Week 03

Things to Note ...

- Assignment 1 released tomorrow
 - due Wednesday 30 August 23:59pm (week 6)
- Fun Quiz next week

In This Lecture ...

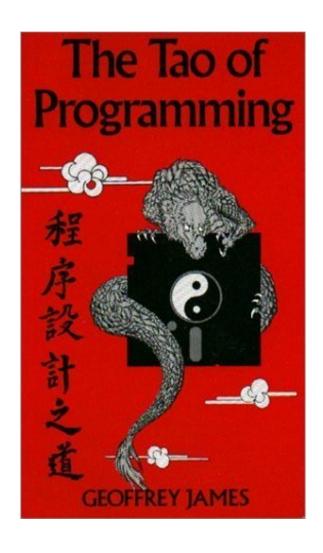
Dynamic data structures (Slides, [M] 10.1-10.2, [S] 3.3-3.5,4.4,4.6)

Coming Up ...

Analysis of algorithms (Slides, [S] Ch.2)

The Tao of Programming

First in a series of advices from the Tao of Programming ...



The Tao of Programming (cont)

Book 1 Chapter 1.3

In the beginning was the Tao. The Tao gave birth to Space and Time.

Therefore Space and Time are the Yin and Yang of programming.

Programmers that do not comprehend the Tao are always running out of time and space for their programs. Programmers that comprehend the Tao always have enough time and space to accomplish their goals.

How could it be otherwise?

Memory

Reminder:

Computer memory ... large array of consecutive data cells or bytes

• **char** ... 1 byte

• int, float ... 4 bytes

• double ... 8 bytes

• any type * ... 4 bytes (on CSE lab computers)

Memory addresses shown in Hexadecimal notation

0xFFFF 0xFFFE

High Memory

0x0001

0x0000

Low Memory

C execution: Memory

An executing C program partitions memory into:

- code ... fixed-size, read-only region
 - contains the machine code instructions for the program
- global data .. fixed-size, read-write region
 - contain global variables and constant strings
- heap ... very large, read-write region
 - contains dynamic data structures created by malloc() (see later)
- stack ... dynamically-allocated data (function local vars)
 - o consists of frames, one for each currently active function
 - each frame contains local variables and house-keeping info

C execution: Memory (cont)

Code Global Data Heap Stack main() FILE *stdin f() char *s g() y,z g "abc" printf() f x,y malloc() argc, argv main

Exercise #1: Memory Regions

```
int numbers[] = { 40, 20, 30 };

void insertionSort(int array[], int n) {
    int i, j;
    for (i = 1; i < n; i++) {
        int element = array[i];
            while (j >= 0 && array[j] > element) {
            array[j+1] = array[j];
            j--;
        }
        array[j+1] = element;
    }
}
int main(void) {
    insertionSort(numbers, 3);
    return 0;
}
```

Which memory region are the following objects located in?

- 1. insertionSort()
- 2. numbers[0]
- 3. **n**
- 4. array[0]
- 5. element

- 1. code
- 2. global
- 3. stack
- 4. global
- 5. stack

Dynamic Data Structures

Dynamic Memory Allocation

So far, we have considered static memory allocation

- all objects completely defined at compile-time
- sizes of all objects are known to compiler

Examples:

Dynamic Memory Allocation (cont)

In many applications, fixed-size data is ok.

In many other applications, we need flexibility.

Examples:

With fixed-size data, we need to guess sizes ("large enough").

Dynamic Memory Allocation (cont)

Fixed-size memory allocation:

allocate as much space as we might ever possibly need

Dynamic memory allocation:

- allocate as much space as we actually need
- determine size based on inputs

But how to do this in C?

- all data allocation methods so far are "static"
 - however, stack data (when calling a function) is created dynamically (size is known)

Dynamic Data Example

Problem:

- read integer data from standard input (keyboard)
- first number tells how many numbers follow
- rest of numbers are read into a vector
- subsequent computation uses vector (e.g. sorts it)

Example input: 6 25 -1 999 42 -16 64

How to define the vector?

Dynamic Data Example (cont)

Suggestion #1: allocate a large vector; use only part of it

```
#define MAXELEMS 1000

// how many elements in the vector
int numberOfElems;
scanf("%d", &numberOfElems);
assert(numberOfElems <= MAXELEMS);

// declare vector and fill with user input
int i, vector[MAXELEMS];
for (i = 0; i < numberOfElems; i++)
    scanf("%d", &vector[i]);</pre>
```

Works ok, unless too many numbers; usually wastes space.

