Lecture 8 Data Structures

15-122: Principles of Imperative Computation (Spring 2018) Frank Pfenning, André Platzer, Rob Simmons, Iliano Cervesato

In this lecture we introduce the idea of *imperative data structures*. So far, the only interfaces we've used carefully are *pixels* and *string bundles*. Both of these interfaces had the property that, once we created a pixel or a string bundle, we weren't interested in changing its contents. In this lecture, we'll talk about an interface that extends the arrays that are primitively available in C0.

To implement this interface, we'll need to round out our discussion of types in C0 by discussing *pointers* and *structs*, two tastes that go great together. We will discuss using contracts to ensure that pointer accesses are safe.

Relating this to our learning goals, we have

Computational Thinking: We illustrate the power of *abstraction* by considering both the client-side and library-side of the interface to a data structure.

Algorithms and Data Structures: The abstract data structure will be one of our first examples of *abstract datatypes*.

Programming: Introduction of structs and pointers, use and design of interfaces.

1 Structs

So far in this course, we've worked with five different C0 types — **int**, **bool**, **char**, **string**, and arrays t[] (there is a array type t[] for every type t[]). The character, Boolean and integer values that we manipulate, store locally, and pass to functions are just the values themselves. For arrays (and strings), the things we store in assignable variables or pass to functions are

addresses, references to the place where the data stored in the array can be accessed. An array allows us to store and access some number of values of the same type (which we reference as A[0], A[1], and so on).

Therefore, when entering the following commands in Coin (the outputs have been elided),

```
--> char c = '\n';

--> int i = 4;

--> string[] A = alloc_array(string, 4);

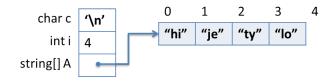
--> A[0] = "hi";

--> A[1] = "je";

--> A[2] = "ty";

--> A[3] = "lo";
```

the interpreter will store something like the following in its memory:



The next data structure we will consider is the struct. A *struct* can be used to aggregate together different types of data, which helps us create data structures. By contrast, an array is an aggregate of elements of the *same* type.

Structs must be explicitly declared in order to define their "shape". For example, if we think of an image, we want to store an array of pixels alongside the width and height of the image, and a struct allows us to do that:

```
typedef int pixel;

struct img_header {
 pixel[] data;
 int width;
 int height;
};
```

Here data, width, and height are *fields* of the struct. The declaration expresses that every image has an array of data as well as a width and a height. This description is incomplete, as there are some missing consistency checks — we would expect the length of data to be equal to the width times the height, for instance, but we can capture such properties in a separate data structure invariant.

C0 values such as integers, characters, the address of an array are *small*. Depending on the computer, an address is either 64 bits long or 32 bits long, which means that the *small types* take at most 64 bits to represent. Because structs can have multiple components, they can grow too large for the computer to easily copy around, and C0 does not allow us to use structs as locals:

% coin structs.c0

```
C0 interpreter (coin) 0.3.2 'Nickel'
Type '#help' for help or '#quit' to exit.
--> struct img_header IMG;
<stdio>:1.1-1.22:error:type struct img_header not small
[Hint: cannot pass or store structs in variables directly; use pointers]
```

Therefore, we can only create structs in allocated memory, just like we can only store the contents of arrays in allocated memory. (This is true even if they happen to be small enough to fit into 32 bytes.) Instead of **alloc_array** we call **alloc** which returns a *pointer* to the struct that has been allocated in memory. Let's look at an example in coin.

```
--> struct img_header* IMG = alloc(struct img_header);
IMG is 0xFFAFFF20 (struct img_header*)
```

We can access the fields of a struct, for reading or writing, through the notation $p \rightarrow f$ where p is a pointer to a struct, and f is the name of a field in that struct. Continuing above, let's see what the default values are in the allocated memory.

