

# Return to C

- A potpourri of stuff:
  - Idiomatic C
  - Scope
  - Preprocessor, conditional compilation
- Separate modules in C (i.e., ADTs)
- Dynamic memory (malloc, realloc, calloc)
- Arrays that grow in C
- Linked lists in C
- Trees in C

# C string programming idioms

- "programming idiom"
  - "means of expressing a recurring construct in one or more programming languages"
  - use of idioms indicates language fluency
  - also assumes some comfort with the language
- idioms also imply terseness
  - expressions using idioms tend to be the "ideal" size
  - "terseness" can even have an impact at machine-code level
- non-string example: infinite loop

# A C-language idiom: Infinite loop

```
/*
 * Not the ideal technique
 */

while (1) {
    some_function();
    if (someflag == 0) {
        break;
    }
    some_other_function();
}
```

Loop must always perform a check at the start of the loop.

```
/*
 * Recommended approach ("idiomatic").
 */

for (;;) {
    some_function();
    if (someflag == 0) {
        break;
    }
    some_other_function();
}
```

There is no check at the start of the loop -- no extra instructions!

# Example: Computing string length

- Note!
  - Normally we use built-in library functions wherever possible.
  - There is a built-in string-length function ("strlen").
  - These libraries functions are very efficient and very fast (and bug free)
- Algorithm:
  - Function accepts pointer to a character array as a parameter
  - Some loop examines characters in the array
  - Loop terminates when the null character is encountered
  - Number of character examined becomes the string length

# First example

```
#include <string.h>
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <stdio.h>

#define MAX_STRING_LEN 100

int stringlength_1(char a_string[])
{
    int len = 0;

    while (a_string[len] != '\0') {
        len = len + 1;
    }
    return len;
}

int main(int argc, char *argv[])
{
    char buffer[MAX_STRING_LEN];

    if (argc == 1) { exit(0); }
    strncpy(buffer, argv[1], MAX_STRING_LEN);
    printf("%d\n", stringlength_1(buffer));

    exit(0);
}
```

C knows nothing about the bounds of arrays!

"char a\_string[]" is the same as "char \*a\_string"

Each character is explicitly compared against the null character. Note the single quotes!

Name of character array is passed as the parameter to stringlength\_1.

"buffer" is the same as "&buffer[0]"

# First example: not idiomatic

- C strings are usually manipulated via indexed loops
  - "for" statements
- "For" statements are suitable to use with loops:
  - where termination depends the size of some array
  - where termination depends upon the size of some linear structure
  - where loop tests are at loop-top and loop-variable update operations occur at the loop-end
- "While" statements are most suitable with loops:
  - where termination depends on the change of some state
  - where termination depends on some property of a complex data structure
  - where actual loop operations can possibly lengthen or shorten number of loop iterations (e.g., "worklist" algorithms)

# Second example

```
#include <string.h>
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <stdio.h>

#define MAX_STRING_LEN 100

int stringlength_2(char a_string[])
{
    int len;

    for (len = 0; a_string[len] != '\0'; len = len + 1) { }

    return len;
}

int main(int argc, char *argv[])
{
    char buffer[MAX_STRING_LEN];

    if (argc == 1) { exit(0); }
    strncpy(buffer, argv[1], MAX_STRING_LEN);
    printf("%d\n", stringlength_2(buffer));

    exit(0);
}
```

Each character is explicitly compared against the null character, but this is done within the "for" header.

"For" loop itself is empty.

# Second example: not idiomatic

- C strings are most often accessed via char pointers
- Accessing individual characters by array index is rare
  - Principle is that strings are usually processed in one direction or another
  - That direction proceeds char by char
- More idiomatic usage also depends upon pointer arithmetic

# Third example

```
#include <string.h>
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <stdio.h>

#define MAX_STRING_LEN 100

int stringlength_3(char a_string[])
{
    char *c;
    int len = 0;

    for (c = a_string; *c != '\0'; c = c + 1) {
        len = len + 1;
    }
    return len;
}

int main(int argc, char *argv[])
{
    char buffer[MAX_STRING_LEN];

    if (argc == 1) { exit(0); }
    strcpy(buffer, argv[1], MAX_STRING_LEN);
    printf("%d\n", stringlength_3(buffer));

    exit(0);
}
```

Note that a character pointer is used (i.e., dereferenced in the control expression, and incremented in the post-loop expression).

The body of the "for" loop is not empty here as variable "len" is increment in it.

(Note: We could add "len" to our "for"-loop header and keep the body empty. What would that look like?)

# Fourth example

```
#include <string.h>
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <stdio.h>

#define MAX_STRING_LEN 100

int stringlength_4(char a_string[])
{
    char *c;
    int len;

    for (len = 0, c = a_string; *c; c++, len++) { }

    return len;
}

int main(int argc, char *argv[])
{
    char buffer[MAX_STRING_LEN];

    if (argc == 1) { exit(0); }
    strncpy(buffer, argv[1], MAX_STRING_LEN);
    printf("%d\n", stringlength_4(buffer));

    exit(0);
}
```

Note the "for"-loop termination condition!

We depend here on the meaning of "true" and "false" in C.

Note use of commas in the "for"-loop header.

# Last examples: more idiomatic

- Char pointers were dereferenced
  - Value of dereference directly used to control loop.
- Char pointers were incremented
  - The most idiomatic code (not shown) combines dereferencing with incrementing
  - Example: `*c++`
  - Only works because "`*`" has a higher precedence than "`++`"
  - Meaning of example: "read the value stored in variable '`c`', read the memory address corresponding to that value, return the value in that address as the expression value, and then increment the address stored in variable '`c`'."

# And tighter still...

```
#include <string.h>
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <stdio.h>

#define MAX_STRING_LEN 100

int stringlength_5(char a_string[])
{
    char *c;

    for (c = a_string; *c; c++);

    return c - a_string;
}

int main(int argc, char *argv[])
{
    char buffer[MAX_STRING_LEN];

    if (argc == 1) { exit(0); }
    strncpy(buffer, argv[1], MAX_STRING_LEN);
    printf("%d\n", stringlength_5(buffer));

    exit(0);
}
```

# Scope of Names

- The scope of a variable determines the region over which you can access the variable by its name.
- C provides four types of scope:
  - **Program** scope
  - **File** scope
  - **Function** scope
  - **Block** scope

# Program Scope

- The variable exists for the program's lifetime and can be accessed from any file comprising the program.
  - To define a global variable, omit the `extern` keyword, and include an initializer (needed if you want a value other than 0).
  - To link to a global variable, include the `extern` keyword but omit an initializer
- Example:
  - Variable with program scope is declared and referenced in file 1.
  - Variable with program scope is referenced in file 2.

```
/*
 * file 1
 */
int ticks = 1

void tick_tock() {
    ticks += 1;
}
```

```
/*
 * file 2
 */
extern int ticks;

int read_clock() {
    return ticks * TICKS_PER_SECOND;
}
```

# File Scope

- The variable is visible from its point of declaration to the end of the source file.
- To give a variable file scope, define it outside a function with the **static** keyword

```
/*
 * file 3
 */

static long long int boot_time = 0;

void at_boot(void) {
    boot_time = get_clock();
}

int main(void) {
    printf("%i\n", boot_time);
}
```

```
/*
 * file 4
 */

/* THE LINE BELOW WILL FAIL
 * when the executable is constructed.
*/

extern long long int boot_time = 0;
```

# Function Scope

- The name is visible from the beginning to the end of a function.
- According to the ANSI standard, the scope of function arguments is the same as the scope of variables defined at the outmost scope of a function. Shadowing of function arguments is not allowed.
- (Shadowing of global variables is permitted, however.)

```
/*
 * file 5
 */
void function_f(int x)
{
    ... = x + ...;
}

/*
 * file 6
 */
/* The variable declaration within the
 * function below will cause a compiler
 * error.
 */
void function_g (int x)
{
    int x; /* Not possible. */
}

/*
 * file 7
 */
int sum = 0;

void function_h(int x)
{
    int sum = init_sum(); /* different! */
}
```

# Block Scope

- The variable is visible from its point of declaration to the end of the block. A block is any series of statements enclosed by braces.

```
/*
 * file 7
 */

int sum;

void function_y (int X[], int n) {
    int j;

    {
        /* Start of a nested scope */

        int j;
        for (j = 0, sum = 0; j < n; j += 1)
{
            sum += X[j];
        }

        /* End of a nested scope */
    }
}
```

# Abstract Data Types

- So far, we have described basic data types, all the standard C statements, operators and expressions, functions, and function prototypes.
- We want to introduce the concept of modularization
- Before there were object-oriented languages like Java and C++, users of imperative languages used **abstract data types** (ADT):
  - an abstract data type is a set of operations which access a collection of stored data
  - in Java and C++ this idea is called **encapsulation**

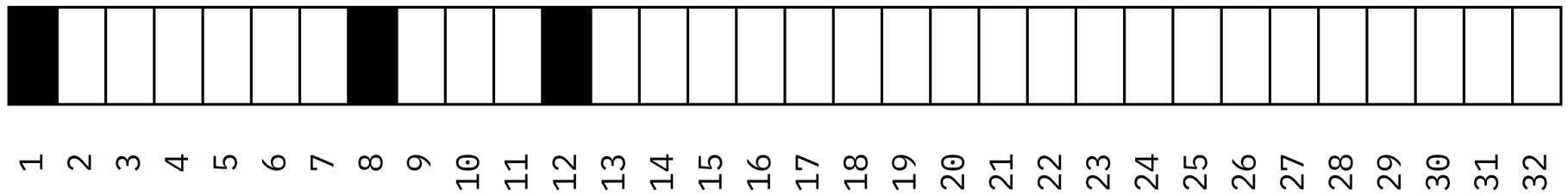
# Abstract Data Types

- Since ANSI compilers support separate compilation of source modules, we can use abstract data types and function prototypes to **simulate modules**:
  - this is simply for convenience
  - a C compiler does not force us to use separate files
  - allows us to implement the “one declaration – one definition” rule

# Abstract Data Types (2)

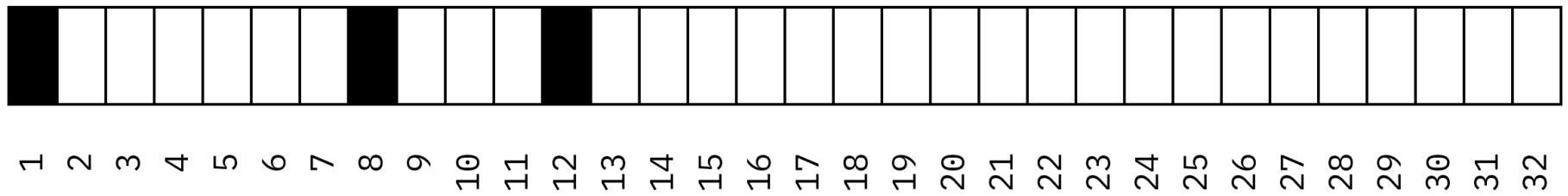
- For module "**mod**" there are two file
- **Interface module**: named "**mod.h**" contains function prototypes, public type definitions, constants, and when necessary declarations for global variables. Interface modules are also called header files.
  - Interface modules are accessed using the **#include** C preprocessor directive
- **Implementation module**: named "**mod.c**" contains the implementation of functions declared in the interface module.

# Idea: bit storage



```
set_bit(set, 1)  
set_bit(set, 8)  
set_bit(set, 12)
```

# Idea: bit storage (up to 32)



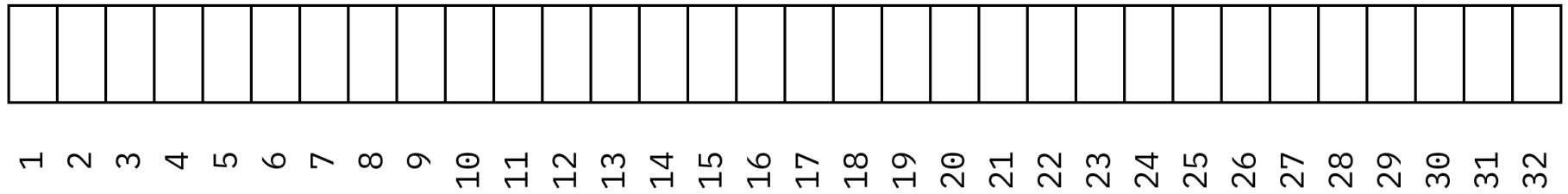
```
set_bit(set, 1)  
set_bit(set, 8)  
set_bit(set, 12)
```

# Smallest size: a byte



1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8

# Another size: four bytes



# Another size: eight bytes

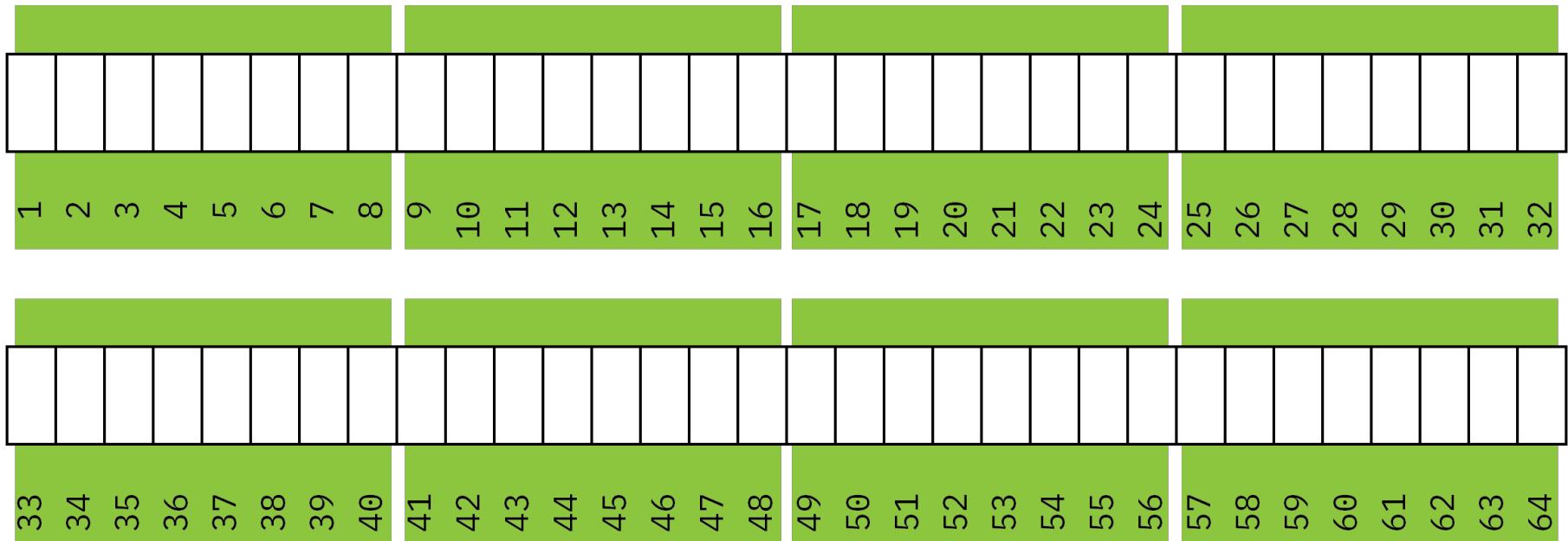


1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30 31 32

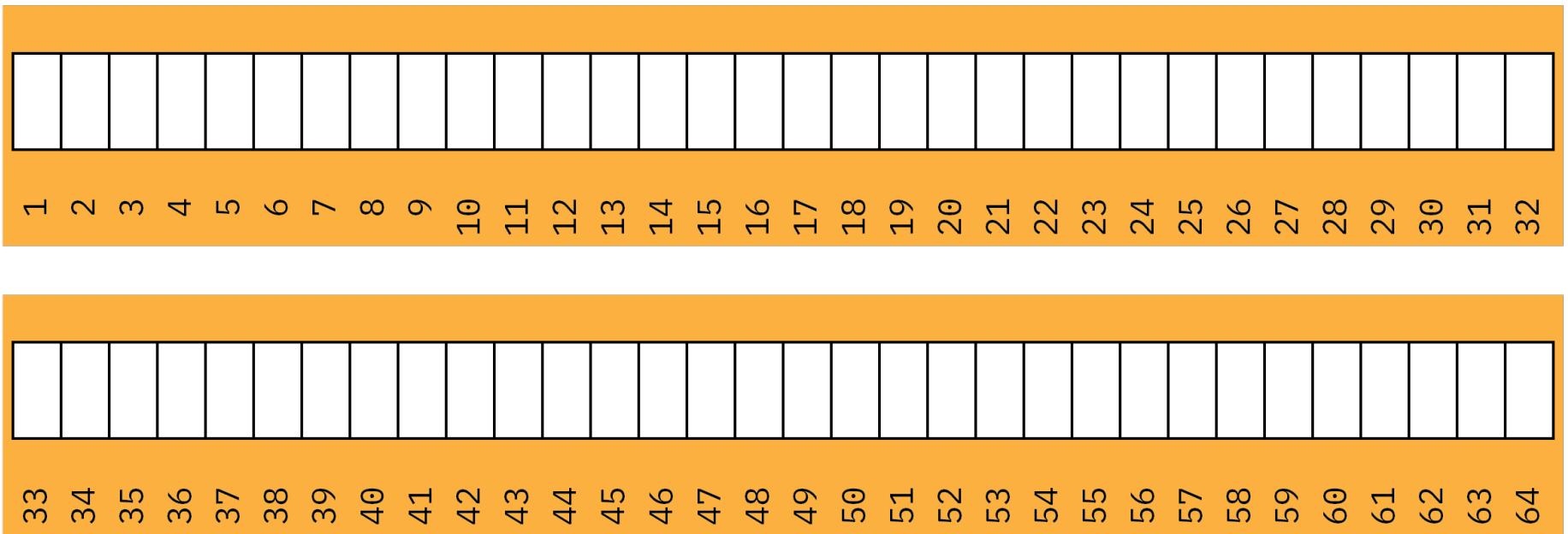


33 34 35 36 37 38 39 40 41 42 43 44 45 46 47 48 49 50 51 52 53 54 55 56 57 58 59 60 61 62 63 64

# Byte boundaries



# Four-byte integer boundaries



# Example: module bitstring

- **Module** `bitstring`
  - Interface module: `bitstring.h` contains the declarations for data structures and operations required to support bitstring manipulation. Contains items (i.e., types, functions) which **must** be visible to the user of the module.
  - Implementation module: `bitstring.c` contains implementation of bitstring operations

# Interface Module: bitstring.h

```
#ifndef BITSTRING_H
#define BITSTRING_H

typedef unsigned int Uint;
typedef enum _bool { false = 0, true = 1 } bool;

#define BITS PER BYTE     8
#define ALLOC SIZE      (sizeof(Uint)* BITS PER BYTE)
#define BYTES PER A UNIT (sizeof(Uint))

/* -- Bit Operations */

extern void clear_bits( Uint[], Uint );
extern void set_bit( Uint[], Uint );
extern void reset_bit( Uint[], Uint );
extern bool test_bit( Uint[], Uint );

#endif
```

# Implementation Module: bitstring.c

```
#include "bitstring.h"

/* Clear a bit string */
void clear_bits( Uint bstr[], Uint naunits ) {
    Uint i;

    for ( i = 0; i < naunits; i++ )
        bstr[i] = 0;
}

/* Set a bit in a bit string */
void set_bit( Uint bstr[], Uint bit ) {
    Uint b_index = ( bit - 1 ) / ALLOCSIZE;
    Uint b_offset = ( bit - 1 ) % ALLOCSIZE;

    bstr[b_index] |= ( 1 << b_offset );
}
```

# Implementation Module (2)

```
/* Reset a bit in a bit string */

void reset_bit( Uint bstr[], Uint bit ) {
    Uint b_index = ( bit - 1 ) / ALLOCSIZE;
    Uint b_offset = ( bit - 1 ) % ALLOCSIZE;

    bstr[b_index] &= ~(1 << b_offset));
}

/* Determine the state of a bit in a bitstring */

bool test_bit( Uint bstr[], Uint bit ) {
    Uint b_index = ( bit - 1 ) / ALLOCSIZE;
    Uint b_offset = ( bit - 1 ) % ALLOCSIZE;

    return( (bstr[b_index] & (1 << b_offset)) ? true : false );
}
```

# Using the Bitstring Module

```
#include "bitstring.h"

#define NUNITS 4

int main( int argc, char *argv[] ) {
    Uint set[NUNITS];

    clear_bits(set, NUNITS);
    set_bit(set, 8);
    set_bit(set, 12);

    if (test_bit(set, 12) == true)
        reset_bit(set, 12);

    return 0;
}
```

```
$ gcc module_user.c bitstring.c -o module_user
```

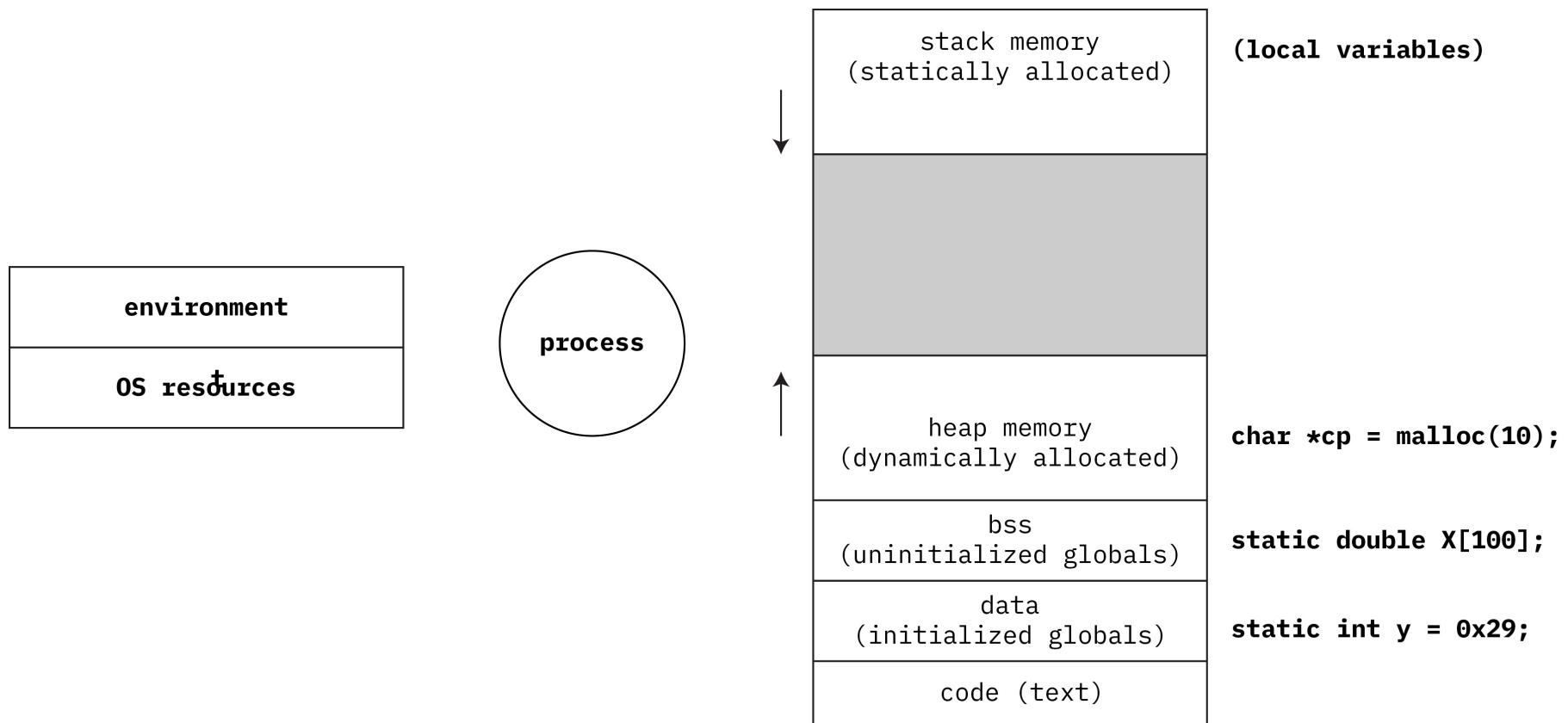
# Dynamic memory in C

- The C memory model
- Managing the heap: `malloc()` and `free()`
- The void pointer and casting
- Memory leaks
- Applying the concepts:
  - **arrays that grow**
  - **linked lists**
  - **binary trees**
  - **hash maps**

# C memory model

- Memory is divided into five segments: **uninitialized data, initialized data, heap, stack, and code**
- **Stack** is used to store **automatics** and activation records (stack frames) for functions
- Stack is located at the "top" of writable memory (high addresses)
- **Heap** stores explicitly requested memory which must be **dynamically allocated**
- Limits of heap and stack can bump into each other
- Initialized and uninitialized data located at the "top" of writable memory (high addresses)

# C memory model



# C memory model

- As the program executes, and function call-depth increases, the stack **grows downward**
- Similarly, as memory is explicitly requested for allocation, the heap **grows upward**
- Every time a function call is made, a new **stack frame** is created and memory allocated for variables to be used by the function
- Eventually, if stack and heap continue to grow, all memory available to the process will be exhausted and an **out of memory** condition will occur

# Motivation for dynamic memory

- Memory must be allocated for storage before variables can be used, yet the amount might not be known at compile time
- Examples:
  - Reading records from a file in order to sort them, where file size is not known at time program is written
  - Constructing a list of "keywords" based on the content of some text file (whose size is unknown at compile time)
  - Representing a set as a linked list

# Motivation for dynamic memory

- One solution: Write the program by hard-coding in the largest amount of memory that could possibly be needed
- Problem with this approach: Possibly occupies a large, unused area of memory if program-input sizes for most executions are almost always small
  - Note: virtual-memory systems mitigate the effects of this somewhat

# Where to store what...

- Use **heap memory** for dynamic allocation when size is not known until run-time
- Use **stack memory** for parts where size is known at compile time
- Working with the stack is easy -- all variables are defined at compile time (no extra work for you)
- Working with the heap is a bit harder
  - In Java and Python, heap memory is automatically allocated to objects through use of the "new" keyword
  - Also in Java & Python, heap memory no longer used by a variable may be reclaimed for the system (**garbage collection**)

# Heap memory in C

- Memory addresses in the heap are sometimes called **anonymous variables**
  - These variables do not have names like automatics and static variables
- `malloc()`: allocate dynamic memory
  - Takes a single parameter representing the **number of bytes of heap memory to be allocated**
  - **Returns a memory address** to the beginning of newly allocated block of memory
  - **If allocation fails**, `malloc()` returns NULL
- `#include <stdlib.h>` : contains function prototypes for malloc and related functions.

# sizeof

- **sizeof()** is a macro that computes the number of bytes allocated for a specified type or variable (basic types, aggregate types)
- Use **sizeof()** to determine block size required by **malloc()**
- You must **always** check the value returned by **malloc()**!

```
int *a = malloc (sizeof(int));
if (a == NULL) { /* error */ }

struct datatype *dt = malloc (sizeof(struct datatype));
if (dt == NULL) { /* error */ }

char *buffer = malloc (sizeof(char) * 100);
if (buffer == NULL) { /* error */ }
```

# malloc() + casting

- Function prototype for malloc() :
  - `extern void *malloc( size_t n );`
  - `typedef unsigned int size_t;`
- The pointer returned is a generic pointer
- To use the allocated memory, we must **typecast** the returned pointer
  - Denoted by (`<sometype> *`)
  - Casting is a hint to the compiler (applies different typechecking to the block of memory after the typecast)

```
double *f = (double *) malloc (sizeof(double));  
  
char *buf = (char *) malloc(100);
```

# Casting

- What if we do not typecast?

```
double *f = malloc(sizeof(double));  
...  
<from some compilers>  
warning: assignment makes pointer from  
double without a cast
```

- Always a good idea to cast
- Once heap memory is allocated:
  - It stays allocated for the duration of the program's execution...
  - ... unless it is **explicitly deallocated**
  - ... and this is true regardless of what functions calls malloc()
  - All memory used in heap is automatically returned to system when process/program terminates.

# A family of functions

- There is more than just `malloc`:
  - `calloc`
  - `realloc`
  - `valloc`
- These serve slightly different purposes
  - One function both allocates and initializes the block of heap memory
  - One function adjusts heap structures to change size of a previously allocated block/chunk
  - One is now pretty much obsolete (i.e., meant to force allocation on some page boundary – which will make more sense in CSC 360)
- As we need these extra functions we'll trot them out

# free()

- We use **free()** to return heap memory no longer needed back to the heap pool

```
extern void free( void * );
```

- **free()** takes a pointer to the allocated block of memory

```
void very_polite_function( int n )
{
    int *array = (int *) malloc (sizeof(int) * n);

    /* Code using the array */

    free (array);
}
```

# Issues with dynamic memory

- A **memory leak** occurs when heap memory is **constantly allocated** but is **not freed** when no longer needed
- Memory leaks are almost always unintentional
  - Allocation and deallocation code locations are often widely separated.
  - Can be hard to find the memory-leak bug as it often depends upon the program running for a long time.
- Systems with automatic garbage collection (almost) never have memory leaks
  - Redundant memory is returned to heap for re-use
  - Downside: garbage collection is not always under control of the programmer
  - Also: some garbage collectors cannot reclaim some kinds of redundant instances of data types.

# Arrays that grow

- All of our C programs using arrays up to now have been static in size
  - Assignment specifications state the largest input size.
  - Memory is allocated for these arrays from the C compiler and run time
  - We never need to manage this memory.
- Arrays are very handy structure
  - Easy to index and access ( $O(1)$  operations)
  - Contiguous block of memory can be exploited by other functions (qsort, memcpy).
- Therefore we would like to keep the convenience of arrays but also obtain the benefits of dynamic memory
  - ... and do so without having to write more complex structures like lists, heaps, etc.

# Nameval array

- Suppose we wish to maintain an array of <name, value> pairs
  - Name is a string
  - Value is an integer
- We want to add new items to our array as they arrive
- If there is not enough room in the array, we want to grow it.
- To support this we'll keep the array's size and items-to-date associated with the array via a struct.
  - Note use of "typedef"

```
typedef struct Nameval Nameval;
struct Nameval {
    char *name;
    int value;
};
```

```
struct Nvtab {
    int nval;
    int max;
    Nameval *nameval;
} nvtab;

enum { NVINIT = 1, NVGROW = 2 };
```

# Creating a new nameval

```
Nameval *new_nameval(char *name, int value)
{
    Nameval *temp;

    temp = (Nameval *)malloc(sizeof(Nameval));
    if (temp == NULL) {
        fprintf(stderr, "Error mallocing a Nameval");
        exit(1);
    }

    /* temp->name === (*temp).name */
    temp->name = (char *)malloc((strlen(name)+1) * sizeof(char));
    if (temp->name == NULL) {
        fprintf(stderr, "Error mallocing a memory for string");
        exit(1);
    }
    strncpy(temp->name, name, strlen(name)+1);

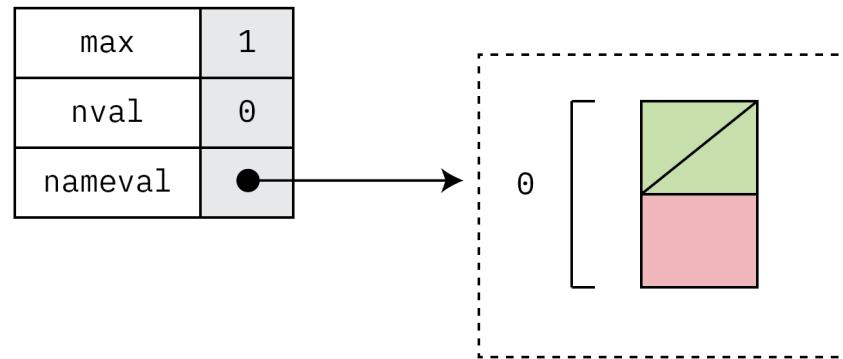
    temp->value = value;

    return temp;
}
```

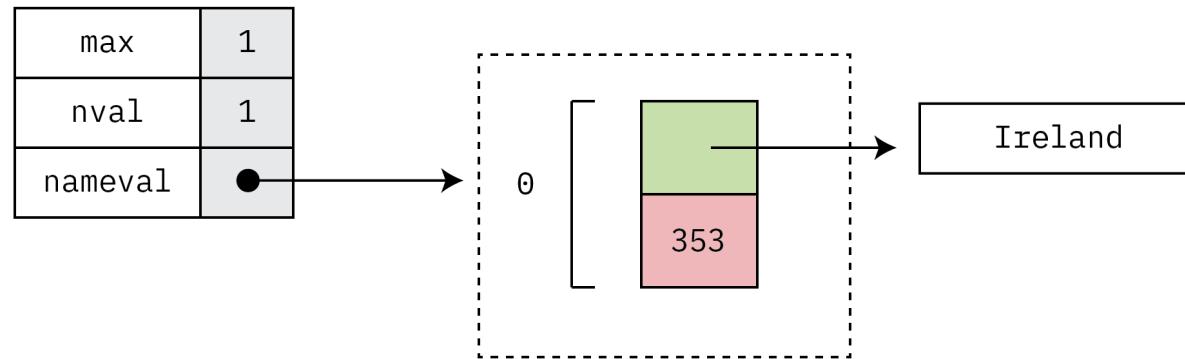
## Initial value of **nvtab** variable

max	0
nval	0
nameval	

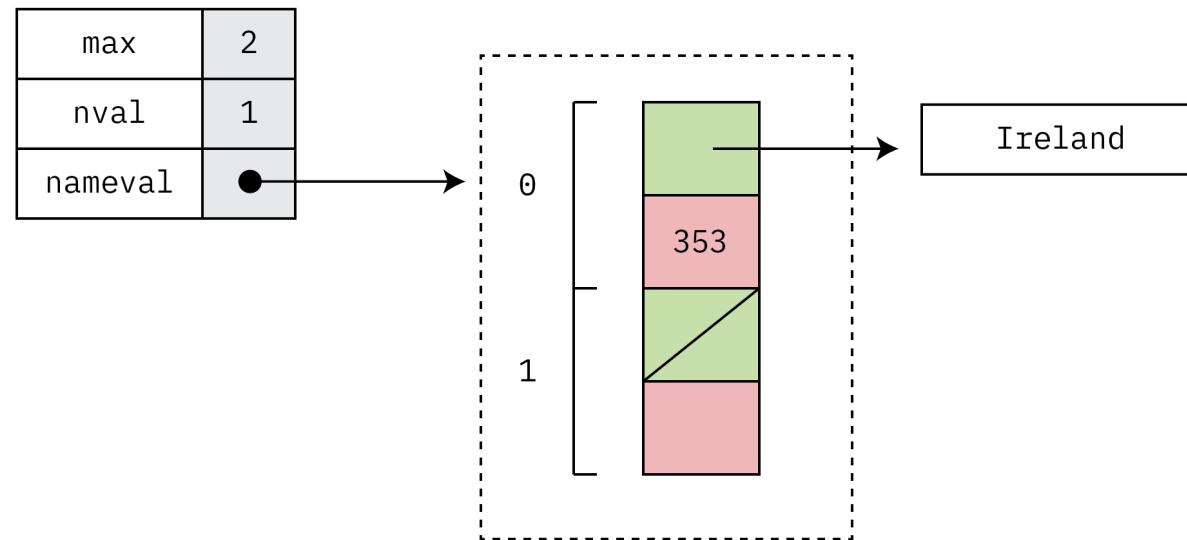
Adding ("Ireland", 353): after array in heap is allocated, but before assigning actual value



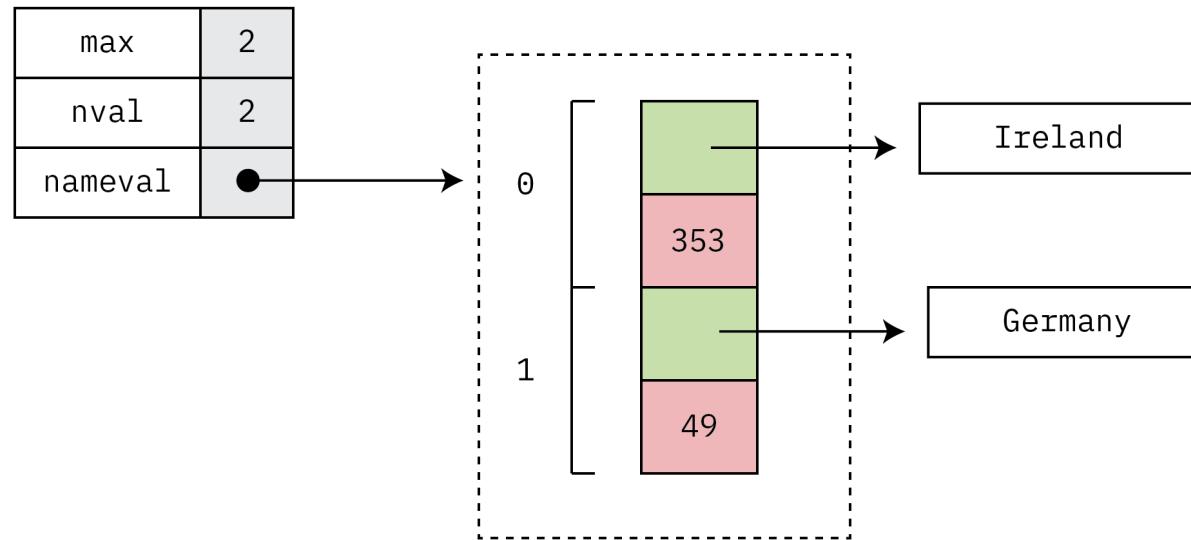
Adding ("Ireland", 353): after array in heap is allocated, and after assigning the actual value