Recall that assert() terminates program with standard error message if test fails.

Dynamic Data Example (cont)

Suggestion #2: use variables to give object sizes

```
// how many elements in the vector
int numberOfElems;
scanf("%d", &numberOfElems);

// declare vector and fill with user input
int i, vector[numberOfElems];
for (i = 0; i < numberOfElems; i++)
    scanf("%d", &vector[i]);</pre>
```

Produces compiler error (compiler needs to know object sizes)

Dynamic Data Example (cont)

Suggestion #3: create vector after count read in

```
#include <stdlib.h>
// how many elements in the vector
int numberOfElems;
scanf("%d", &numberOfElems);
// declare vector and fill with user input
int i, *vector;
size t numberOfBytes;
numberOfBytes = numberOfElems * sizeof(int);
vector = malloc(numberOfBytes);
assert(vector != NULL);
for (i = 0; i < numberOfElems; i++)</pre>
   scanf("%d", &vector[i]);
```

Works unless the heap is already full (very unlikely)

Reminder: because of pointer/array connection &vector[i] == vector+i

The malloc() function

Recall memory usage within C programs:

Code	Global Data	Heap	Stack	
main()			1 1 1	
			argc, argv	main

malloc() function interface

```
void *malloc(size_t n);
```

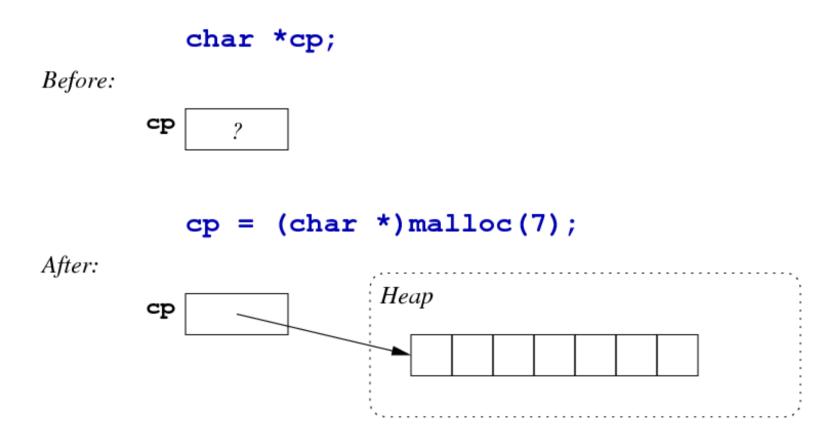
What the function does:

- attempts to reserve a block of n bytes in the heap
- returns the address of the start of this block
- if insufficient space left in the heap, returns **NULL**

Note: size_t is essentially an unsigned int

 but has specialised interpretation of applying to memory sizes measured in bytes

Example use of malloc:



Things to note about void *malloc(size_t):

- it is defined as part of **stdlib.h**
- its parameter is a size in units of bytes
- its return value is a generic pointer (void *)
- the return value must *always* be checked (may be **NULL**)

Required size is determined by #Elements * sizeof(ElementType)

Exercise #2: Dynamic Memory Allocation

Write code to

- 1. create a dynamic *m*×*n*-matrix of floating point numbers, given *m* and *n*
- 2. create space for 1,000 speeding tickets (cf. Lecture Week 1)

How many bytes need to be reserved in each case?

1. Matrix:

```
float *matrix = malloc(m * n * sizeof(float));
assert(matrix != NULL);
```

4·mn bytes allocated

2. Speeding tickets:

```
typedef struct {
  int day, month, year;
} DateT;
typedef struct {
  int hour, minute;
} TimeT;
typedef struct {
  char plate[7];
  DateT d;
  TimeT t;
} TicketT *tickets = malloc(1000 * sizeof(TicketT));
assert(tickets != NULL);
```

28,000 bytes allocated



Exercise #3: Memory Regions

Which memory region is tickets located in? What about *tickets?

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tickets is a variable located in the stack
*tickets is in the heap (after malloc'ing memory)

malloc() returns a pointer to a data object of some kind.