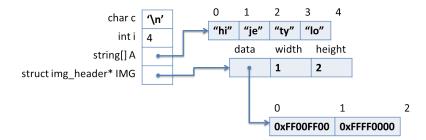
```
--> IMG->data;
(default empty int[] with 0 elements)
--> IMG->width;
0 (int)
--> IMG->height;
0 (int)
```

We can write to the fields of a struct by using the arrow notation on the left-hand side of an assignment.

```
--> IMG->data = alloc_array(pixel, 2);
IMG->data is 0xFFAFC130 (int[] with 2 elements)
--> IMG->width = 1;
IMG->width is 1 (int)
--> (*IMG).height = 2;
(*(IMG)).height is 2 (int)
--> IMG->data[0] = 0xFF00FF00;
IMG->data[0] is -16711936 (int)
--> IMG->data[1] = 0xFFFF0000;
IMG->data[1] is -65536 (int)
```

The notation (*p).f is a longer form of p->f. First, *p follows the pointer to arrive at the struct in memory, then .f selects the field f. We will rarely use this dot-notation (*p).f in this course, preferring the arrownotation p->f.

An updated picture of memory, taking into account the initialization above, looks like this:



2 Pointers

As we have seen in the previous section, a pointer is needed to refer to a struct that has been allocated on the heap. In can also be used more generally to refer to an element of arbitrary type that has been allocated on the heap. For example:

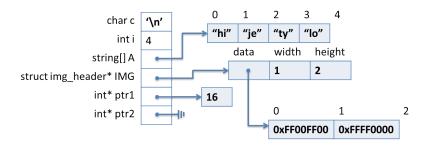
```
--> int* ptr1 = alloc(int);
ptr1 is 0xFFAFC120 (int*)
--> *ptr1 = 16;
*(ptr1) is 16 (int)
--> *ptr1;
16 (int)
```

In this case, we refer to the value of p using the notation *p, either to read (when we use it inside an expression) or to write (if we use it on the left-hand side of an assignment).

So we would be tempted to say that a pointer value is simply an address. But this story, which was correct for arrays, is not quite correct for pointers. There is also a special value NULL. Its main feature is that NULL is not a valid address, so we cannot dereference it to obtain stored data. For example:

```
--> int* ptr2 = NULL;
ptr2 is NULL (int*)
--> *ptr2;
Error: null pointer was accessed
Last position: <stdio>:1.1-1.3
```

Graphically, NULL is sometimes represented with the ground symbol, so we can represent our updated setting like this:



To rephrase, we say that a pointer value is an address, of which there are two kinds. A valid address is one that has been allocated explicitly with

alloc, while NULL is an invalid address. In C, there are opportunities to create many other invalid addresses, as we will discuss in another lecture.

Attempting to dereference the null pointer is a safety violation in the same class as trying to access an array with an out-of-bounds index. In C0, you will reliably get an error message, but in C the result is undefined and will not necessarily lead to an error. Therefore:

Whenever you dereference a pointer p, either as *p or p->f, you must have a reason to know that p cannot be NULL.

In many cases this may require function preconditions or loop invariants, just as for array accesses.

3 Creating an interface

The next ten lectures for this class will focus on building, analyzing, and using different data structures. When we're thinking about implementing data structures, we will almost always use pointers to structs as the core of our implementation.

In the rest of this lecture, we will build a data structure for *self-sorting arrays*. Like arrays, they will contain a fixed number of elements of a given type that can be accessed through an index (we will limit ourselves to self-sorting arrays of strings). Unlike C0 arrays, the values in a self-sorting array are sorted, and remain so as we update its values. That allows a programmer using our self-sorting arrays to look for elements using binary search, in $O(\log n)$ time if n is the number of contained elements.

Self-sorting arrays work mostly like arrays of strings. The primitive operations that C0 provides on string arrays are the ability to create a new array, to get a particular index of an array, and to set a particular index in an array. We capture these as three functions that act on an abstract type ssa_t (mnemonic for self-sorting array type):

But this is not a complete picture! An interface needs to also capture the preconditions necessary for using that abstract type *safely*. For instance, we know that safety of array access requires that we only create non-negative-length arrays and we never try to access a negative element of an array:

```
ssa_t ssa_new(int size) /*@requires size >= 0 @*/;
string ssa_get(ssa_t A, int i) /*@requires 0 <= i; @*/;</pre>
```