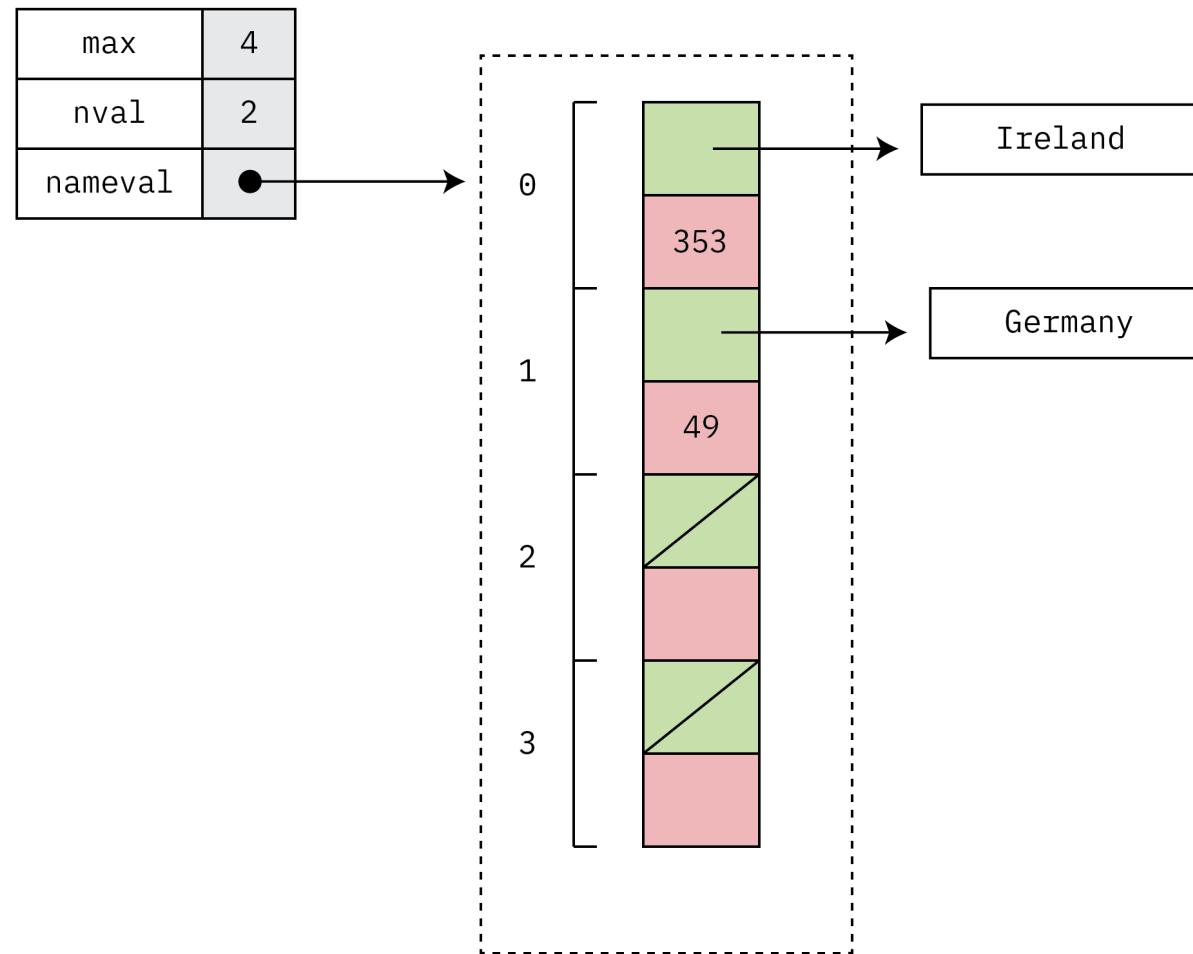
Adding ("Germany", 49): after array grows, but before assigning the actual value



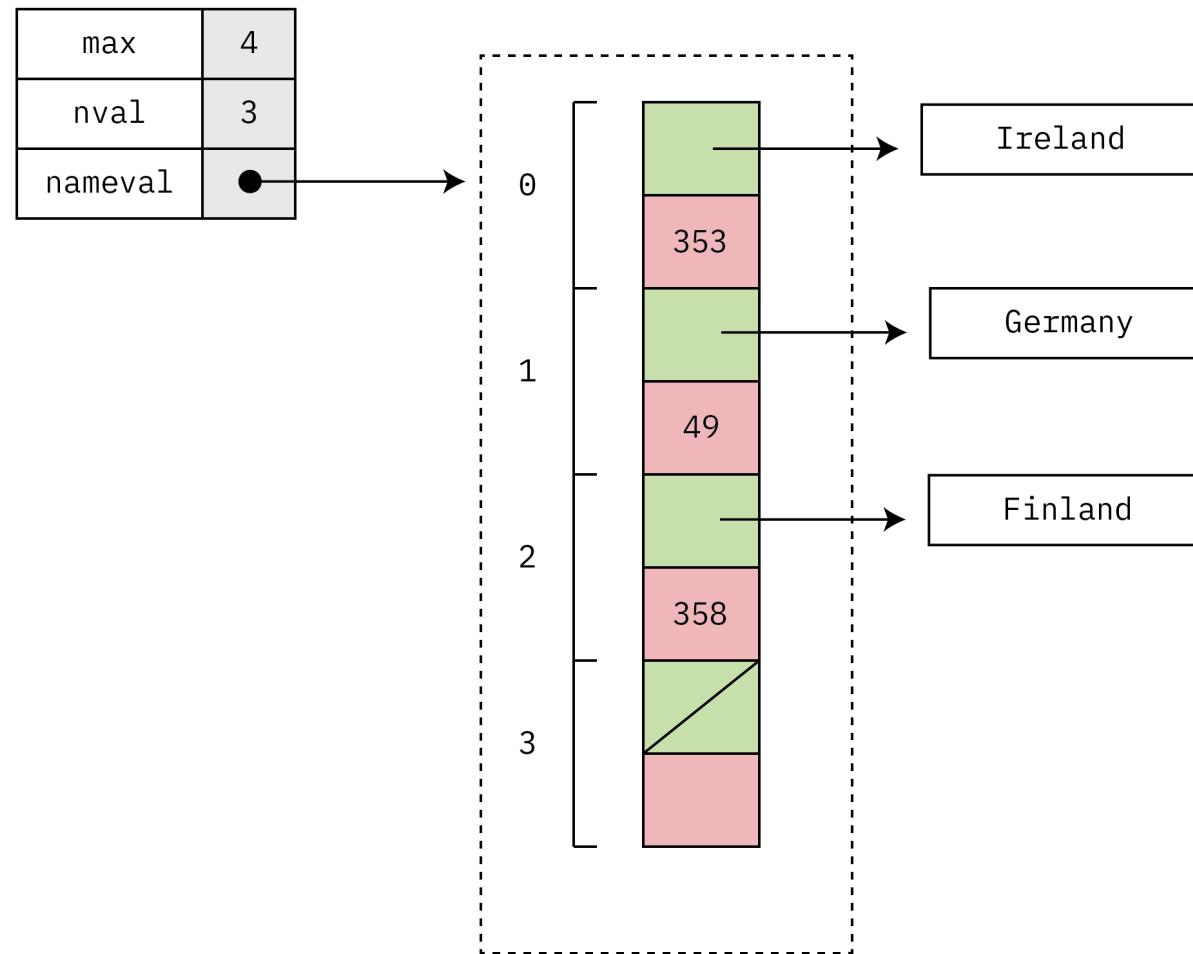
Adding ("Germany", 49): after array grows, and after assigning the actual value



Adding ("Finland", 358): after array grows, but before assigning the actual value



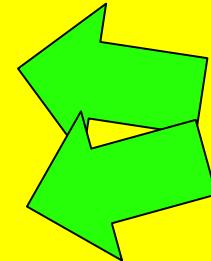
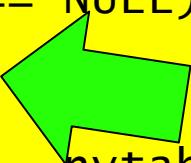
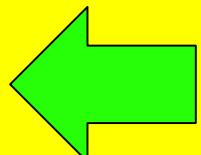
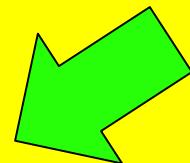
Adding ("Finland", 358): after array grows, and after assigning the actual value



... and notice that the next call to additem() will not result in the array needing to grow before assignment

# addname

```
int addname(Nameval newname)
{
    Nameval *nvp;
    if (nvtab.nameval == NULL) { /* first use of array */
        nvtab.nameval =
            (Nameval *) malloc(NVINIT * sizeof(Nameval));
        if (nvtab.nameval == NULL) { return -1; }
        nvtab.max = NVINIT;
        nvtab.nval = 0;
    } else if (nvtab.nval >= nvtab.max) {
        nvp = (Nameval *) realloc(nvtab.nameval,
            (NVGROW * nvtab.max) * sizeof(Nameval));
        if (nvp == NULL) { return -1; }
        nvtab.max = NVGROW * nvtab.max;
        nvtab.nameval = nvp;
    }
    nvtab.nameval[nvtab.nval] = newname;
    return nvtab.nval++;
}
```



# addname

```
int addname(Nameval newname)
{
    Nameval *nvp;

    if (nvtab.nameval == NULL) { /* first use of array */
        nvtab.nameval =
            (Nameval *) malloc(NVINIT * sizeof(Nameval));
        if (nvtab.nameval == NULL) { return -1; }
        nvtab.max = NVINIT;
        nvtab.nval = 0;
    } else if (nvtab.nval >= nvtab.max) {
        nvp = (Nameval *) realloc(nvtab.nameval,
            (NVGROW * nvtab.max) * sizeof(Nameval));
        if (nvp == NULL) { return -1; }
        nvtab.max = NVGROW * nvtab.max;
        nvtab.nameval = nvp;
    }
    nvtab.nameval[nvtab.nval] = newname;
    return nvtab.nval++;
}
```

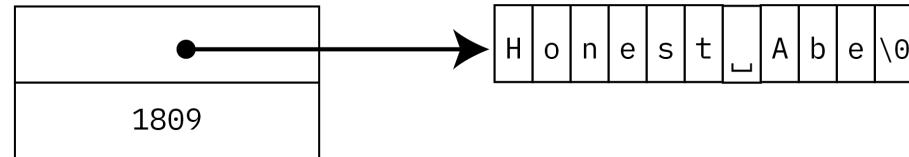
# Deleting a name

- Arrays are contiguous...
  - Yet we may sometimes want to remove elements that are within the array
  - That is, neither at the start or end
- This can be tricky:
  - We need to decide what to do with the resulting gap in the array.
  - If element order doesn't matter: just swap last item in array with gap
  - If element order does matter (i.e., must be preserved), then we must move all the elements beyond the gap by one position

**Reminder: This...**

"Honest Abe"
1809

**... is a shorthand way  
of representing this:**



# delname

```
int delname (char *name)
{
    int i;

    for (i = 0; i < nvtab.nval; i++) {
        if (strcmp(nvtab.nameval[i].name, name) == 0) {
            memmove(nvtab.nameval + i, nvtab.nameval + i + 1,
                    (nvtab.nval-(i+1)) * sizeof(Nameval));
            nvtab.nval--;
            return 1;
        }
    }
    return 0;
}

/* Note that no realloc is performed to resize the array.
 * Do you think this action is needed???
 */
}
```

nvtab.nameval

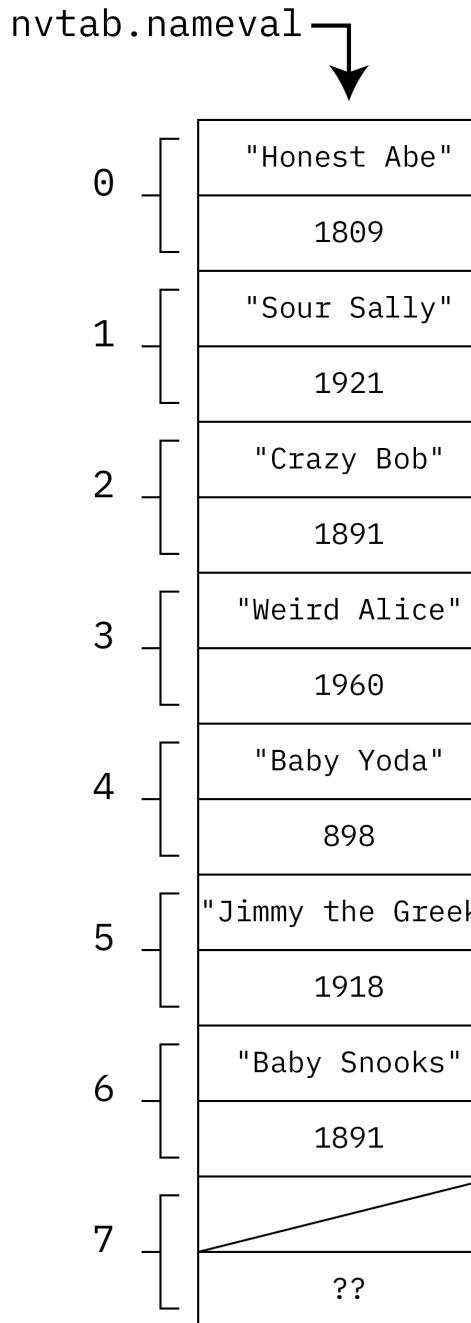


"Honest Abe"
1809
"Sour Sally"
1921
"Crazy Bob"
1891
"Weird Alice"
1960
"Baby Yoda"
898
"Jimmy the Greek"
1918
"Baby Snooks"
1891
??

nvtab.max == 8  
nvtab.nval == 7

**delname("Crazy Bob")**

```
memmove(nvtab.name + i,  
        nvtab.nameval + i + 1,  
        (nvtab.nval-(i+1)  
         * sizeof(Nameval)  
        );
```



```
nvtab.max == 8
nvtab.nval == 7
```

**delname("Crazy Bob")**

```
memmove(nvtab.name + i,
        nvtab.nameval + i + 1,
        (nvtab.nval-(i+1)
         * sizeof(Nameval))
      );
```

nvtab.nameval

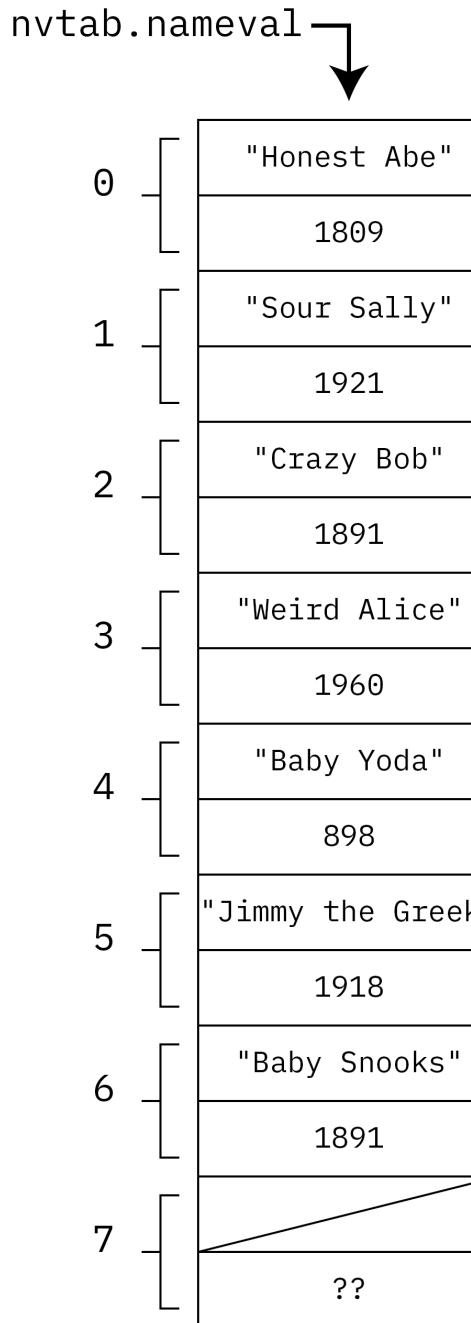


0	"Honest Abe"
	1809
1	"Sour Sally"
	1921
2	"Crazy Bob"
	1891
3	"Weird Alice"
	1960
4	"Baby Yoda"
	898
5	"Jimmy the Greek"
	1918
6	"Baby Snooks"
	1891
7	??

nvtab.max == 8  
nvtab.nval == 7

i = 2

```
memmove(nvtab.name + i,  
        nvtab.nameval + i + 1,  
        (nvtab.nval-(i+1)  
         * sizeof(Nameval))
```



nvtab.max == 8  
nvtab.nval == 7

**nvtab.nameval + i**

```
memmove(nvtab.name + i,
        nvtab.nameval + i + 1,
        (nvtab.nval-(i+1)
         * sizeof(Nameval))
      );
```

nvtab.nameval



0	"Honest Abe"
	1809
1	"Sour Sally"
	1921
2	"Crazy Bob"
	1891
3	"Weird Alice"
	1960
4	"Baby Yoda"
	898
5	"Jimmy the Greek"
	1918
6	"Baby Snooks"
	1891
7	??

nvtab.max == 8  
nvtab.nval == 7

**nvtab.nameval + i**

**nvtab.nameval + i + 1**

```
memmove(nvtab.name + i,  
        nvtab.nameval + i + 1,  
        (nvtab.nval-(i+1)  
         * sizeof(Nameval))
```

nvtab.nameval



0	"Honest Abe"
	1809
1	"Sour Sally"
	1921
2	"Crazy Bob"
	1891
3	"Weird Alice"
	1960
4	"Baby Yoda"
	898
5	"Jimmy the Greek"
	1918
6	"Baby Snooks"
	1891
7	??

nvtab.max == 8  
nvtab.nval == 7

**nvtab.nameval + i**

**nvtab.nameval + i + 1**

**nvtab.nval - (i + 1)**  
**\* sizeof(Nameval)**

```
memmove(nvtab.name + i,  
        nvtab.nameval + i + 1,  
        (nvtab.nval-(i+1)  
         * sizeof(Nameval)  
        );
```

	nvtab.nameval
0	"Honest Abe"
	1809
1	"Sour Sally"
	1921
2	"Crazy Bob"
	1891
3	"Weird Alice"
	1960
4	"Baby Yoda"
	898
5	"Jimmy the Greek"
	1918
6	"Baby Snooks"
	1891
7	??

nvtab.max == 8  
nvtab.nval == 7

**nvtab.nameval + i**

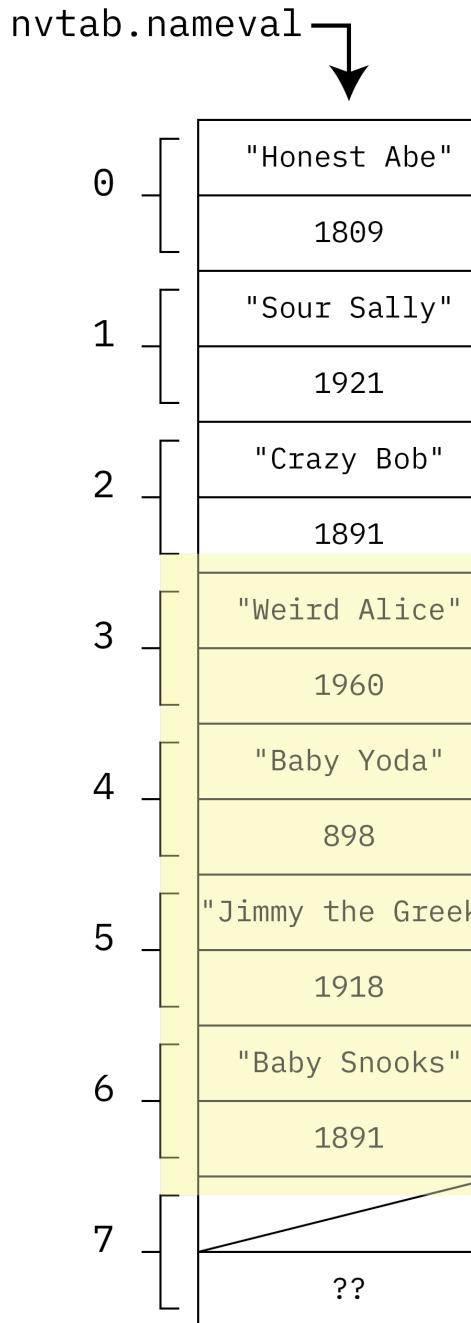
**nvtab.nameval + i + 1**

$$\begin{aligned} & \mathbf{nvtab.nval - (i + 1)} \\ & \quad * \mathbf{sizeof(Nameval)} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} & = 7 - (2 + 1) \\ & \quad * \mathbf{sizeof(Nameval)} \end{aligned}$$

$$= 4 * \mathbf{sizeof(Nameval)}$$

```
memmove(nvtab.name + i,
        nvtab.nameval + i + 1,
        (nvtab.nval-(i+1)
         * sizeof(Nameval)
        );
```



nvtab.max == 8  
nvtab.nval == 7

**nvtab.nameval + i**

**nvtab.nameval + i + 1**

$$\begin{aligned} & \mathbf{nvtab.nval - (i + 1)} \\ & \quad * \mathbf{sizeof(Nameval)} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} & = 7 - (2 + 1) \\ & \quad * \mathbf{sizeof(Nameval)} \end{aligned}$$

$$= 4 * \mathbf{sizeof(Nameval)}$$

```
memmove(nvtab.name + i,
        nvtab.nameval + i + 1,
        (nvtab.nval-(i+1)
         * sizeof(Nameval)
        );
```

nvtab.nameval



0	"Honest Abe"
	1809
1	"Sour Sally"
	1921
2	"Weird Alice"
	1960
3	"Baby Yoda"
	898
4	"Jimmy the Greek"
	1918
5	"Baby Snooks"
	1891
6	"Baby Snooks"
	1891
7	??

nvtab.max == 8

nvtab.nval == 7

**nvtab.nameval + i**

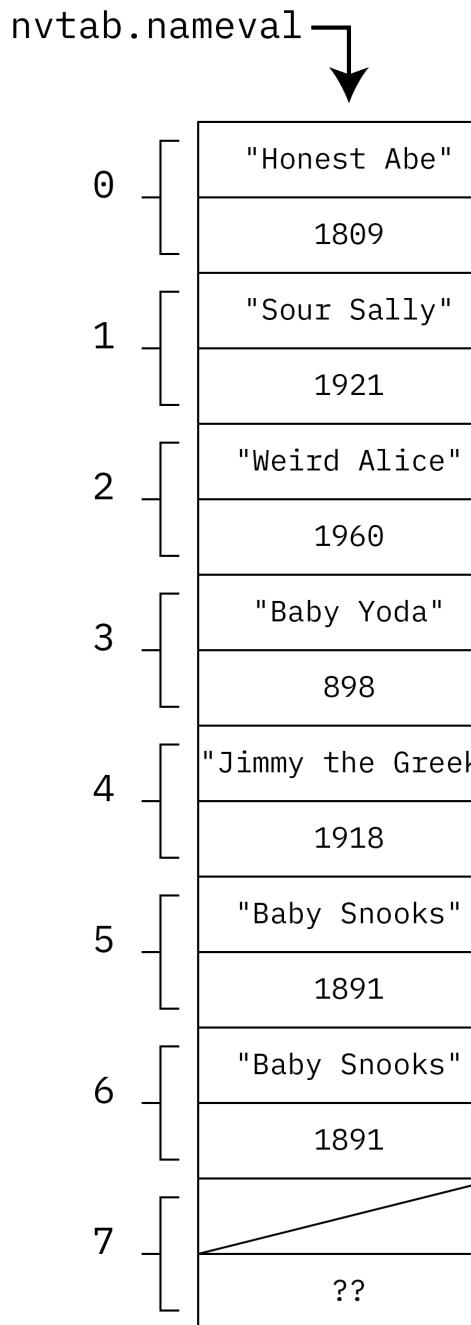
**nvtab.nameval + i + 1**

$$\begin{aligned} & \mathbf{nvtab.nval - (i + 1)} \\ & \quad * \mathbf{sizeof(Nameval)} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} & = 7 - (2 + 1) \\ & \quad * \mathbf{sizeof(Nameval)} \end{aligned}$$

$$= 4 * \mathbf{sizeof(Nameval)}$$

```
memmove(nvtab.name + i,  
        nvtab.nameval + i + 1,  
        (nvtab.nval-(i+1)  
         * sizeof(Nameval))  
    );
```



nvtab.max == 8  
nvtab.nval == 6

**nvtab.nameval + i**

**nvtab.nameval + i + 1**

$$\begin{aligned} & \mathbf{nvtab.nval - (i + 1)} \\ & \quad * \mathbf{\operatorname{sizeof}(Nameval)} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} & = 7 - (2 + 1) \\ & \quad * \mathbf{\operatorname{sizeof}(Nameval)} \end{aligned}$$

$$= 4 * \mathbf{\operatorname{sizeof}(Nameval)}$$

```
memmove(nvtab.name + i,
        nvtab.nameval + i + 1,
        (nvtab.nval-(i+1)
         * sizeof(Nameval)
        );
```

# Chicken-and-egg...

- Consider this statement:
  - We must write our code **to be flexible for as many situations as possible...**
  - ... although this means we **cannot make some assumptions about input sizes.**
- Example:
  - For a file that processes text files, cannot make assumptions about the length of an input line
- Practical result:
  - Must (somehow) use malloc, realloc and possibly free appropriately
  - Safe alternative: **getline()**

# getline() solution

```
#include <stdio.h>
#include <stdlib.h>

int main(void)
{
    FILE *fp;
    char *line = NULL;
    size_t len = 0; /* size_t is really just an unsigned int */
    ssize_t read;    /* ssize_t is where a function may return a size or a
                      * negative number. The first "s" means "signed".*/
    fp = fopen("/etc/motd", "r");
    if (fp == NULL) {
        exit(1);
    }

    while ((read = getline(&line, &len, fp)) != -1) {
        printf("Retrieved line of length %zu :\n", read);
        printf("%s", line);
    }

    if (line) {
        free(line);
    }
    exit(0);
}
```

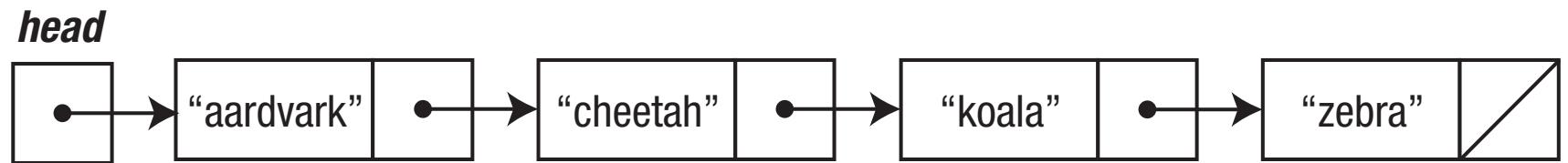
# Lists

- While arrays are a convenient structure, they are not always the most suitable choice.
  - Arrays have a fixed size (albeit it may be resized with effort), yet a linked-list is exactly the size it needs to be to hold its contents.
  - Lists can be rearranged by changing a few pointers (which is cheaper than a block move like that performed by **memmove** in our dynamic-array implementation of **delname**)
  - When items are inserted or deleted from a list, the other items are not moved in memory.
  - If we store addresses to the **list elements** in some other data structure, the **list elements themselves** won't be necessarily be invalidated by changes to the **list**.

# Lists

- So:
  - If the set of items we want to maintain changes frequently...
  - ... especially if the number of items is unpredictable...
  - then **a list is one good way to store them.**
- Typical usage of list for problem will dictate the kind of linked-list:
  - singly
  - singly, with head & tail pointers
  - doubly
  - circular
  - skip-list

# Singly-linked list (no tail pointer)



- Set of four items
  - Each item has data (in this case a string) along with a pointer to the next item.
  - Head of the list is a pointer to the first item
  - End of the list is denoted by a NULL pointer.
  - Handful of operations (add new item to front; find a specific item; add new item before or after a specific item; perhaps delete item)

# Other languages

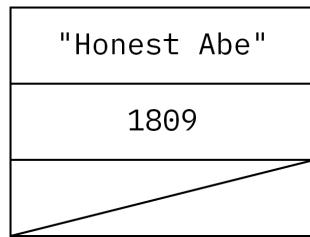
- Some languages have lists built into their core
  - Python does this
  - As does Lisp, Scheme, F#, etc.
- Other languages implement lists via a library
  - C++
  - Java
  - C#
- Most of these languages have a List type
  - However, the approach (or idiom) in C is to start with the element type and then work outwards to the node.
  - That is, we are able to construct lists not via a list type but rather via a **node type**.

# List node

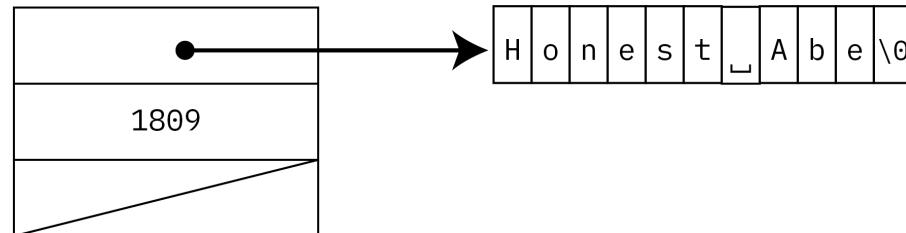
- We'll revisit the same problem as described earlier (that of storing <name, value> pairs)
- The one addition to the Nameval struct is a "next" field
  - This field's type is a pointer to the node type Nameval
  - This is the usual style in C of declaring types for self-referencing structures.
  - We'll see more recursive structures later...

```
typedef struct Nameval Nameval;
struct Nameval {
    char    *name;
    int     value;
    Nameval *next; /* in list */
};
```

This...



... is a shorthand way  
of representing this:



# Slight detour

- One of the tedious aspects of working with malloc is checking for success or failure
- We can accomplish this while still keeping our code clean by writing a small support function.
  - **emalloc**: a **wrapper function** that calls malloc; if allocation fails, it reports an error and exits the program.
  - Therefore we can use it as a memory allocator that never returns failure (but does terminate the program if there was an error).

```
void *emalloc(size_t n)
{
    void *p;

    p = malloc(n);
    if (p == NULL) {
        fprintf(stderr, "malloc of %u bytes failed", n);
        exit(1);
    }
    return p;
}
```

# Constructing an item

- Before "creating a list", let us write a function that constructs an item.
  - It will allocate memory from the heap...
  - ... and then assign appropriate values to fields.
  - We will make heavy us of "->" syntax
  - We assume here that some other function has allocated memory for the name

```
Nameval *newitem (char *name, int value)
{
    Nameval *newp;

    newp = (Nameval *) malloc(sizeof(Nameval));
    newp->name  = name; /* Is this exactly what we want??? */
    newp->value = value;
    newp->next  = NULL;
    return newp;
}
```

# Adding an item to the front

- This is the simplest way to assemble a list
  - Also the fastest.
- This function (and others we'll write) all return a pointer to the first element as their function value
  - Note that this even works if the list is empty (e.g., pointing to NULL)

```
Nameval *addfront(Nameval *listp, Nameval *newp)
{
    newp->next = listp;
    return newp;
}
```

```
/* typical usage */
Nameval *nvlist = NULL;
...
Nameval *newnode = newitem(strdup("Honest Abe"), 1809);
nvlist = addfront(nvlist, newnode);
```

**stack**

nvlist



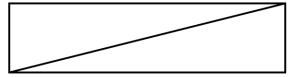
**heap**

## stack

nvlist

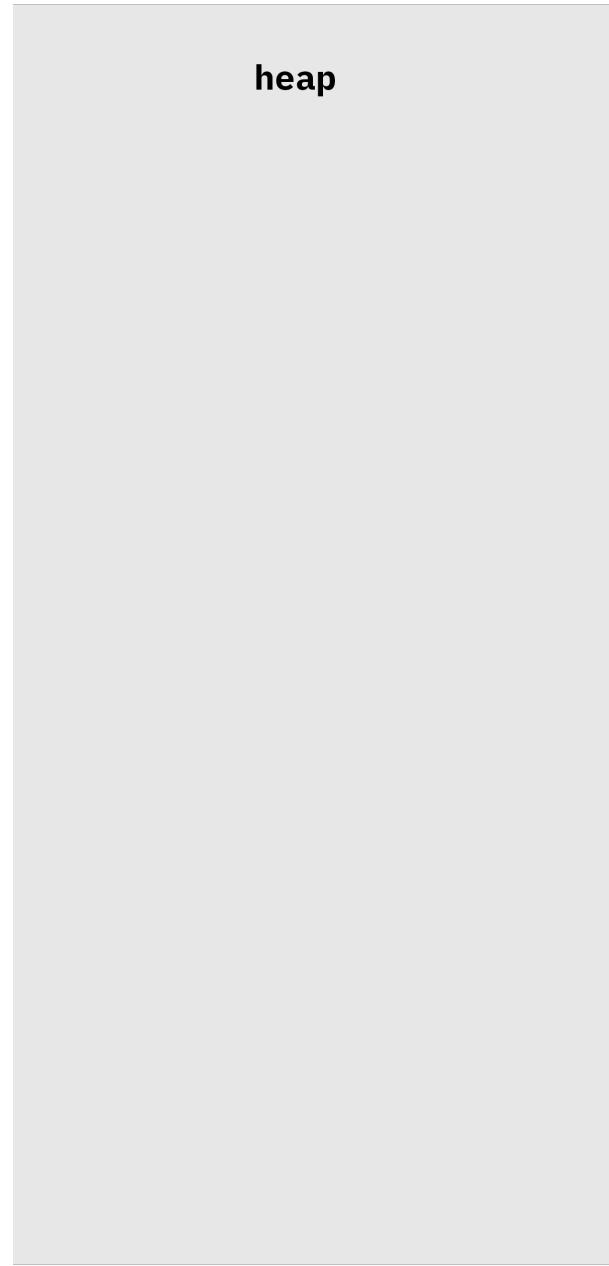


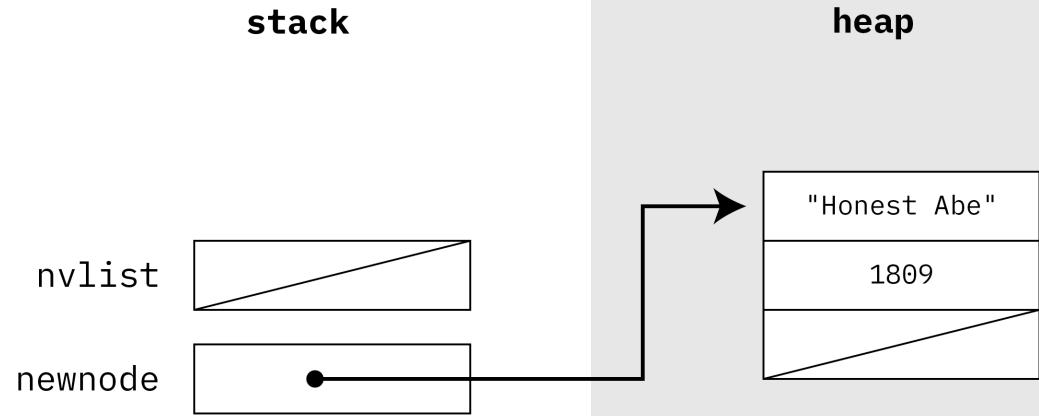
newnode



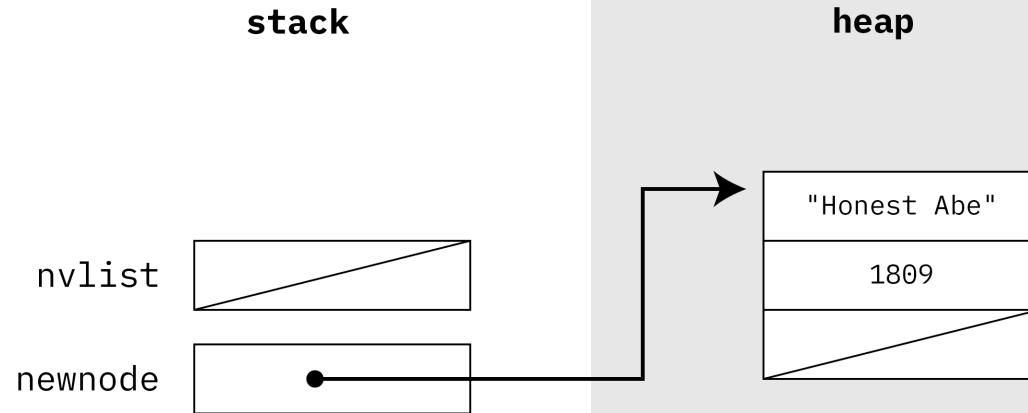
```
newnode = newitem(  
    strdup("Honest Abe",  
    1809  
)
```

## heap



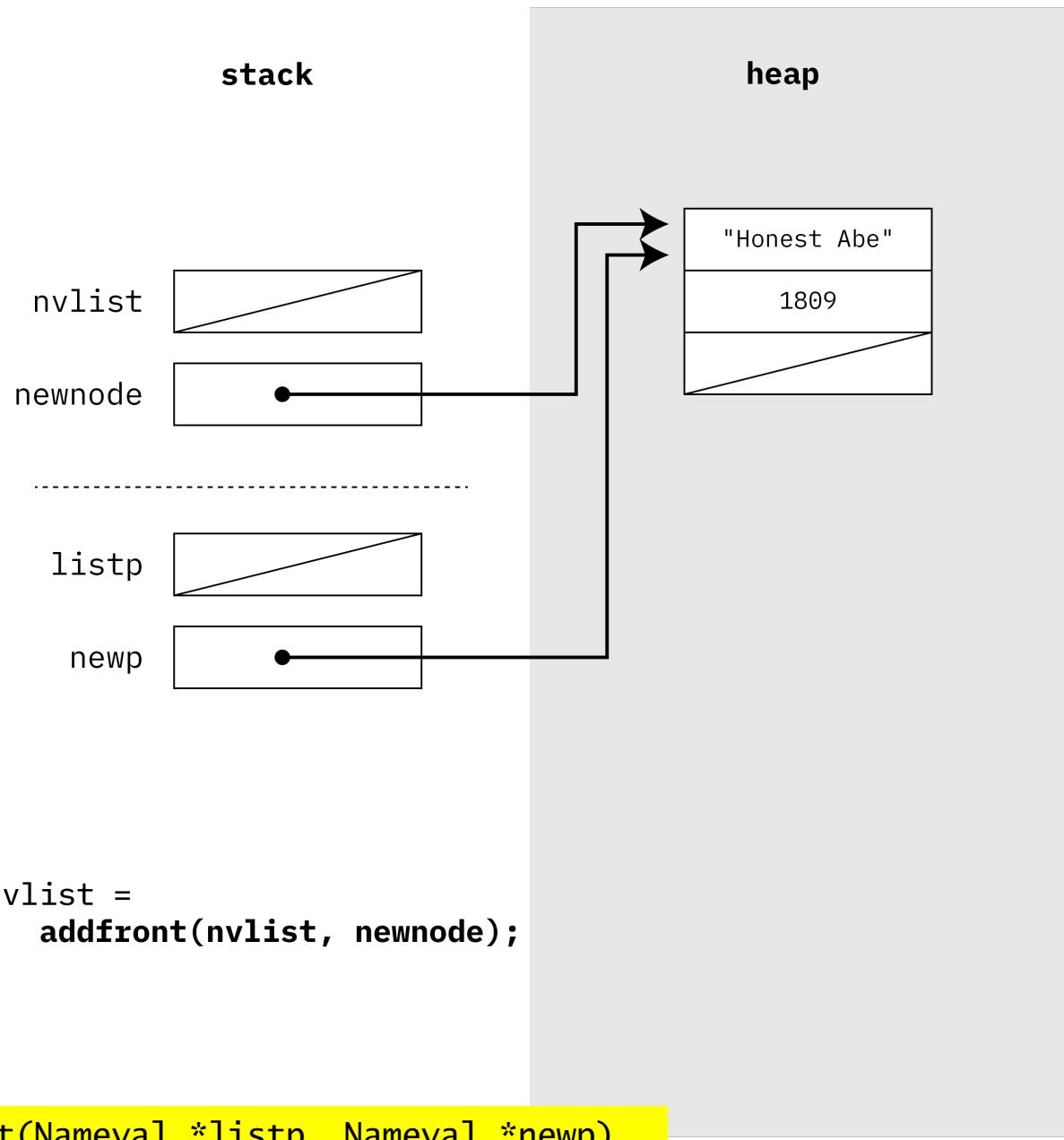


```
newnode = newitem(  
    strdup("Honest Abe",  
    1809  
) ;
```



