

# CS 261-020

# Data Structures

Lecture 4

Dynamic Array vs. Linked List

Begin Complexity Analysis

1/25/24, Thursday



**Oregon State**  
University

# Odds and Ends

- Assignment 1 Due Sunday midnight on TEACH
  - No function headers needed if they are already provided
  - Require in-line comments & program header

# Recap: C Basics – Function pointers

- When implementing sort() function:

- This function needs to be able to sort an array of any data type
  - Thus, each element is void\*, and we need to use void\*\* to control an array of void\*
- The function needs the size of the array, since it is dynamic
- The function needs a comparison method to determine which element comes first
  - The method will be provided by the calling function, thus we need to use a function pointer to store the address of that method/function

```
void sort(void** arr, int n, int (*cmp) (void* a, void* b));
```

- Within sort():

- Whenever we need to compare two values from the array being sorted, we can just call cmp()

```
if (cmp(arr[i], arr[j]) == 0) {  
    /* Put arr[i] before arr[j] in the sorted array. */  
}  
else { _____  
    /* Put arr[i] after arr[j] in the sorted array. */  
}
```

# Recap: C Basics – Function pointers

- For the calling function (when use sort() ):
  - Knows the data type of each element of the array to be sorted
  - Knows the size of the array
  - Knows how to compare the two elements in the array

```
int compare_ints(void* a, void* b) {  
    int* ai = a, *bi = b; /* Cast void* back to int*. */  
    if (*ai < *bi)  
        return 0;  
    else  
        return 1;  
}
```

- Function call will be:

```
sort((void**) array_of_ints, number_of_ints, compare_ints);
```

# FYI: Using GDB

- Compile with debugging symbols (-g flag), e.g.:

```
gcc -std=c99 filename.c -g -o exe_name
```

- Run it with GDB:

```
gdb ./exe_name
```

# FYI: Common GDB Commands

1. `break` – set up break points, e.g.: `b *main`      `break 10`
2. `run` – begin execution (until a break point)
3. `print` – see the values of data, e.g. `print i`      `print &ptr`      `print &main`
- ✓ 4. `next` and `step` – step line by line through the program
5. `continue` – continue until a break point OR the end of the program
6. `backtrace` – prints a backtrace of all stack frame (locate seg fault!!!)
- ★ 7. `x/100wx` [address or register] – read memory
  - **Examine**
  - **100** values
  - **sized as word (w, 4 bytes)**
    - b – byte
    - g – 8 bytes
  - **In hexadecimal (x)**
    - d - decimal

# Lecture Topics:

- Dynamic Array (cont. )
- Linked List
- Begin Complexity Analysis

# Abstract Data Type (ADT)

- Abstract Data Type (ADT) – a mathematical model for data types
- Specifies:
  - the type of data stored
  - the operations supported on them
  - the types of parameters of the operations.
- Why “abstract”?
  - an implementation-independent view of the data type



# Dynamic Arrays

- Elements in an array are stored in a contiguous block of memory
- ★ • Allow random access (direct access)
  - i.e., time to access the 1<sup>st</sup> element = time to access the last element
  - By using array subscript ([]):

```
int* array = malloc(1000 * sizeof(int));  
array[0] = 0;  
array[999] = 0;
```

# Dynamic Arrays (cont. )

- Basic operations:

- **get** – Gets the value of the element stored at a given index in the array

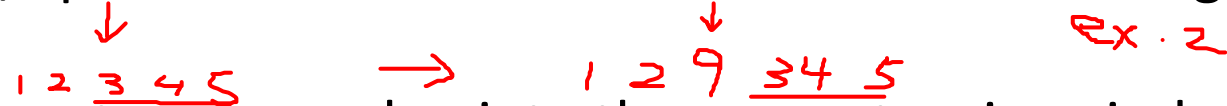
- **set** – Sets/updates the value of the element stored at a given index in the array

- **insert** – Inserts a new value into the array at a given index.

- Sometimes, dynamic array implementations limit insertion to a specific location in the array, e.g. only at the end.

- **remove** – Removes an element at a given index from the array

- Sometimes, dynamic array implementations avoid moving elements up a spot by only allowing the last element to be removed



# Dynamic Arrays (cont. )

- Drawbacks:

- Fixed size, must be specified when the array is created

- For static array:

```
int array[50];
```

- For dynamic array:

```
int *array = malloc (50 * sizeof(int));
```

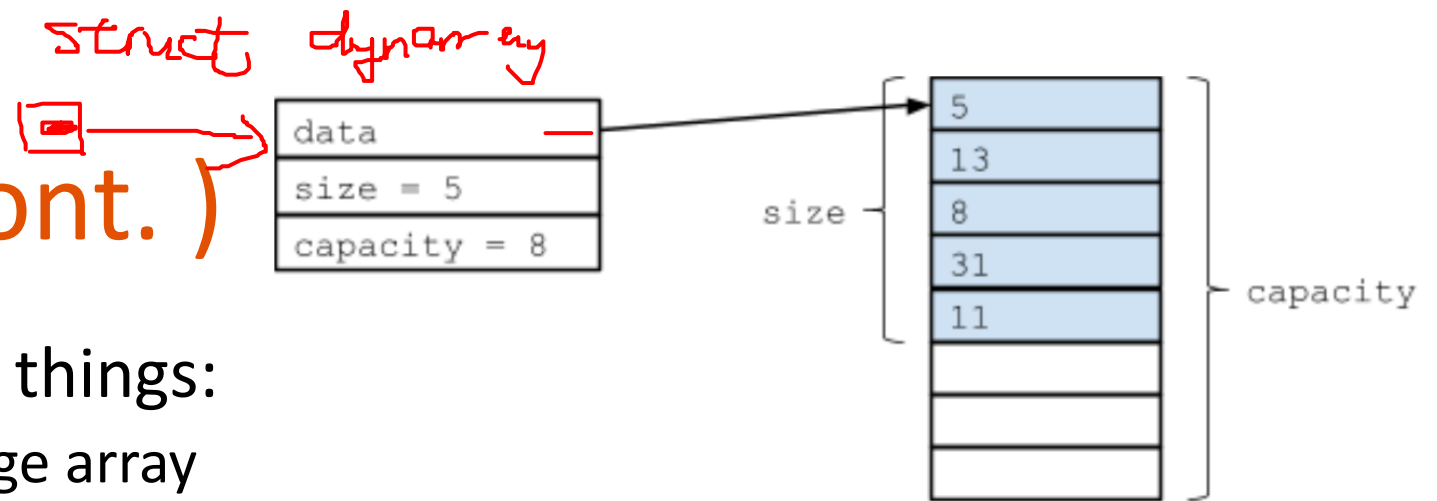
→ Need to allocate more memory if we need to store more data

- How?

- Dynamic array DS doesn't have a fixed capacity

- Has a variable size and can grow as needed

# Dynamic Arrays (cont.)



- Need to keep track of three things:
  - **data** – underlying data storage array
  - **size** – number of elements currently stored in the array
  - **capacity** – number of elements data has space for before it must be resized
- How it works?
  - An array of known capacity is maintained by the dynamic array DS.
  - As elements are inserted, they are simply stored in **data**
  - If an element is inserted into the dynamic array, and there isn't capacity for it in the underlying data storage array (**data**), the capacity of the underlying data storage array is doubled. Then the new element is inserted into this larger data storage array.

