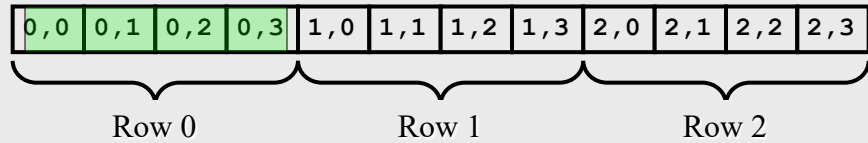
	0	1	2	3
0				
1				
2				

How would you store it?

Column Major Order



Row Major Order



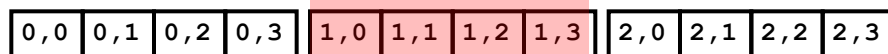
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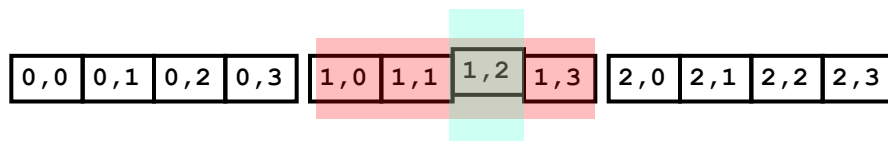
Advantage of row-major

- Using Row Major Order allows visualization as an array of arrays

`ia[1]`



`ia[1][2]`



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How does C store 2-D arrays ?

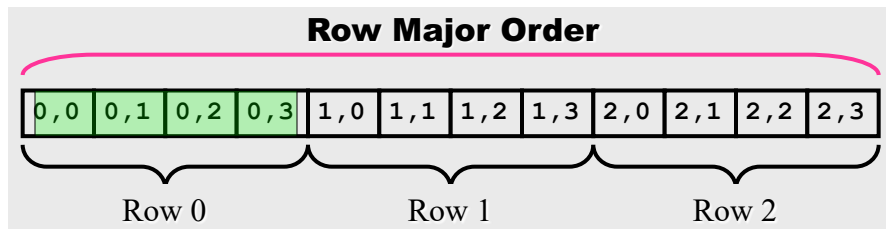
	0	1	2	3
0				
1				
2				

Row major

Pointer arithmetic stays unmodified

Remember this.....

Affects how well your program does when you access memory



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Element Access

- Given a row and a column index
- How to calculate location?
- To skip over required number of rows:
$$\text{row_index} * \text{sizeof}(\text{row})$$
$$\text{row_index} * \text{Number_of_columns} * \text{sizeof}(\text{arr_type})$$
- This plus *address of array* gives address of first element of desired row
- Add $\text{column_index} * \text{sizeof}(\text{arr_type})$ to get actual desired element

0,0	0,1	0,2	0,3	1,0	1,1	1,2	1,3	2,0	2,1	2,2	2,3
-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----

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Element Access

```
Element_Address =  
  
    Array_Address +  
        Row_Index * Num_Columns * Sizeof(Arr_Type) +  
        Column_Index * Sizeof(Arr_Type)  
  
Element_Address =  
  
    Array_Address +  
        (Row_Index * Num_Columns + Column_Index) *  
        Sizeof(Arr_Type)
```

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Recall: pointers and arrays

- **One Dimensional Array**
`int ia[6];`
- **Address of beginning of array:**
`ia == &ia[0]`
- **Two Dimensional Array**
`int ia[3][6];`
- **Address of beginning of array:**
`ia == &ia[0][0]`
- **also**
- **Address of row 0:**
`ia[0] == &ia[0][0]`
- **Address of row 1:**
`ia[1] == &ia[1][0]`
- **Address of row 2:**
`ia[2] == &ia[2][0]`