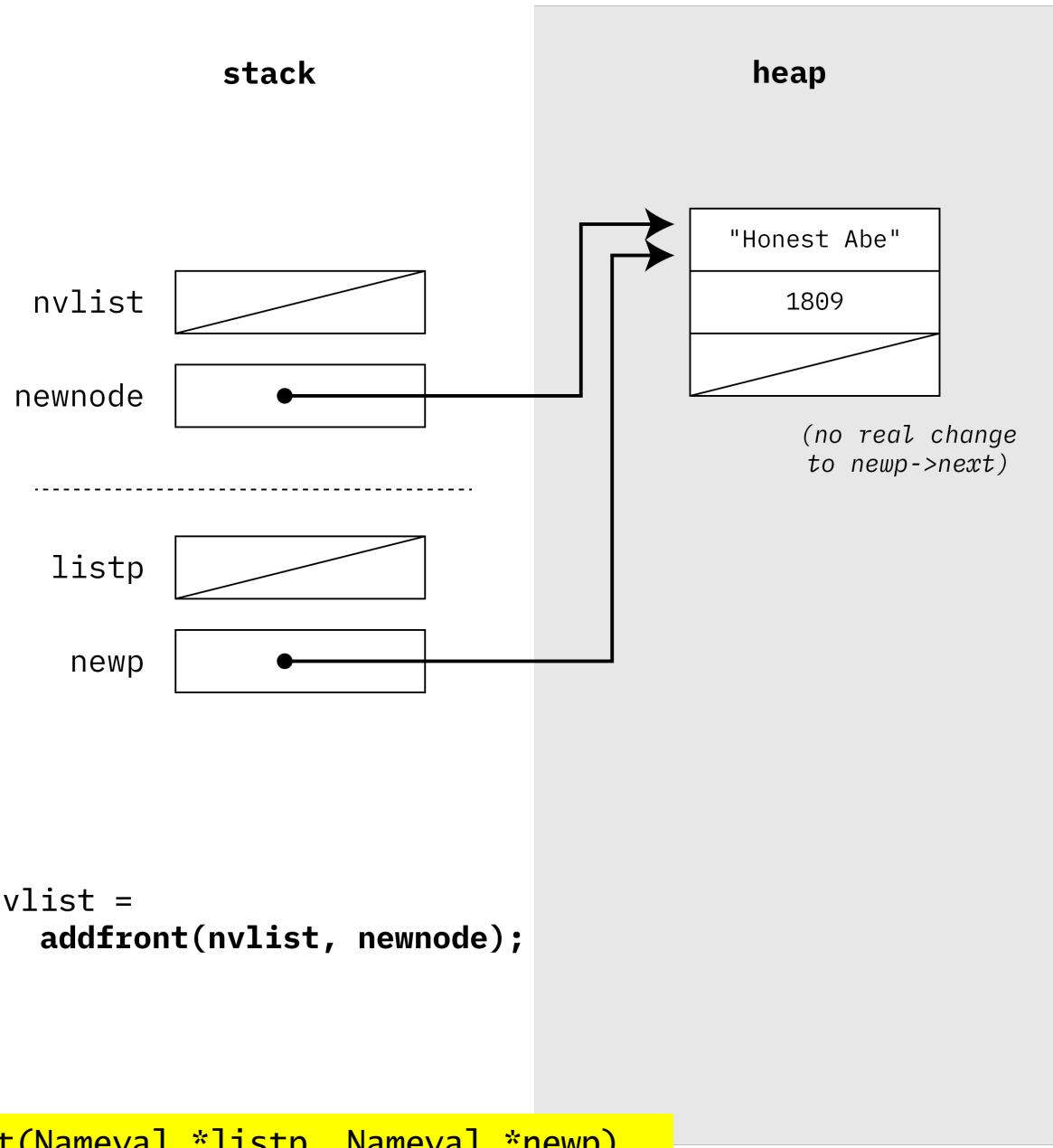
```
nvlist =  
    addfront(nvlist, newnode);
```

```
Nameval *addfront(Nameval *listp, Nameval *newp)  
{  
    newp->next = listp;  
    return newp;  
}
```



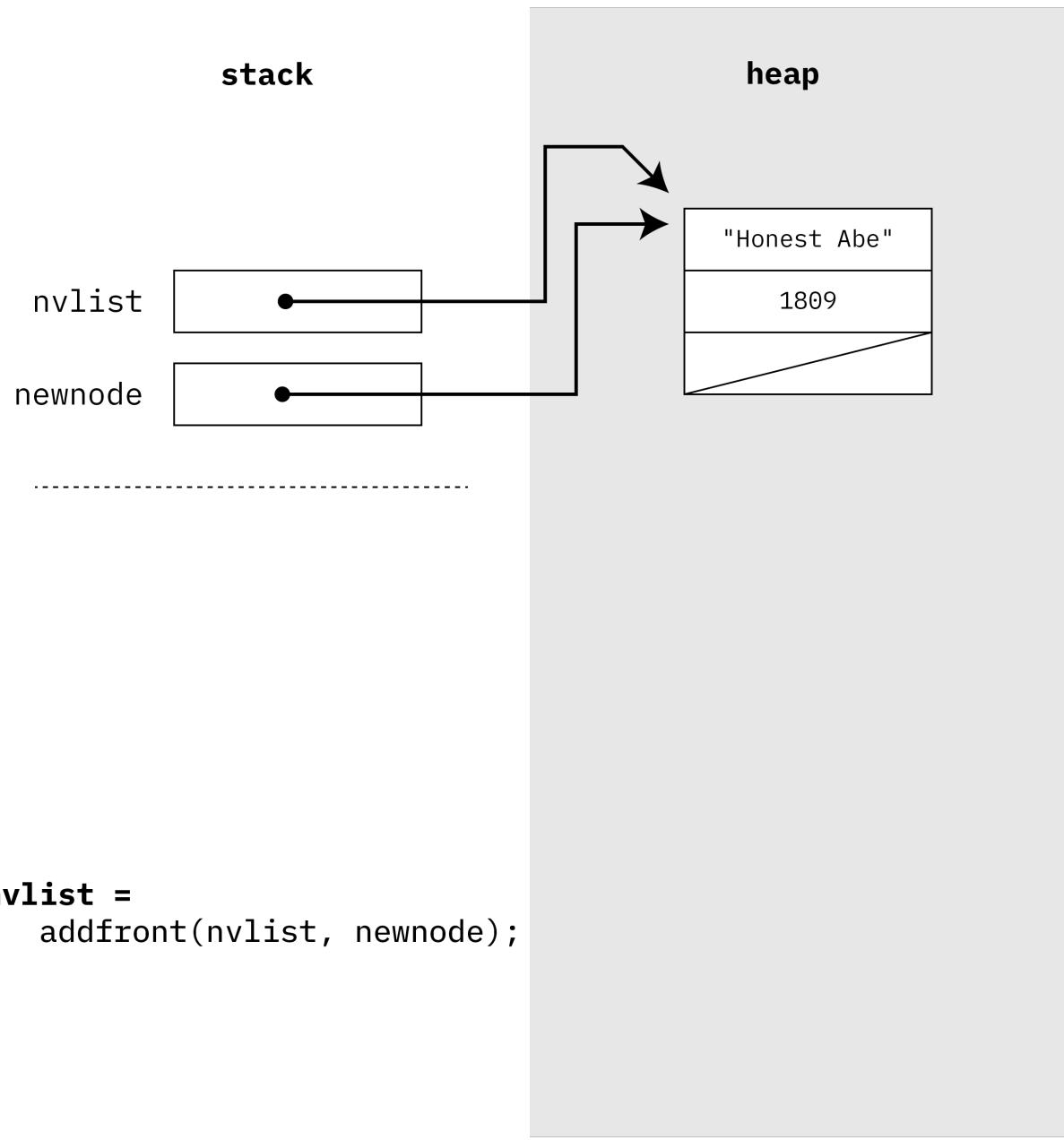
```
nvlist =
    addfront(nvlist, newnode);
```

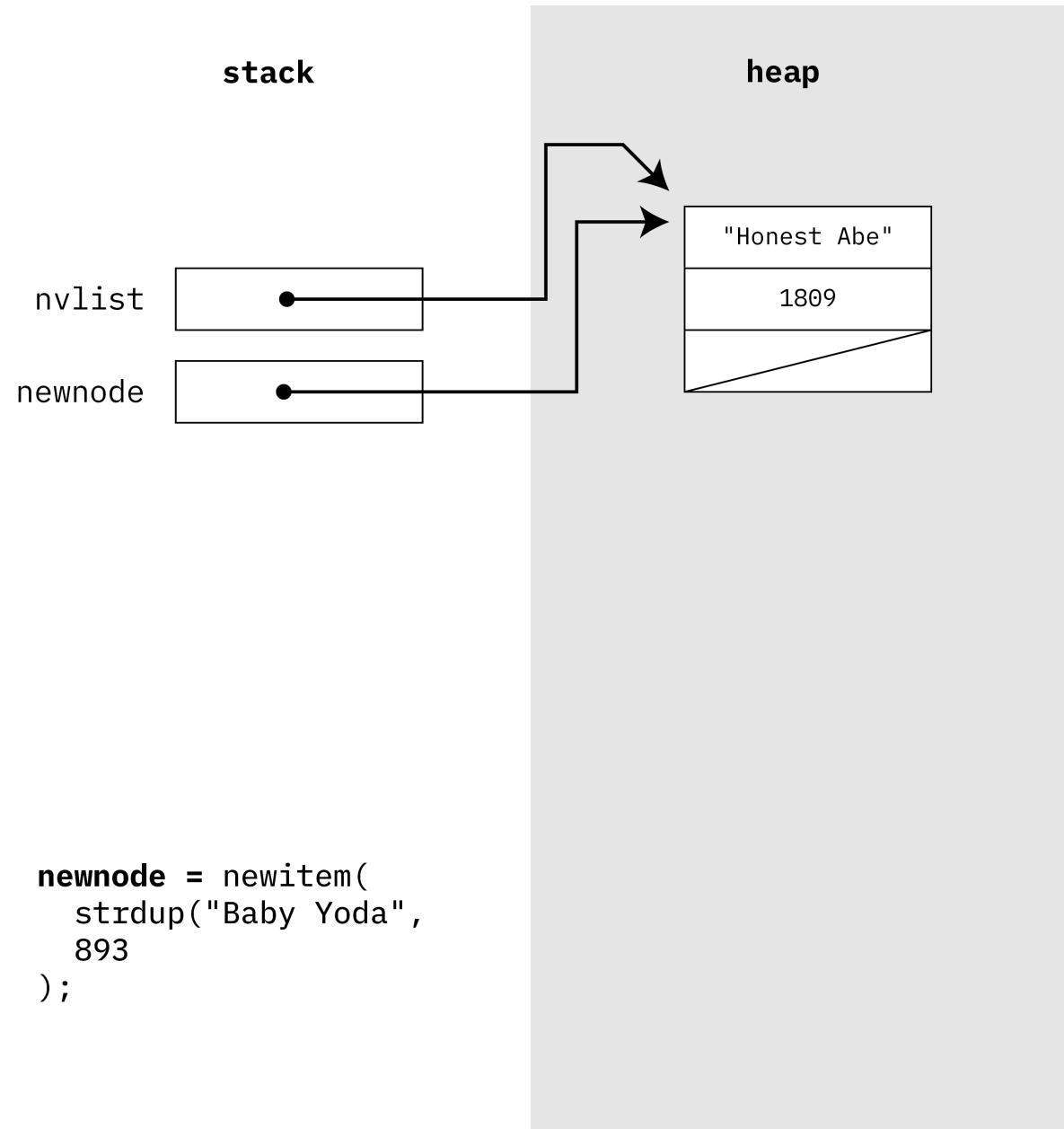
```
Nameval *addfront(Nameval *listp, Nameval *newp)
{
    newp->next = listp;
    return newp;
}
```

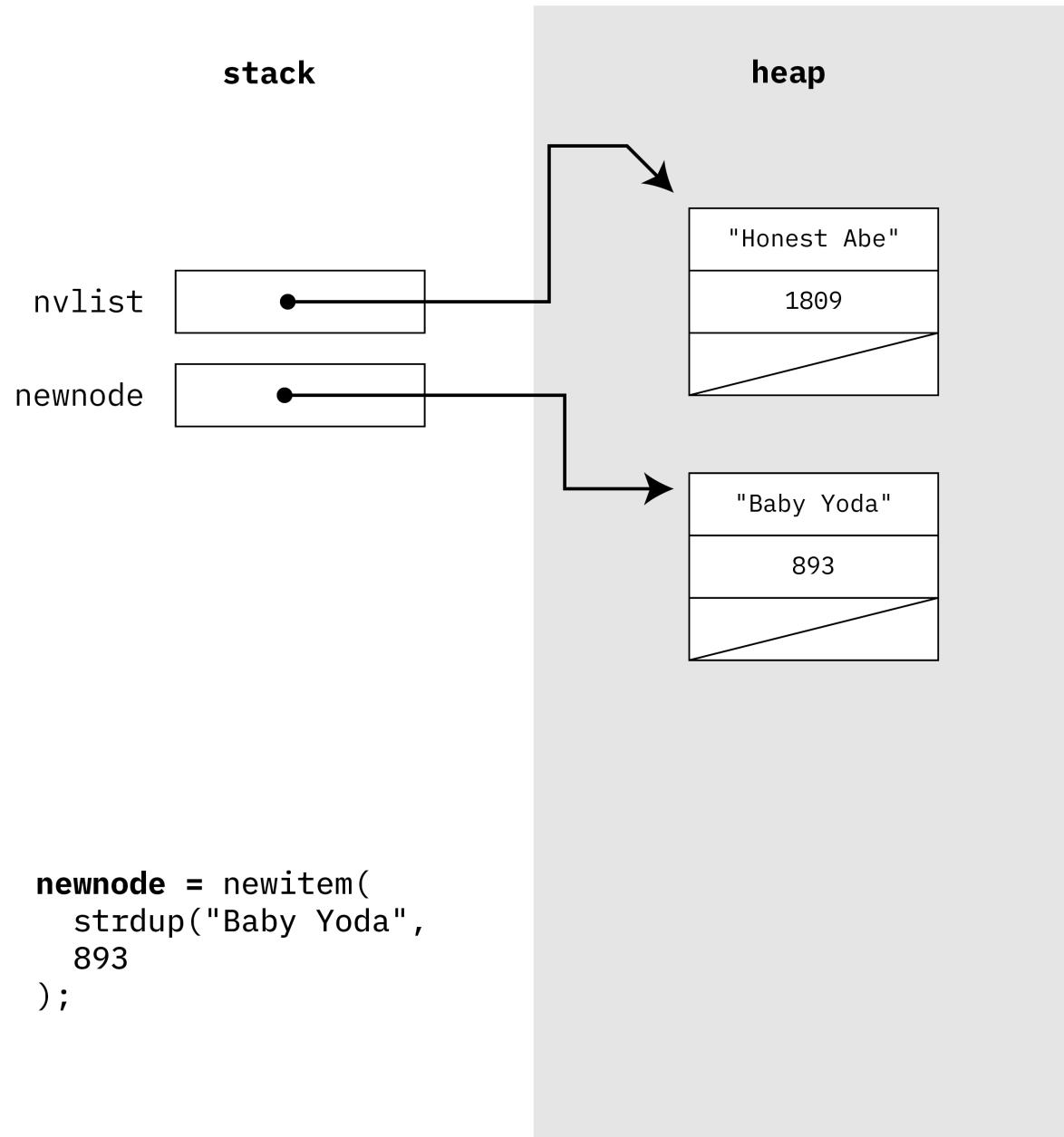


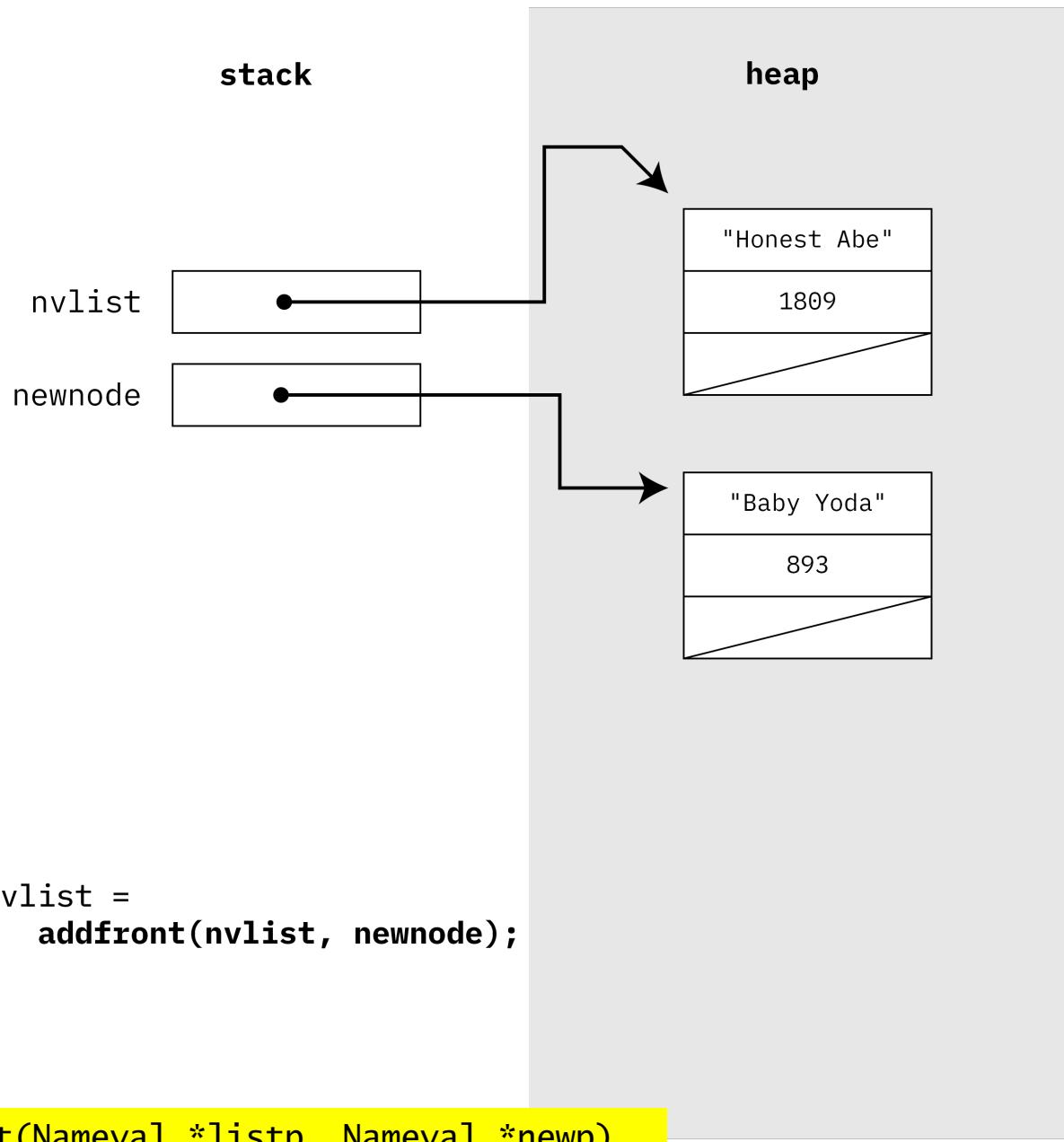
```
nvlist =
    addfront(nvlist, newnode);
```

```
Nameval *addfront(Nameval *listp, Nameval *newp)
{
    newp->next = listp;
    return newp;
}
```

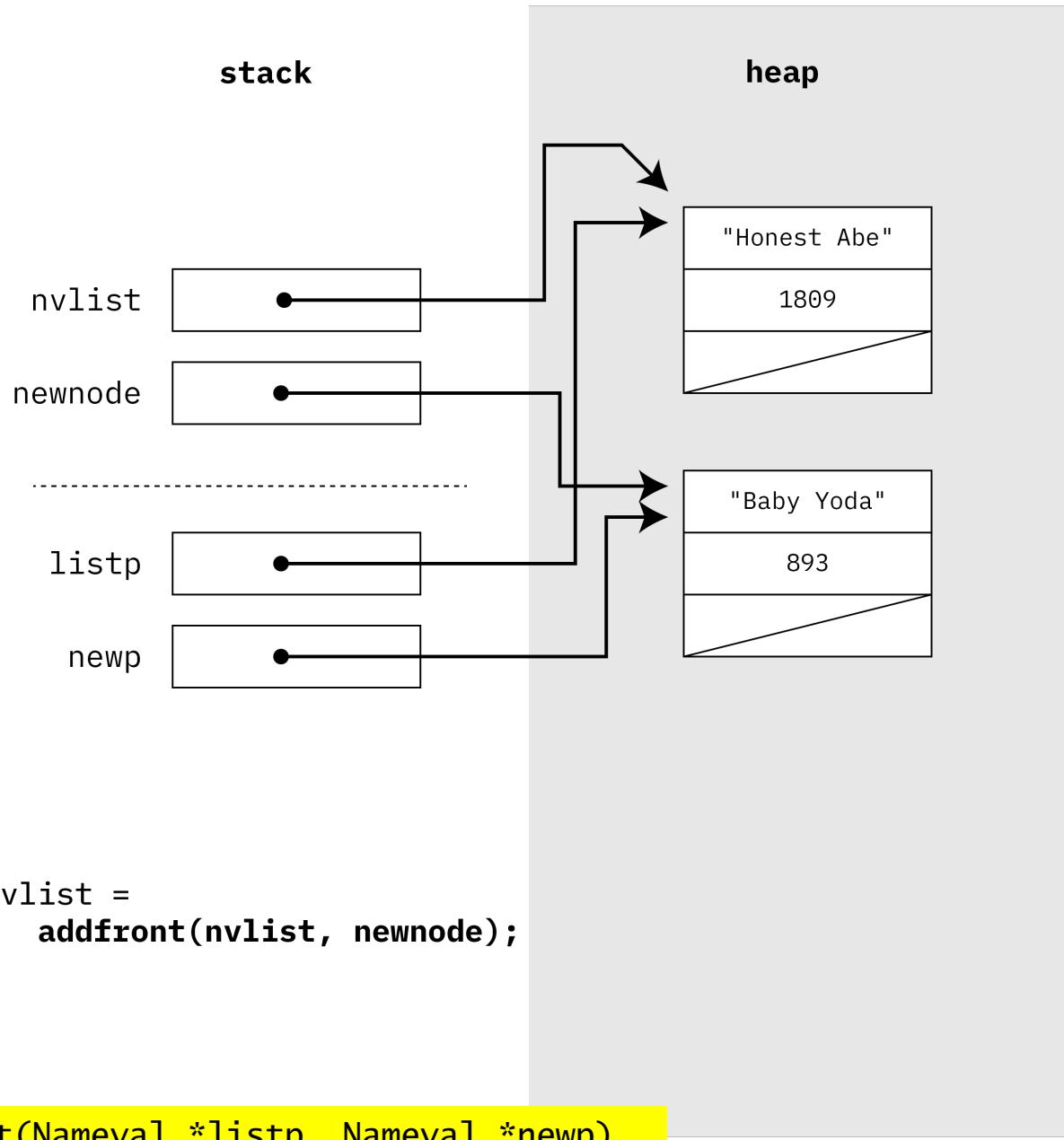






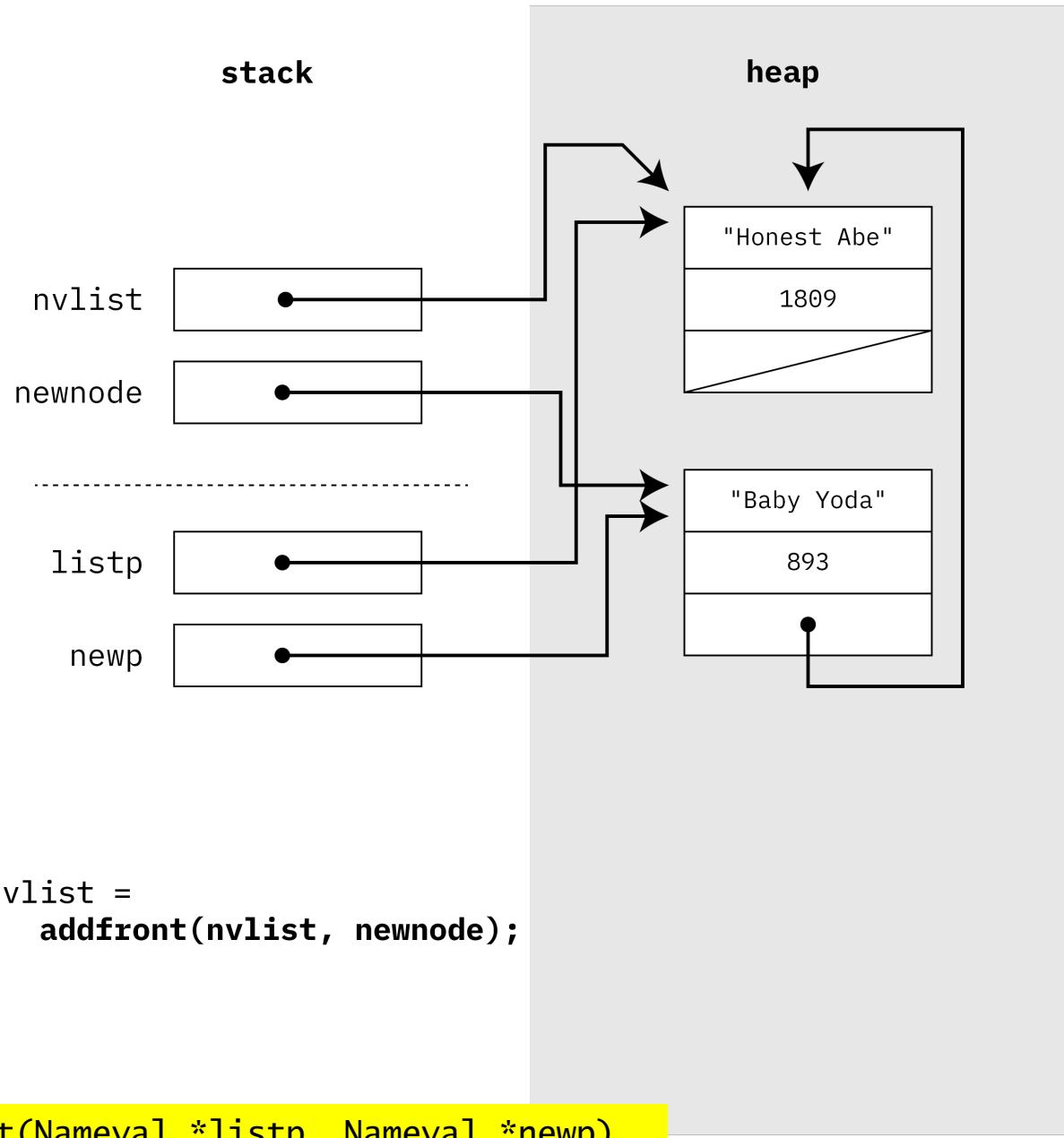


```
Nameval *addfront(Nameval *listp, Nameval *newp)  
{  
    newp->next = listp;  
    return newp;  
}
```



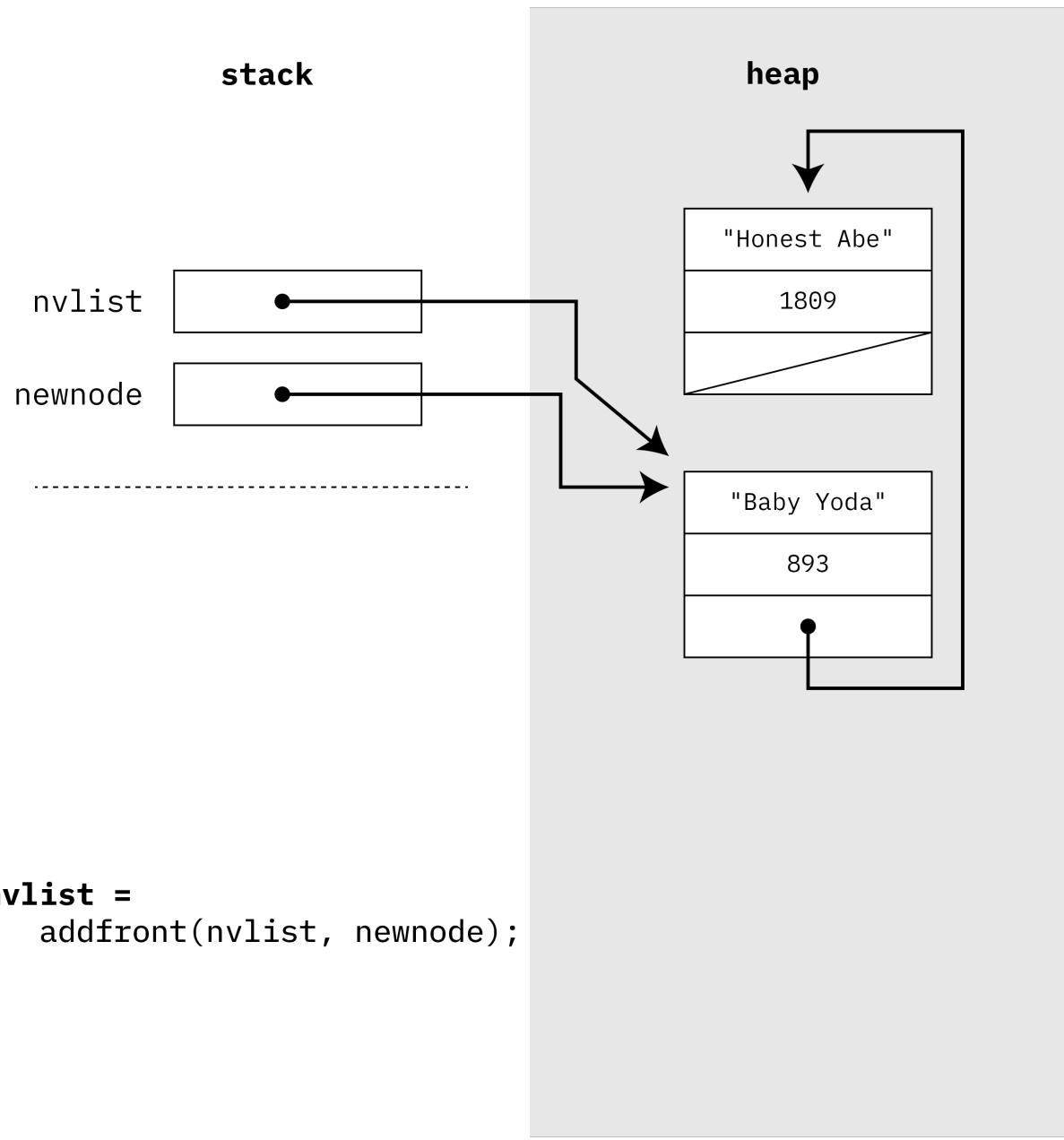
```
nvlist =
    addfront(nvlist, newnode);
```

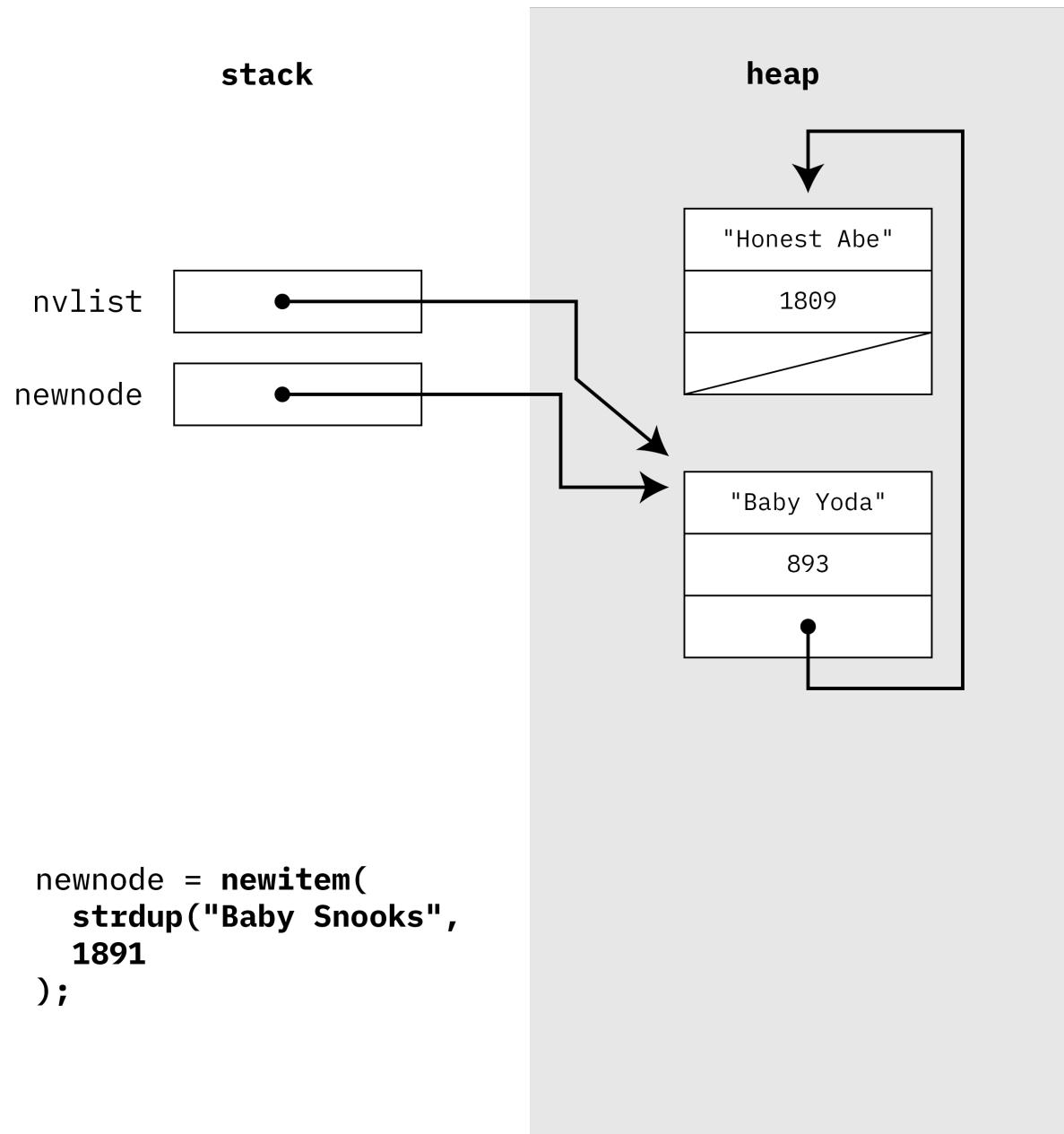
```
Nameval *addfront(Nameval *listp, Nameval *newp)
{
    newp->next = listp;
    return newp;
}
```