# Dynamic Arrays

s: 0      c: 2

--	--

s: 1      c: 2

5	
---	--

s: 2      c: 2

5	8
---	---

s: 3      c: 4

5	8	1	
---	---	---	--

s: ~~4~~      c: 4

5	8	1	4
---	---	---	---

s: 5      c: 8

5	8	1	4	9			
---	---	---	---	---	--	--	--

s: 6      c: 8

5	8	1	4	9	0		
---	---	---	---	---	---	--	--

s: 7      c: 8

5	8	1	4	9	0	6	
---	---	---	---	---	---	---	--

s: 8      c: 8

5	8	1	4	9	0	6	7
---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---

s: 7      c: 8

5	8	4	9	0	6	7	
---	---	---	---	---	---	---	--

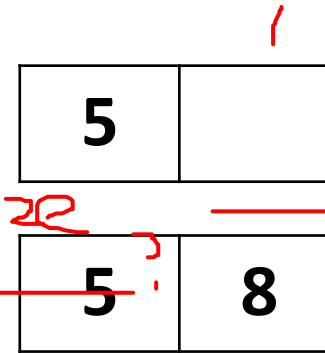
s: 6      c: 8

5	8	4	9	6	7		
---	---	---	---	---	---	--	--

# Inserting an element into dynarray

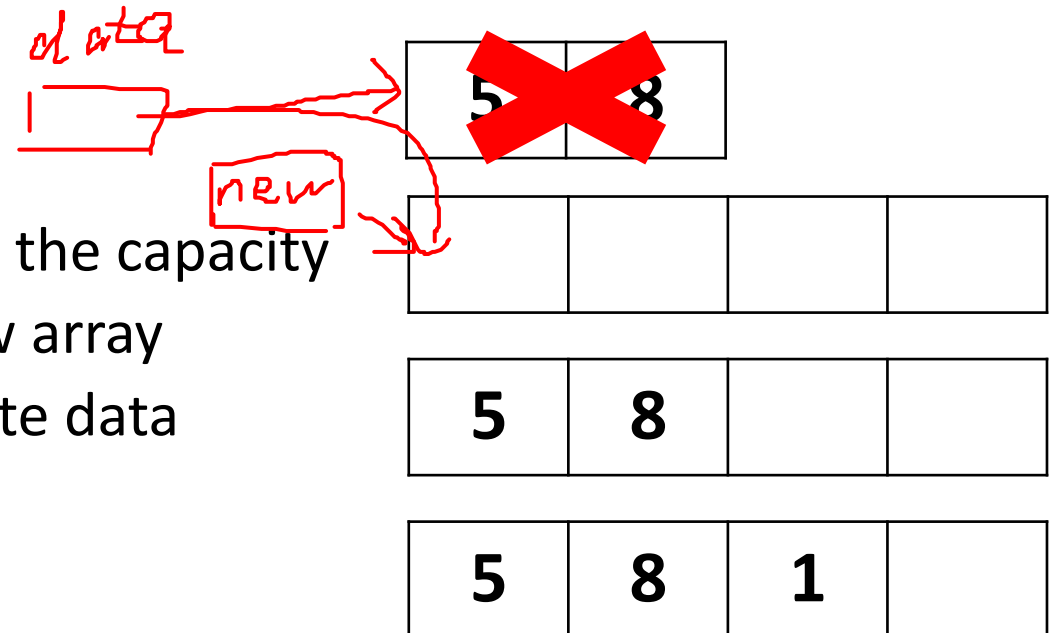
- Case 1: if size < capacity

- At least one free spot in data
- Insert the new element *at index size*  
*size++*



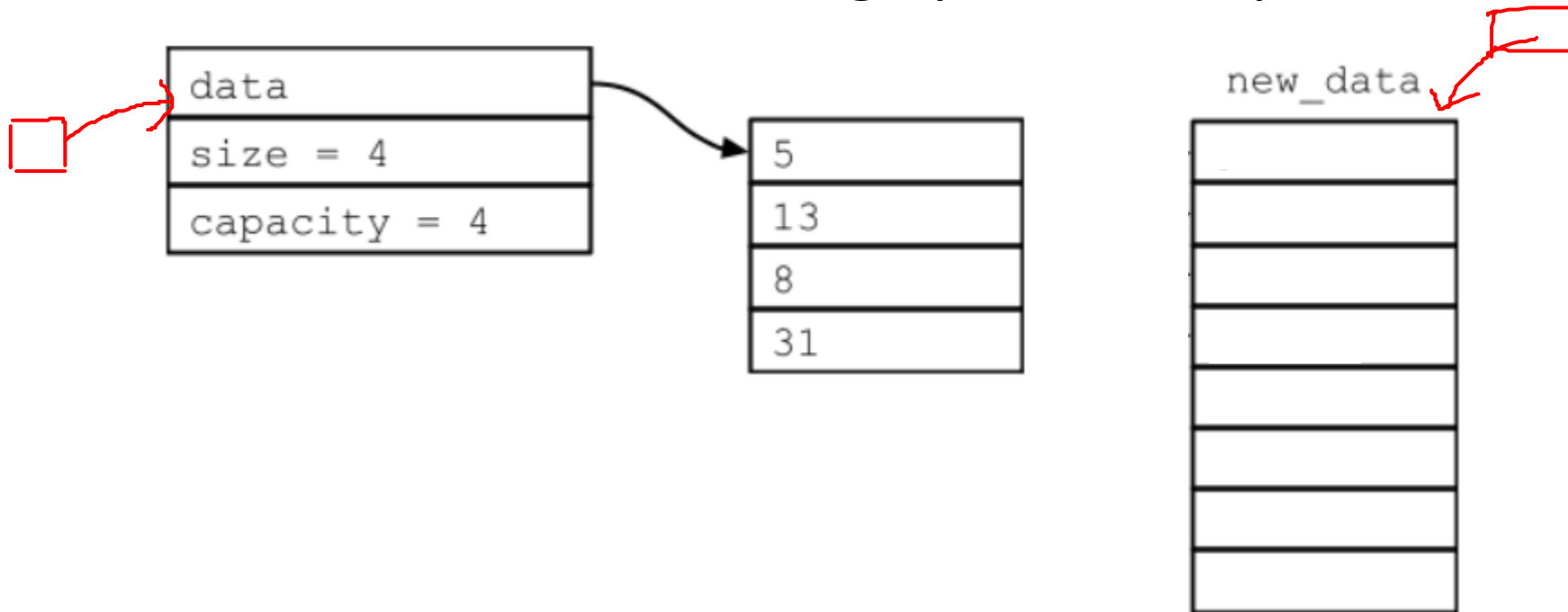
- Case 2: if size == capacity

- No free spot in data
- Step 1: allocate a new array that has twice the capacity
- Step 2: copy all elements from data to new array
- Step 3: delete the old data array and update data
- Step 4: Insert the new element