Things to note about objects allocated by malloc():

- they exist until explicitly removed (program-controlled lifetime)
- they are accessible while some variable references them
- if no active variable references an object, it is garbage

The function free() releases objects allocated by malloc()

Usage of malloc() should always be guarded:

```
int *vector, length, i;
...
vector = malloc(length*sizeof(int));
// but malloc() might fail to allocate
assert(vector != NULL);
// now we know it's safe to use vector[]
for (i = 0; i < length; i++) {
    ... vector[i] ...
}</pre>
```

Alternatively:

```
int *vector, length, i;
...
vector = malloc(length*sizeof(int));
// but malloc() might fail to allocate
if (vector == NULL) {
  fprintf(stderr, "Out of memory\n");
  exit(1);
}
// now we know its safe to use vector[]
for (i = 0; i < length; i++) {
    ... vector[i] ...
}</pre>
```

- fprintf(stderr, ...) outputs text to a stream called stderr (the screen, by default)
- exit(v) terminates the program with return value v

Memory Management

void free(void *ptr)

- releases a block of memory allocated by malloc()
- *ptr is a dynamically allocated object
- if *ptr was not malloc()'d, chaos will follow

Things to note:

- the contents of the memory block are not changed
- all pointers to the block still exist, but are not valid
- the memory may be re-used as soon as it is free()'d

Warning! Warning! Warning!

Careless use of malloc() / free() / pointers

- can mess up the data in the heap
- so that later malloc() or free() cause run-time errors
- possibly well after the original error occurred

Such errors are very difficult to track down and debug.

Must be very careful with your use of malloc() / free() / pointers.

If an uninitialised or otherwise invalid pointer is used, or an array is accessed with a negative or out-of-bounds index, one of a number of things might happen:

- program aborts immediately with a "segmentation fault"
- a mysterious failure much later in the execution of the program
- incorrect results, but no obvious failure
- correct results, but maybe not always, and maybe not when executed on another day, or another machine

The first is the most desirable, but cannot be relied on.

Given a pointer variable:

- you can check whether its value is **NULL**
- you can (maybe) check that it is an address
- you cannot check whether it is a valid address

Typical usage pattern for dynamically allocated objects:

```
// single dynamic object e.g. struct
Type *ptr = malloc(sizeof(Type));
assert(ptr != NULL);
... use object referenced by ptr e.g. ptr->name ...
free(ptr);

// dynamic array with "nelems" elements
int nelems = NumberOfElements;
ElemType *arr = malloc(nelems*sizeof(ElemType));
assert(arr != NULL);
... use array referenced by arr e.g. arr[4] ...
free(arr);
```

Memory Leaks

Well-behaved programs do the following:

- allocate a new object via malloc()
- use the object for as long as needed
- free() the object when no longer needed

A program which does not **free()** each object before the last reference to it is lost contains a memory leak.

Such programs may eventually exhaust available heapspace.

Exercise #4: Dynamic Arrays

Write a C-program that

- prompts the user to input a positive number *n*
- allocates memory for two n-dimensional floating point vectors a and
 b
- prompts the user to input 2*n* numbers to initialise these vectors
- computes and outputs the inner product of a and b
- frees the allocated memory

Sidetrack: Standard I/O Streams, Redirects

Standard file streams:

- stdin ... standard input, by default: keyboard
- stdout ... standard output, by default: screen
- stderr ... standard error, by default: screen
- fprintf(stdout, ...) has the same effect as printf(...)
- fprintf(stderr, ...) often used to print error messages

Executing a C program causes main(...) to be invoked

• with stdin, stdout, stderr already open for use

Sidetrack: Standard I/O Streams, Redirects (cont)

The streams stdin, stdout, stderr can be redirected

• redirecting **stdin**

• redirecting stdout

• redirecting **stderr**

```
prompt$ myprog 2> error.data
```

Abstract Data Types

Abstract Data Types

Reminder: An abstract data type is ...

- an approach to implementing data types
- separates interface from implementation
- users of the ADT see only the interface
- builders of the ADT provide an implementation

E.g. does a client want/need to know how a Stack is implemented?

- ADO = abstract data object (e.g. a single stack)
- ADT = abstract data type (e.g. stack data type)

Abstract Data Types (cont)

ADT interface provides

- an opaque user-view of the data structure (e.g. stack *)
- function signatures (prototypes) for all operations
- semantics of operations (via documentation)
- a contract between ADT and its clients

ADT implementation gives

- concrete definition of the data structure
- function implementations for all operations
- ... including for creation and destruction of instances of the data structure

ADTs are important because ...