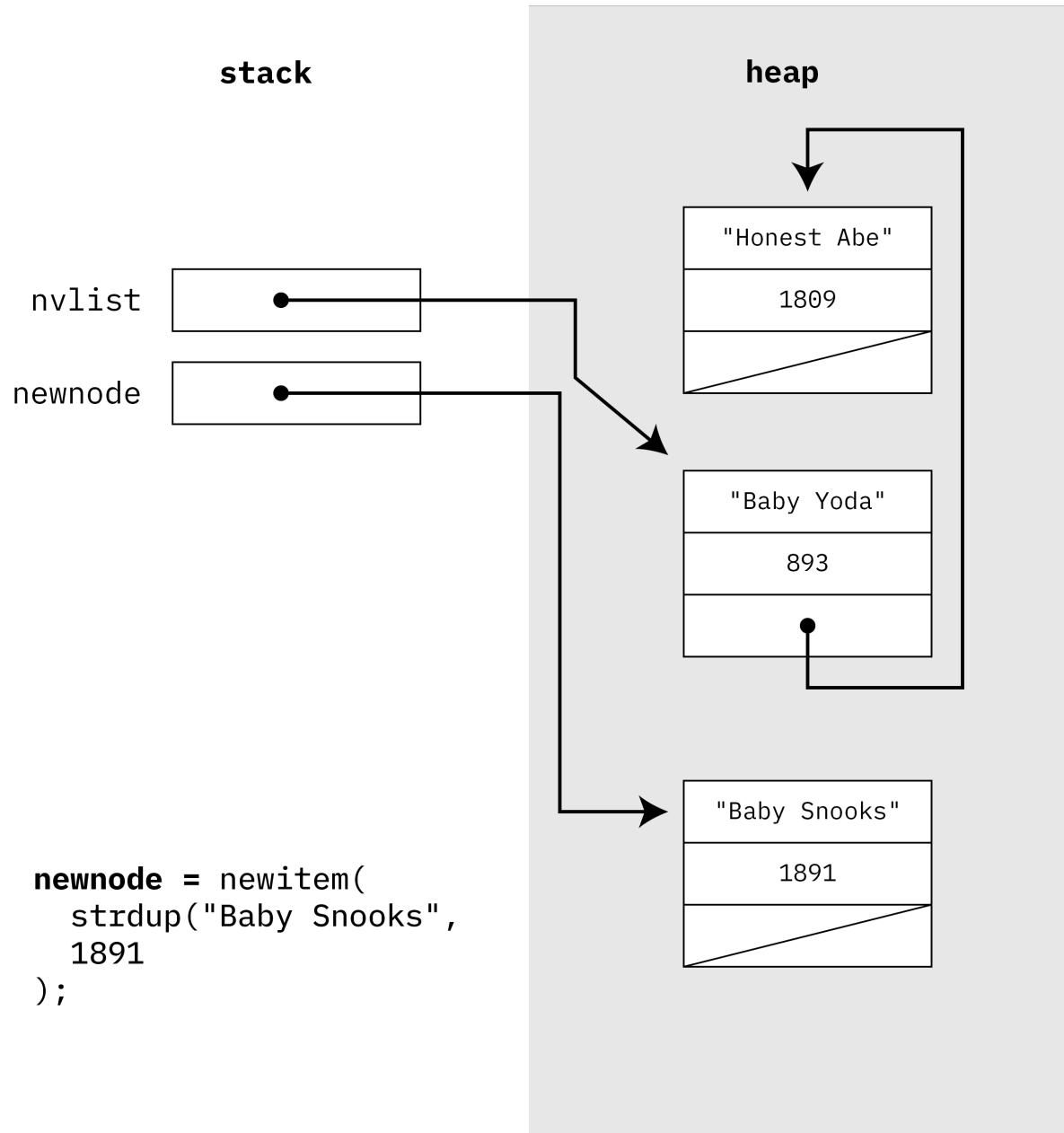


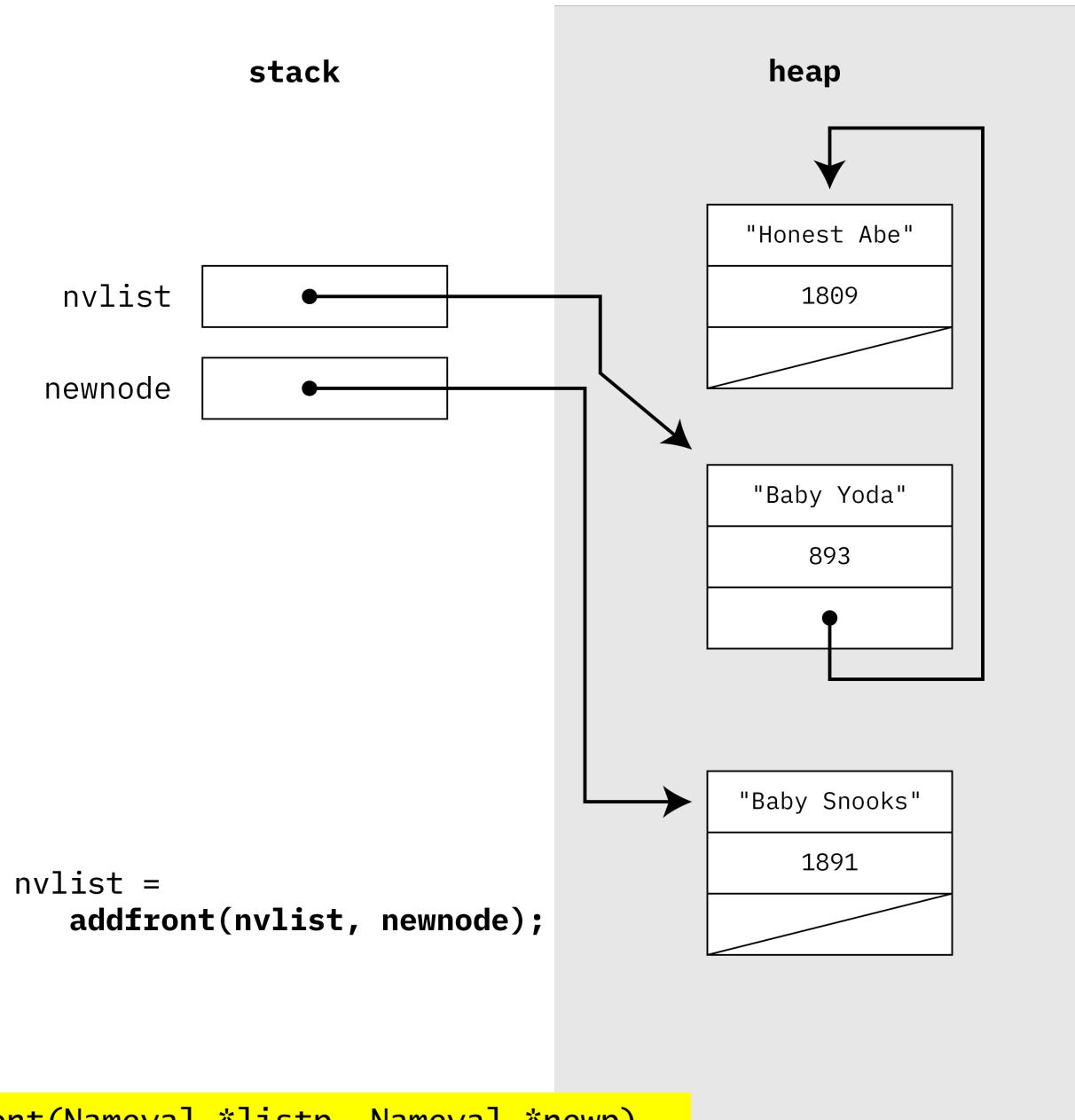
```

Nameval *addfront(Nameval *listp, Nameval *newp)
{
    newp->next = listp;
    return newp;
}
    
```

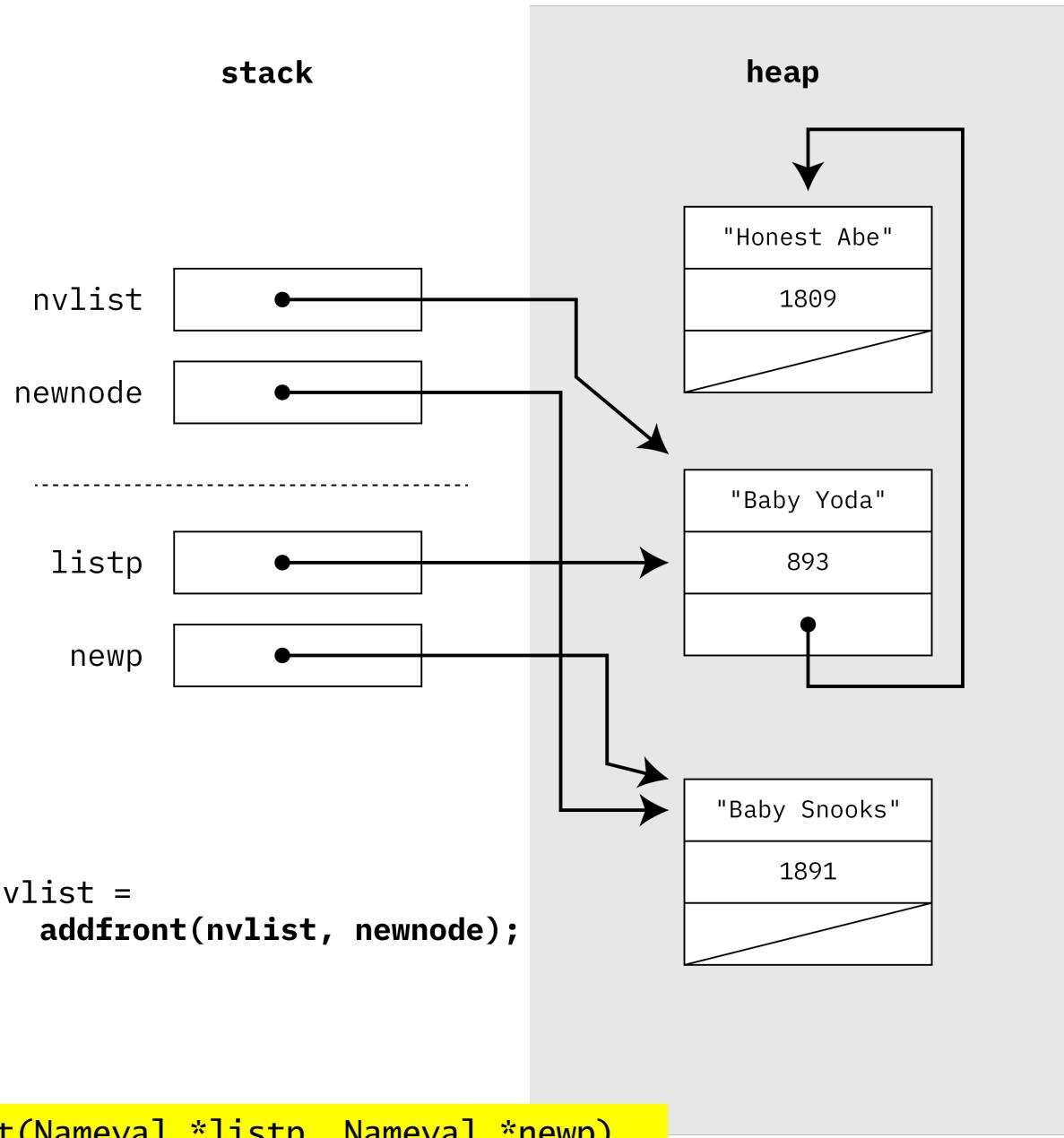




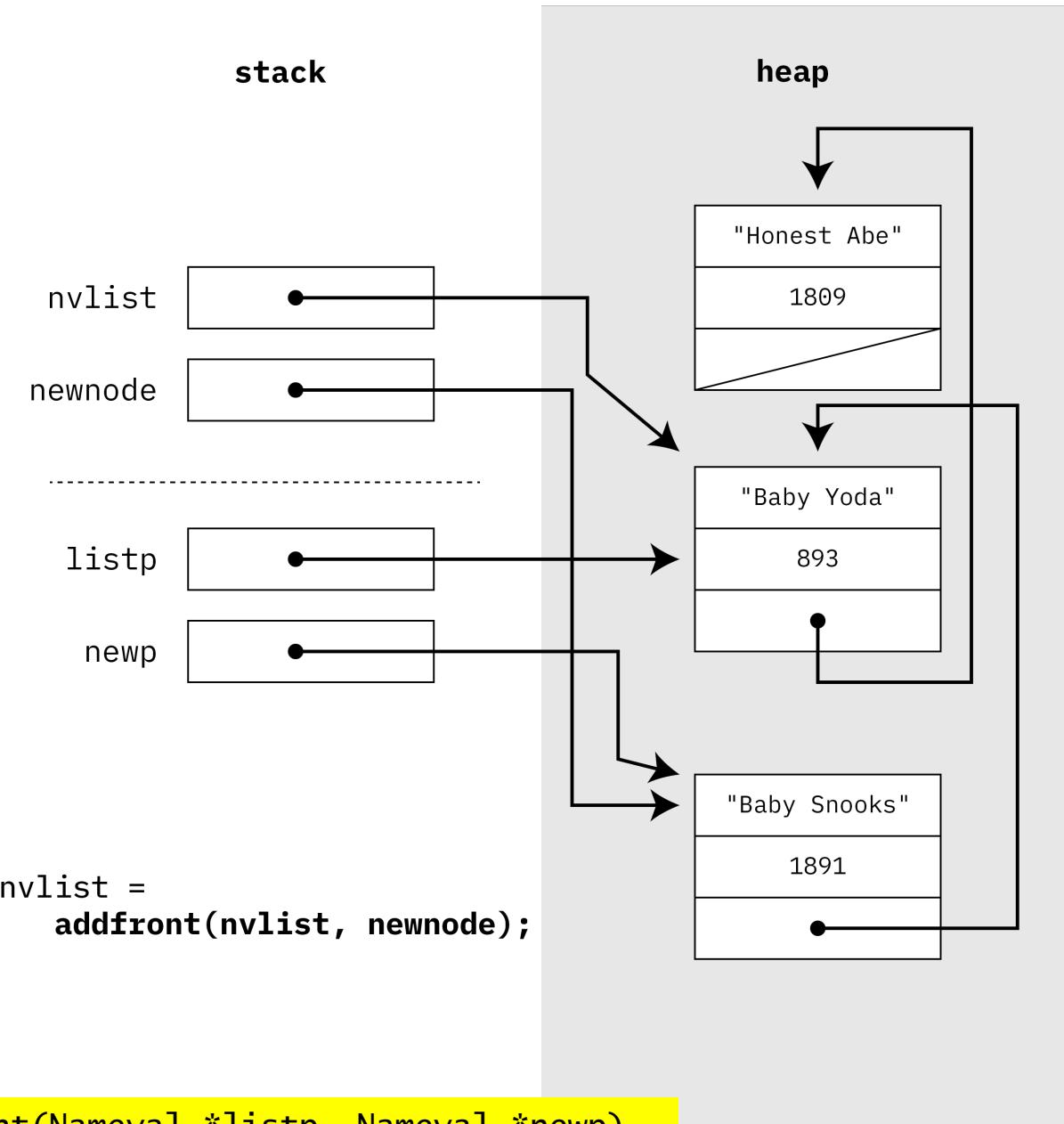




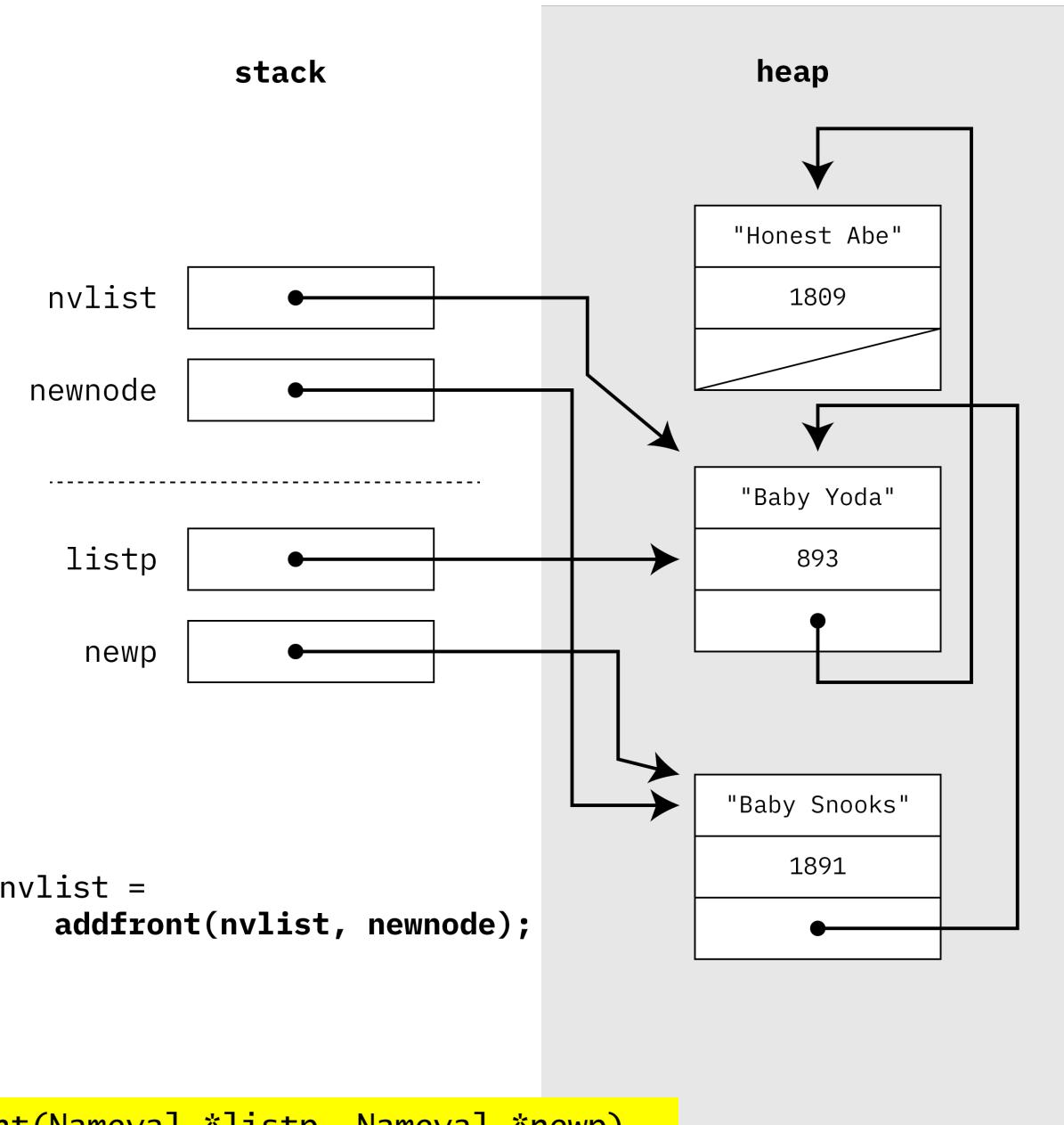
```
Nameval *addfront(Nameval *listp, Nameval *newp)
{
    newp->next = listp;
    return newp;
}
```



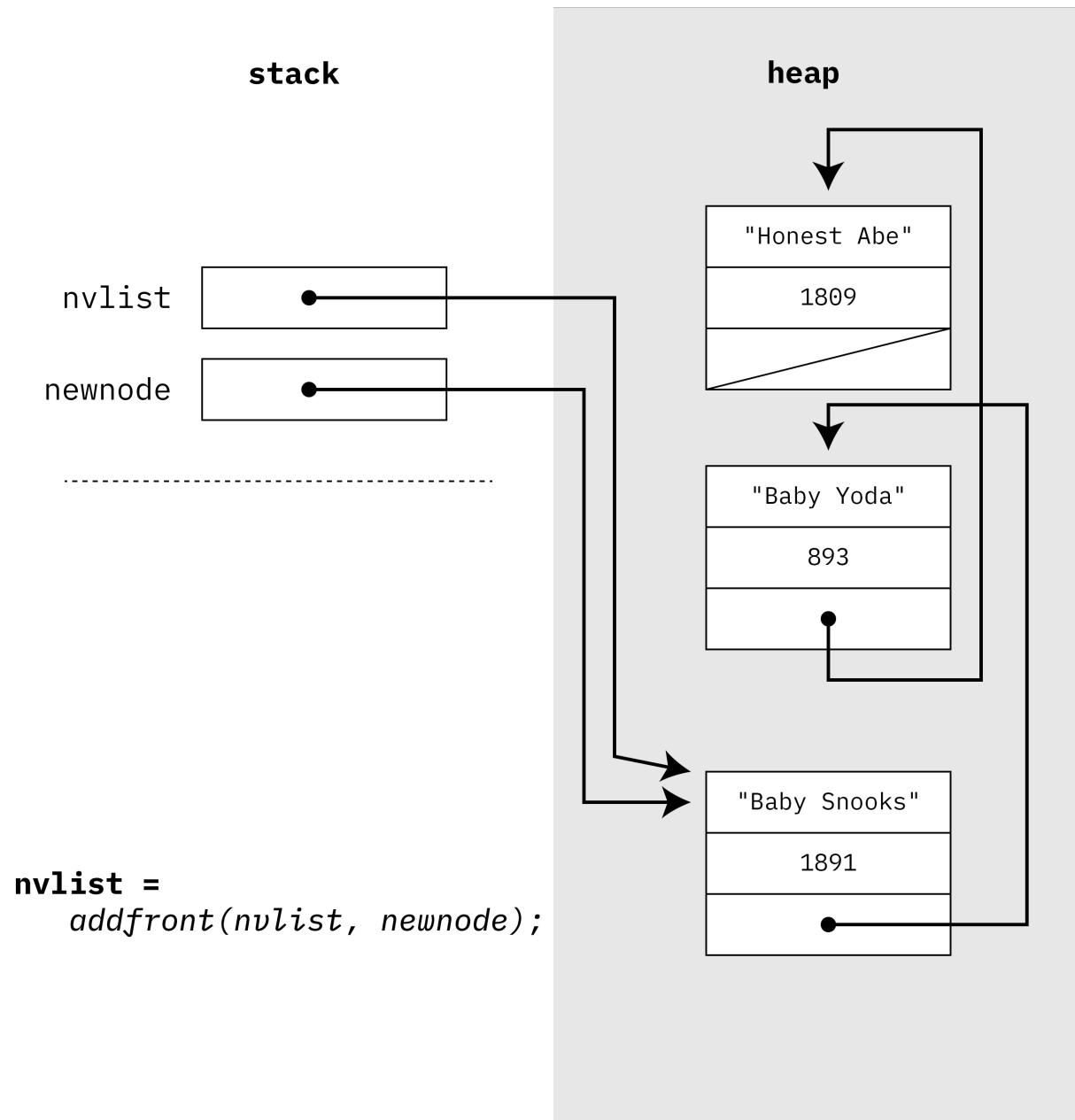
```
Nameval *addfront(Nameval *listp, Nameval *newp)
{
    newp->next = listp;
    return newp;
}
```



```
Nameval *addfront(Nameval *listp, Nameval *newp)
{
    newp->next = listp;
    return newp;
}
```



```
Nameval *addfront(Nameval *listp, Nameval *newp)
{
    newp->next = listp;
    return newp;
}
```



```

nvlist =
    addfront(nvlist, newnode);
    
```

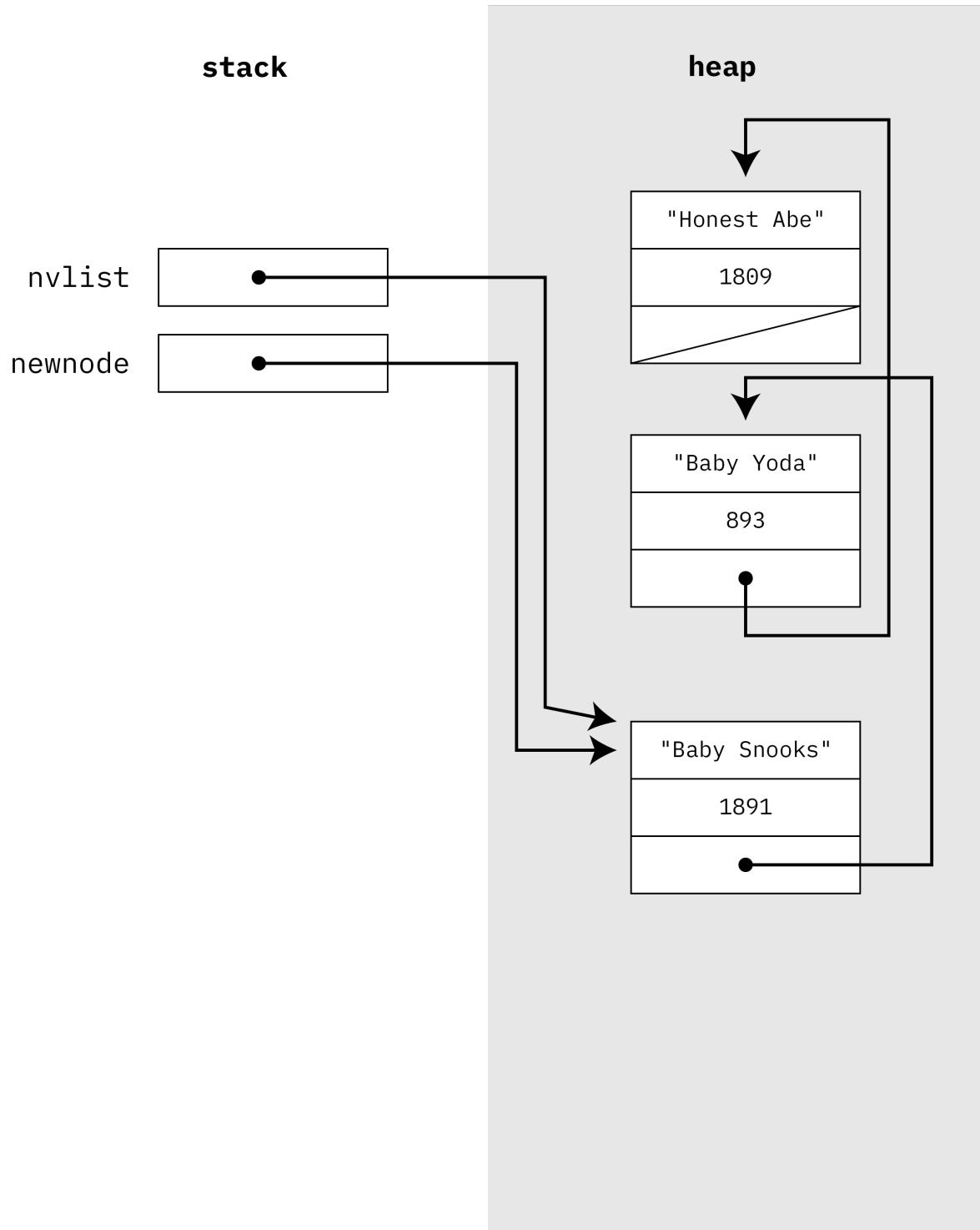
# Adding an item to the end

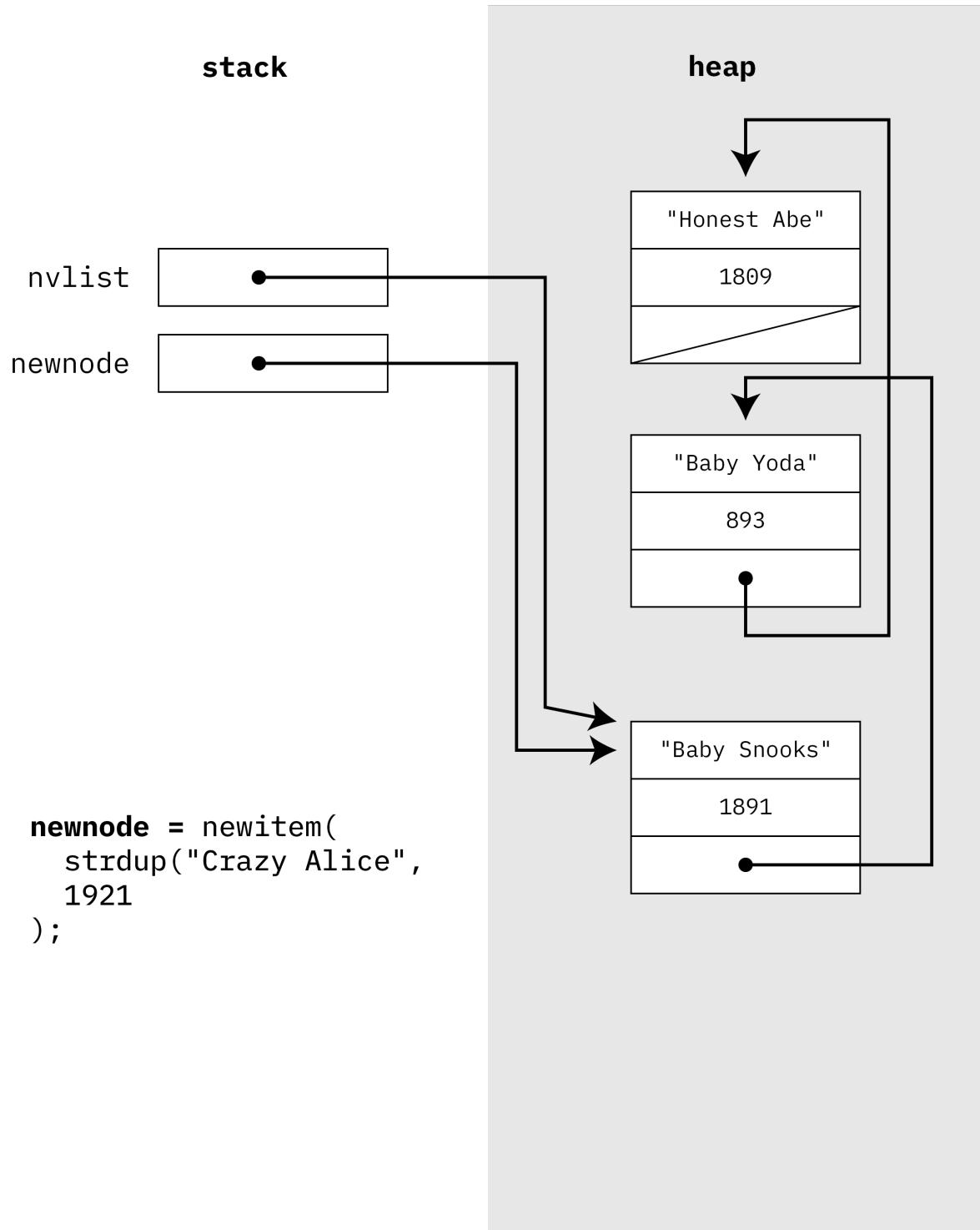
- With a singly-linked list this is an  $O(n)$  operation
  - Traverse list until we reach the last node
  - Adjust that node's pointer to indicate the new node.
  - Note that the next field of node created by newitem is already set to NULL.

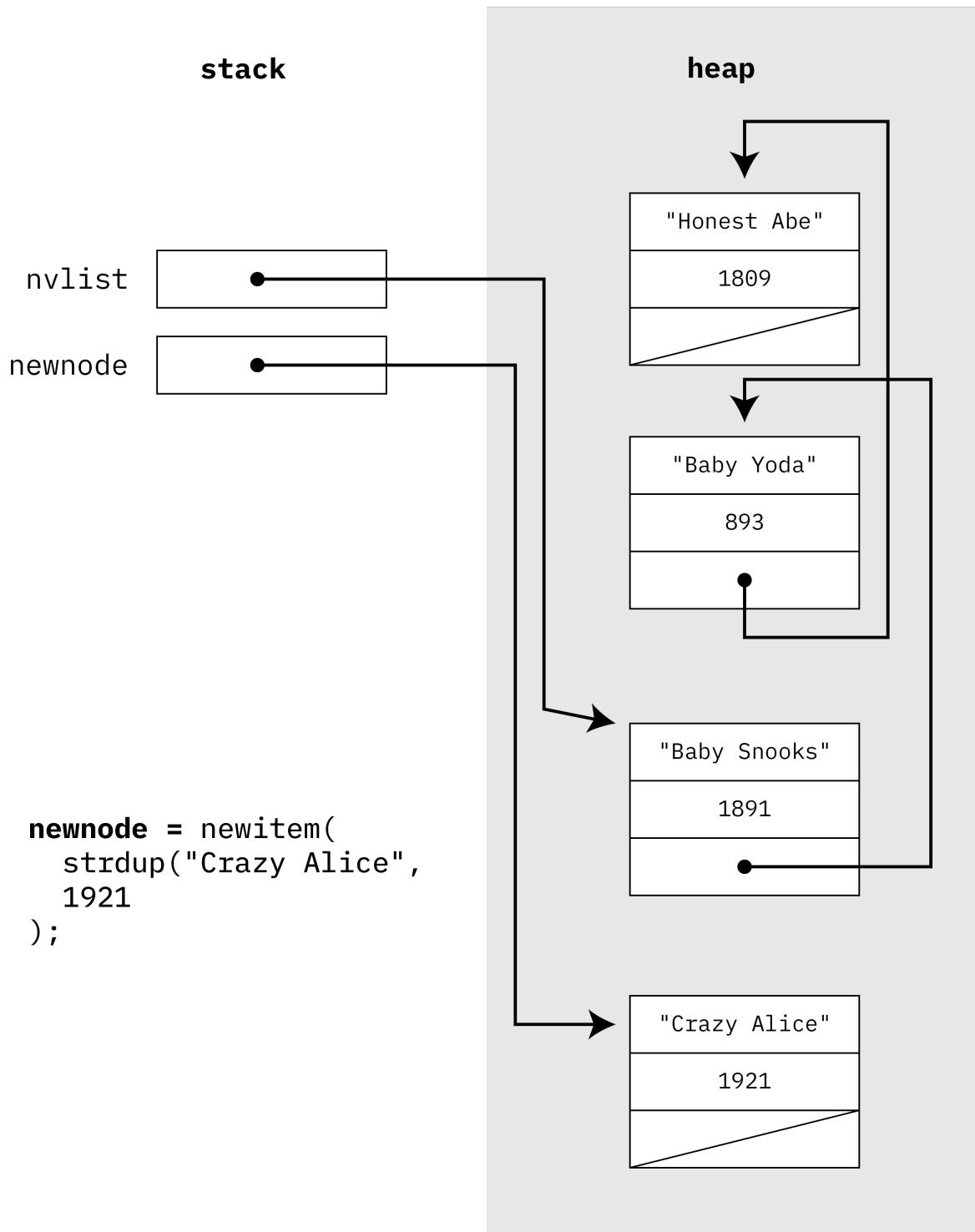
```
Nameval *addend(Nameval *listp, Nameval *newp)
{
    Nameval *p;

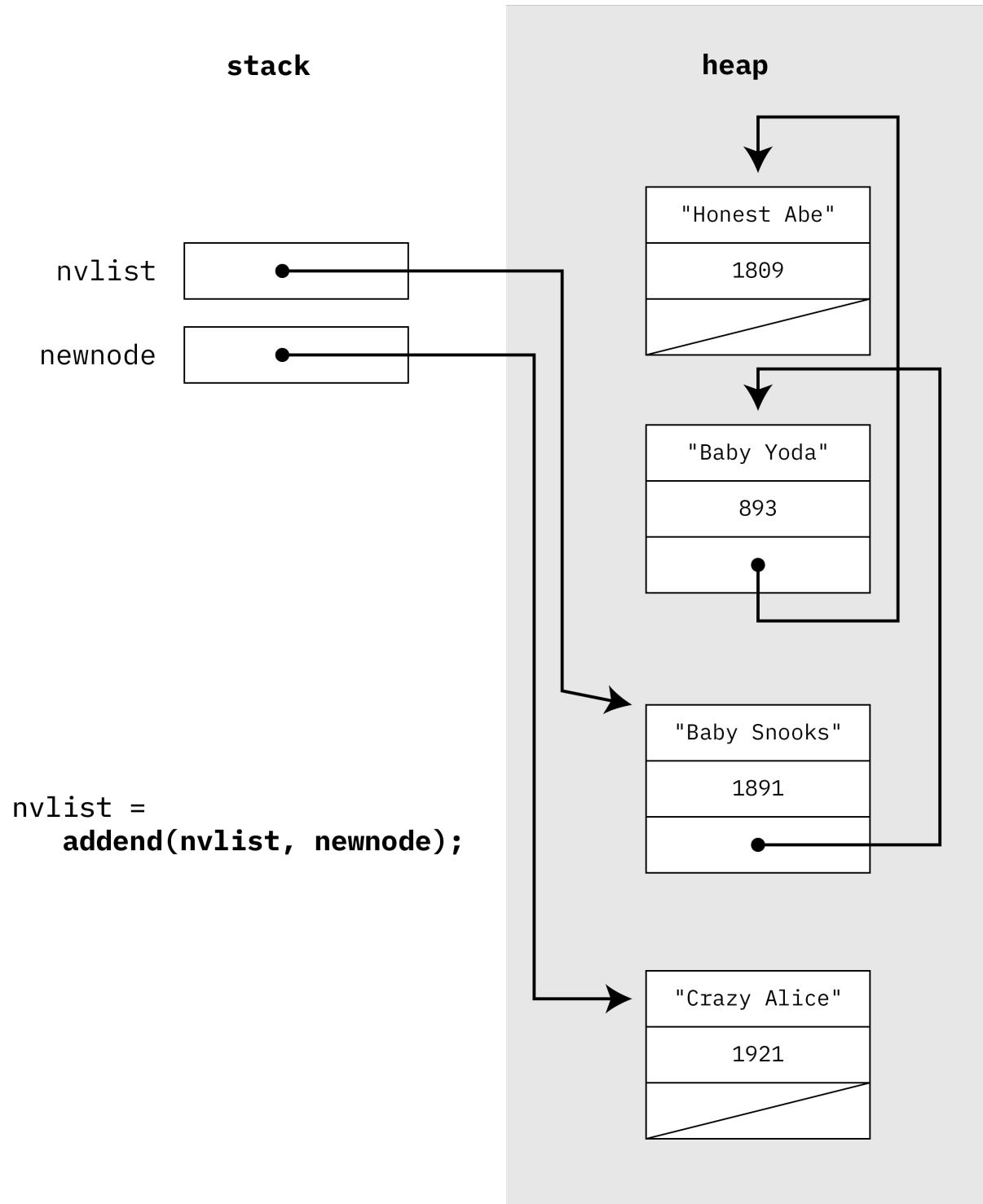
    if (listp == NULL) {
        return newp;
    }
    for (p = listp; p->next != NULL; p = p->next)
        ;
    p->next = newp;
    return listp;
}
```