# Another Example

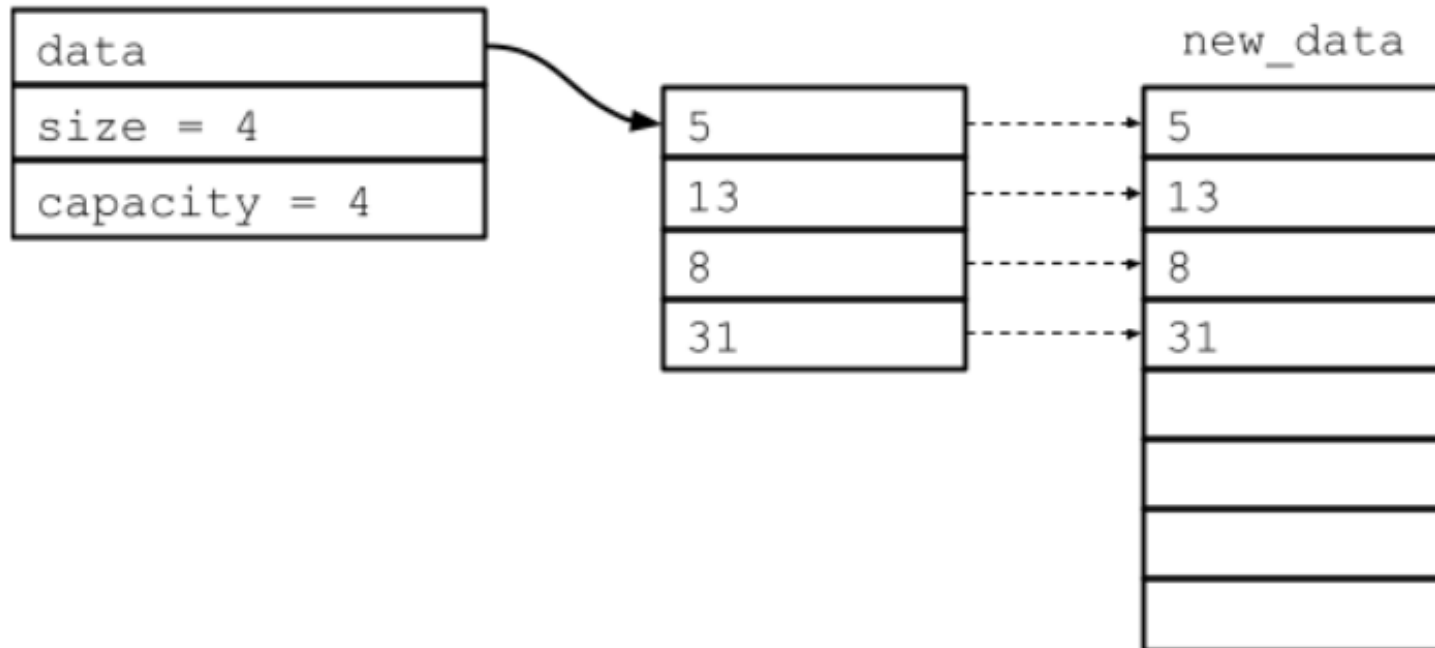
- Insert 16 to the following dynamic array:



- Step 1: allocate a new array that has twice the capacity

# Another Example

- Insert 16 to the following dynamic array:

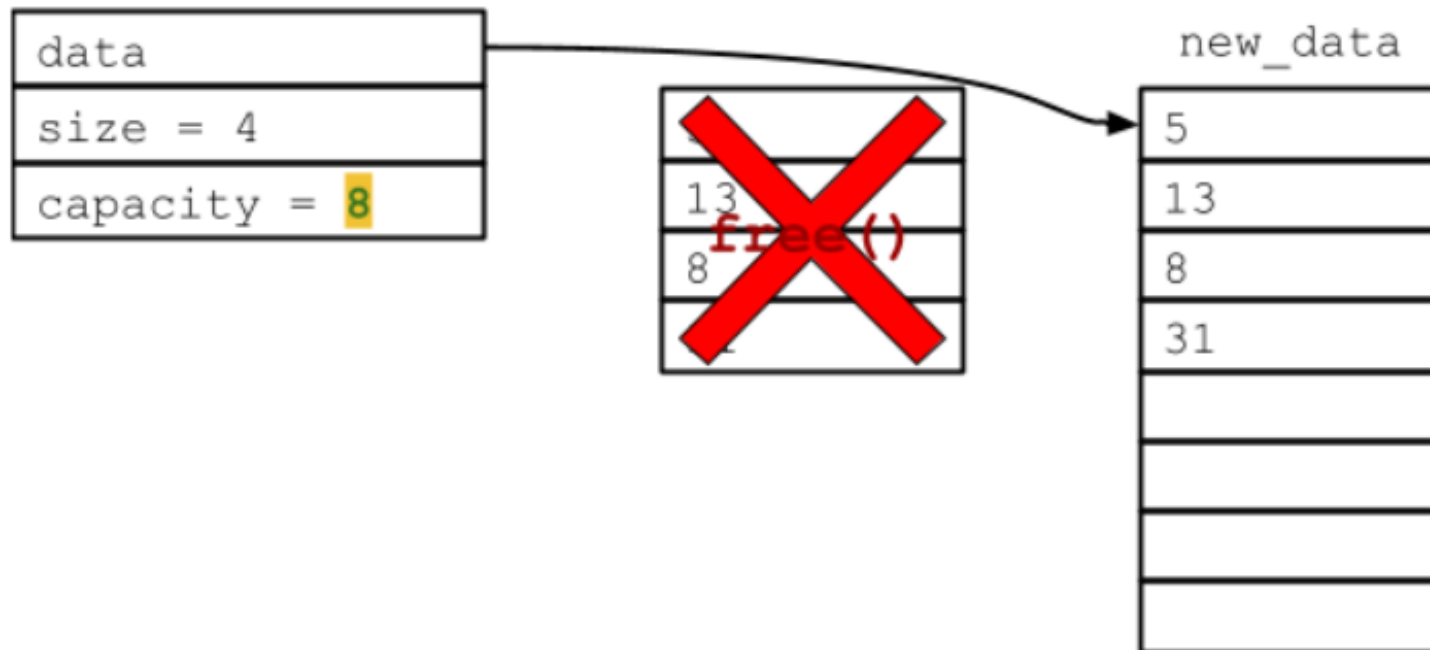


- Step 2: copy all elements from data to new array



# Another Example

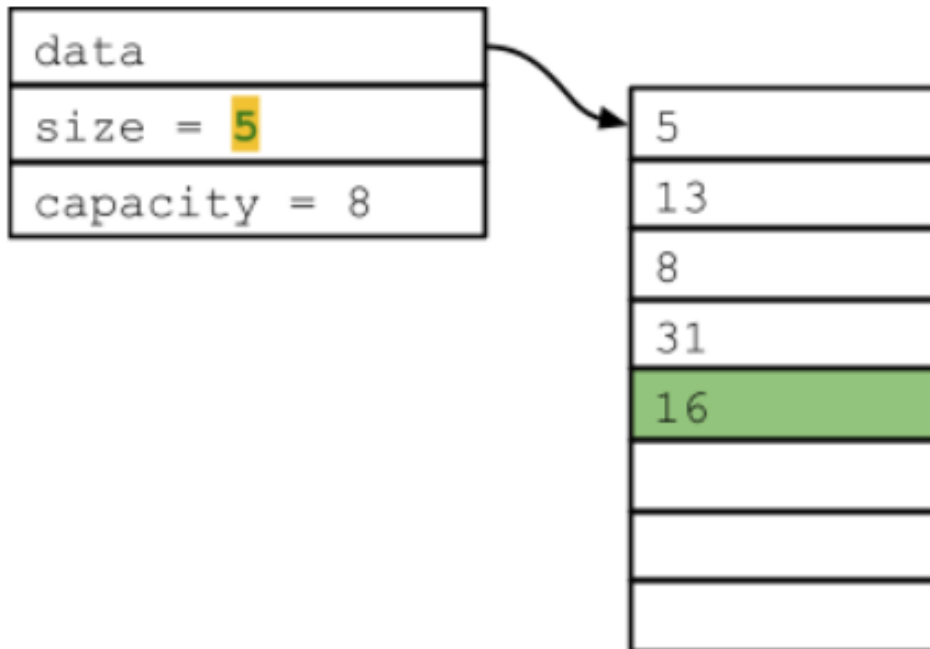
- Insert 16 to the following dynamic array:



- Step 3: delete the old data array and update data

# Another Example

- Insert 16 to the following dynamic array:



- Step 4: Insert the new element

# Common Mistakes

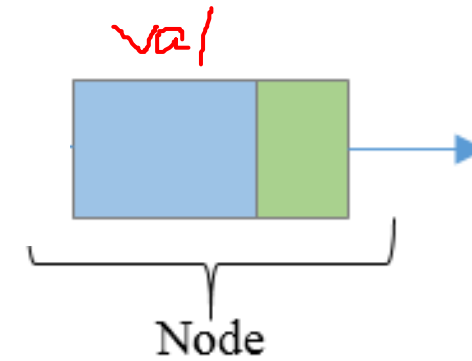
- 1. `dynarray_create()`:
  - In order to manage a dynamic array, how many `struct dynarray` do you need?
  