- facilitate decomposition of complex programs
- make implementation changes invisible to clients
- improve readability and structuring of software

Stack as ADT

Interface (in stack.h)

```
// provides an opaque view of ADT
typedef struct StackRep *stack;

// set up empty stack
stack newStack();
// remove unwanted stack
void dropStack(stack);
// check whether stack is empty
int StackIsEmpty(stack);
// insert an int on top of stack
void StackPush(stack, int);
// remove int from top of stack
int StackPop(stack);
```

ADT **stack** defined as a pointer to an unspecified struct

Static/Dynamic Sequences

Previously we have used an array to implement a stack

- fixed size collection of heterogeneous elements
- can be accessed via index or via "moving" pointer

The "fixed size" aspect is a potential problem:

- how big to make the (dynamic) array? (big ... just in case)
- what to do if it fills up?

The rigid sequence is another problems:

inserting/deleting an item in middle of array

Insert new value

Static/Dynamic Sequences (cont)

Inserting a value into a sorted array (insert(a,&n,4)):

Initial state	n 5	a	1	3	5	7	9	
					i			
Find location	n 5	a	1	3	5	7	9	
					i			
Move elements	n 5	a	1	3		5	7	9

i

4

5

7

9

3

Static/Dynamic Sequences (cont)

Deleting a value from a sorted array (delete(a,&n,3)):

Initial state **n** 6 **a** 1 3 4 5 7 9

Find location **n** 6 **a** 1 3 4 5 7 9

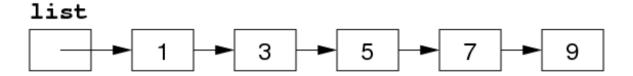
i

Move elements **n** 5 **a** 1 4 5 7 9

Dynamic Sequences

The problems with using arrays can be solved by

- allocating elements individually
- linking them together as a "chain"



Benefits:

- insertion/deletion have minimal effect on list overall
- only use as much space as needed for values

Self-referential Structures

To realise a "chain of elements", need a node containing

- a value
- a link to the next node

In C, we can define such nodes as:

```
struct node {
   int data;
   struct node *next;
};
```

Self-referential Structures (cont)

When defining self-referential types with typedef

```
typedef struct node {
   int data;
   struct node *next;
} NodeT;
```

Self-referential Structures (cont)

Note that the following definition does not work:

```
typedef struct {
   int data;
   NodeT *next;
} NodeT;
```

Because **NodeT** is not yet known (to the compiler) when we try to use it to define the type of the **next** field.

The following is also illegal in C:

```
struct node {
   int data;
   struct node recursive;
};
```

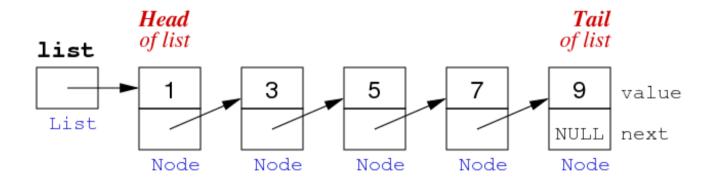
Because the size of the structure would have to satisfy **sizeof(struct node) = sizeof(int) + sizeof(struct node) = ...**

Linked Lists in C

Linked Lists

To represent a chained (linked) list of nodes:

- we need a pointer to the first node
- each node contains a pointer to the next node
- the next pointer in the last node is NULL



Linked Lists (cont)

Linked lists are more flexible than arrays:

- values do not have to be adjacent in memory
- values can be rearranged simply by altering pointers
- the number of values can change dynamically
- values can be added or removed in any order

Disadvantages:

- it is not difficult to get pointer manipulations wrong
- each value also requires storage for next pointer

Memory Storage for Linked Lists

Linked list nodes are typically located in the heap

because nodes are dynamically created

Variables containing pointers to list nodes

are likely to be local variables (in the stack)