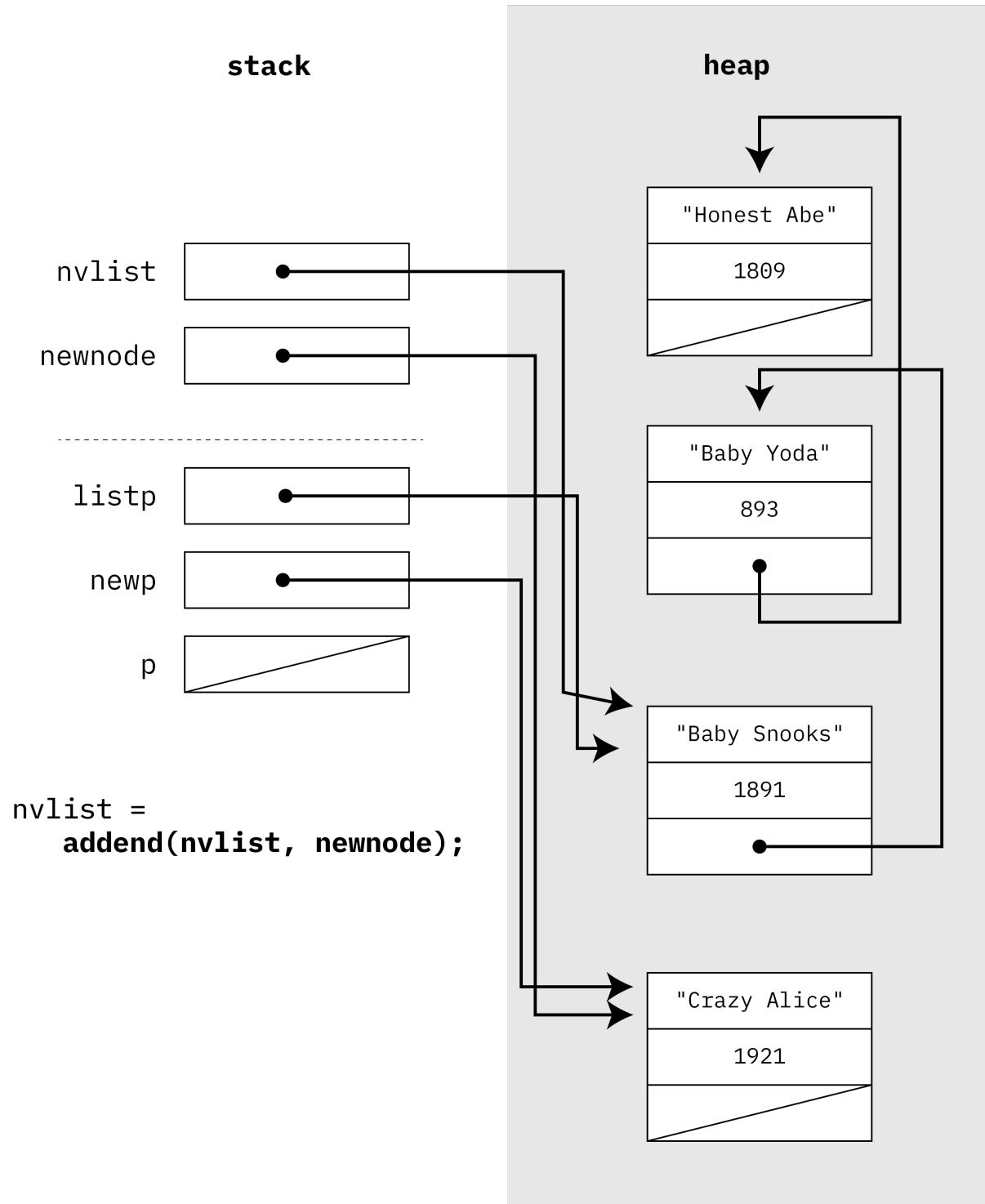
```
...
Nameval *newnode = newitem(strdup("Demetri"), 30);
nvlist = addend(nvlist, newnode);
```

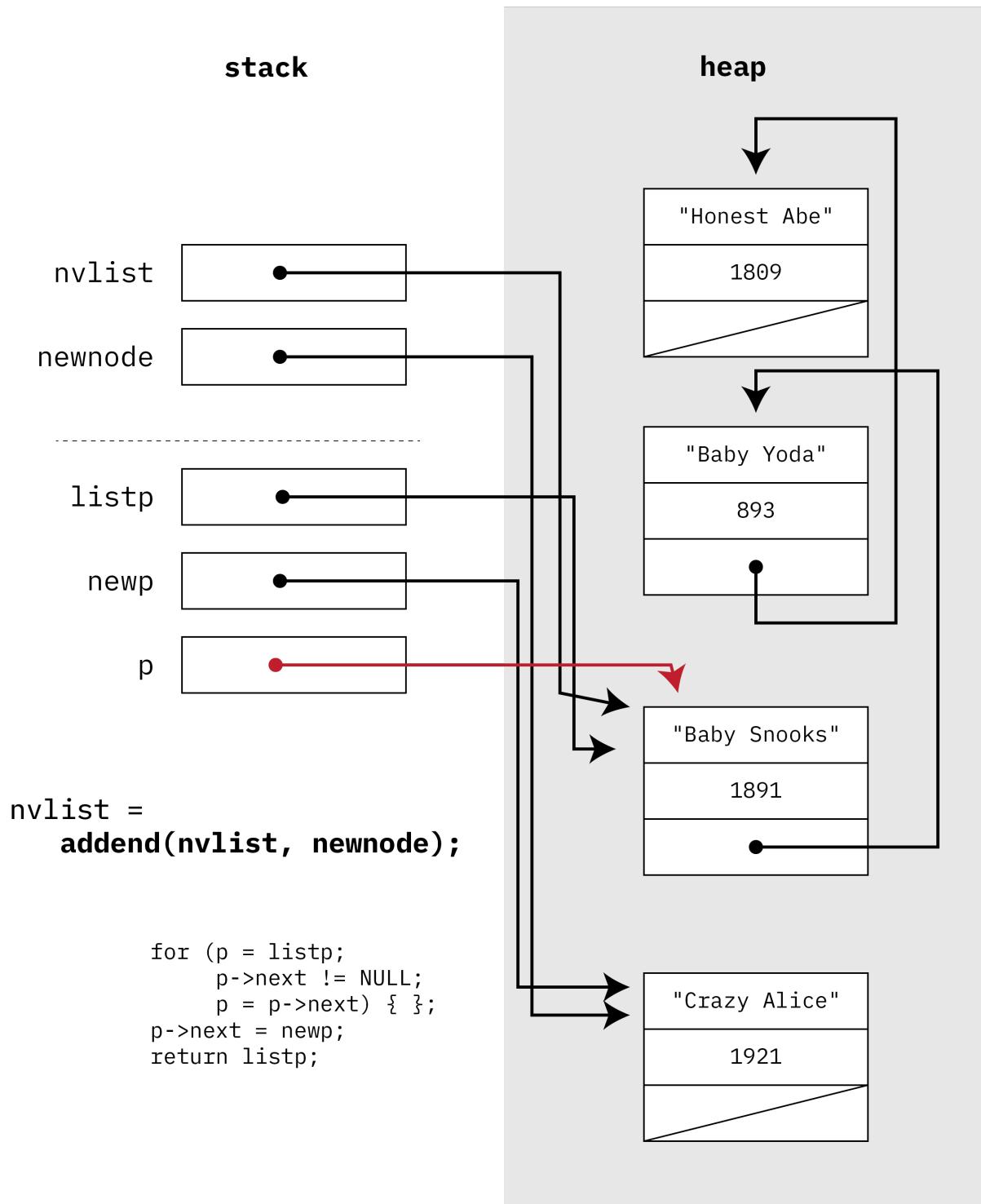


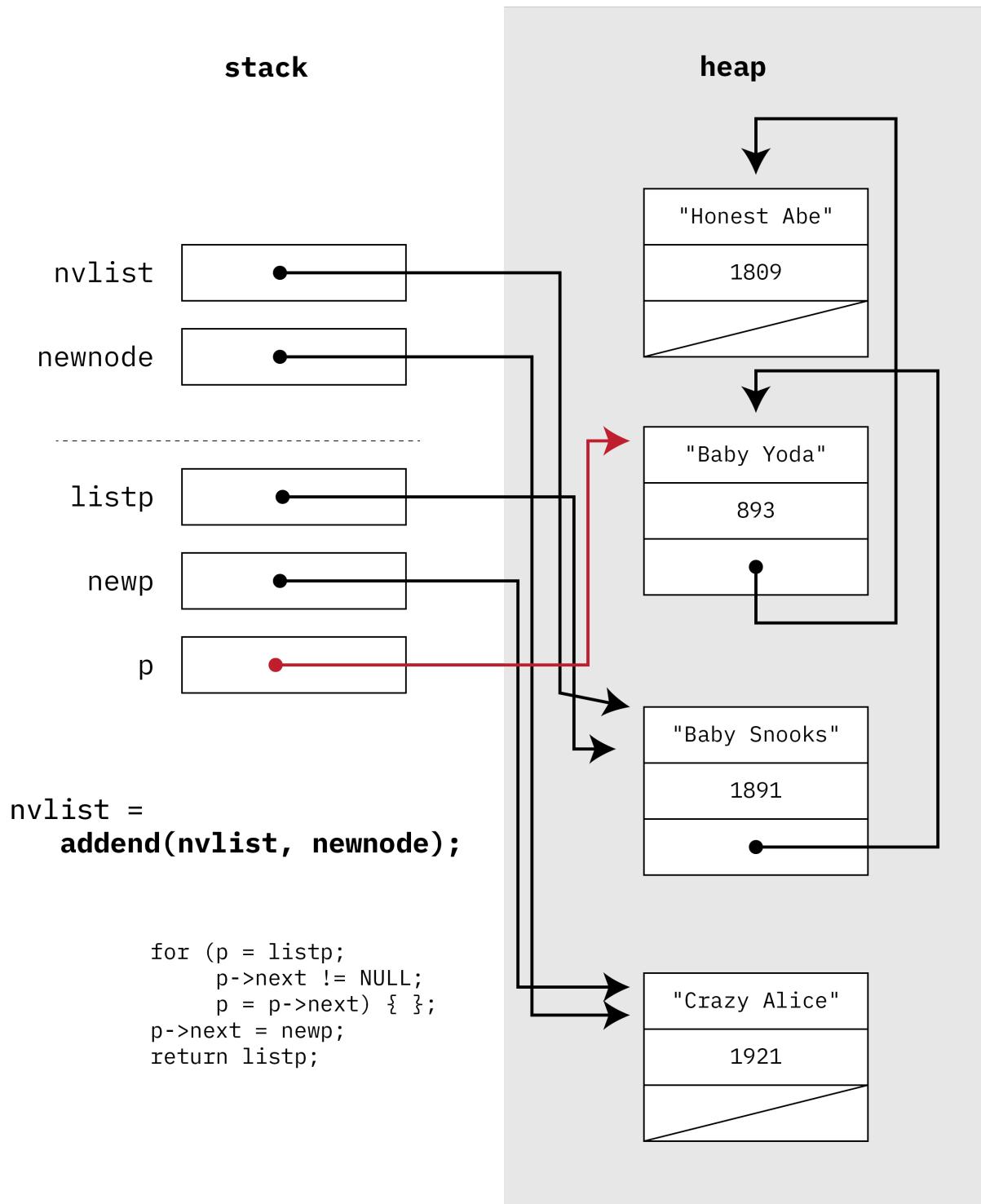


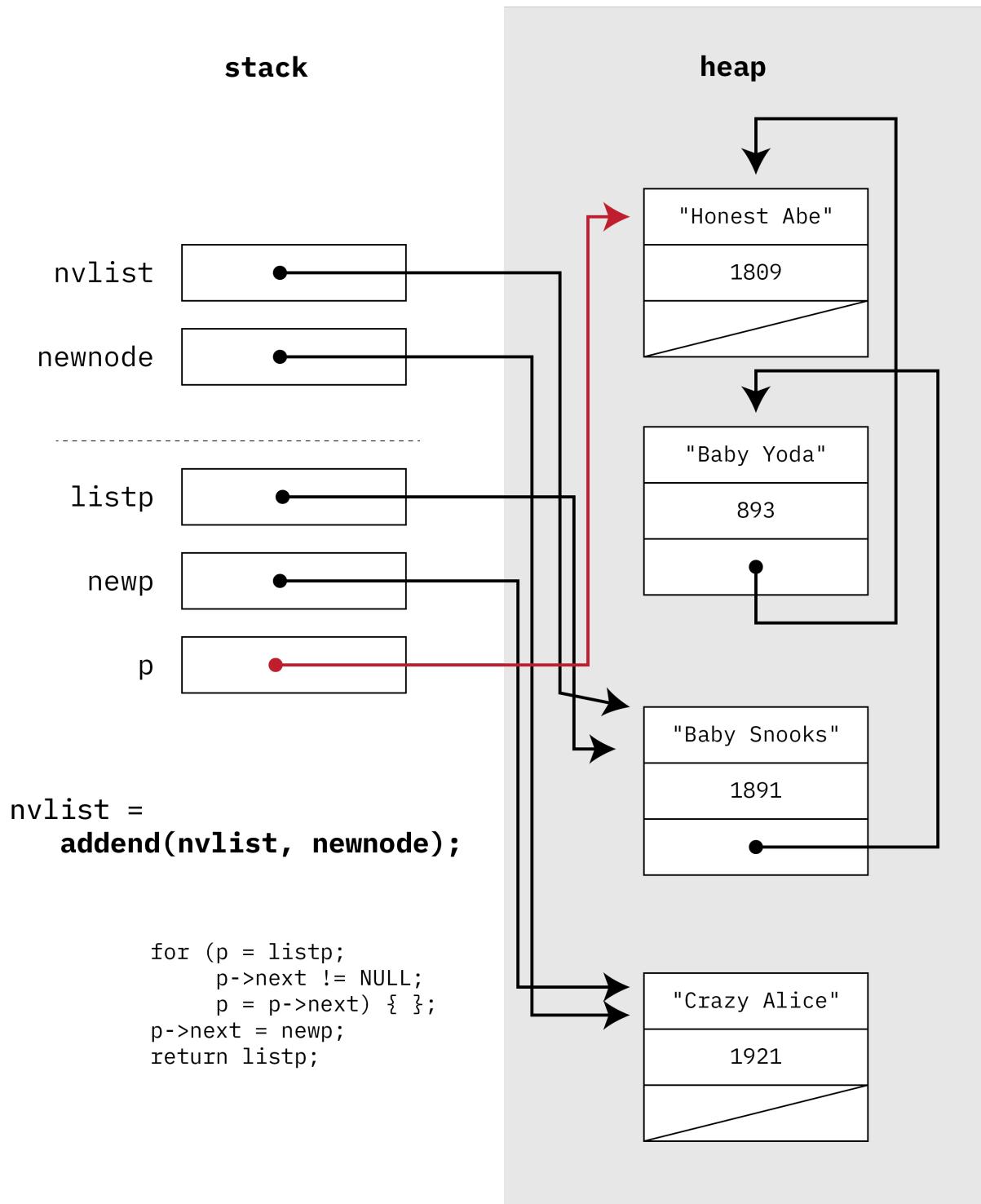


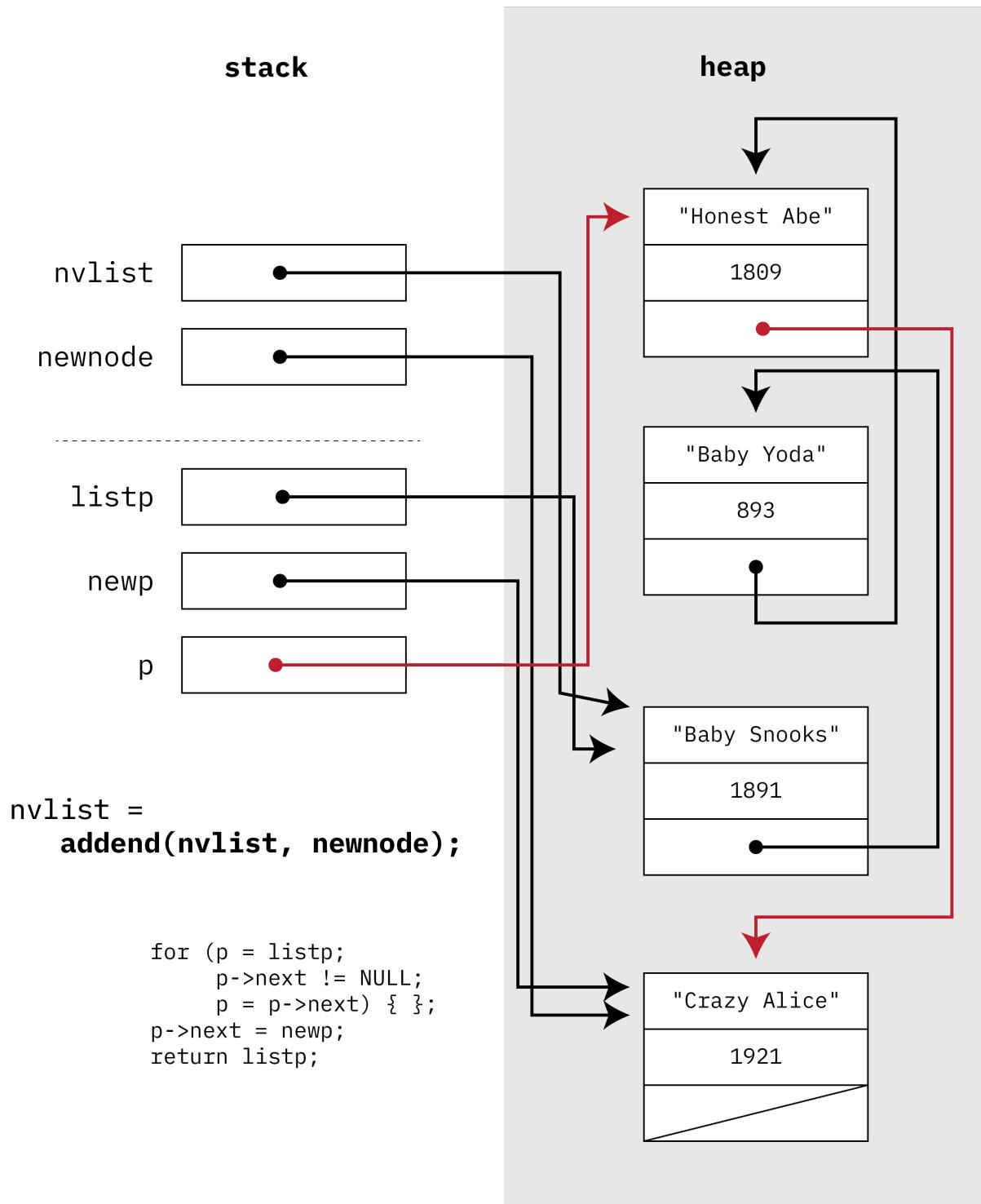


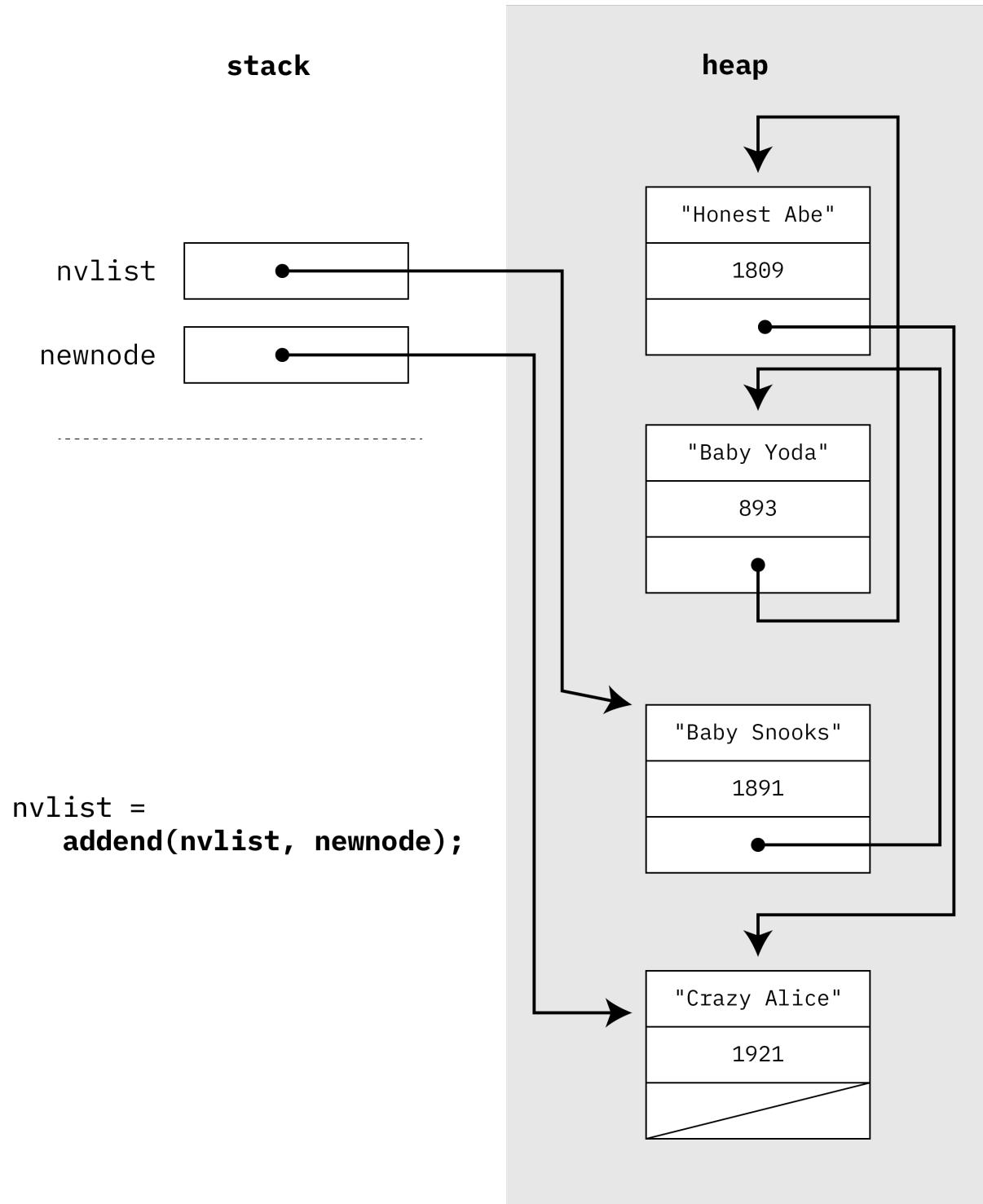












# Find an item

- As with adding to the end, we have an operation that is  $O(n)$ 
  - Unlike a sorted array, binary search does not work on list.
  - However, the code is uncomplicated and its main loop is similar to that in addend.
- The function returns the node even though it is searching on the name
  - If the function succeeds, the return value will be a memory location on the list which can be dereferenced.
  - Otherwise the return value is NULL (i.e., the lookup failed)

```
Nameval *lookup(Nameval *listp, char *name)
{
    for ( ; listp != NULL; listp = listp->next) {
        if (strcmp(name, listp->name) == 0) {
            return listp;
        }
    }
    return NULL;
}
```

```
Nameval *t = lookup(nvlist, "Bobby");
if (t) {
    printf("%d\n", t->value);
} else {
    printf("Couldn't find the value\n");
}
```

# An observation about lists

- Many other operations on list have a similar structure
  - Traverse through the list...
  - ... and while doing so, compute some value / perform some comparison / etc.
  - After traversing the list, return some node address
- One approach is to write many such functions with this structure.
- Another approach is to write a more general-purpose function...
  - which traverses through the list...
  - ... and applies some function to each element in the list.
  - Let's call this function **apply**
  - It will take three arguments (the list; a function to be applied to each element on the list; and an argument for that function)

# apply

```
/* apply: execute fn for each element of listp */

void apply(Nameval *listp, void (*fn)(Nameval*, void*), void *arg)
{
    for ( ; listp != NULL; listp = listp->next) {
        (*fn)(listp, arg); /* call the function */
    }
}
```

void (\*fn)(Nameval\*, void\*),

Declare fn to be a pointer to a void-valued function  
(i.e., it is a variable that holds the address of a function  
that returns void).

Such a function takes two arguments: an address to a Nameval  
(list element) and a void \* (a generic point to an argument  
for the function being passed in).

# example: printing out all elements

```
/* apply: execute fn for each element of listp */

void apply(Nameval *listp, void (*fn)(Nameval*, void*), void *arg)
{
    for ( ; listp != NULL; listp = listp->next) {
        (*fn)(listp, arg); /* call the function */
    }
}

void printnv(Nameval *p, void *arg)
{
    char *fmt;

    fmt = (char *) arg;
    printf(fmt, p->name, p->value);
}
```

```
apply(nvlist, printnv, "%s: %x\n");
```

# example: count of all elements

```
void inccounter(Nameval *p, void *arg)
{
    int *ip;

    /* p is not used -- all we care about is that this function
     * is called once per node.
     */
    ip = (int *)arg;
    (*ip)++; /* Note the parentheses!!! */
}
```

```
int n;

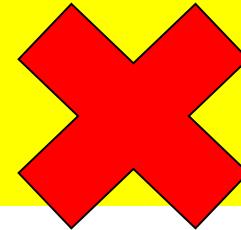
n = 0;
apply(nvlist, inccounter, &n);
printf("%d elements in nvlist\n", n);
```

# Deleting elements from the list

- We have yet to see the use of **free** in the management of our lists
- Let's take the simplest case first: deleting the whole list
  - Here we must be rather careful
  - We cannot free an element if we need to dereference that same element later.
  - Also: **free** may itself modify the newly deallocated memory
- Must make good use of temporary variables

# freeing the list

```
void bad_freeall(Nameval *listp)
{
    for ( ; listp != NULL; listp = listp->next ) {
        /* What is the value of listp->next after the next
         * operation?
        */
        free(listp);
    }
}
```



```
void freeall(Nameval *listp)
{
    Nameval *next;

    for ( ; listp != NULL; listp = next ) {
        next = listp->next;
        /* assume here the listp->name is freed someplace else */
        free(listp);
    }
}
```

# Deleting elements from the list

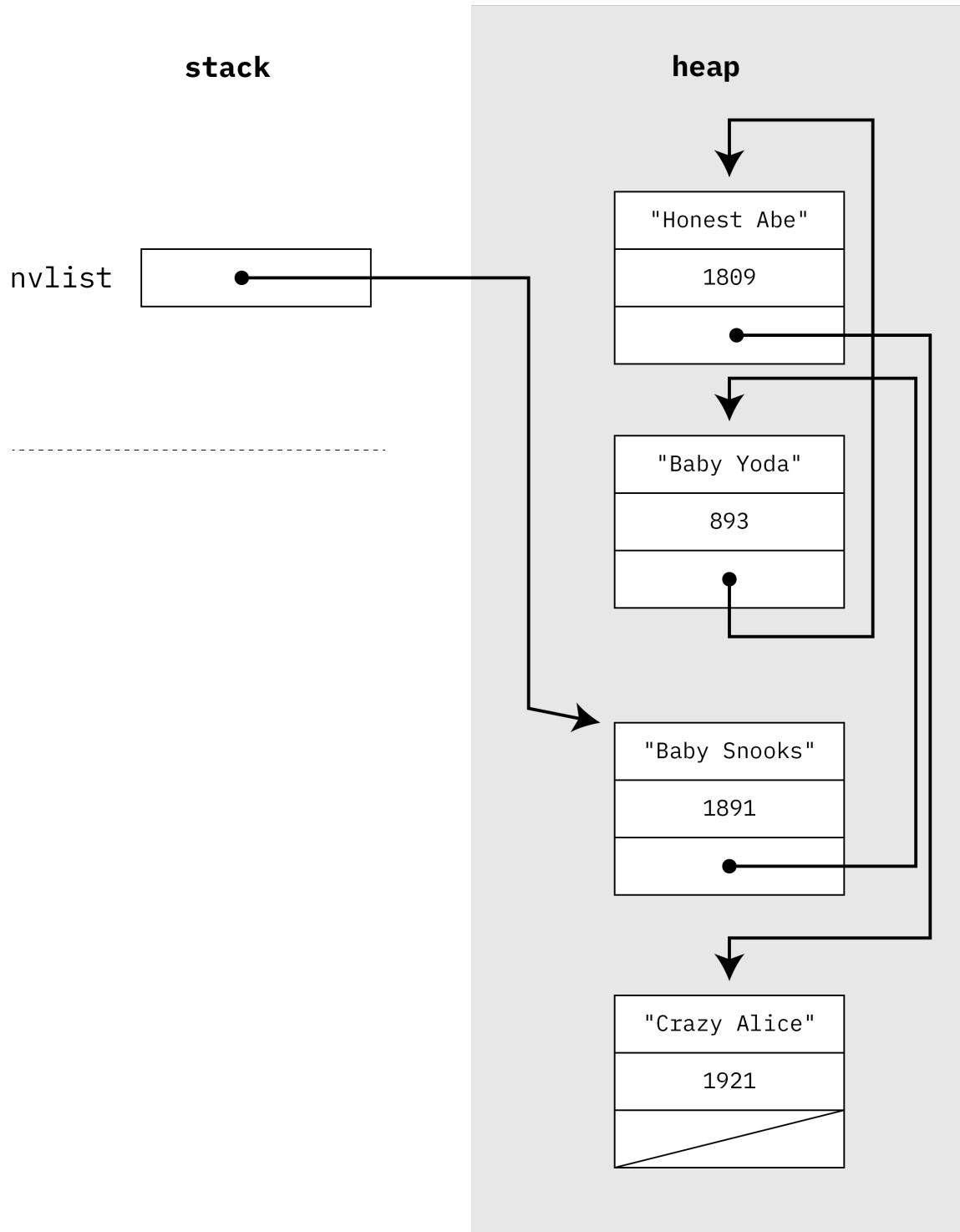
- Deleting a single element requires more work than adding an element
  - Part of this is due to the consequences of using a singly-linked list.
  - It would be much easier with a doubly-linked list—but then again, such a list does require twice as many pointers to be maintained.
- This is the place where bugs are often introduced
  - Yet if we are careful—and correctly diagram what we intend to do—then we can get it right the first time.
  - Recall the two main cases: are we deleting the first element? or one past the first

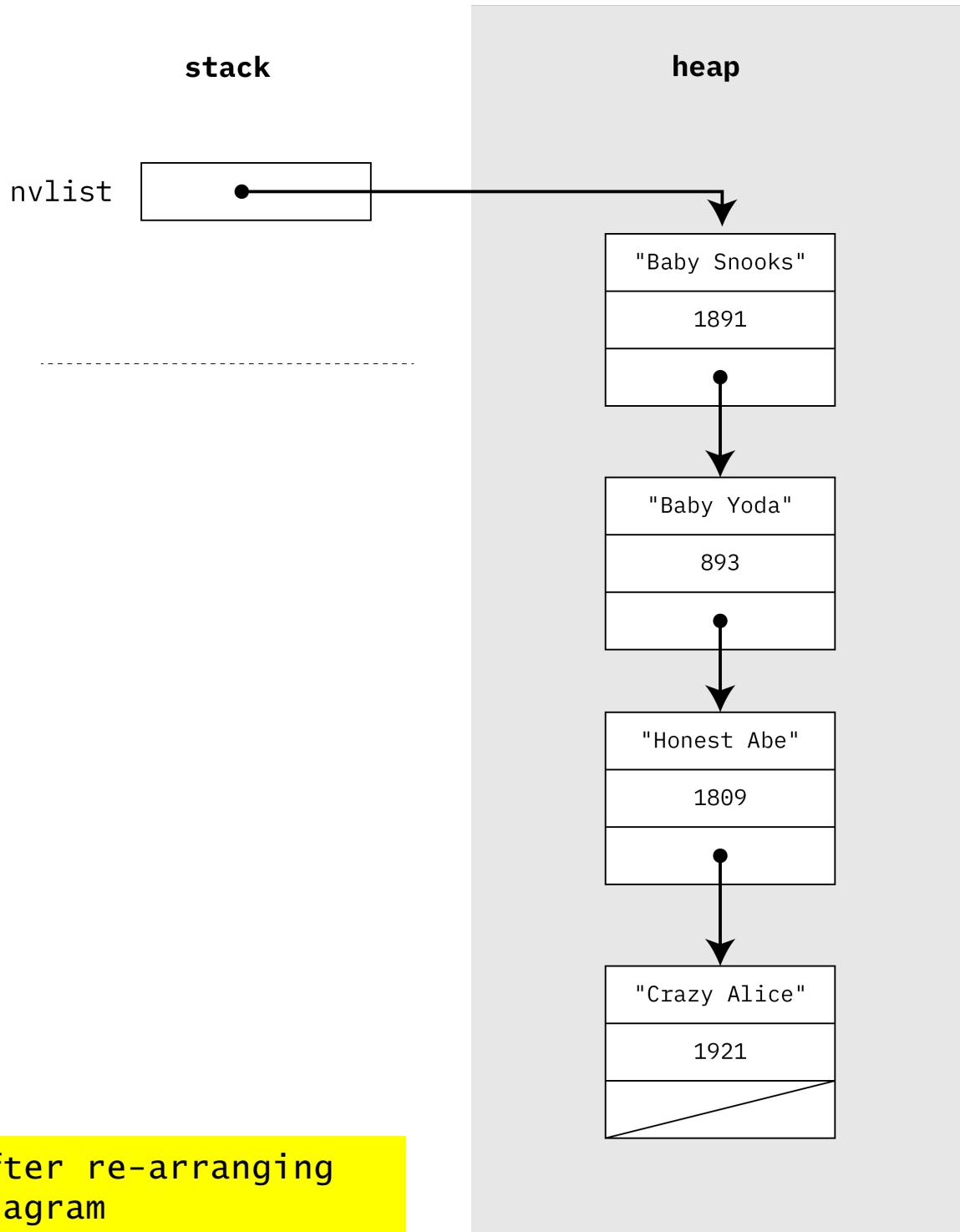
# Deleting a single element

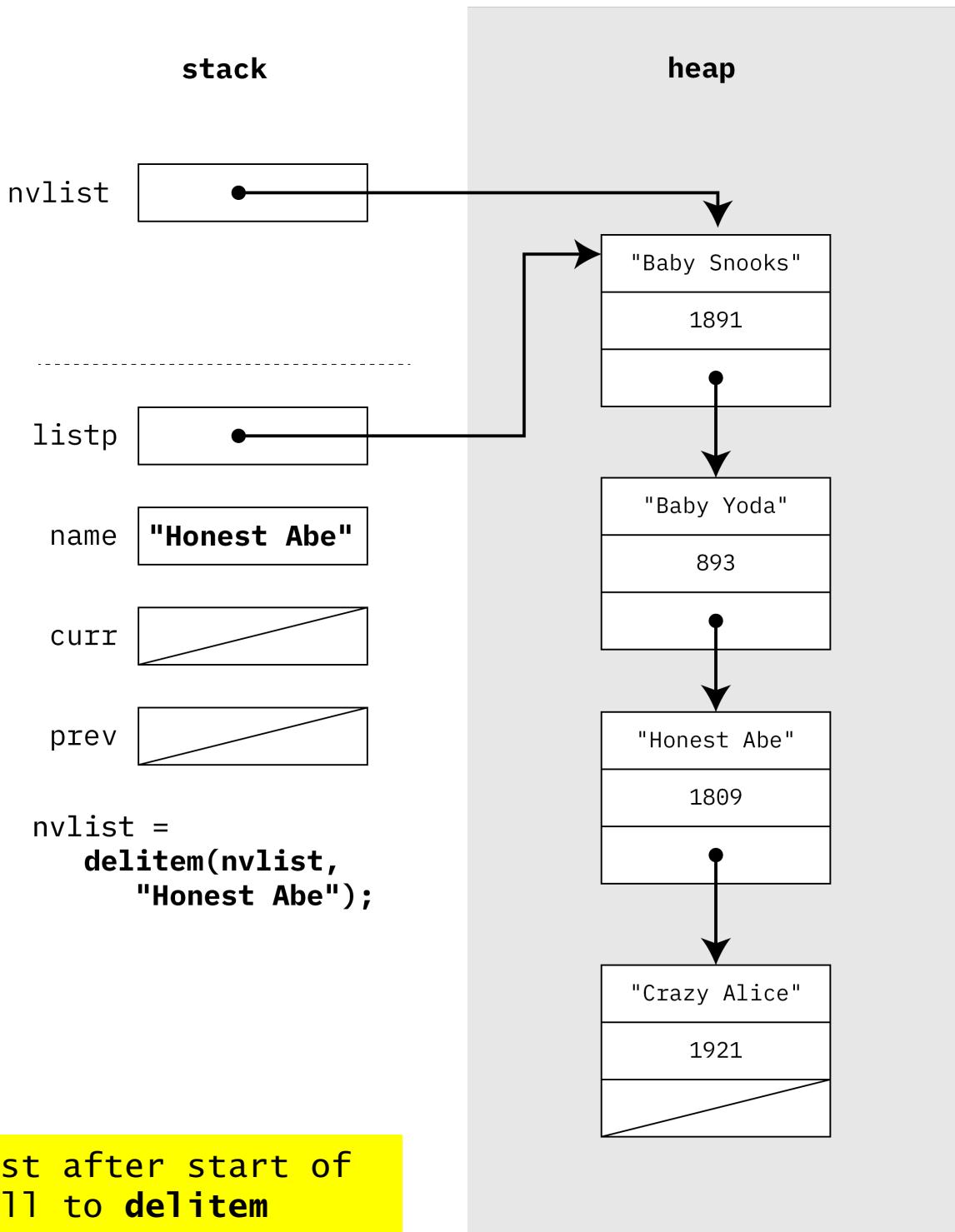
```
Nameval *delitem (Nameval *listp, char *name)
{
    Nameval *curr, *prev;

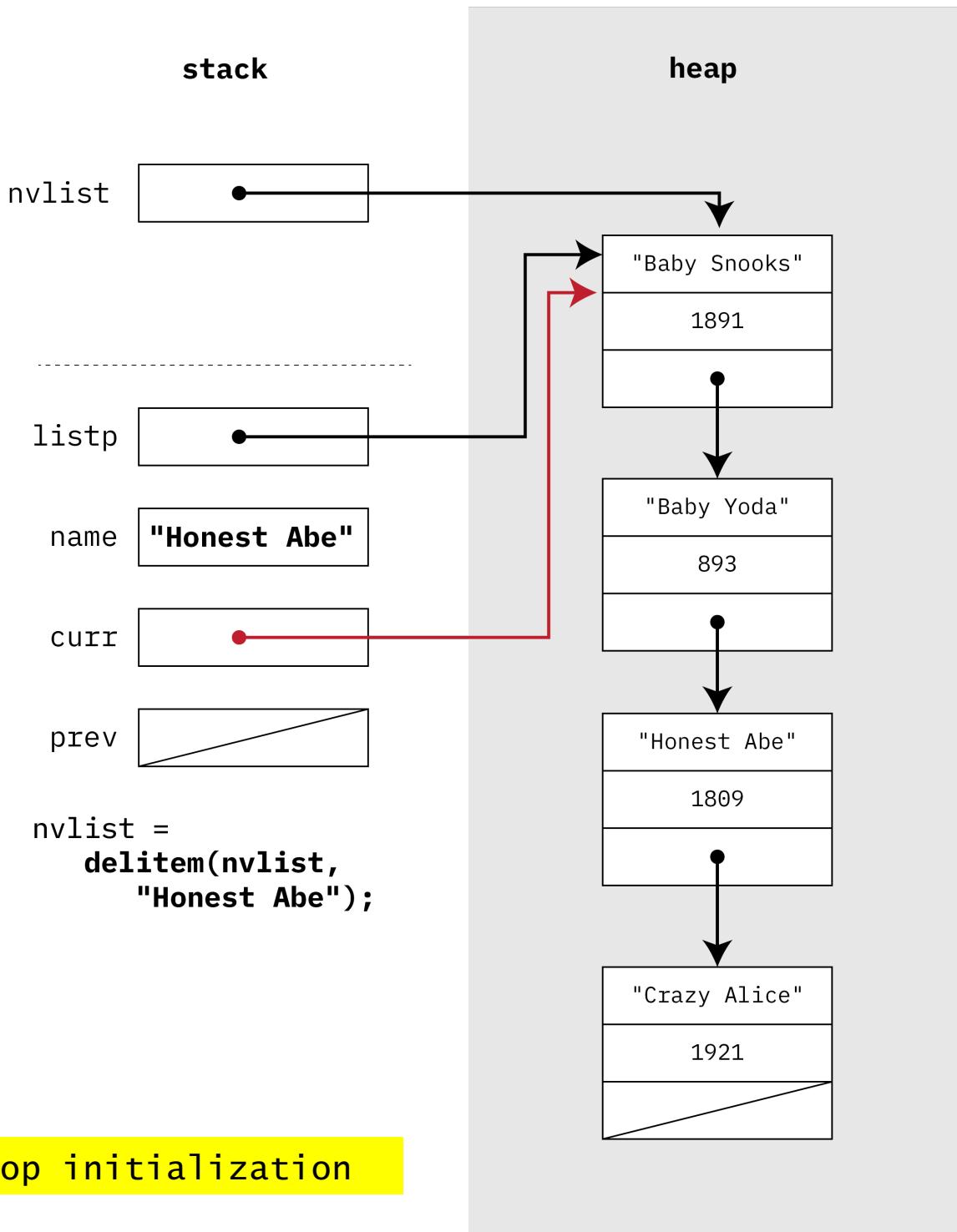
    prev = NULL;
    for (curr = listp; curr != NULL; curr = curr->next) {
        if (strcmp(name, curr->name) == 0) {
            if (prev == NULL) {
                listp = curr->next;
            } else {
                prev->next = curr->next;
            }
            free(curr);
            return listp;
        }
        prev = curr;
    }
    /* Ungraceful error handling, but gets the point across. */
    fprintf(stderr, "delitem: %s not in list", name);
    exit(1);
}
```