This still isn't enough: our contracts need to ensure an upper bound so that we don't access the element at index 100 of a length-12 array. We don't have the \length() method, as it is a primitive for C0 arrays, not our new ssa_t type. So we need an additional function in our interface to get the length, and we'll use that in our contracts.

```
int ssa_len(ssa_t A);
string ssa_get(ssa_t A, int i)
  /*@requires 0 <= i && i < ssa_len(A); @*/;</pre>
```

For this reason, we're going to say that ssa_t is not an unknown type but that it is an unknown *pointer* type. The updated pseudo-typedef below shows how we indicate this:

```
1 // typedef _____* ssa_t;
2
3 int ssa_len(ssa_t A)
4   /*@requires A != NULL; @*/;
5
6 ssa_t ssa_new(int size)
7   /*@requires 0 <= size; @*/
8   /*@ensures \result != NULL; @*/
9   /*@ensures ssa_len(\result) == size; @*/;</pre>
```

```
string ssa_get(ssa_t A, int i)
/*@requires A != NULL; @*/
/*@requires 0 <= i && i < ssa_len(A); @*/;

void ssa_set(ssa_t A, int i, string x)
/*@requires A != NULL; @*/
/*@requires 0 <= i && i < ssa_len(A); @*/;</pre>
```

Admitting that ssa_t is a pointer also means that we have to add a lot of NULL checks to the interface — as the client of the ssa_t type, we know that a value of this type is either a valid pointer to the self-sorting array data structure, or it is NULL.

4 The Library Perspective

When we implement the library for ssa_t, we will declare a type ssa as a synonym for **struct** ssa_header, which has a length field to hold the length and a data field to hold the actual array.

The first line is where we make a connection between the interface type ssa_t exported to the user by the interface, and the type ssa (or equivalently **struct** ssa_header) the library uses to implement the exported functionalities. As promised, it is a pointer type.

Inside the library implementation, we'll use ssa* instead of ssa_t to emphasize that we're manipulating a pointer structure. Outside, we use exclusively ssa_t as our abstract type of supped up arrays. Using this knowledge, we can begin to implement the array interface from the library side, though we immediately run into safety issues.

```
9 int ssa_len(ssa* A)
10 //@requires A != NULL;
11 {
12   return A->length;
13 }
```

```
14
15 string ssa_get(ssa* A, int i)
16 //@requires A != NULL;
17 //@requires 0 <= i && i < ssa_len(A);
18 {
19    return A->data[i];
20 }
```

In both cases, the precondition A != NULL allows us to say that the dereferences A->length and A->data are safe. But how do we know A->data[i] is not an out-of-bounds array access? We don't — the second precondition of ssa_get just tells us that i is nonnegative and less than whatever ssa_len returns!

If we want to use the knowledge that $ssa_len(A)$ returns the length of A->data, then we'd need to add $\result == \length(A->data)$ as a postcondition of $ssa_len...$

...and we can only prove that postcondition true if we add the precondition A->length == \length(A->data) to ssa_len...

...and if we do that, it changes the safety requirements for the call to ssa_len in the preconditions of ssa_get, so we also have to add the precondition

```
A \rightarrow length == \langle length(A \rightarrow data) \text{ to ssa\_get.}
```

The user, remember, didn't need to know anything about this, because they were ignorant of the internal implementation details of the ssa_t type. As long as the user respects the interface, only creating ssa_t's with ssa_new and only manipulating them with ssa_len, ssa_get, and ssa_set, they should be able to expect that the contracts on the interface are sufficient to ensure safety. But we don't have this luxury from the library perspective: all the functions in the library's implementation are going to depend on all the parts of the data structure making sense with respect to all the other parts. We'll capture this notion in a new kind of invariant, a data structure invariant.

5 Data Structure Invariants

We can apply operational reasoning as library designers to say that, as long as the length field of an ssa is set correctly by ssa_new, it must remain correct throughout all calls to ssa_get and ssa_set. But, as with operational reasoning about loops, this is an error-prone way of thinking about our data structures. Our solution in this case will be to capture what we know

about the well-formedness of an array in an invariant; we expect that any ssa being handled by the user will satisfy this data structure invariant.