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Now think about 3-D array

- A 3D array



`int a`

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Now think about

- A 3D array



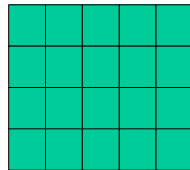
`int a[5]`

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Now think about

- A 3D array



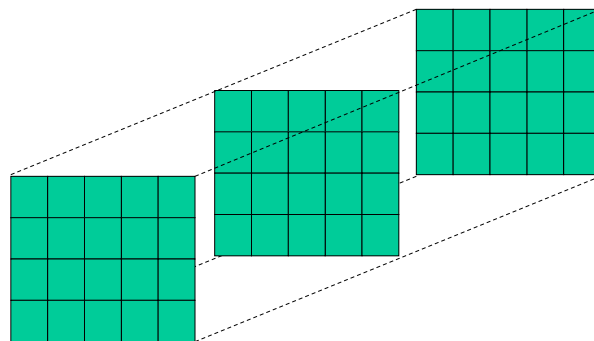
```
int a[4][5]
```

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Now think about

- A 3D array



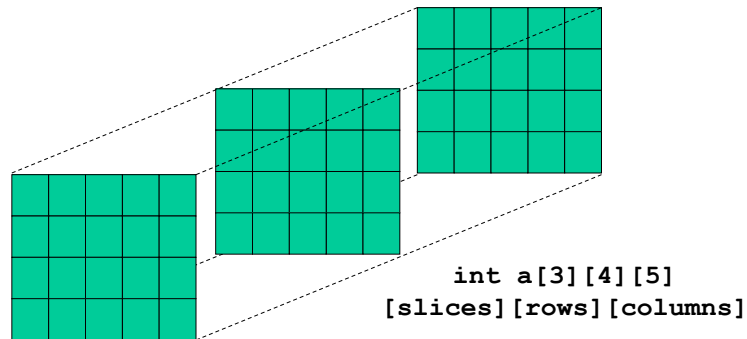
```
int a[3][4][5]
```

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Offset to $a[i][j][k]$?

- A 3D array



`offset = (i * rows * columns) + (j * columns) + k`

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2-D dynamic arrays

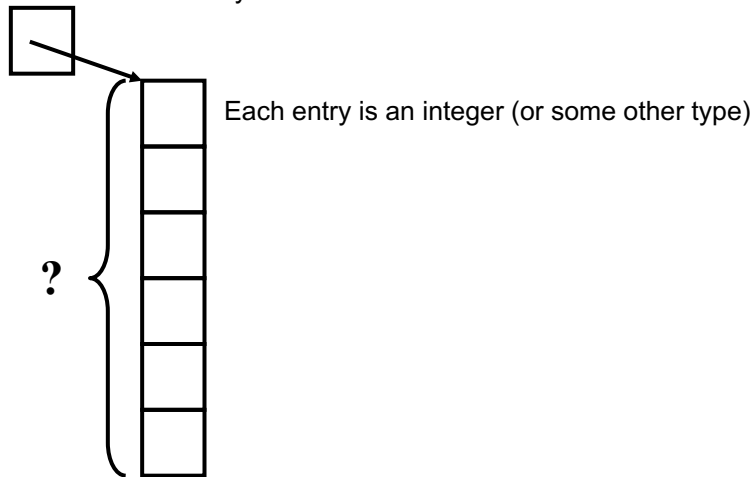
- We do not know #rows or #columns at compile time
 - Need to prompt user for this info
- How did 1-D arrays work?
 - Pointer to block of words
 - Block of words is the array
- How can we extend this
 - Pointer to 1-D array of "rows"
 - *Each entry in this array is a pointer to the row*
 - How many elements in the row = number of columns

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Pictorially

D1: Pointer to 1-D array

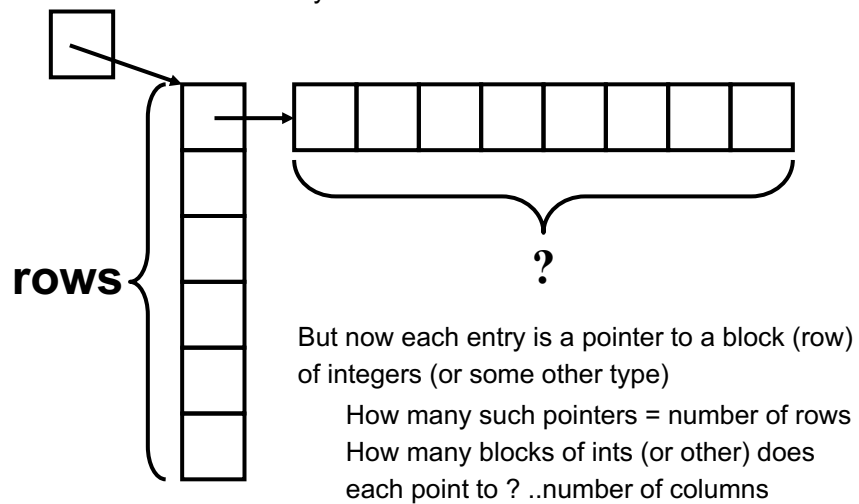


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Pictorially: 2-D array

D2: Pointer to 2-D array



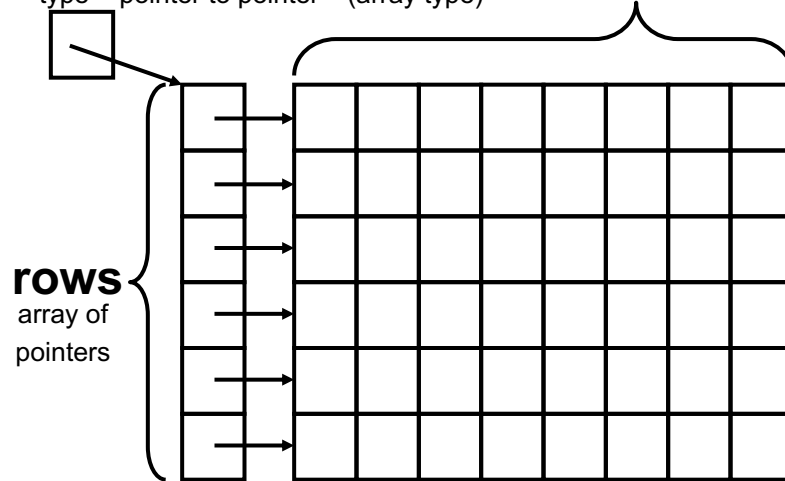
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Pictorially