- 2. `dynarray_insert()`:
  - When `size == capacity`, do you need to free the entire `struct dynarray`, i.e., `free(da)`, before resizing?

# Lecture Topics:

- Dynamic Array (cont. )
- Linked List
- Begin Complexity Analysis

# Linked List

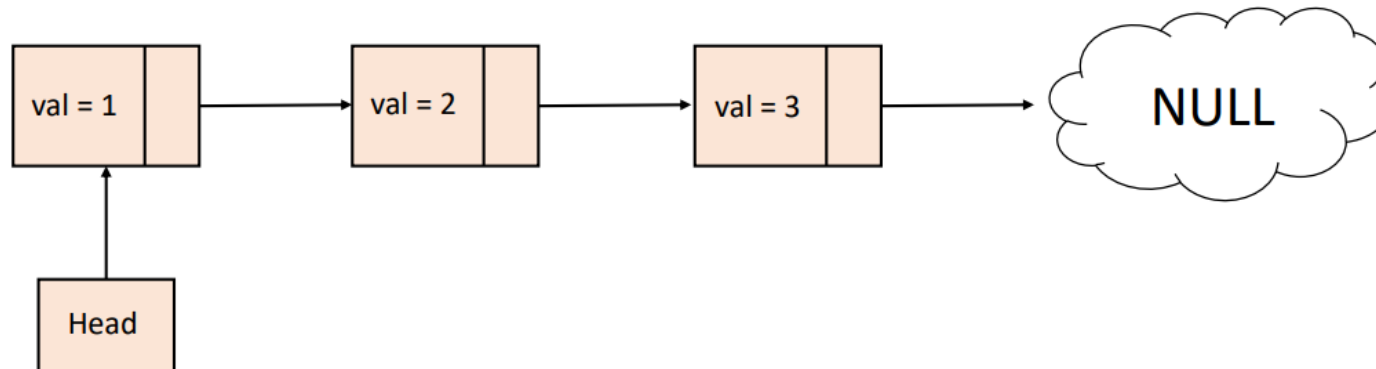
```
struct node {  
    void* val;  
    struct node* next;  
};
```



- **Linear** Data Structure
- Elements in a linked list are stored in nodes and chained together
  - Not in contiguous memory
  - ★ Thus, no random access
- A linked list in which each node points only to the next link in the list is known as a singly-linked list.

*links*

• E.g.:



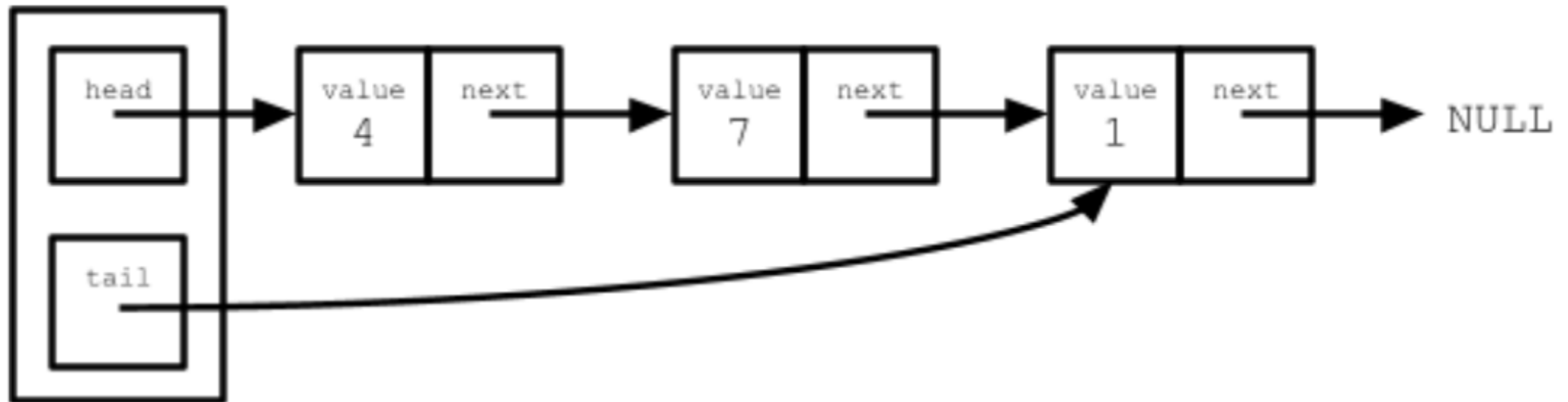
# Linked List

- Always contains as many nodes as it has stored values
  - Add an element → allocate a node, add it to the list
  - Remove an element → free the node from the list
- Many forms of linked list:
  - Keeps track only of the first element in the list, known as **head**



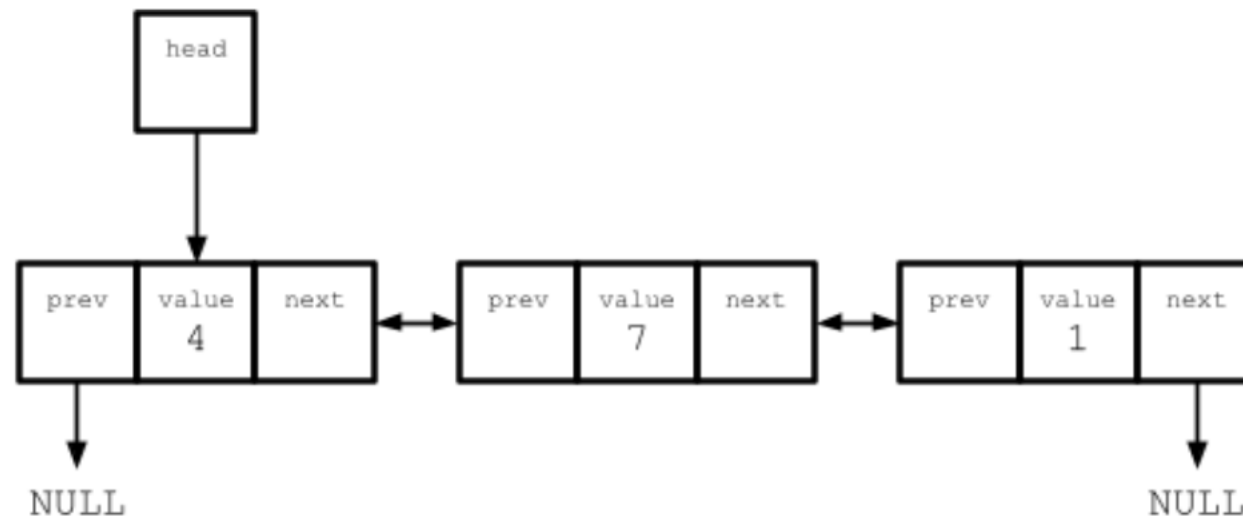
# Linked List

- Many forms of linked list:
  - Keeps track only of the first element in the list, known as **head**
  - Keeps track of both the head of the list and the **tail**, or last element