The above invariants for self-sorting arrays are pretty simple: a ssa is well-formed if it is a non-NULL pointer to a struct where \length(A->data) == A->length. They capture safety but do not say anything about the array being sorted. We will add a correctness invariant, that the array be in fact sorted. This is achieved through a function is_sorted which is implemented similarly to the corresponding function for arrays of integers — it can be found in the code accompanying this lecture. If we try to turn this into a mathematical statement that captures the overall well-formedness requirements for our implementation, we get the specification function is_ssa:

```
14 bool is_ssa(ssa* A) {
15    return A != NULL
16    && is_sorted(A)
17    && is_ssa_expected_length(A->data, A->length);
18 }
```

While we would like is_ssa_expected_length to be a function that returns true when the given array has the expected length and false otherwise, the restriction of length-checking to contracts makes this impossible to write in C0. In this one case, we'll allow ourselves to write a data structure invariant that might raise an assertion error instead of returning false:

```
9 bool is_ssa_expected_length(string[] A, int length) {
10  //@assert \length(A) == length;
11  return true;
12 }
```

Whenever possible, however, we prefer data structure invariants that return true or false to data structures that raise assertion failures.

The data structure invariant, then, implies the postcondition of ssa_len, and so the function ssa_get will require the data structure invariant to hold as well, satisfying the precondition of ssa_len.

```
int ssa_len(ssa* A)
//@requires is_ssa(A);
//@ensures \result == \length(A->data);
// ensures \result == \length(A->data)
```

```
26 string ssa_get(ssa* A, int i)
27 //@requires is_ssa(A);
28 //@requires 0 <= i && i < ssa_len(A);
29 {
30    return A->data[i];
31 }
```

Functions that create new instances of the data structure should ensure that the data structure invariants hold of their results, and functions that modify data structures should have postconditions to ensure that none of those data structure invariants have been violated.

```
33 ssa* ssa_new(int size)
34 //@requires 0 <= size;
35 //@ensures is_ssa(\result);
36 {
    struct ssa_header* A = alloc(struct ssa_header);
37
    A->length = size;
    A->data = alloc_array(string, size);
    return A;
41 }
43 void ssa_set(ssa* A, int i, string x)
44 //@requires is_ssa(A);
45 //@requires 0 <= i && i < ssa_len(A);
46 //@ensures is_ssa(A);
47 {
    A->data[i] = x;
    // Move x up the array if needed
50
    for (int j=i; j < A->length-1 &&
51
                   string_compare(A->data[j],A->data[j+1]) > 0;
52
         j++)
53
      //@loop\_invariant i <= j \&\& j <= A->length - 1;
54
      swap(A->data, j, j+1);
  // Move x down the array if needed
    for (int j=i; j > 0 \&\&
58
                   string_compare(A->data[j],A->data[j-1]) < 0;</pre>
59
60
      //@loop_invariant 0 <= j && j <= i;
      swap(A->data, j, j-1);
62
63 }
```

The code below A->data[i] = x moves x up or down the array A->data to ensure that the sortedness invariant remains satisfied once the function returns. As a consequence, it is unlikely that a subsequent call to $ssa_get(A, i)$ will return x as its value. This differs from C0 arrays, for

which elements can always be found where we just put them.

Now that we have added data structure invariants, our operational reasoning for why ssa_get was safe can be formalized as an invariant. Any client that respects the interface will only ever get and will only ever manipulate arrays that satisfy the data structure invariants, so we know that the data structure invariants we're counting on for safety will hold at runtime.

6 Invariants Aren't Usually Part of the Interface

When we have interfaces that hide implementations from the user, then the data structure invariant, captured here by the function is_ssa, should *not* be a part of the interface. Clients don't need to know that the internal invariants are satisfied; as long as they're using ssa according to the interface, their invariants should be satisfied.

This applies to all aspects of is_ssa, in particular to the correctness invariant checked by the function is_sorted. But how shall the client be sure that the elements of a self-sorting array are and remains sorted as it is used? The client may trust the developer of the data structure library. Another option is to write a client-side version of is_sorted using only the operations exported by the interface.