D2 is pointer to 2-D array:

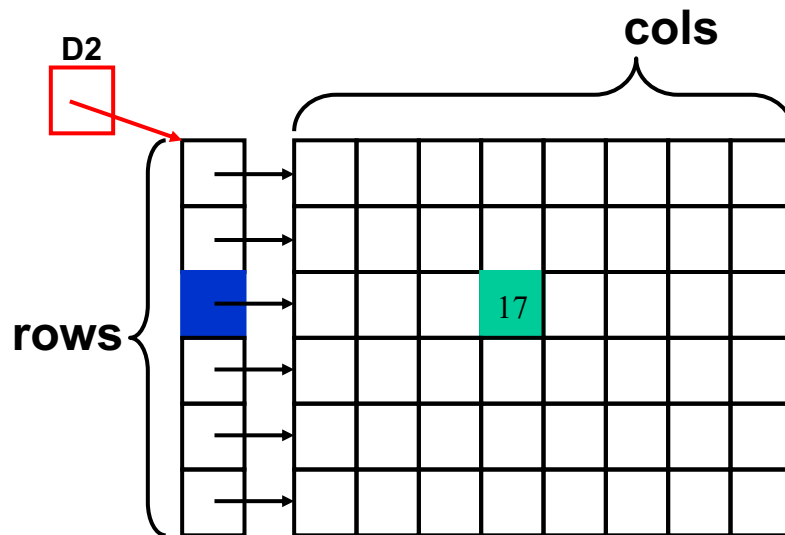
type = pointer to pointer ******(array type)