# Linked List

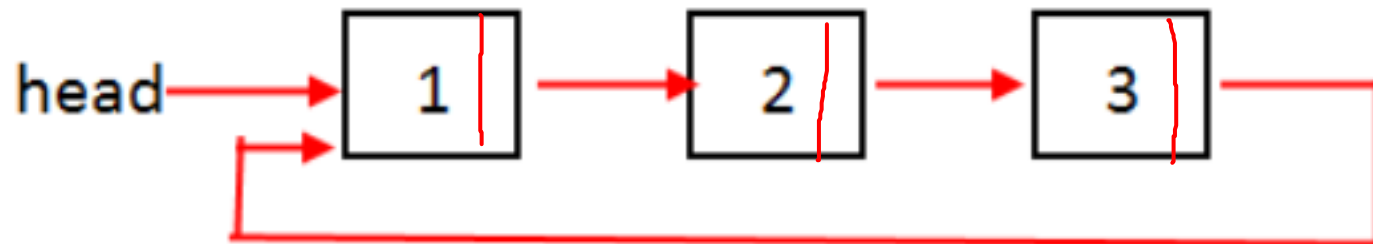
- Many forms of linked list:
  - Keeps track only of the first element in the list, known as **head**
  - Keeps track of both the head of the list and the **tail**, or last element
  - Each node keeps track of both the *next* link and the *previous* link in the list, known as a **doubly-linked list**





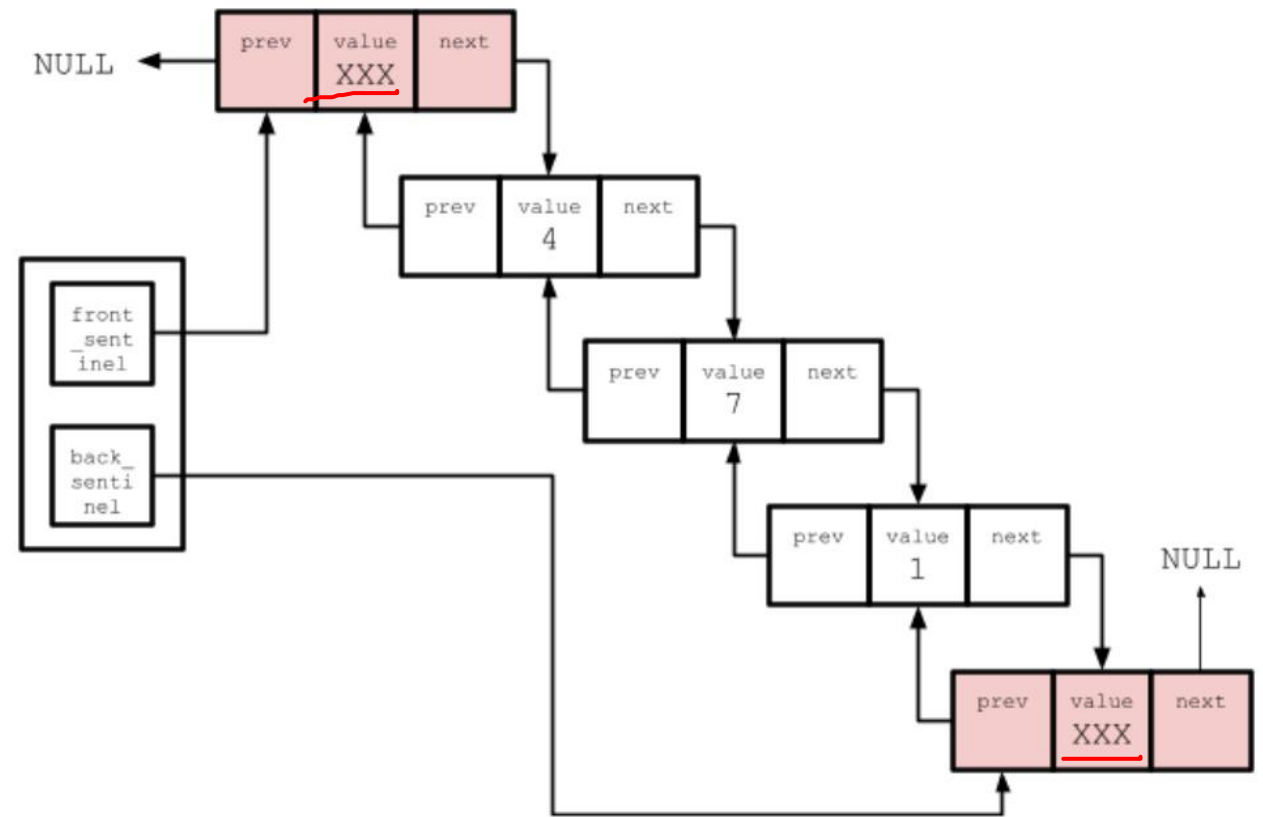
# Linked List

- Many forms of linked list:
  - Keeps track only of the first element in the list, known as **head**
  - Keeps track of both the head of the list and the **tail**, or last element
  - Each node keeps track of both the *next* link and the *previous* link in the list, known as a **doubly-linked list**
  - Last node points to the first node, known as **circular-linked list**



# Linked List

- Many forms of linked list:
  - With **sentinels**, which are special nodes to designate the front/end of the list
    - E.g.: a doubly-linked list using both front and back sentinels