Pointers to the start of lists are often

- passed as parameters to function
- returned as function results

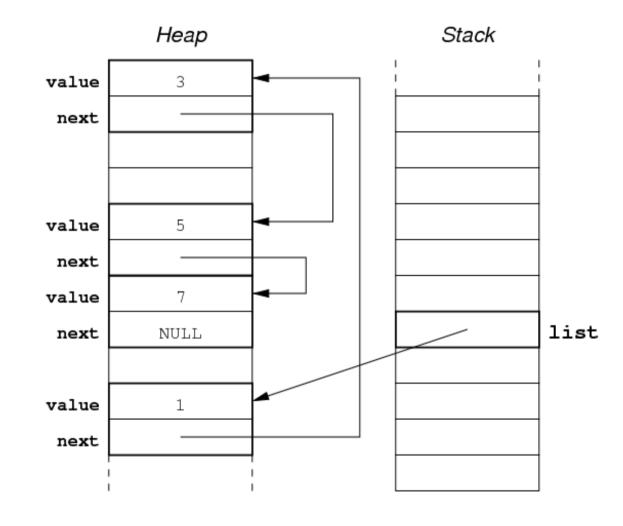
Memory Storage for Linked Lists (cont)

Create a new list node:

Memory Storage for Linked Lists (cont)

Nodes may be created in any order in the heap.

Depends on malloc()





Exercise #5: Creating a linked list

Write C-code to create a linked list of three nodes with values 1, 42 and 9024.

```
⋖ 54 ▶
```

```
NodeT *list = makeNode(1);
list->next = makeNode(42);
list->next->next = makeNode(9024);
```

Iteration over Linked Lists

When manipulating list elements

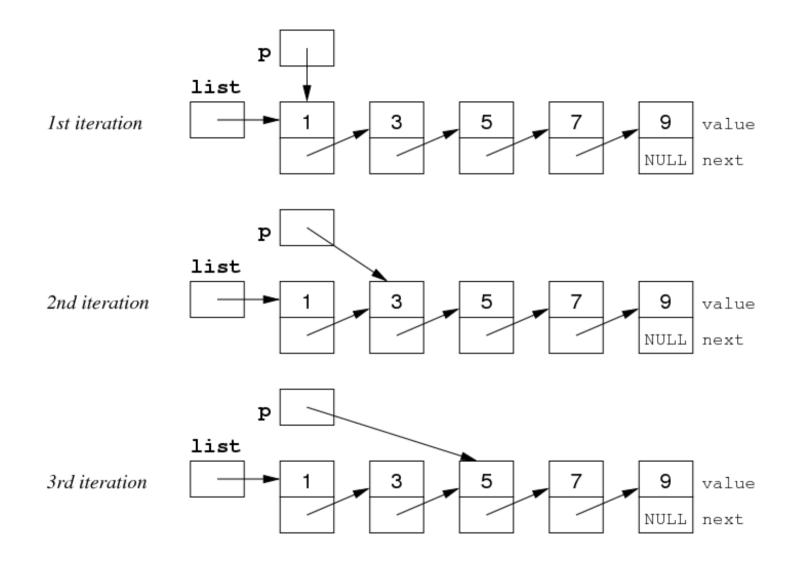
- typically have pointer p to current node (NodeT *p)
- to access the data in current node: p->data
- to get pointer to next node: p->next

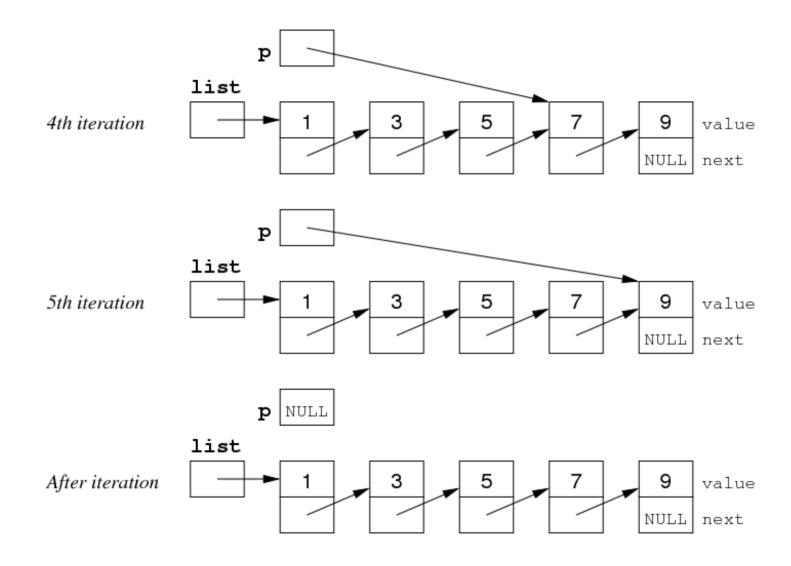
To iterate over a linked list:

- set p to point at first node (head)
- examine node pointed to by p
- change p to point to next node
- stop when p reaches end of list (NULL)

Standard method for scanning all elements in a linked list:

```
NodeT *list; // pointer to first Node in list
NodeT *p; // pointer to "current" Node in list
p = list;
while (p != NULL) {
... do something with p->data ...
p = p->next;
// which is frequently written as
for (p = list; p != NULL; p = p->next) {
... do something with p->data ...
```





Check if list contains an element:

Print all elements:

```
showLL(NodeT *list) {
   NodeT *p;
   for (p = list; p != NULL; p = p->next)
      printf("%6d", p->data);
}
```

Exercise #6: Traversing a linked list

What does this code do?

```
1  NodeT *p = list;
2  while (p != NULL) {
3     printf("%6d", p->data);
4     if (p->next != NULL)
5         p = p->next->next;
6     else
7         p = NULL;
9  }
```

What is the purpose of the conditional statement in line 4?

⋖ 61 **≻**

Every second list element is printed.

If *p happens to be the last element in the list, then p->next->next does not exist.

The if-statement ensures that we do not attempt to assign an invalid address to **p** in line 5.

Exercise #7: Traversing a linked list

Rewrite **showLL()** as a recursive function.

```
⋖ 63 ►
```

```
void printLL(NodeT *list) {
   if (list != NULL) {
     printf("%6d", list->data);
     printLL(list->next);
   }
}
```

Modifying a Linked List

Insert a new element at the beginning:

Delete the first element:

What would happen if we didn't **free** the memory pointed to by **head**?

Modifying a Linked List (cont)

Delete a specific element (recursive version):



Exercise #8: Freeing a list

Write a C-function to destroy an entire list.

Iterative version:

```
void freeLL(NodeT *list) {
   NodeT *p;

p = list;
while (p != NULL) {
   NodeT *temp = p->next;
   free(p);
   p = temp;
}
}
```

Why do we need the extra variable **temp**?

Stack ADT Implementation

Linked list implementation (stack.c):

```
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <assert.h>
#include "stack.h"
typedef struct node {
   int data:
   struct node *next;
} NodeT;
typedef struct StackRep {
   int
          height; // #elements on stack
   NodeT *top;
                   // ptr to first element
} StackRep;
// set up empty stack
stack newStack() {
   stack S = malloc(sizeof(StackRep));
   S->height = 0;
   S->top = NULL;
   return S;
// remove unwanted stack
void dropStack(stack S) {
   NodeT *curr = S->top;
   while (curr != NULL) { // free the list
      NodeT *temp = curr->next;
      free(curr);
      curr = temp;
   free(S);
                      // free the stack rep
```

```
// check whether stack is empty
int StackIsEmpty(stack S) {
   return (S->height == 0);
// insert an int on top of stack
void StackPush(stack S, int v) {
   NodeT *new = malloc(sizeof(NodeT));
   assert(new != NULL);
   new->data = v:
   // insert new element at top
   new->next = S->top:
   S->top = new;
   S->height++;
// remove int from top of stack
int StackPop(stack S) {
   assert(S->height > 0);
   NodeT *head = S->top;
   // second list element becomes new top
   S->top = S->top->next;
   S->height--;
   // read data off first element, then free
   int d = head->data;
   free(head);
   return d;
```

Summary: Memory Management Functions

void *malloc(size_t nbytes)

- aim: allocate some memory for a data object
- attempt to allocate a block of memory of size nbytes in the heap
- if successful, returns a pointer to the start of the block
- if insufficient space in heap, returns **NULL**

Things to note:

- the location of the memory block within heap is random
- the initial contents of the memory block are random

Summary: Memory Management Functions (cont)

void free(void *ptr)

- releases a block of memory allocated by malloc()
- *ptr is the start of a dynamically allocated object
- if *ptr was not malloc()'d, chaos will ensue

Things to note:

- the contents of the memory block are not changed
- all pointers to the block still exist, but are not valid
- the memory may be re-used as soon as it is free()'d

Summary

- Memory management
- Dynamic data structures
- Linked lists

- Suggested reading:
 - Moffat, Ch.10.1-10.2
 - Sedgewick, Ch.3.3-3.5,4.4,4.6