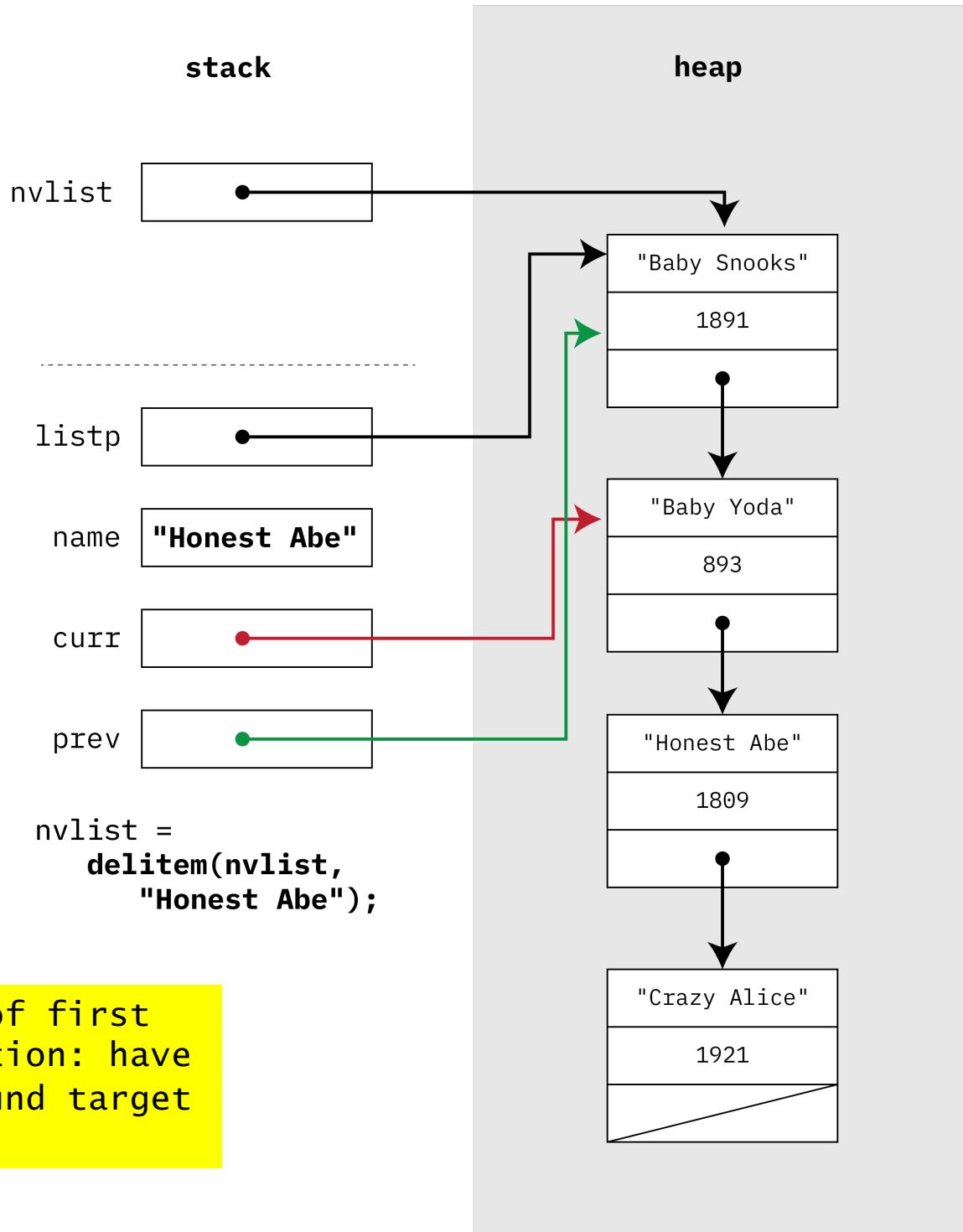
```
/* typical usage */
Nameval *nvlist = ...
... operations on list ...
nvlist = delitem(nvlist, "Boris");
```



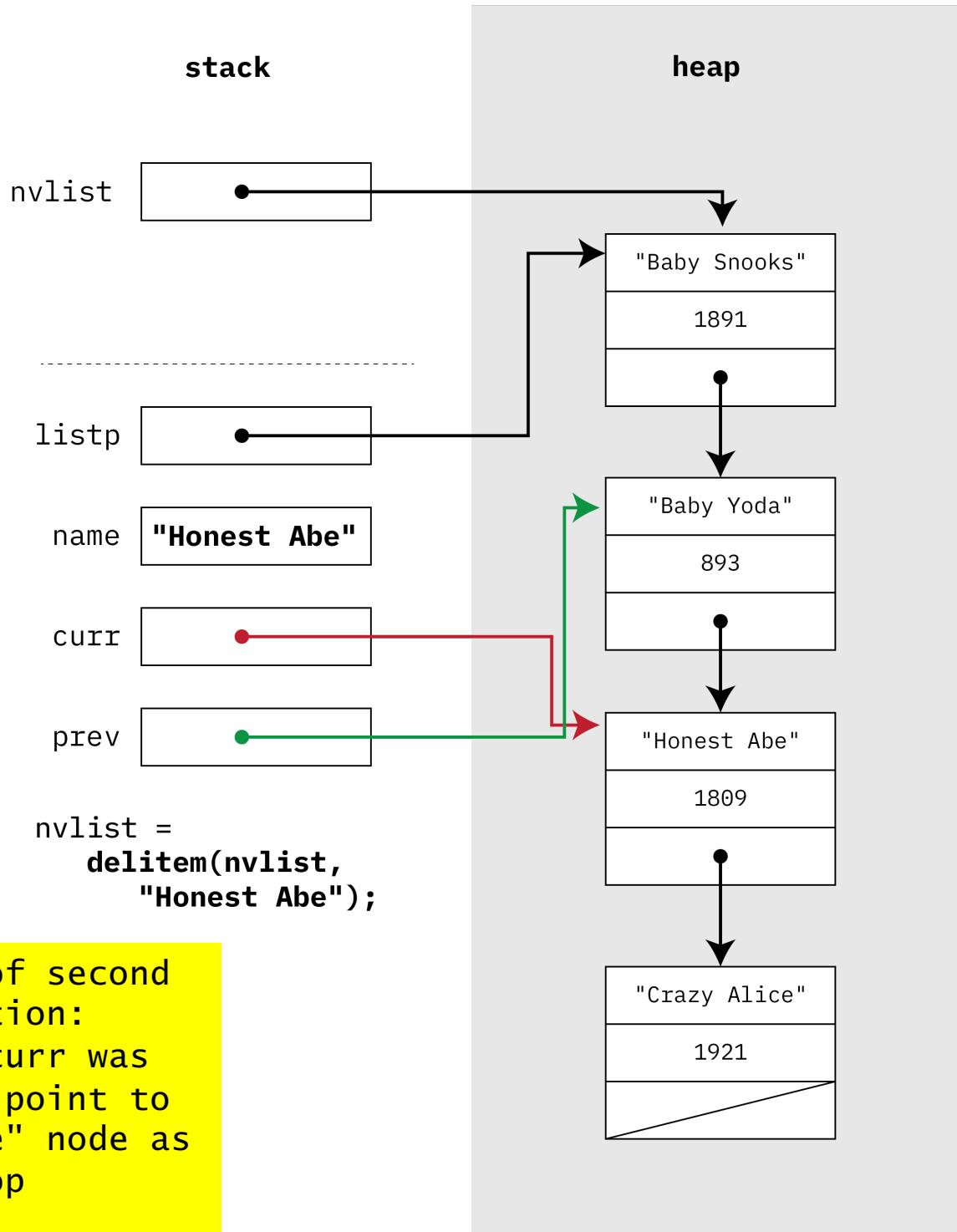


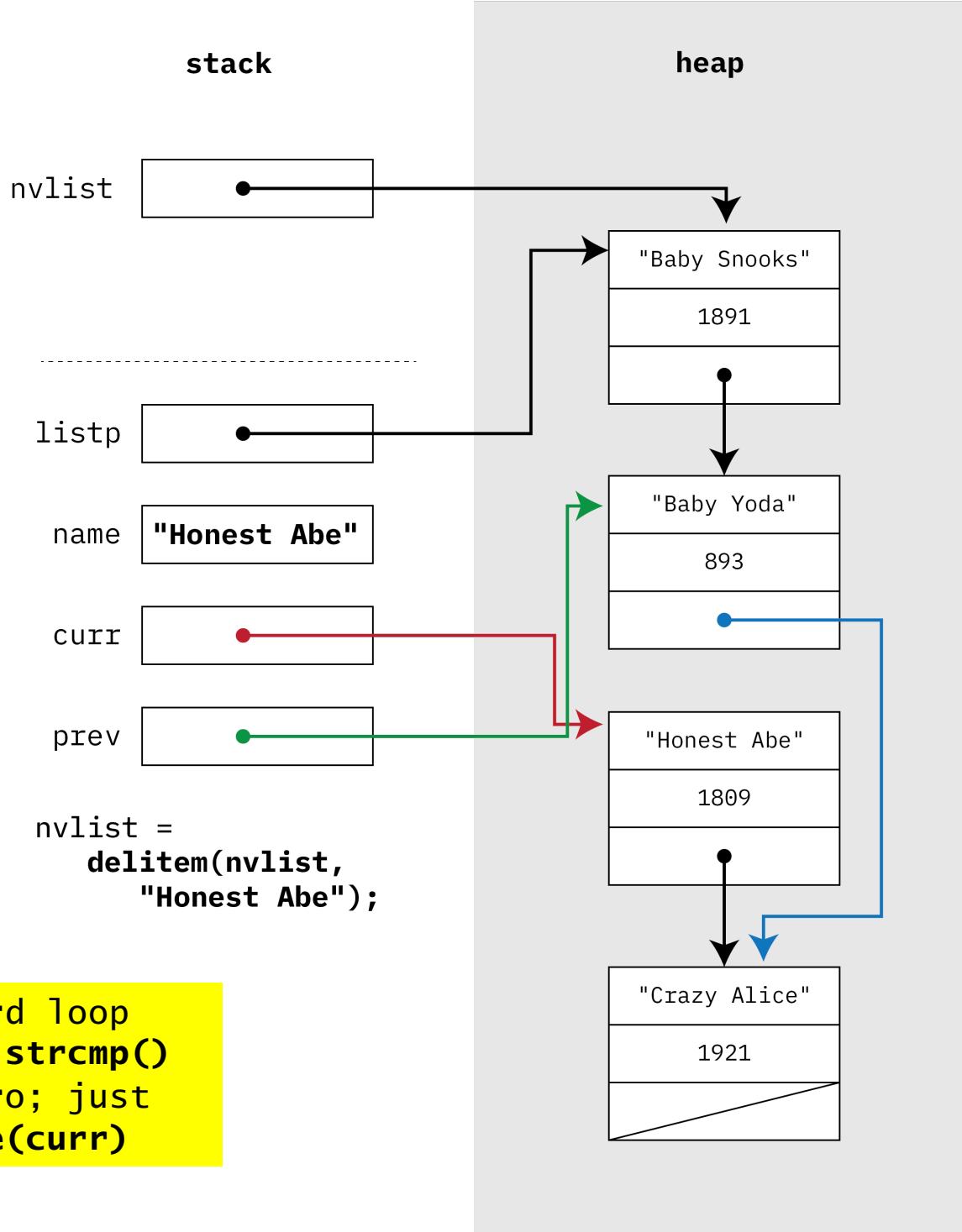




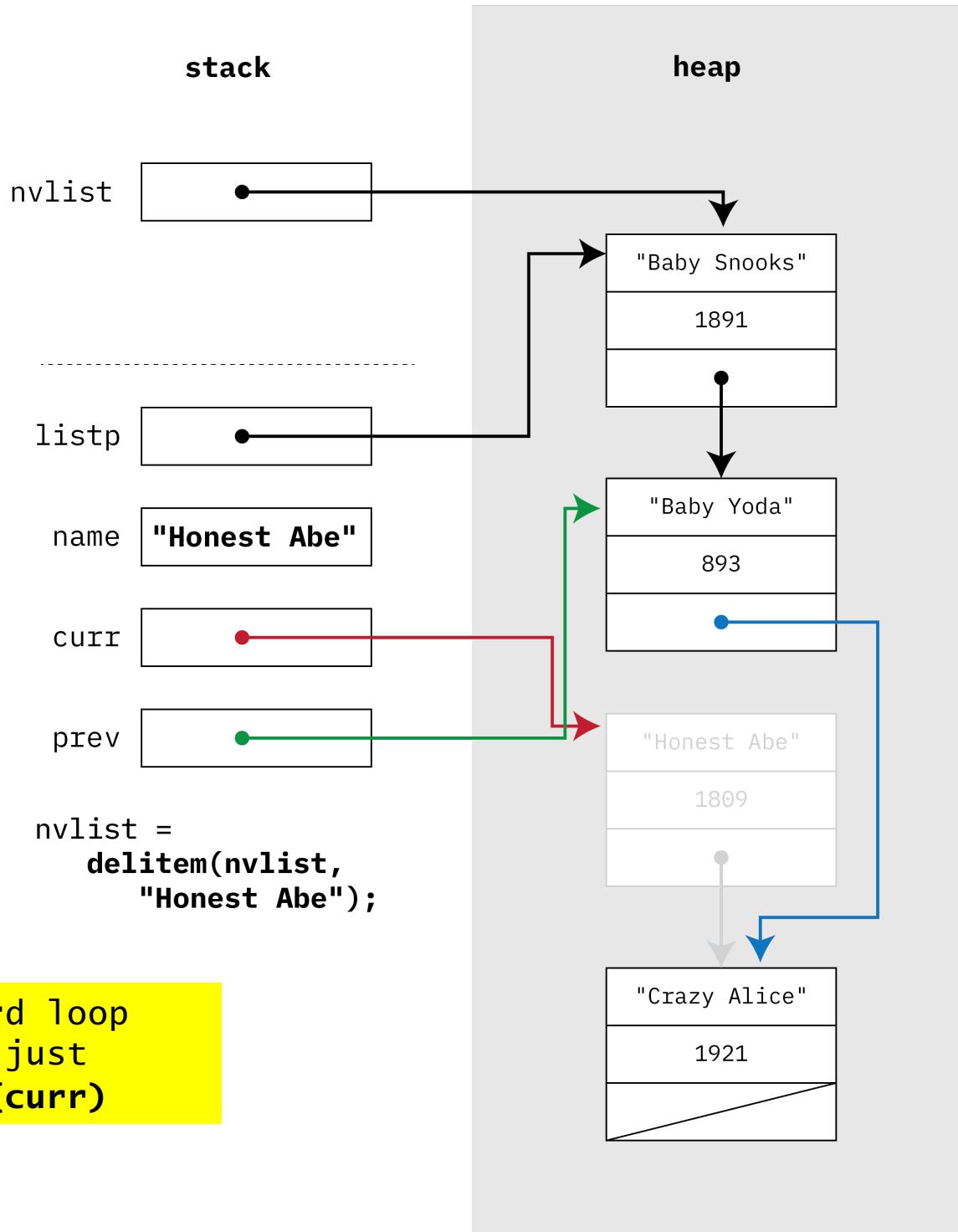


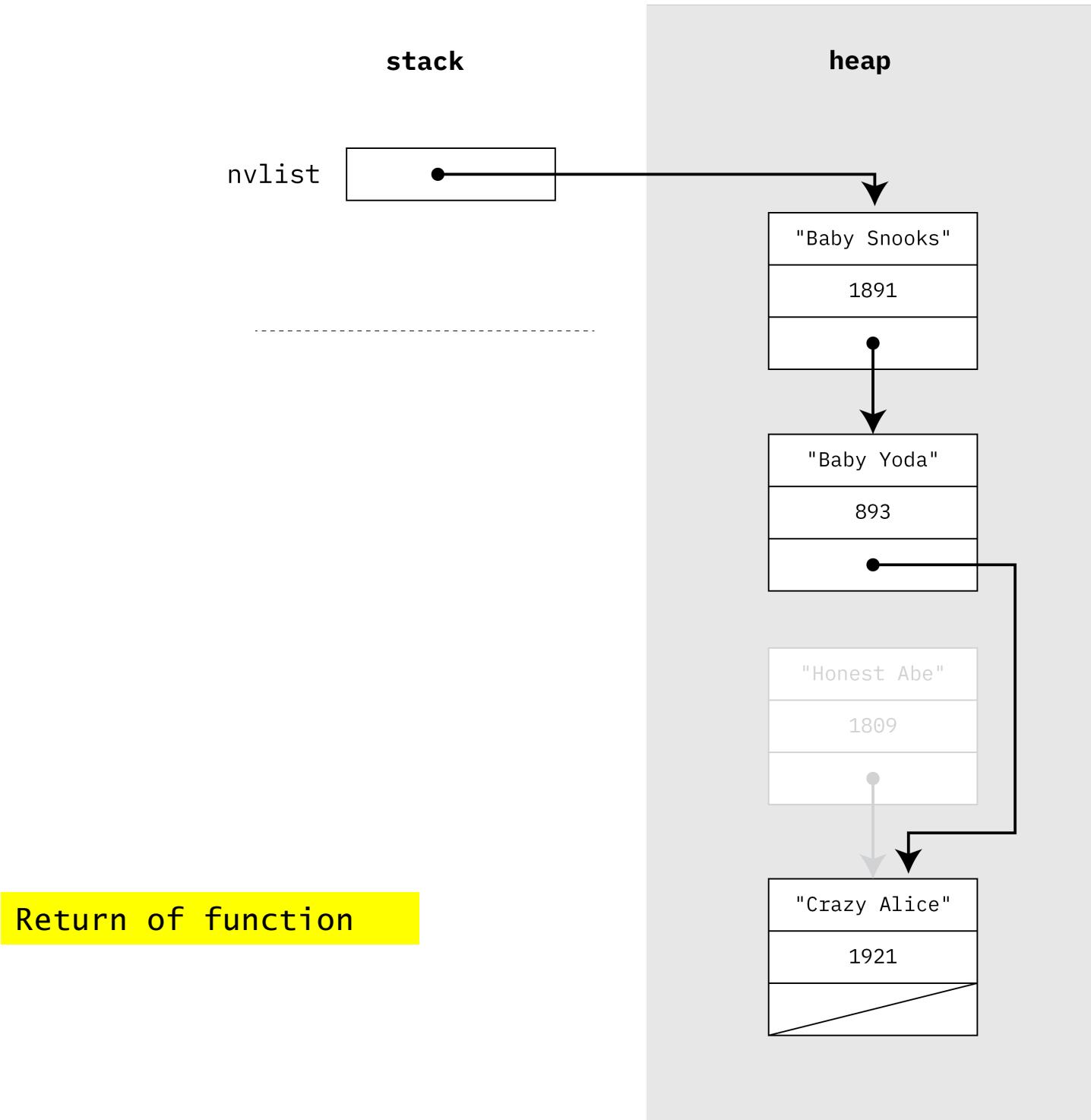
After end of first  
loop iteration: have  
not yet found target  
node.





During third loop  
iteration: `strcmp()`  
equaled zero; just  
before `free(curr)`

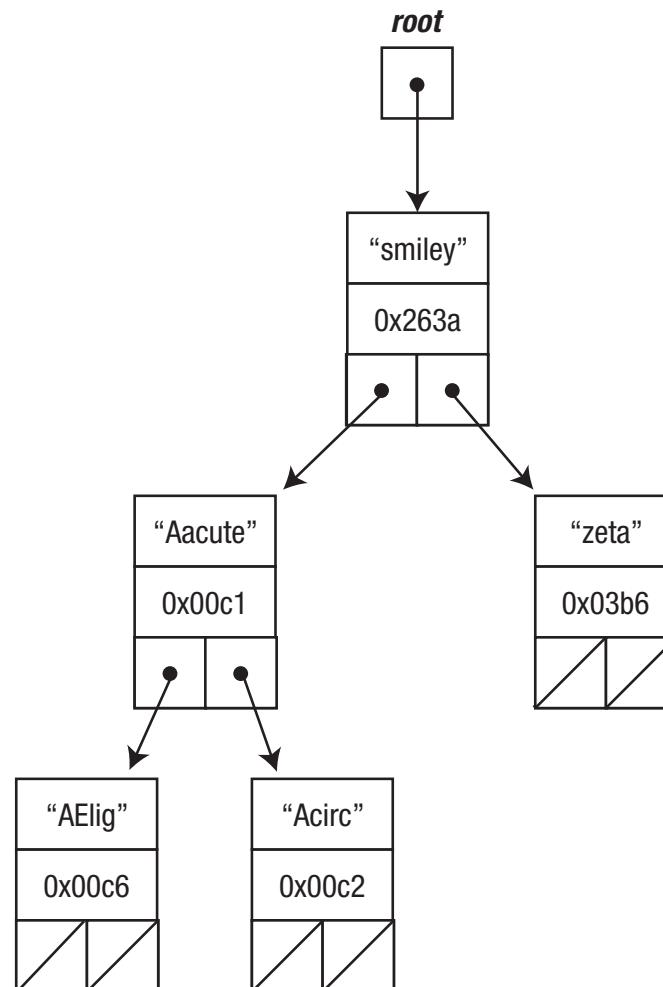




# Trees

- Hierarchical data structure
  - We use them implicitly when navigating through the Unix file system
  - Also used in compilers (e.g., parse trees)
  - We also construct trees programmatically to get  $O(\lg n)$  behavior rather than  $O(n)$  for our algorithms (after some assumptions)
- **Binary search tree**
  - Simpler tree flavour, straightforward to implement
  - Node in a binary search tree has a **value** and two pointers, **left** and **right**
  - The pointers lead to the node's children
  - All children to the left of a particular node have lower values than the node.
  - All children to the right of a particular node have greater values than the node.

# Binary search tree example



# Tree node

- We'll again re-use the same problem as shown earlier (<name, value> pairs are stored in nodes)
- We now need links to the left and right subtree
- Code to create such a node is left as an exercise.

```
typedef struct Nameval Nameval;
struct Nameval {
    char    *name;
    int     value;
    Nameval *left; /* lesser */
    Nameval *right; /* greater */
};
```

# Construction

- Although iterative node insertion is possible, we will focus on the recursive version
- Constructing a tree means descending into the tree recursively.
  - At insertion time, each new node ends up as a leaf node.
  - As other items are inserted later, a leaf node above a new leaf node will become the new node's parent.
- The algorithm must choose the left or right branch until the correct place for node is found.
  - But watch for how the left and right links are always updated!
- As with the linked-list routines, the insertion algorithm returns the root of the tree as the result.

# Inserting node into tree

```
/* Assume newp has been already initialized. */
Nameval *insert(Nameval *treep, Nameval *newp)
{
    int cmp;

    if (treep == NULL) {
        return newp;
    }
    cmp = strcmp(newp->name, treep->name);
    if (cmp == 0) {
        fprintf(stderr, "insert: ignoring duplicate entry %s\n",
                newp->name);
    } else if (cmp < 0) {
        treep->left = insert(treep->left, newp);
    } else {
        treep->right = insert(treep->right, newp);
    }
    return treep;
}
```

```
Nameval *root = NULL;
...
Nameval *newNode = ... code to malloc a tree node, assign field values, etc. ...
...
root = insert(root, newNode);
```

# Example

- Let us consider the following example:
  - Root of tree is initialized
  - Name/value node for ("Honest Abe", 1809) created then inserted ...
  - ... then name/value node for ("Baby Yoda", 893) (ditto) ...
  - ... and finally name/value node for ("Crazy Alice", 1921) (ditto).
- To simplify explication, code omits sanity checks
  - Normally we would want to write code that verifies the success of node-creation

```
Nameval *newNode;
Nameval *root = NULL;

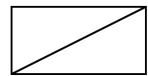
newNode = some_node_creation_function("Honest Abe", 1809);
root = insert(root, newNode);

newNode = some_node_creation_function("Baby Yoda", 893);
root = insert(root, newNode);

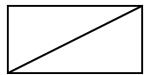
newNode = some_node_creation_function("Crazy Alice", 1921);
root = insert(root, newNode);
```