# Inserting an element into linked list

- Where can we insert?
  - ✓ • Front/head
  - ✓ • End/tail
  - Middle

# Inserting an element into linked list

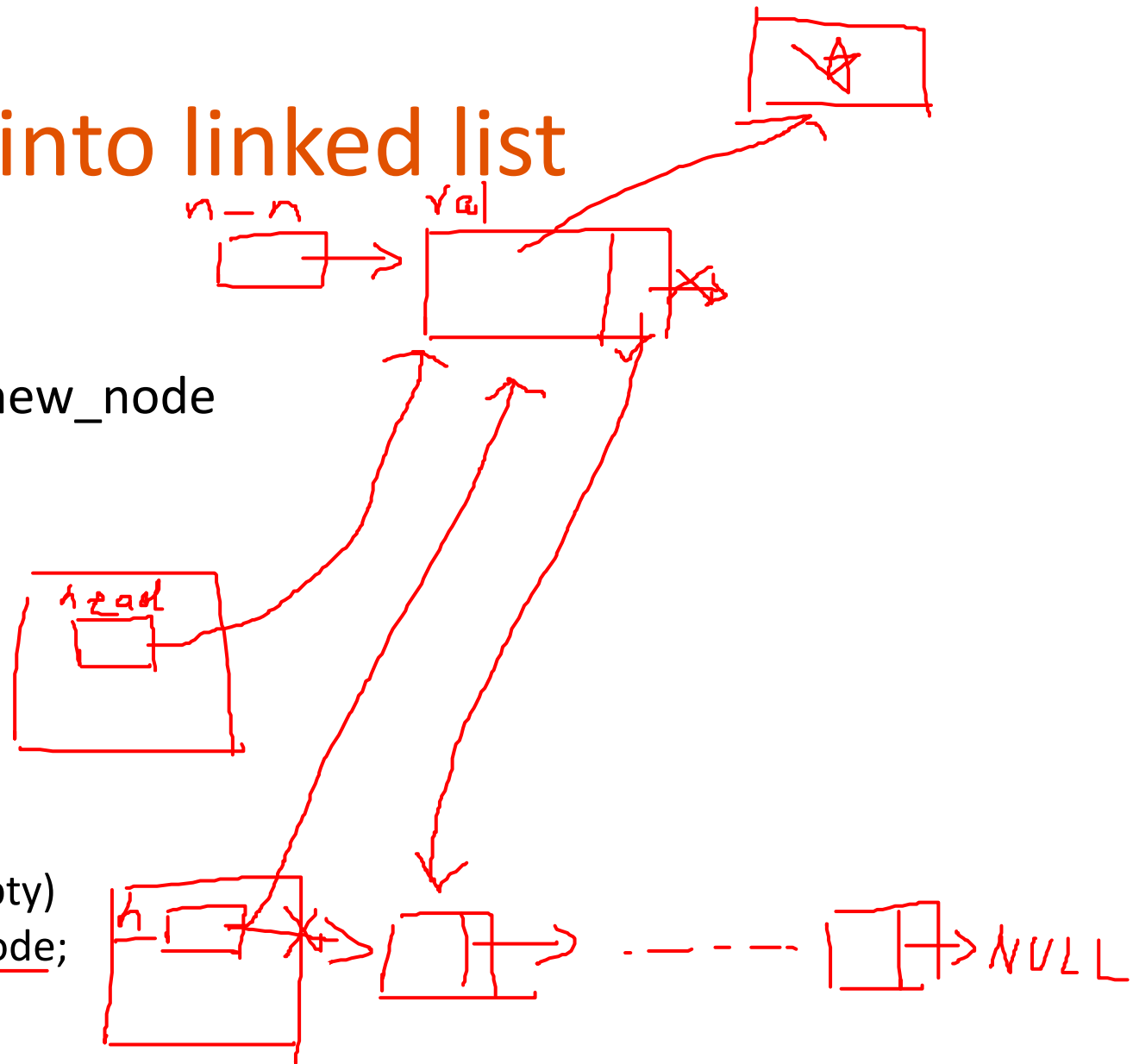
- Insert an element to the front:
  - Construct a node to be inserted, `new_node`
  - Assign `new_node`'s next to NULL

- Case 1:

- Head is NULL (the list is empty)
- Simply let head point to `new_node`

- Case 2:

- Head is not NULL (the list is not empty)
- `new_node`'s next points to the 1<sup>st</sup> node;
- head point to `new_node`



# Inserting an element into linked list

- Insert an element to the end:

- Construct a node to be inserted, new\_node

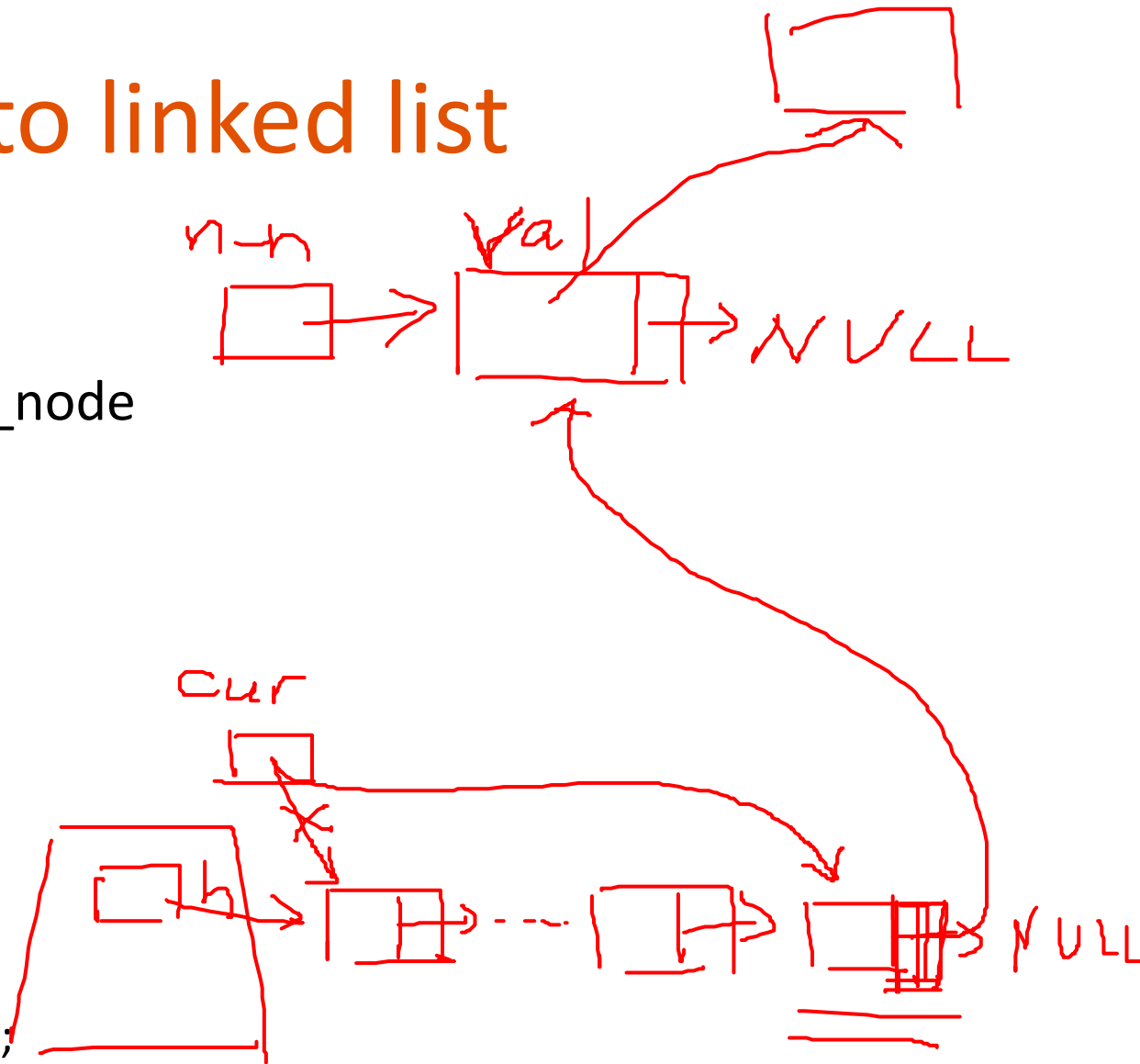
$n \rightarrow next = NULL$

- Case 1:

- Head is NULL (the list is empty)
- Simply let head point to new\_node

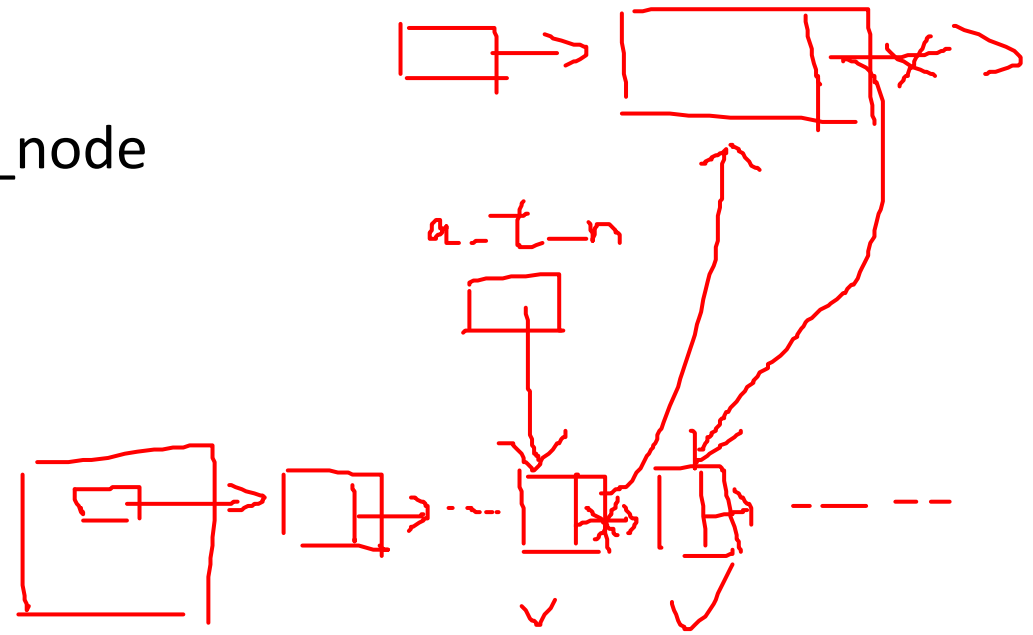
- Case 2:

- Head is not NULL (the list is not empty)
- Loop to find the last element, last\_node
- last\_node's next points to the new\_node;



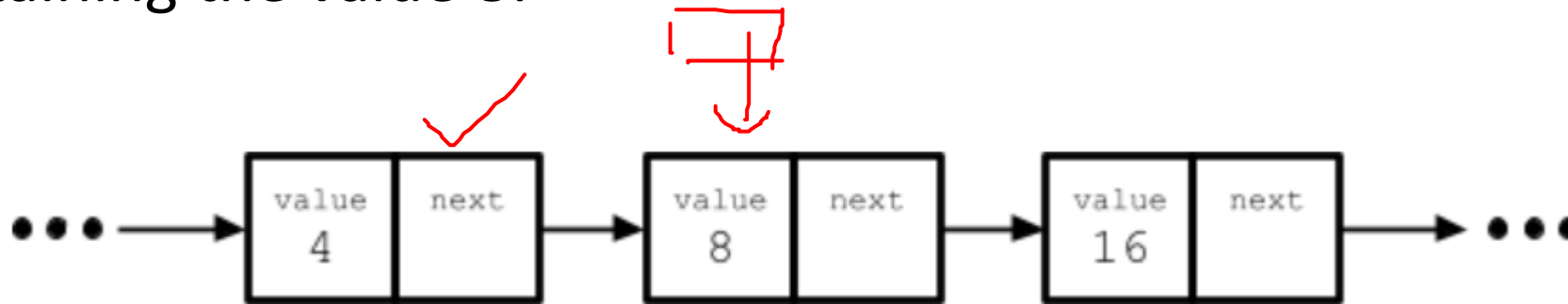
# Inserting an element into linked list

- Insert an element to the middle:
  - Construct a node to be inserted, `new_node`  
*n-n → next ⇒ NULL*
  - Case 1:
    - Head is NULL (the list is empty)
    - Simply let head point to `new_node`
  - Case 2:
    - Head is not NULL (the list is not empty)
    - Loop to find the position to insert, after\_this\_node
    - `new_node`'s next points to the after\_this\_node's next
    - after\_this\_node's next points to the `new_node`



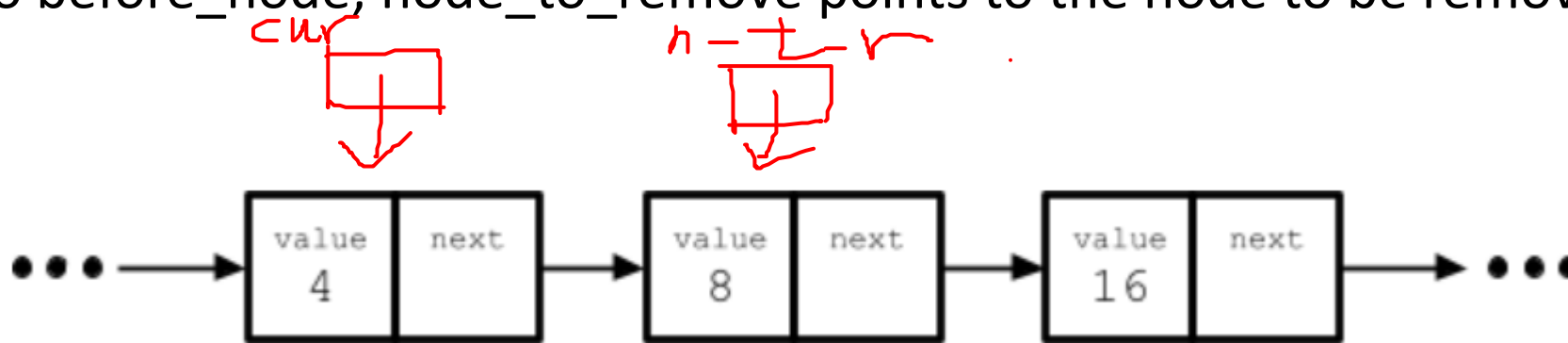
# Removing an element from a linked list

- Opposite steps as inserting a new one
- Ex. Assuming the list is not empty, and we want to remove the node containing the value 8:



# Removing an element from a linked list

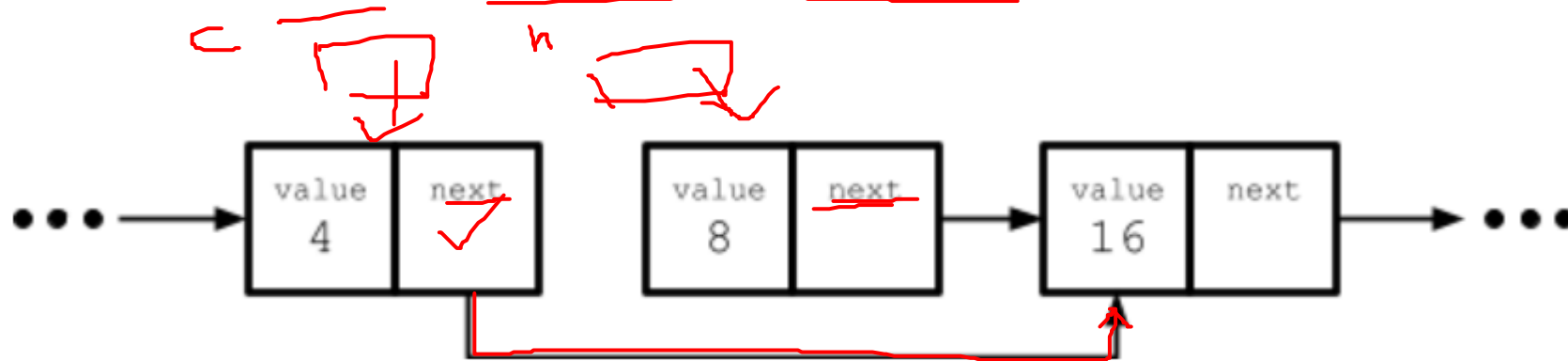
- Step 1:
  - Loop to find the node to be removed and the node before, i.e., current points to before\_node, node\_to\_remove points to the node to be removed