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```
D2 [2] [3] = 17;
```



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2-D Dynamic Array allocation

• Example 2 2-D dynamic array: D-array2.c

Outline:

- Prompt user for size of array, call function allocarray to malloc space for the array, return to main and work on the array
- Declare dynamic array variable – pass this to function
 - This is a pointer to a pointer – i.e, **int
- Fill in function allocarray: this function calls malloc to allocate space for the array
 - Determine type returned by function
 - Arguments to the function
- Don't forget to **free**
 - Think about how to free all the space used by 2-D array

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Hash Tables

HW 7 and Project 5

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The Hash Table

- A useful general purpose data structure which can be scaled to store large numbers of items and offers relatively fast access times.
- Put another way, a Hashtable is similar to an *Array*
 - But with an index whose data type we define:
 - Normally:
 - array [int] = some value
 - But with a Hashtable it is “kind of” like:
 - array [*my_structure*] = some value
 - array [*float*] = some value
 - array [*string*] = some value
 - array [*another_array*] = some value
 - The programmer (YOU) defines a way to map your datatype to an actual integer index
- Why is this useful?
 - Makes “searching” easy

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Hash functions

- Array GW[] of students
 - To find student with ID x, GW[x]
- Domain of student IDs ?
 - GWID: G _ _ _ _ _
- Range ?
- Ideally: array of size= number of GW students
 - GW[x] will be entry for student with ID x
 - But this is not definition of an array!

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The Hash Table

- Designed to store (key,value) pairs

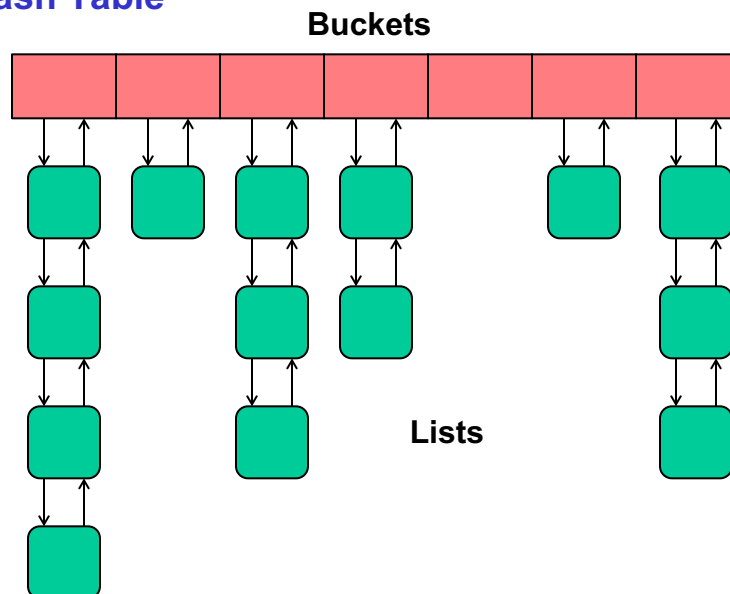
- Idea

- Take every key and apply a **hash function** which returns an integer – this integer is the index of a **bucket** where you store that object.
- These buckets are usually implemented as **linked lists** so if two or more keys hash to the same bucket they are all stored together.
- The number of elements stored in each bucket should be roughly equal to the total number of elements divided by the total number of buckets

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Hash Table



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Some hash table vocabulary

- **Key:** portion of your data that you use to map to bucket
- **Value:** bucket # in hash table array (aka the index #)
- **Hash Function:** maps key to value
 - AKA: mapping function
 - AKA: map
 - AKA: "hashing"
- **Associative Array**
 - What a hash table actually is: an array whose index is associated with your custom datatype
- **Collision:**
 - When more than 1 key maps to the same value
 - AKA: bucket contains more than 1 data item
 - We used linked list to allow collisions
 - Perfect hash function yields no collisions!
- **Load factor:** # of entries in table / # of buckets

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Dynamic Resizing of Buckets

- **Resizing Hash Table Dynamically?**
 - Adding more buckets at runtime (or reducing)
 - Ensures less collisions
 - Wouldn't be necessary if we knew how much data would be in table in advance!
 - This is just not practical most times
 - This is often implemented in practice once load factor $\sim .75$
 - The purpose is to keep search 'linear' in terms of time
 - And efficiently use memory
 - You wish to keep storage & lookup of items independent of # of items stored in hashtable
 - Refining the hash function is the key to this (not resizing)
 - Why not make it huge?
 - Diminishing returns: eventually too many buckets = wasted memory

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Hash functions

- The purpose of this:
 - Have an exact way to “find” the data later on
 - We use hash function to “lookup” the bucket our data is in
 - We use our linked lists’s “find” to search within the bucket
- If we knew we had 1000 distinct values, then $h(k)$ will be between 1 and 1000
- Simple hash function: Modulo B for B buckets
 - If $B=100$ then $h(k) = K \bmod 100$
- What is domain if strings and not int
 - **Example: Add up ASCII values of characters in string s to get an integer x, then apply modulo**
 - $h(s) = x \bmod B$
- How do you rebalance the load – extendible hashing functions
 - Mod k to start with (k is power of 2)
 - Mod 2^k

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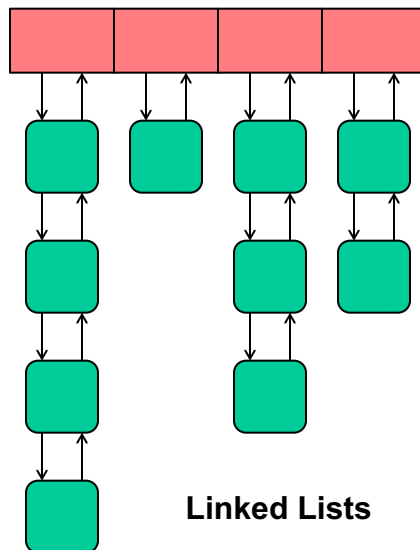
How do we implement a HashTable?

- It is almost like a 2D array:
 - Except the # of columns differs for each row
 - `my_array [0] = {data1, data2}`
 - `my_array [1] = {data3}`
 - `my_array [2] = {data4, data5, data6}`
- Under the hood, we usually do use an array
 - We call the # of rows the # of “buckets” in the table
 - But we usually make the columns a linked list
 - Example: `my_linked_list* my_array [10]`
 - `my_array [0] = linked_list0`
 - `my_array [1] = linked_list1`
 - `my_array [2] = linked_list2`
 - ...
 - This would define an array of 10 linked lists

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Struct_of_ints Hash Table



← 4 Buckets

Each bucket is really just a head pointer to 4 separate linked lists

Hash “mapping” function tells us which “bucket” data must go into

Linked lists hold onto data that fits into more than 1 bucket

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Example using struct_of_ints linked list

- we created a linked list ..let's say of “ints”
 - Let's use them as the basis for our hash table

```
#include "linked_list.h"
#define BUCKETS 4
int main () {
    int i, bucket ;
    struct_of_ints* my_hash_tbl [BUCKETS] ;
    /* think about how you may need to change to deal with
    Case when number of buckets is input by the user */
    printf ("Enter INT\n" ) ;
    scanf ("%d", &i) ;

    bucket = i % BUCKETS ;    // maps key to value

    // store data in hashtable
    my_hash_tbl[bucket] =      // we access like an array
        add_to_list ( my_hash_tbl[bucket], i) ;
}
```

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