**stack**

root

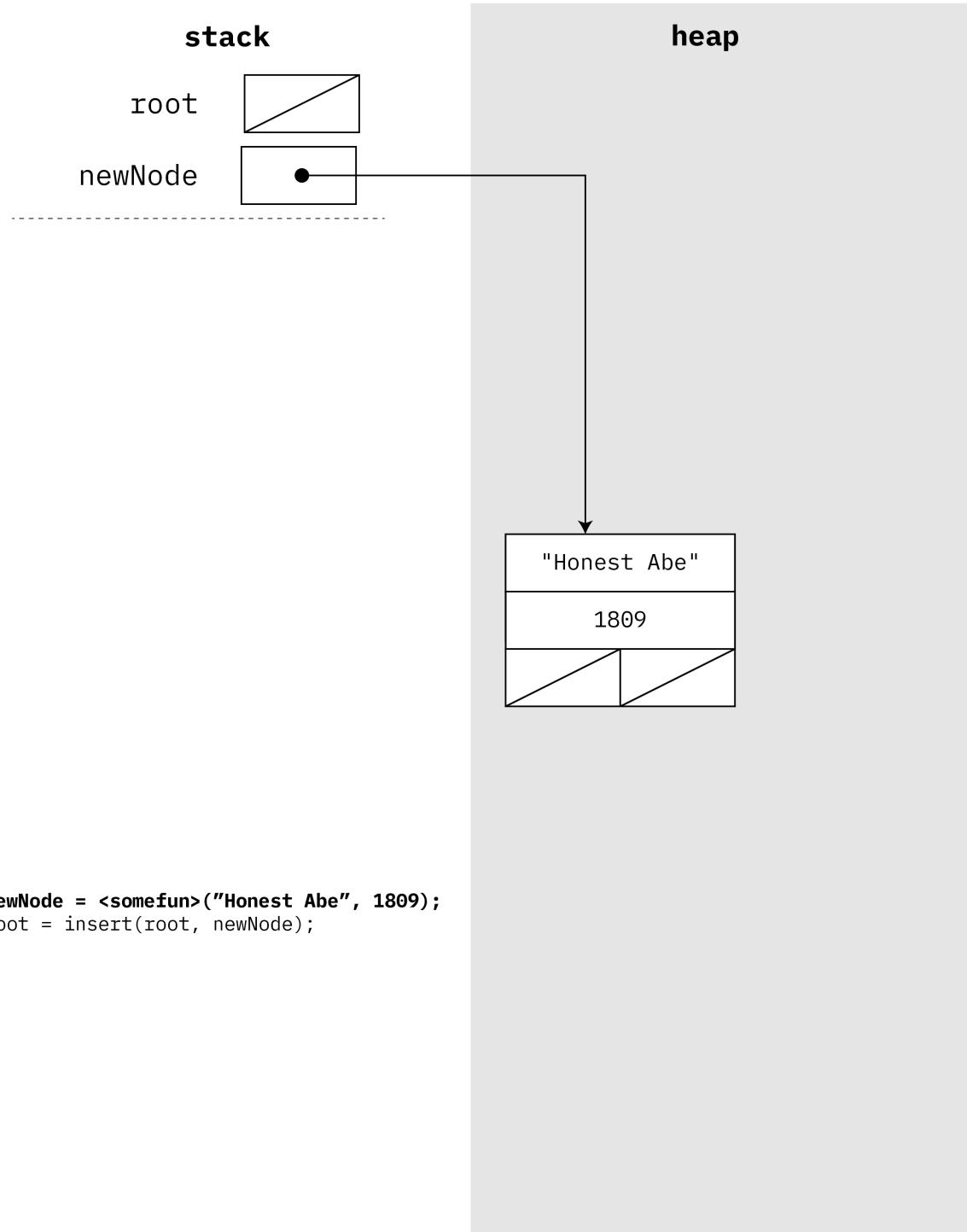


newNode

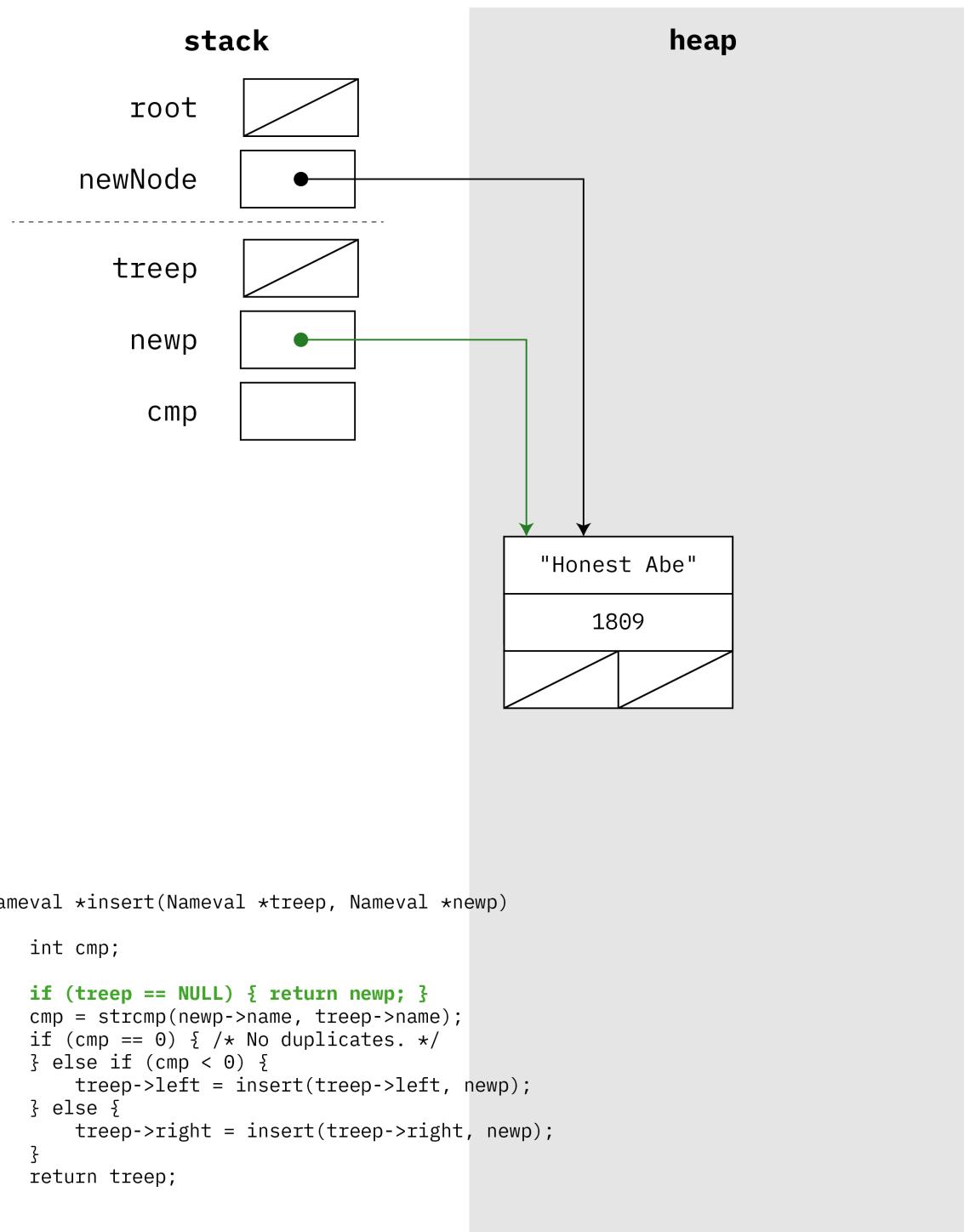


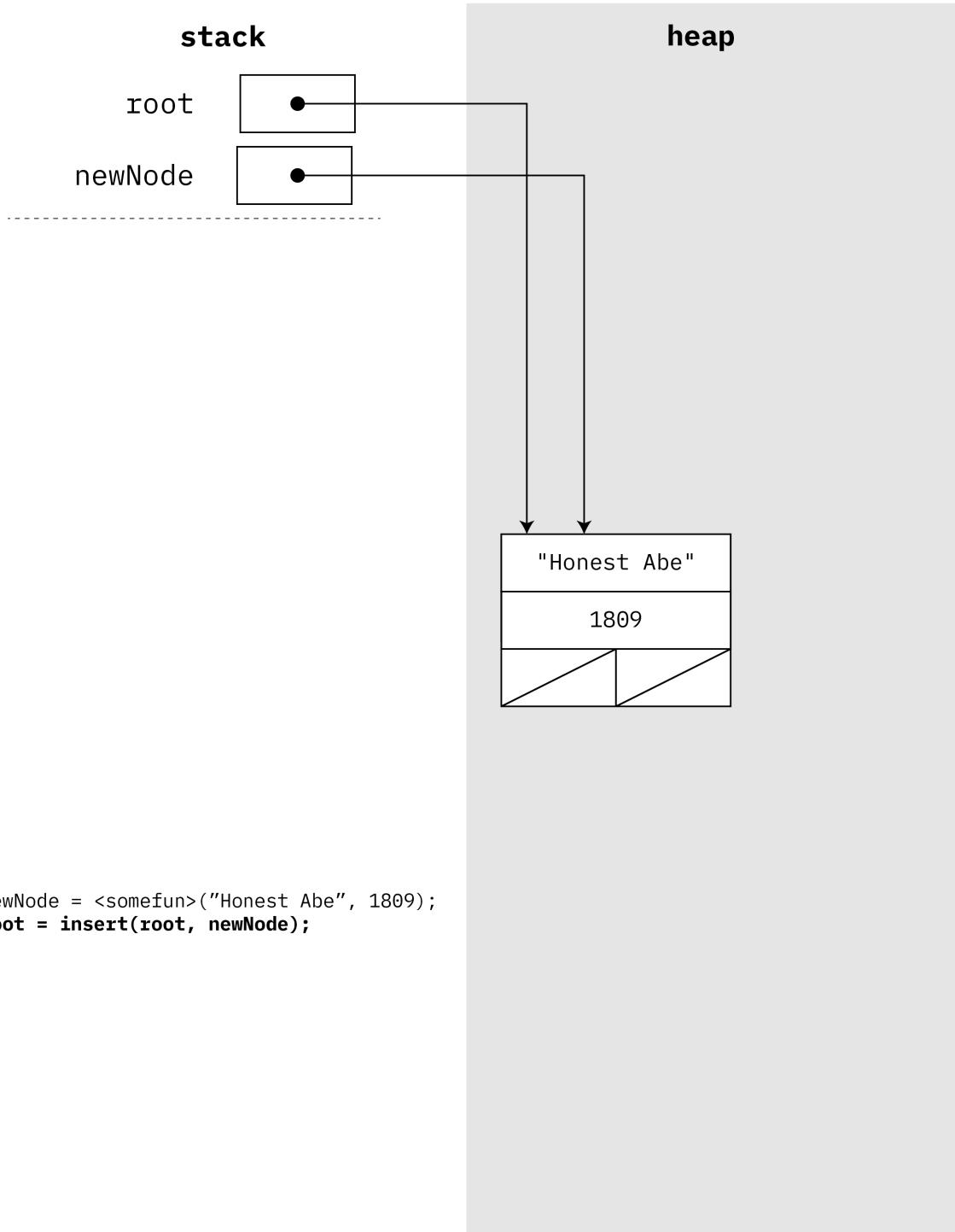
**heap**

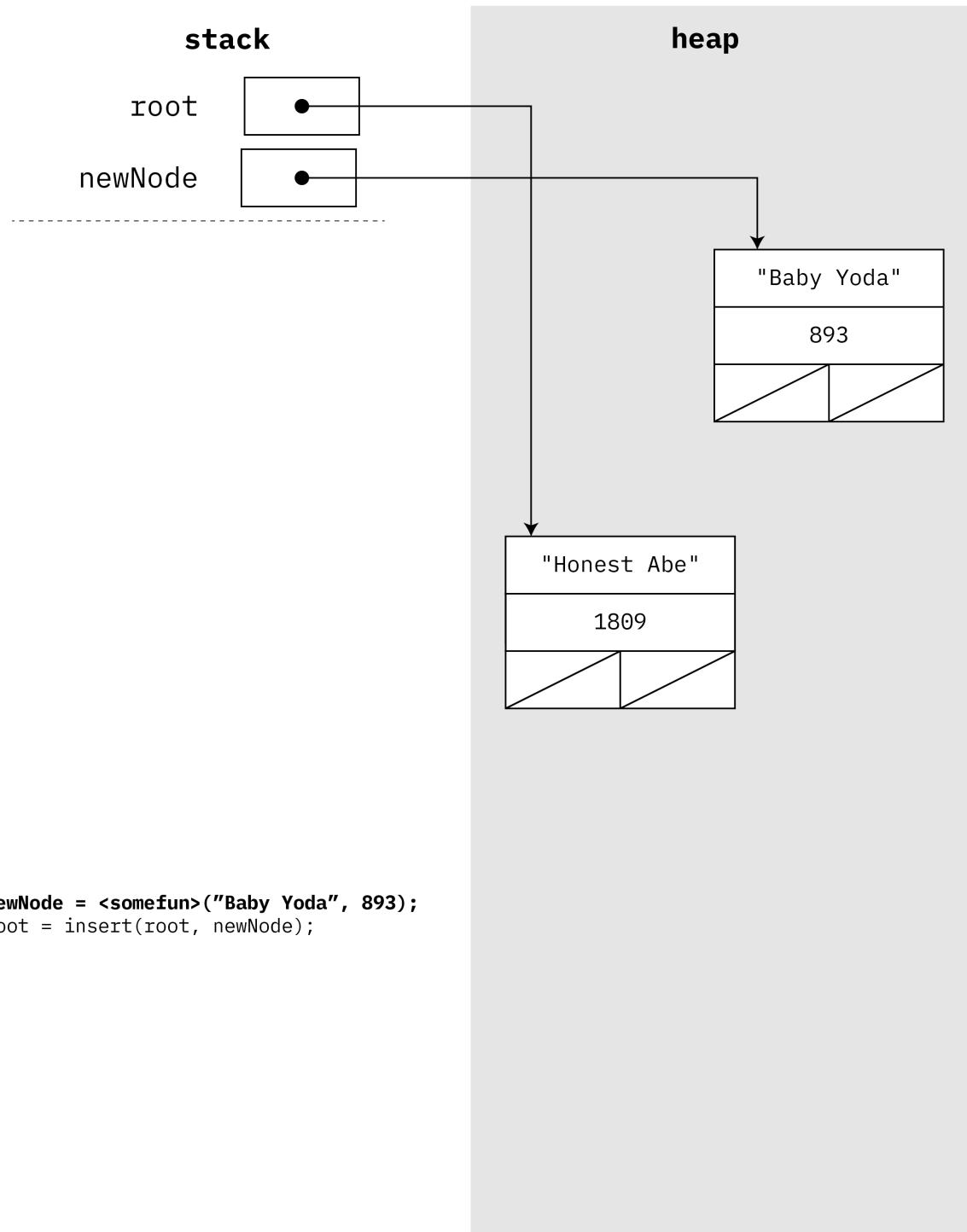
```
root = null;
```

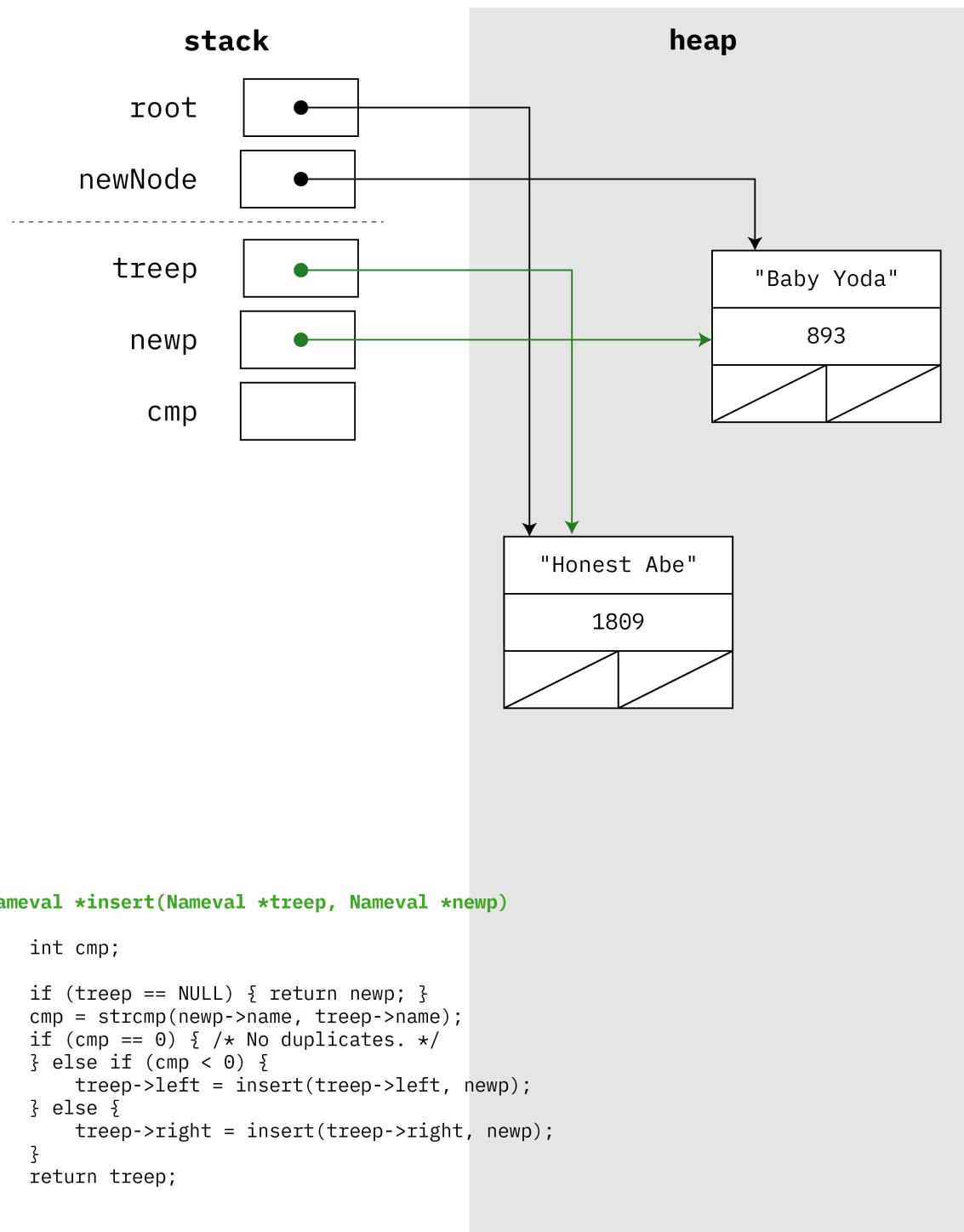


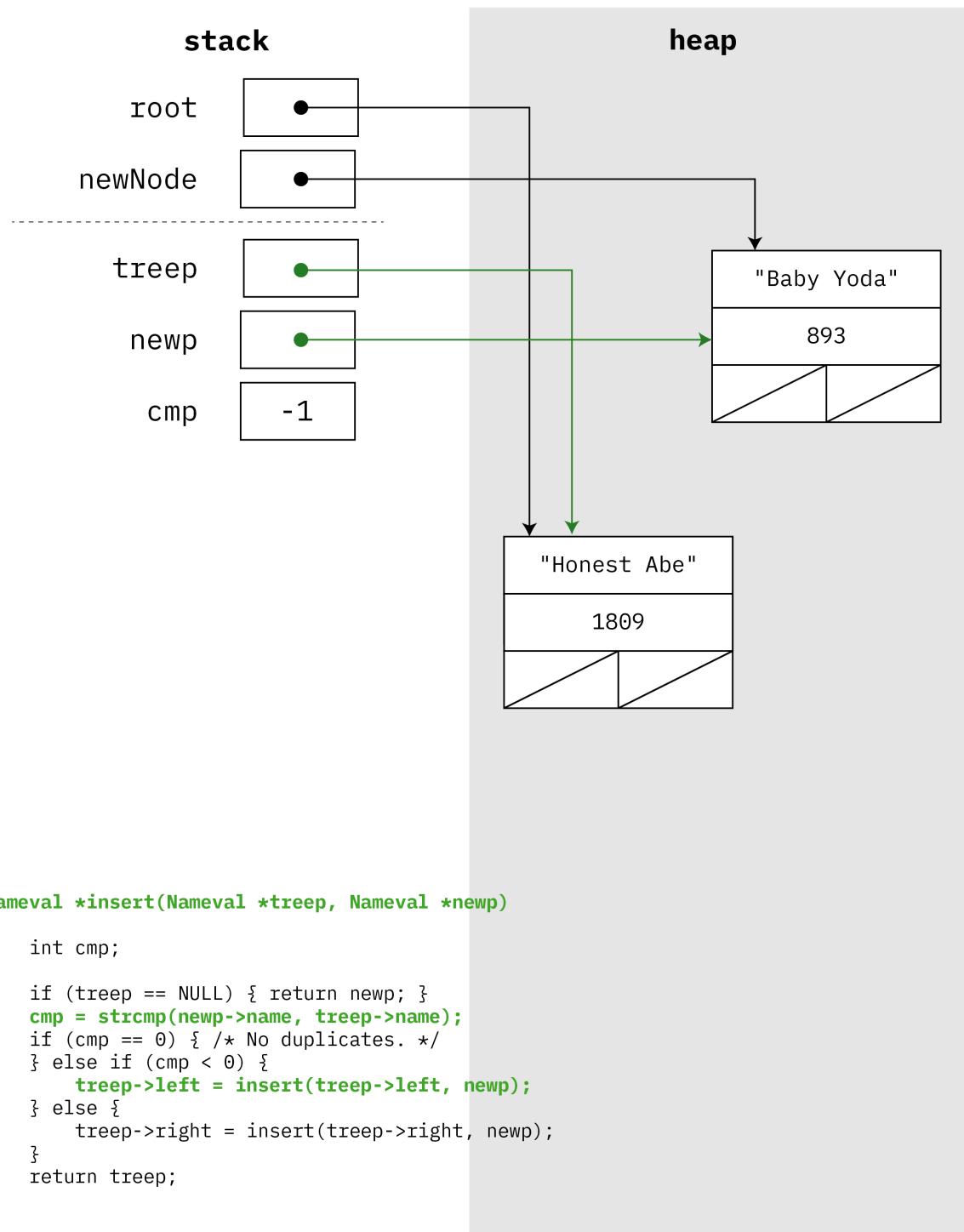
```
newNode = <somefun>("Honest Abe", 1809);
root = insert(root, newNode);
```

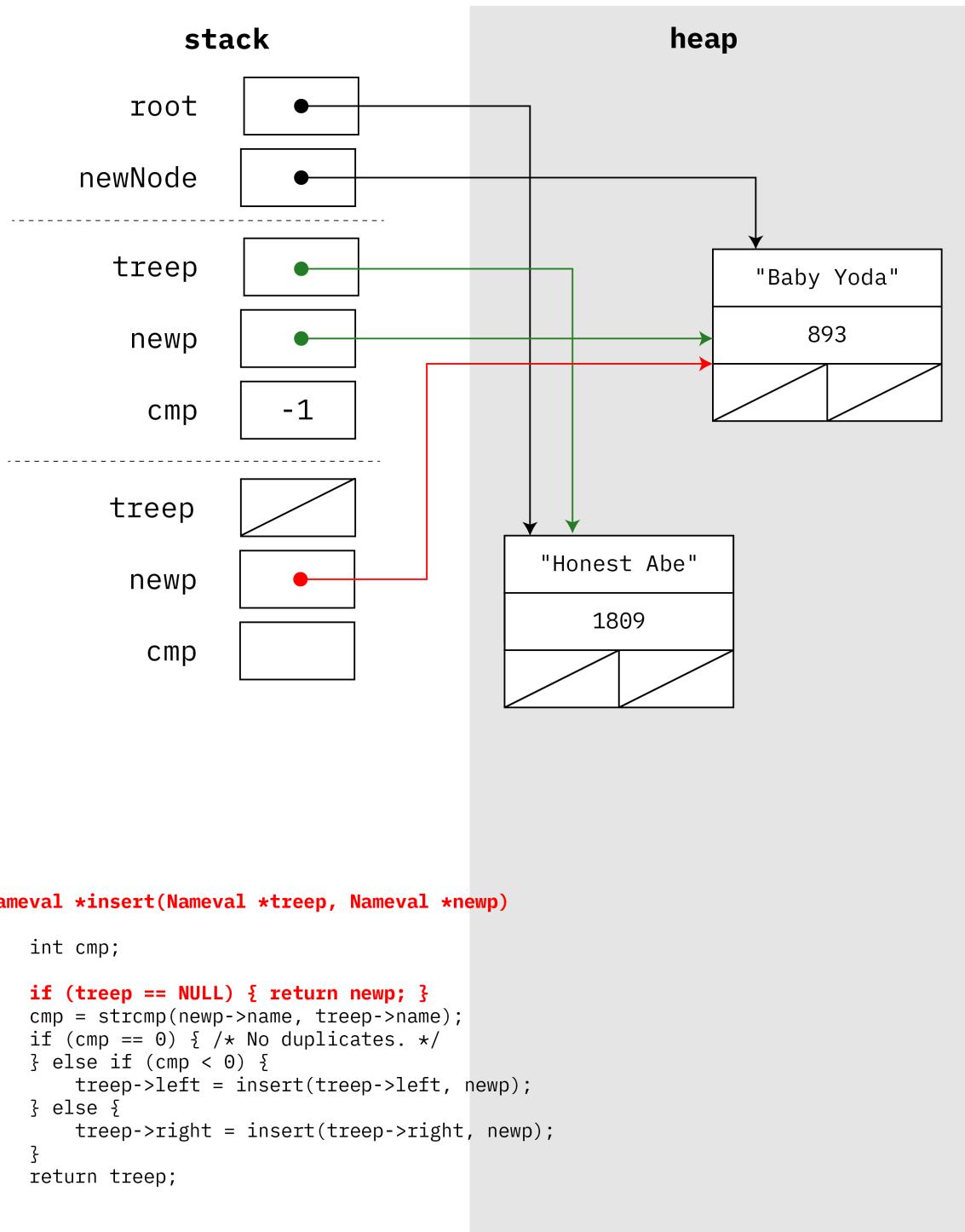


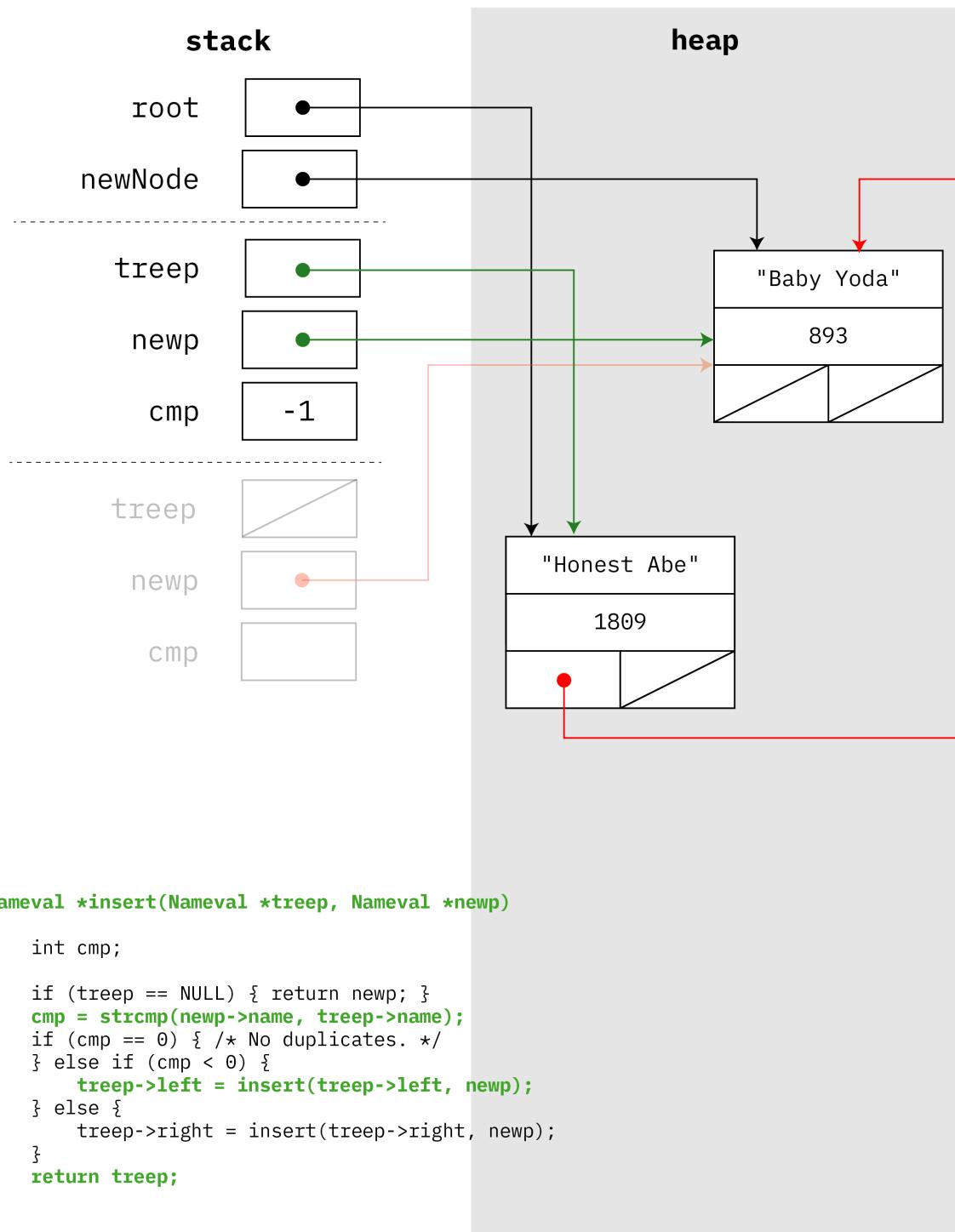


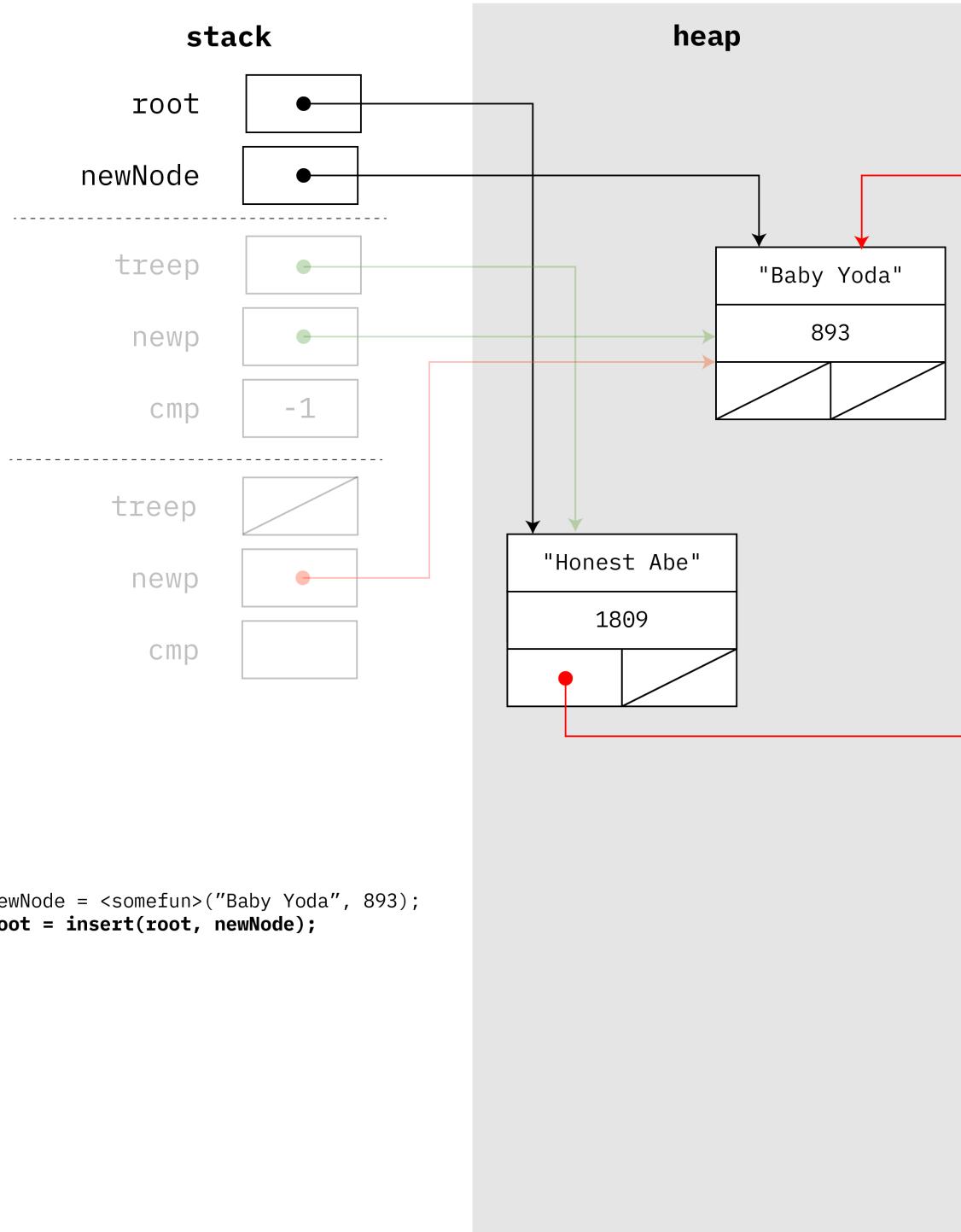




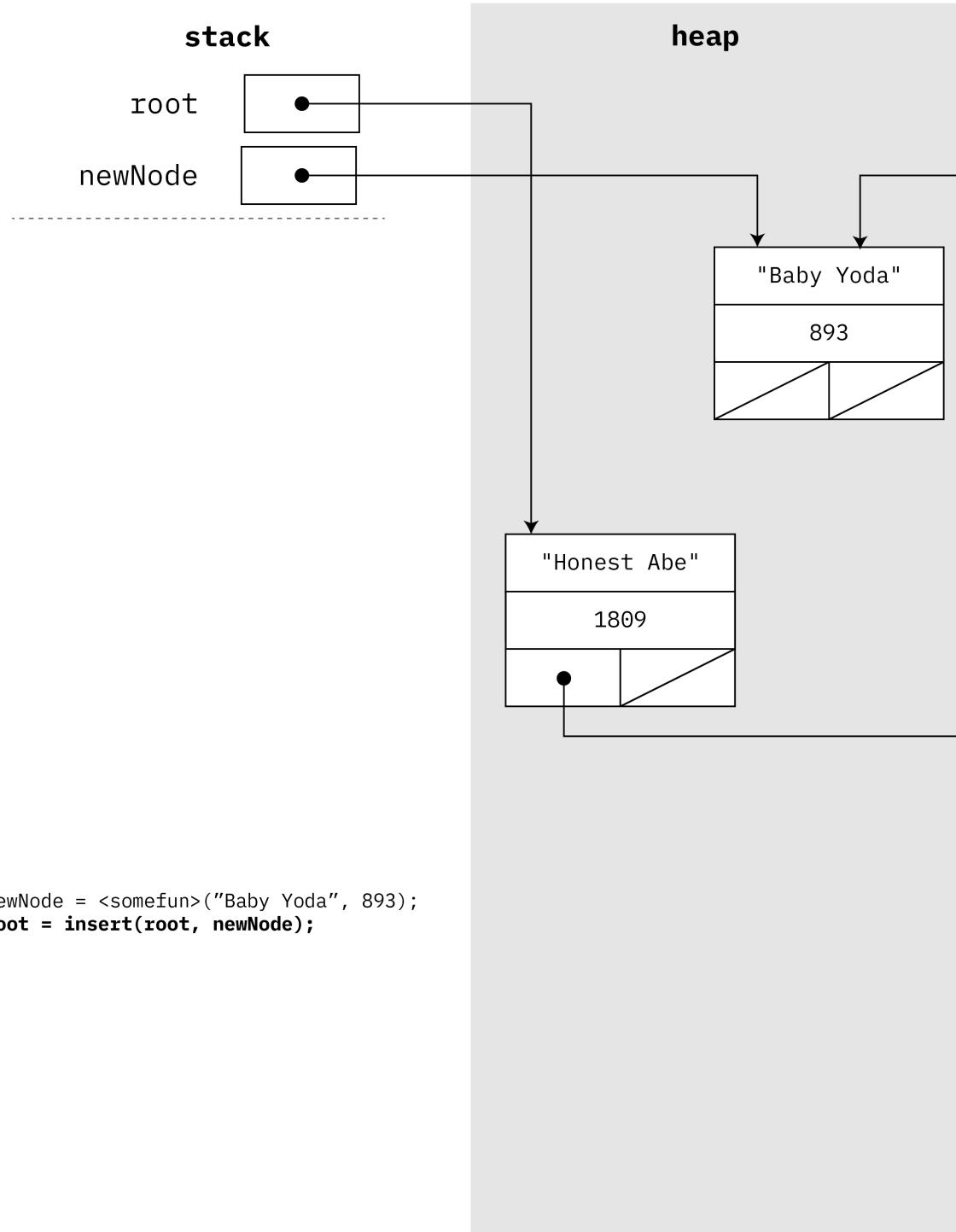


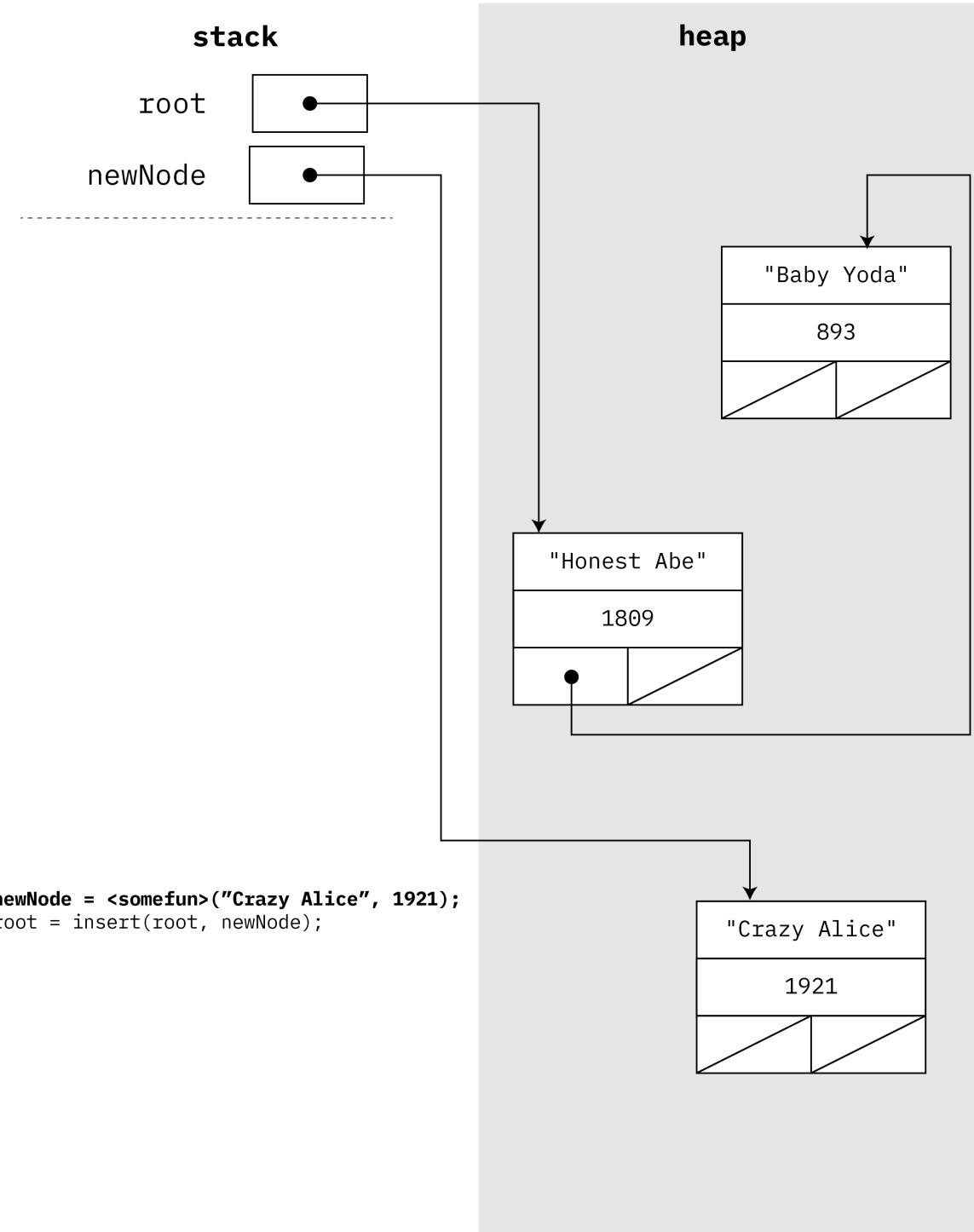


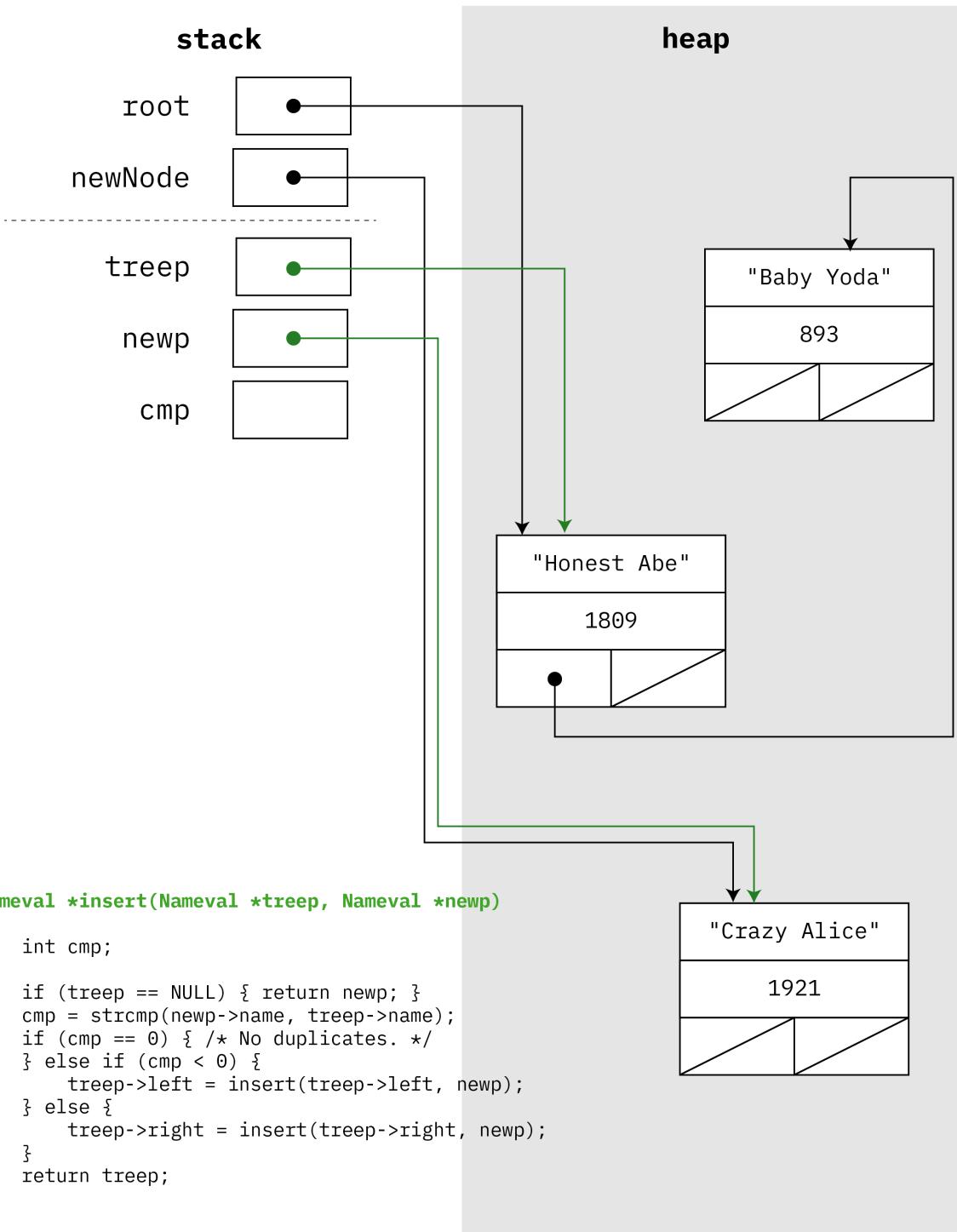


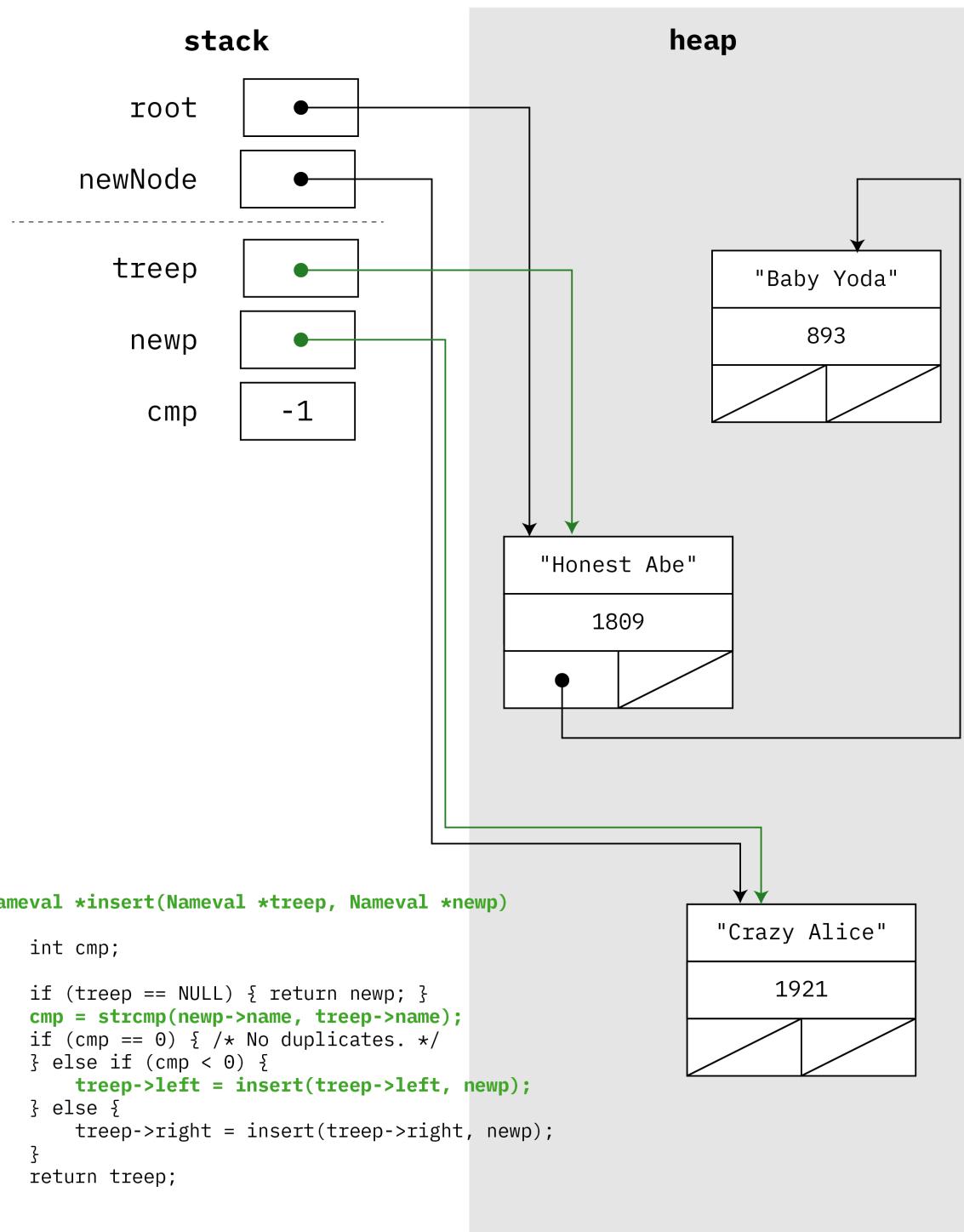


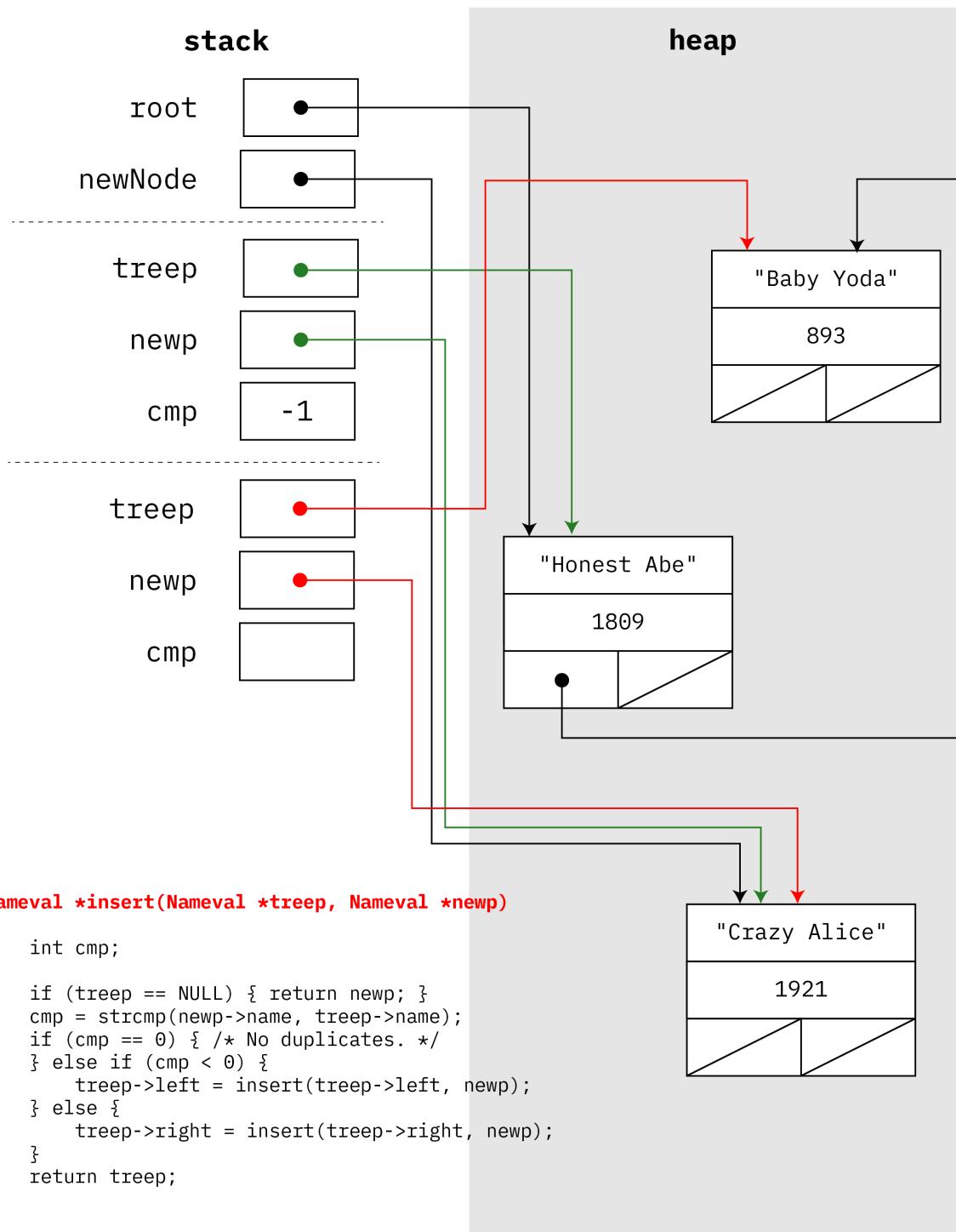
```
newNode = <somefun>("Baby Yoda", 893);
root = insert(root, newNode);
```