# Removing an element from a linked list

- Step 2:
  - Set current's next to node\_to\_remove's next



# Removing an element from a linked list

- Step 3:
  - free node\_to\_remove



# Missing topic: Command-line Arguments

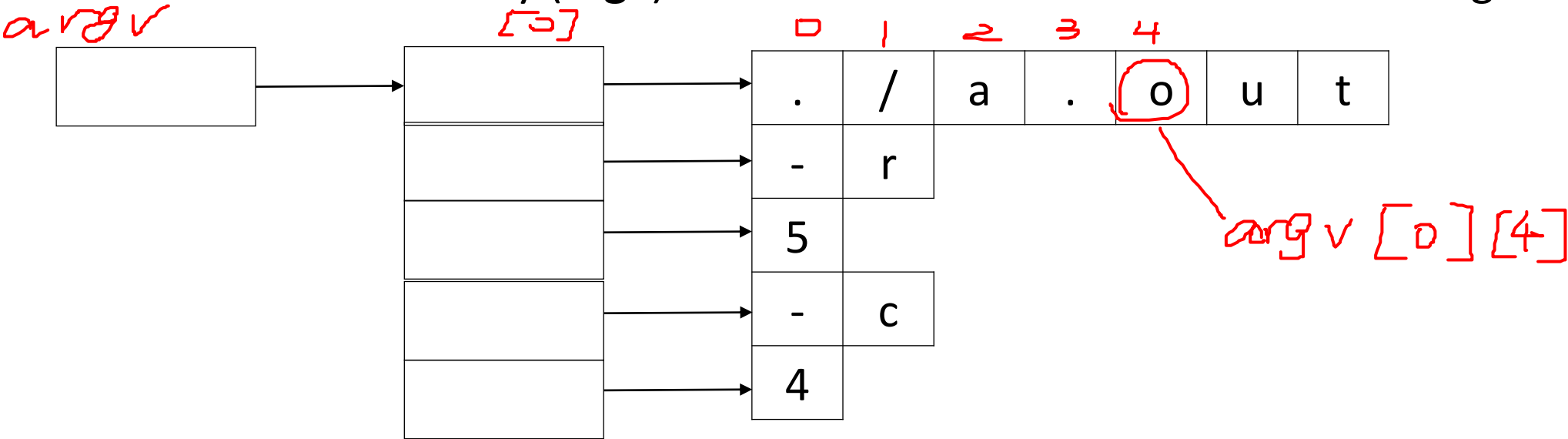
- Arguments passed into main()
  - `int main(int argc, char **argv) OR`
  - `int main(int argc, char *argv[])`
- Allow you to take input(s) from the user before running your program
- `argc`: number of arguments
- `argv`: Array of c-style strings

# Example: 5

- What is the value of **argc** if user entered this command to run the program?

```
./a.out -r 5 -c 4  
1      2 3 4 5
```

- What does the 2-d array (**argv**) look like for the above command-line arguments?



# Lecture Topics:

- Dynamic Array (cont. )
- Linked List
- **Begin Complexity Analysis**

# How to compare Data Structures?

- We have different data structures, how to compare them?
- We want a way to characterize runtime or memory usage that is completely **platform-independent**
  - i.e. does not depend on hardware, operating system, programming language, etc.

# Complexity Analysis

- Use **Complexity Analysis** to help make platform-independent comparisons of data structures
  - Also known as **Big O**
- To do this, we describe how a data structure's runtime or memory usage changes relative to a change in the input size (**n**)
  - Importantly, we want to describe how data structures behave **in the limit, as n approaches  $\infty$  (infinity)**

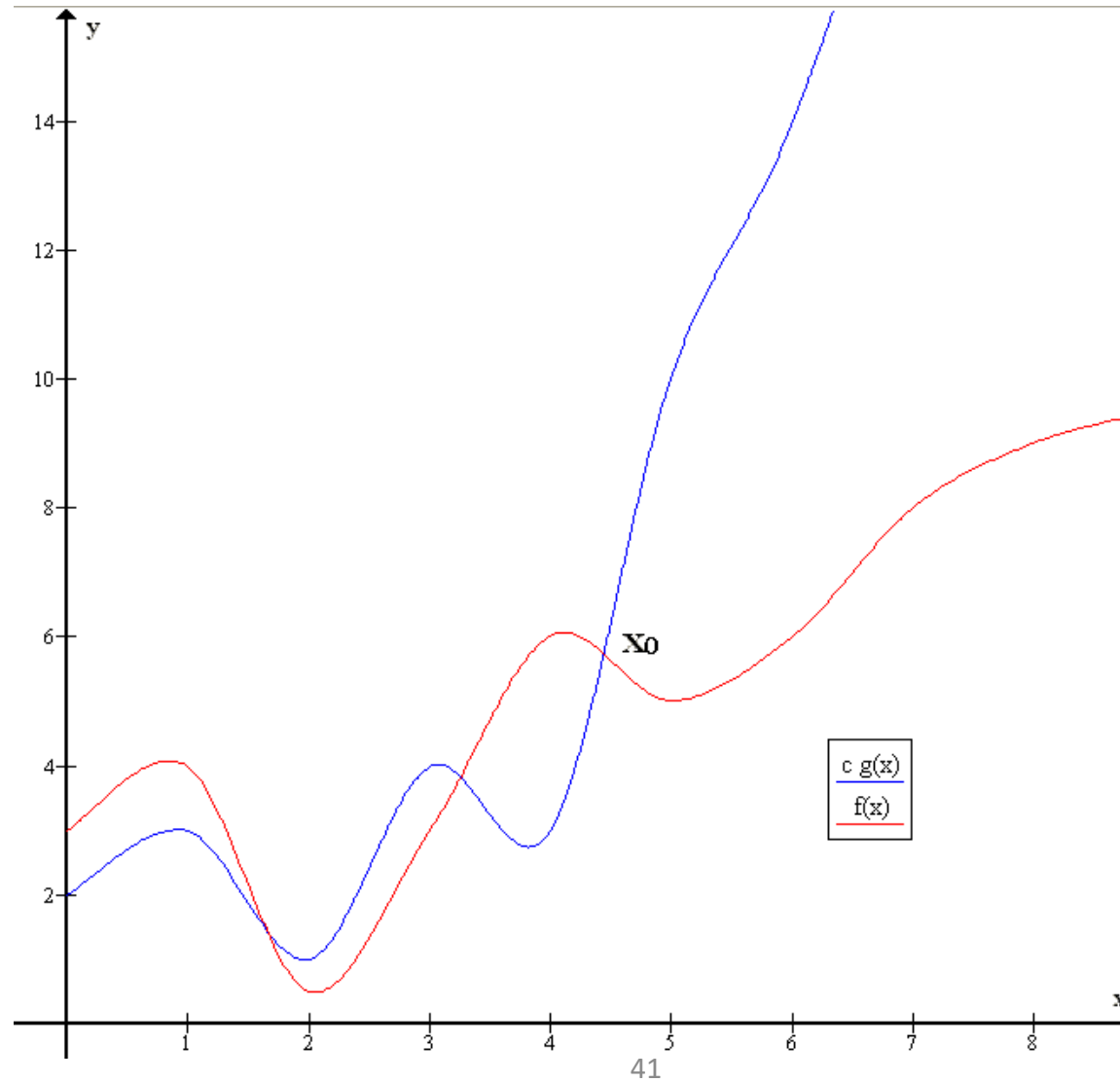
# Big O

- We use **Big O notation** to assess a data structure or algorithm's performance.
- Big O notation: a tool for characterizing a function in terms of its **growth rate**
  - Indicate an **upper bound** on the function's growth rate, known as **growth order**



# Big O

$g(x)$  provides an upper bound on  $f(x)$



$g(x)$  is  $O(f(x))$



# Common growth order functions

- $O(1)$  – constant complexity
- $O(\log n)$  – log-n complexity
- $O(\sqrt{n})$  – root-n complexity
- $O(n)$  – linear complexity
- $O(n \log n)$  – n-log-n complexity
- $O(n^2)$  – quadratic complexity
- $O(n^3)$  – cubic complexity
- $O(2^n)$  – exponential complexity
- $O(n!)$  – factorial complexity