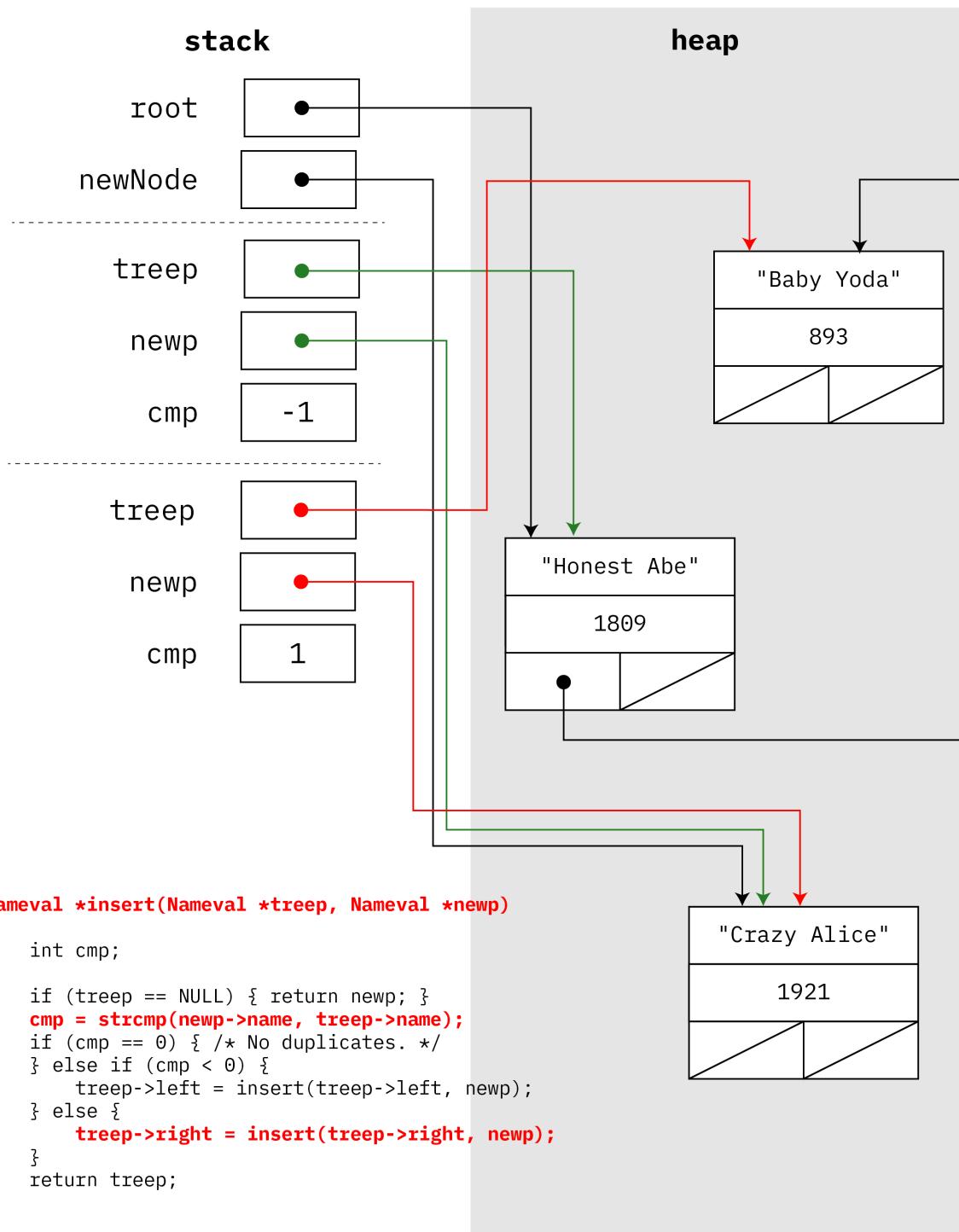


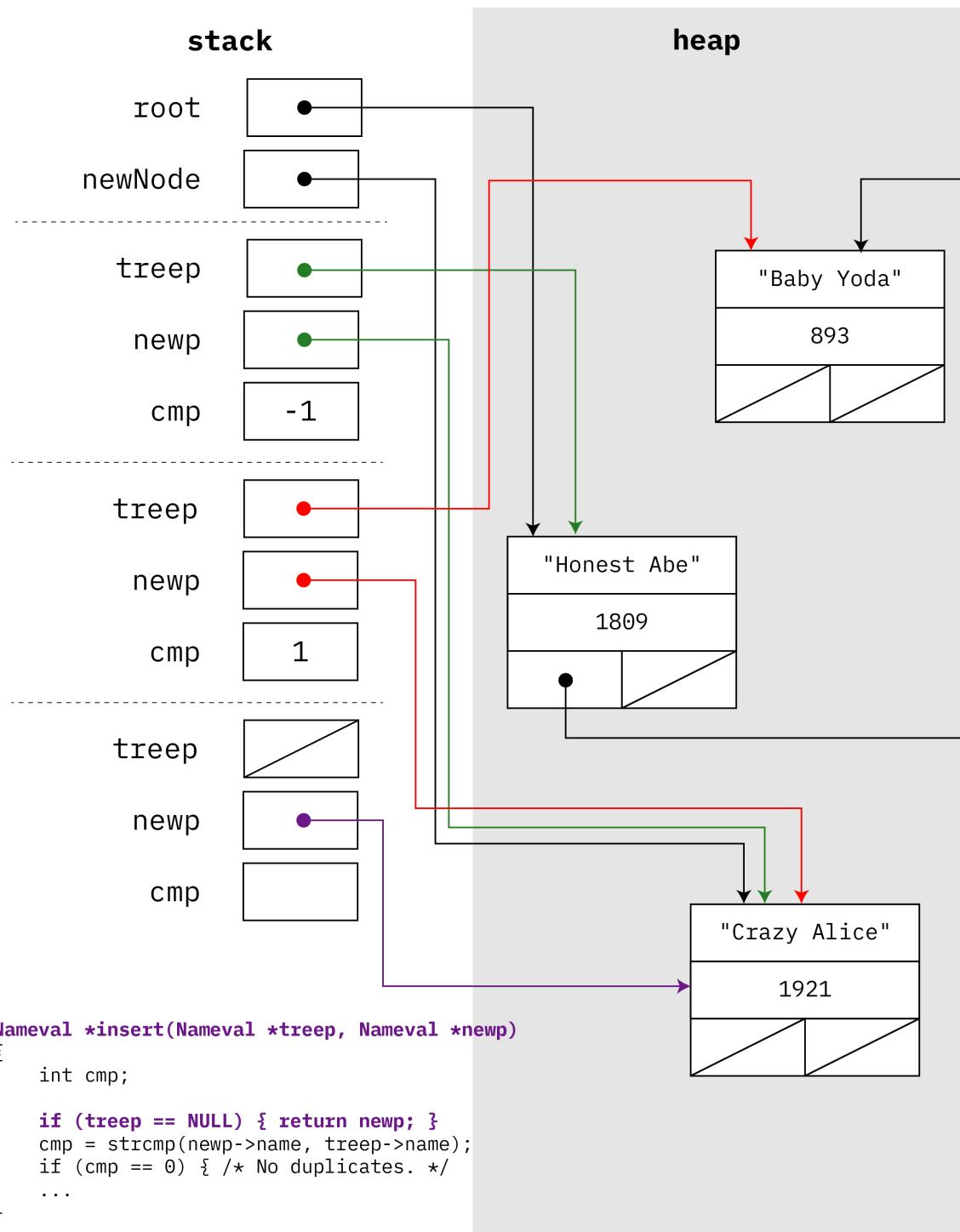


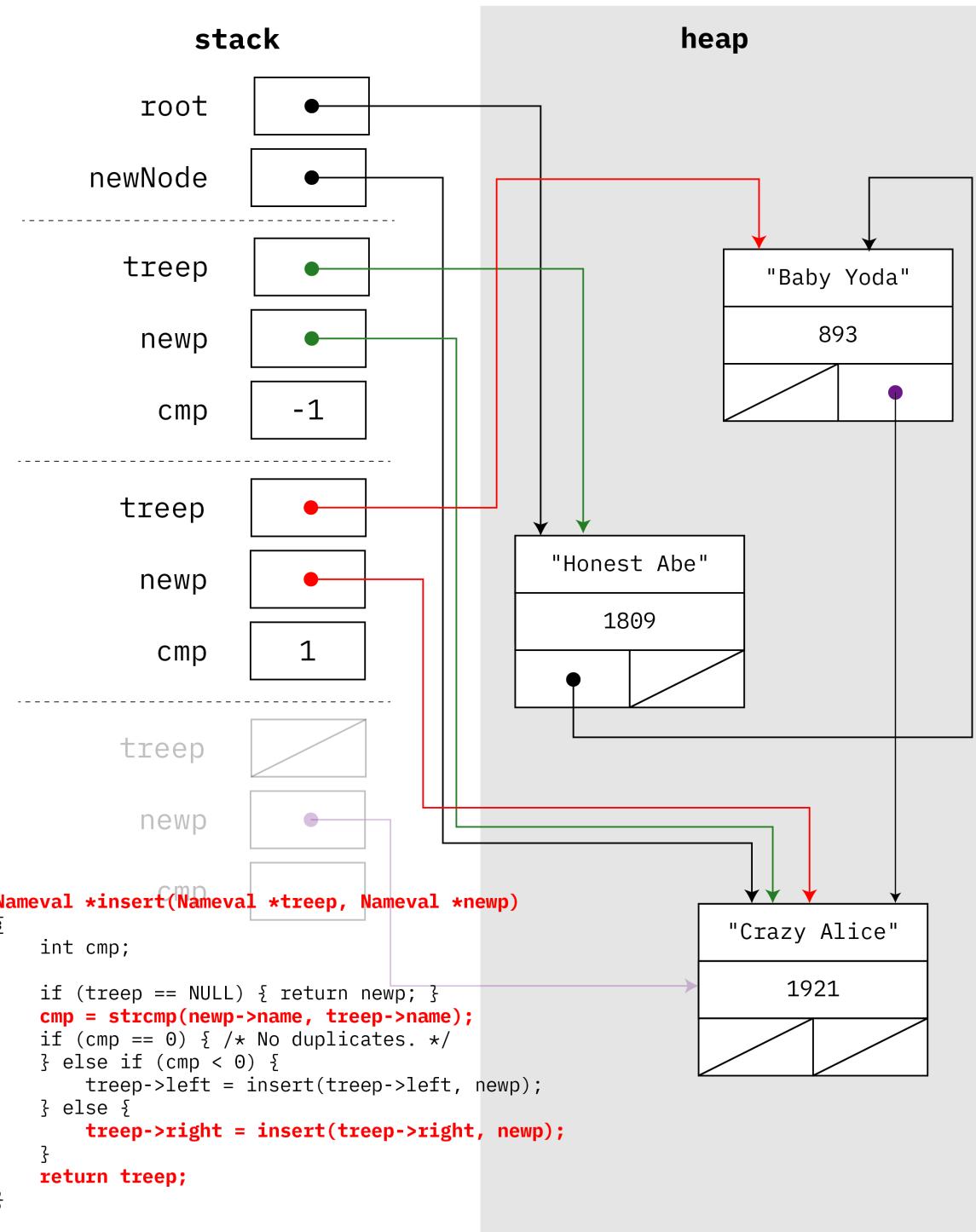


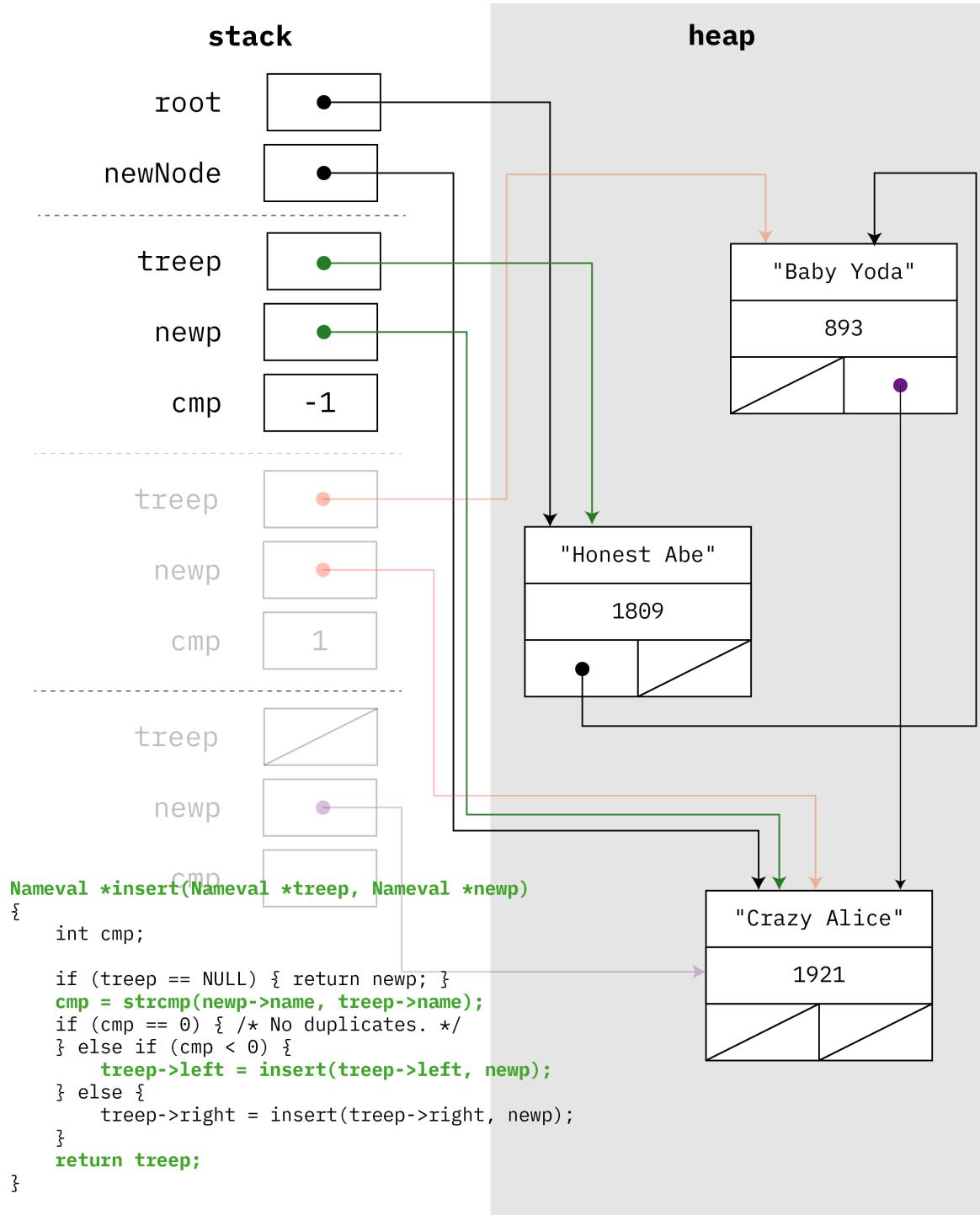


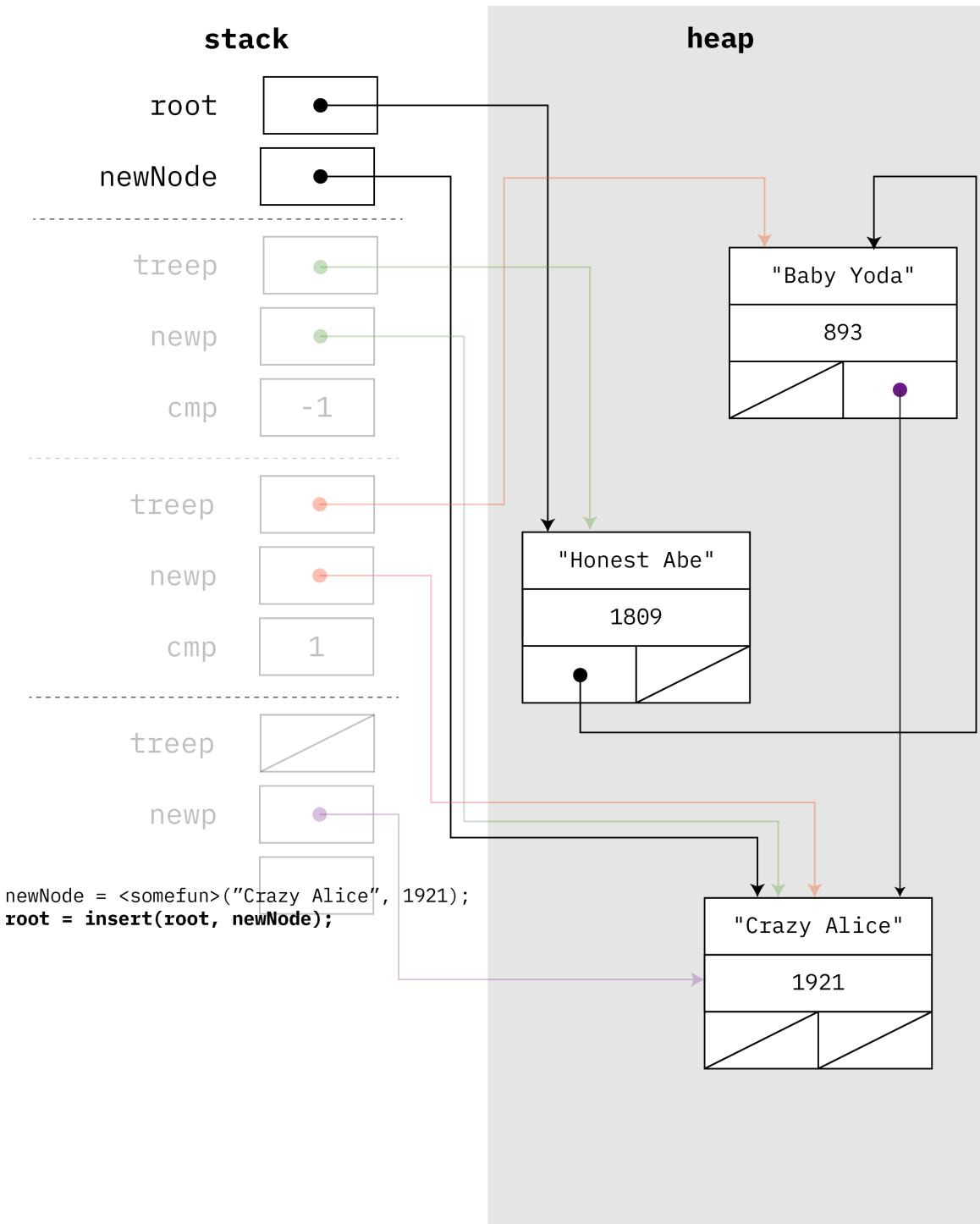


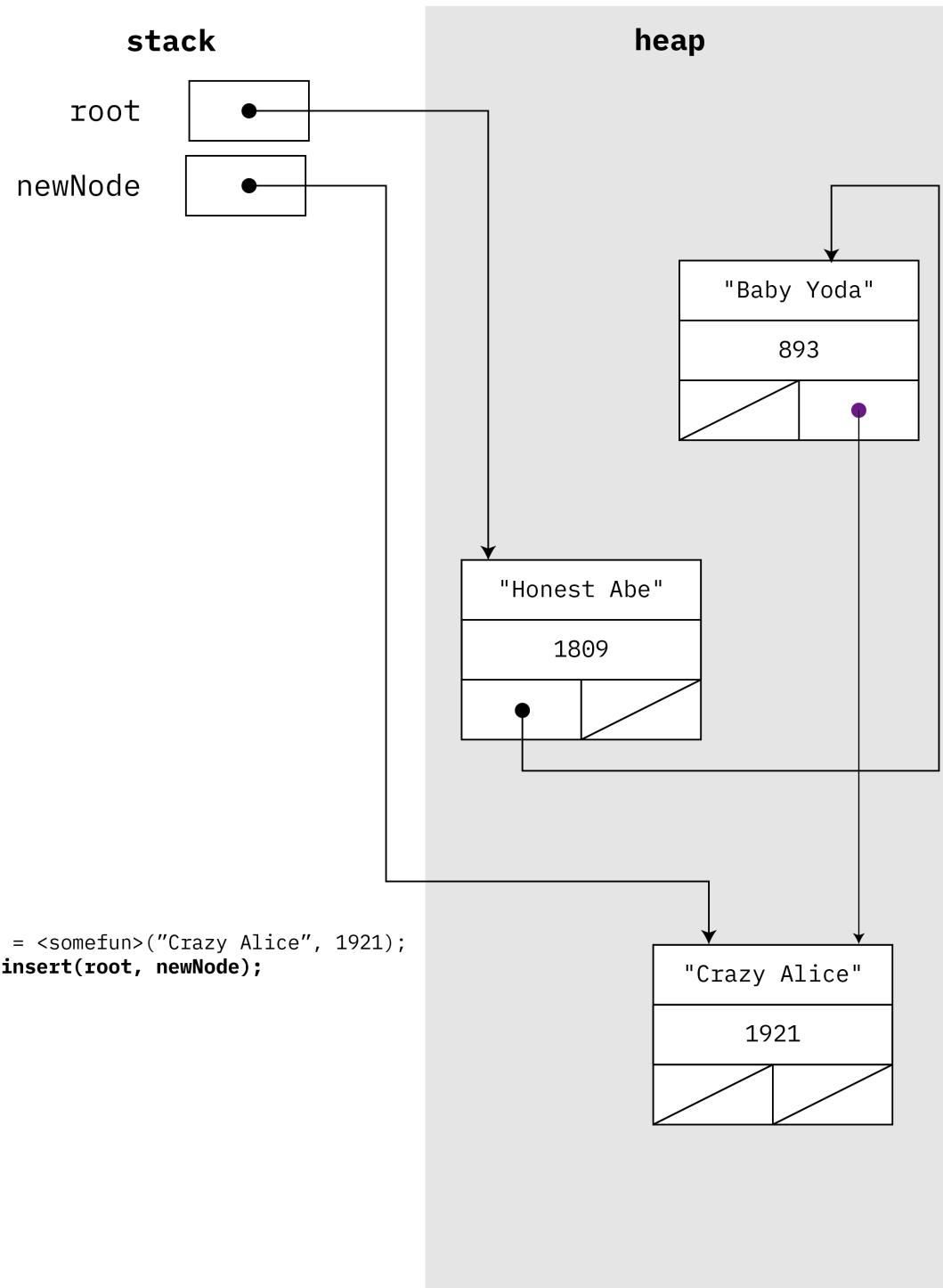












```

newNode = <somefun>("Crazy Alice", 1921);
root = insert(root, newNode);

```

# Some observations

- The tree routines just shown do not permit duplicate entries.
- **The insertion routine does not try to keep the tree balanced**
  - It is possible that a sequence of inserts could yield a linear list instead of a tree (i.e., inserting a sequence of items that are already sorted).
  - However, this means our routines are a lot simpler (although it is not an oppressive amount of work to implement an AVL tree; rather, it is just a bit complicated!)
- The code for a lookup is similar to that for insertion
  - Recursively search by choosing the left or right subtrees
  - Return the correct node if matching lookup criteria, NULL otherwise.

# lookup

```
Nameval *lookup(Nameval *treep, char *name)
{
    int cmp;

    if (treep == NULL) {
        return NULL;
    }
    cmp = strcmp(name, treep->name);
    if (cmp == 0) {
        return treep;
    } else if (cmp < 0) {
        return lookup(treep->left, name);
    } else {
        return lookup(treep->right, name);
    }
}
```

```
Nameval *temp;
temp = lookup(root, "Trudeau");
if (temp) {
    /* found it */
} else {
    /* NULL was returned;
}
```

# Must routines be recursive?

- Both insert and lookup were recursive
  - The routines were defined in terms of themselves.
  - Base case: empty tree
  - Inductive step: left tree, and/or right tree
- However, not all routines with recursive definitions need to be recursive
  - **Tail recursion:** When the recursive step (i.e., invocation of the recursive function) is the last step of the function...
  - ... we can transform such tail-recursive functions into iterative ones.
  - All we require is some patching up of arguments (via assignments) and need a way to restart the body of the routine (via some loop)

# Non-recursive lookup

```
Nameval *lookup(Nameval *treep,
    char *name)
{
    int cmp;

    if (treep == NULL) {
        return NULL;
    }
    cmp = strcmp(name, treep->name);
    if (cmp == 0) {
        return treep;
    } else if (cmp < 0) {
        return lookup(treep->left,
                      name);
    } else {
        return lookup(treep->right,
                      name);
    }
}
```

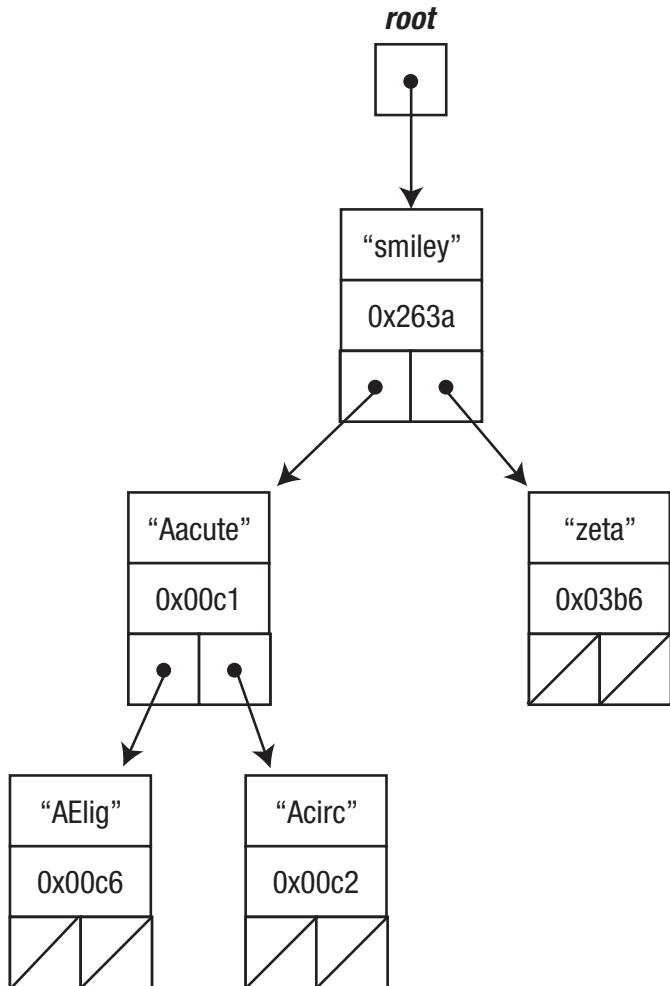
```
Nameval *nrlookup(Nameval *treep,
    char *name)
{
    int cmp;

    while (treep != NULL) {
        cmp = strcmp(name, treep->name);
        if (cmp == 0) {
            return treep;
        } else if (cmp < 0) {
            treep = treep->left;
        } else {
            treep = treep->right;
        }
    }
    return NULL;
}
```

# An observation about trees

- The same observations we made about operations on lists can also be made with respect to operations on trees
  - Traverse through the tree in some order
  - While doing so, compute some value / perform some comparison / etc.
  - After traversing the tree, return some value
- If we want to rewrite **apply** for a binary search tree, we must decide on some order
  - **inorder** traversal?
  - **pre-order** traversal?
  - **post-order** traversal?
- In effect we will have one **apply** function for each ordering, and each of these functions will take arguments similar to what we had for the list version of **apply**.

# Binary search tree example



inorder:  
AElig  
Aacute  
Acirc  
smiley  
zeta

post-order:  
AElig  
Acirc  
Aacute  
aeta  
smiley

pre-order:  
???

# applyinorder

```
void applyinorder(Nameval *treep,
                  void (*fn)(Nameval*, void*), void *arg)
{
    if (treep == NULL) {
        return;
    }
    applyinorder(treep->left, fn, arg);
    (*fn)(treep, arg);
    applyinorder(treep->right, fn, arg);
}
```

```
/* We can even use some of the functions we passed as arguments
 * to the "list" version of apply!
 */
```

```
applyinorder(treep, printnv, "%s: %x\n");
```

```
/* Could you build a sort based on the tree routines +
 * a function (that you would write) given to applyinorder?
 */
```

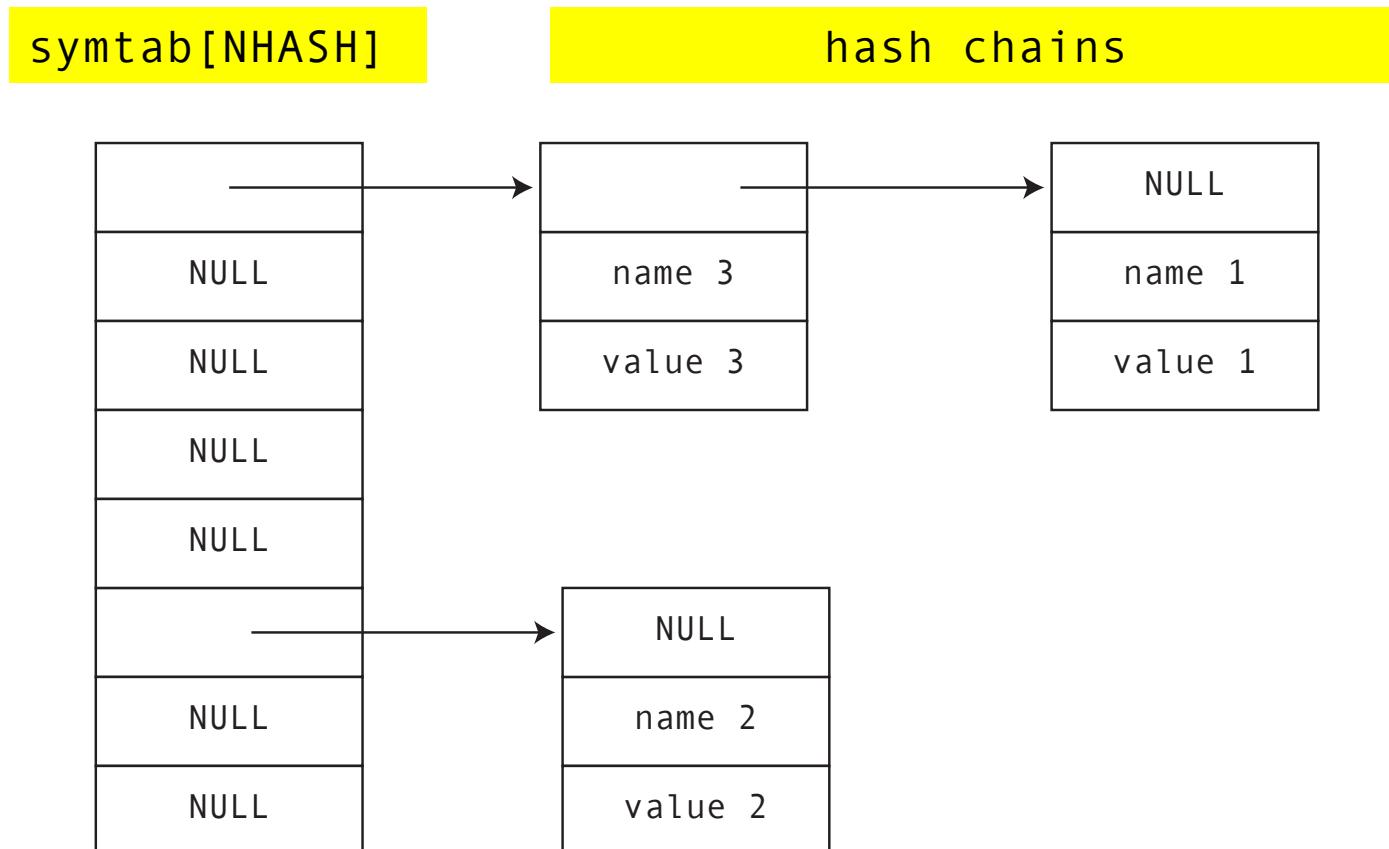
# Hash tables

- These combine:
  - **arrays** ...
  - ... and possibly some **linked lists** ....
  - ... along with **some mathematics**
- Result is an efficient structure for storing and retrieving dynamic data
- Typical application for hash tables: **symbol tables**
  - Associates a key string (e.g., a variable name)...
  - with some value that is an attribute of that string (e.g. the variable's type)
  - Symbol tables are used heavily by compilers
- Lots of other places where hash tables are useful

# The idea

- Hash tables work on the following principle
  - **First** pass key to the **hash function**
  - The hash function produces a **hash value**
  - These values will be **evenly distributed** through a modest-sized integer range
- The hash value is then used as an array index
  - **Then** use the hash value to index into some structure.
  - In C the usual style is to associate each hash value / array index with a list of items that share the hash
  - Each such list (sometimes called a **hash chain**) is known as a **bucket**
- Collision handling:
  - Separate chaining (we'll use this)
  - Open addressing (linear or quadratic probing; ignore for now)

# Example



# The practice

- Hash functions are pre-defined by programmer
- Array is sized appropriately (usually at compile time)
- Each element of the array is a list that **chains** together the items that share a hash value (i.e., hash chain)
- Equivalently:
  - A hash table of  $n$  items ...
  - ... is an array of lists whose average length is ( $n$ /array size)
- Retrieving an item is an  $O(1)$  operation provided the following two conditions hold:
  - **we pick a good hash function**
  - **the lists do not grow too long**

# Element type

- A hash table is an array of lists...
  - ... therefore we can re-use the element type used for lists
- Maintaining individual hash chains is similar to maintaining individual lists
- Once we have a good hash function, the code falls out easily
  - just pick the hash bucket...
  - ... and walk along the list looking for a perfect match

```
typedef struct Nameval Nameval;
struct Nameval {
    char    *name;
    int     value;
    Nameval *next; /* in chain */
};

/* symbol table */
Nameval *syntab[NHASH];
```

# Lookup / insertion routine

- If item is found:
  - It is returned
- If item is not found and create flag is set:
  - add item to the table.

```
Nameval *lookup (char *name, int create, int value)
{
    int h
    Nameval *sym;

    h = hash(name);
    for (sym = syntab[h]; sym != NULL; sym = sym->next) {
        if (strcmp(name, sym->name) == 0) { return sym; }
    if (create) {
        sym = (Nameval *) malloc(sizeof(Nameval));
        sym->name = name; /* assumed allocated elsewhere */
        sym->value = value;
        sym->next = syntab[h];
        syntab[h] = sym;
    }
    return sym;
}
```

# Why combine lookup & insertion?

- This is a common combination
- Without it we often duplicate effort
- (Without it the hash function to be executed twice for the same item.)
- This is a stylistic point (but one which can save a bit of tedium and reduce possibility of buggy code)

```
/*
 * The code that might result if we
 * keep lookup and insertion separate.
 */

if (lookup("name") == NULL) {
    additem(newitem("name", value));
}
```

# Two more questions

- How big should the array be?
  - In general: make it large enough that each hash chain will have at most a few elements
  - Example: A compiler might have an array size of a few thousand
- How is the hash function computed?
  - Must be deterministic (i.e., produce same value each time for same key)
  - Must be fast
  - Must distribute data uniformly through the array
  - Lots of research exists that investigates these properties of hash functions

# Possible hash function

- Common hashing algorithm for strings:
  - Build a value by adding each byte of the string to a multiple of the hash so far
  - Multiplication spreads bits from the new byte through the value so far
- Empirically: the values 31 and 37 have proven to be good choices for ASCII strings

```
#define MULTIPLIER 31

/* hash: compute hash value of string */
unsigned int hash (char *str) {
    unsigned int h;
    unsigned char *p;

    h = 0;
    for (p = (unsigned char *) str; *p != '\0'; p++) {
        h = MULTIPLIER * h + *p;
    }
    return h % NHASH;
}
```

# Summary

- malloc() is an important tool
  - but it can be tricky at first to use correctly
  - is usually paired with free()
- dynamically-allocated memory needed for implementing many kinds of data structures
- four big takeaways
  - arrays can be resized (and that's handy as arrays are easy to use)
  - lists are used in many data structures (so it is important to know how to write routines that add to, traverse through, and remove from lists)
  - binary search trees can be constructed in a way familiar to us from theory
  - hash tables (i.e. maps) can make use of either arrays + linked lists or of dynamically-sized arrays

# Colophon

- Some code examples are from "The Practice of Programming" (Addison-Wesley)  
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