

Modularity and Data Abstraction

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Procedural Abstraction

- When programs get large, certain **disciplines of structuring** need to be followed rigorously. Otherwise, the programs become complex, confusing and hard to debug.
- In your first programming course you learned the benefits of **procedural abstraction (διαδικαστική αφαίρεση)**. When we organize a sequence of instructions into a function $F(x_1, \dots, x_n)$, we have a named unit of action.
- When we later on use this function F , we only need to know **what** the function does, not **how** it does it.

Procedural Abstraction (cont'd)

- **Separating the what from the how** is an act of **abstraction (αφαίρεση)**. It provides two benefits:
 - Ease of use
 - Ease of modification

Information Hiding

- In your first programming course, you have also learned the benefits of having **locally defined variables**.
- This is an instance of **information hiding (απόκρυψη πληροφορίας)**.
- It has the advantage that local variables do not interfere with identically named variables outside the function.
- Abstraction and information hiding in a programming language are greatly enhanced with the concept of **module (ενότητα)**.

Modules and Abstract Datatypes

- A **module** is a unit of organization of a software system that packages together a collection of entities (such as **data** and **operations**) and that carefully controls what external users of the module can see and use.
- Modules have ways of hiding things inside their boundaries to prevent external users from accessing them. This is called **information hiding**.
- **Abstract data types (αφαιρετικοί τύποι δεδομένων, ADTs)** are collections of objects and operations that present well defined **interfaces (διεπαφές)** to their users, meanwhile hiding the way they are represented in terms of lower-level representations.
- Abstract data types are **theoretical concepts**. Modules can be used to **implement abstract data types**.

Modules (cont'd)

- Many modern programming languages offer **modules** that have the following important features:
 - They provide a way of grouping together related data and operations.
 - They provide clean, well-defined interfaces to users of their services.
 - They hide internal details of operation to prevent interference.
 - They can be separately compiled.

Modules (cont'd)

- Modules are an important tool for “**dividing and conquering**” a large software task by combining separate components that interact cleanly.
- They ease **software maintenance (συντήρηση λογισμικού)** by allowing changes to be made locally.

Encapsulation

- When we have features like modules in programming languages, we use the term **encapsulation** (**ενθυλάκωση**, the hidden local entities are **encapsulated** and a module is a **capsule**).

Modules in C

- **C does not have an explicit concept of module.**
- But by careful use of **header files**, we can arrange for separately compiled C program files to have the above four properties of modules:
 - They provide a way of grouping together related data and operations.
 - They provide clean, well-defined interfaces to users of their services.
 - They hide internal details of operation to prevent interference.
 - They can be separately compiled.

Modules in Object-Oriented Languages

- In object-oriented languages like C++, Java and Python, we also have other constructs that help us to implement abstract data types like **classes**, **interfaces**, **packages** and **modules**.
- As an example, in Python, once we write a module, we can `export` classes and functions so that they can be used by other programs that `import` the module. What we don't export remains hidden from the programs using the module.

Modules in C (cont'd)

- A C module `M` consists of two files `MInterface.h` and `MImplementation.c` that are organized as follows.
- The file `MInterface.h`:

```
/*-----<the text for the file MInterface.h starts here>----- */
```

```
(declarations of entities visible to external users of the module)
```

```
/*-----<end of file MInterface.h>-----*/
```

Modules in C (cont'd)

- The file `MImplementation.c`:

```
/*-----<the text for the file MImplementation.c starts here>-----*/
```

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

```
#include "MInterface.h"
```

```
(declarations of entities private to the module plus the)
(complete declarations and implementations of functions)
(exposed by the module)
```

```
/*-----<end of file MImplementation.c>-----*/
```

The Interface file

- `MInterface.h` is the **interface** file.
- It declares all the entities in the module that are **visible** to (and therefore usable by) the external users of the module.
- Such visible entities include **constants**, **typedefs**, **variables** and **functions**. Only the prototype of each visible function is given (and only the argument types, not the argument names).
- The book by Standish recommends that declarations of functions in the interface file are “**extern**” declarations. This is not necessary, so we will not follow it.

The Implementation File

- `MImplementation.c` is the **implementation** file.
- It contains all the **private entities** in the module, that are not visible to the outside.
- It contains the **full declarations and implementations** of functions whose prototypes have been given in the interface file.
- It **includes** (via `#include`) the user interface file.

The Main Program

- **A main program (client program)** that uses two modules A and B is organized as follows:

```
#include <stdio.h>
#include "ModuleAInterface.h"
#include "ModuleBInterface.h"
```

(declarations of entities used by the main program)

```
int main(void)
{
    (statements to execute in the main program)
}
```

Separate Compilation

- We can compile the module and the client program **separately**:

```
gcc -c MImplementation.c -o M.o
gcc -c ClientProgram.c -o ClientProgram.o
gcc M.o ClientProgram.o -o ClientProgram.exe
```

With the first two commands, we compile the C files to produce **object files**. Then, the object files are **linked** to produce the final executable.

- In a similar way, we can build and use **libraries** in C.

Priority Queues – An Abstract Data Type

- A **priority queue (ουρά προτεραιότητας)** is a container that holds some prioritized items. For example, a list of jobs with a deadline for processing each one of them.
- When we remove an item from a priority queue, we always get the item with highest priority.

Defining the ADT Priority Queue

- A **priority queue** is a finite collection of items for which the following operations are defined:
 - **Initialize** the priority queue, PQ , to the empty priority queue.
 - Determine whether or not the priority queue, PQ , is **empty**.
 - Determine whether or not the priority queue, PQ , is **full**.
 - **Insert** a new item, X , into the priority queue, PQ .
 - If PQ is non-empty, **remove** from PQ an item X of highest priority in PQ .

A Priority Queue Interface File

```
/* this is the file PQInterface.h          */

#include "PQTypes.h"

/* defines types PQItem and PriorityQueue */

void Initialize (PriorityQueue *);
int Empty (PriorityQueue *);
int Full (PriorityQueue *);
void Insert (PQItem, PriorityQueue *);
PQItem Remove (PriorityQueue *);
```

Sorting Using a Priority Queue

- Let us now define an array A to hold ten items of type `PQItem`, where `PQItems` have been defined to be integer values, such that **bigger integers have greater priority than smaller ones**:

```
typedef int PQItem;  
typedef PQItem SortingArray[10];  
SortingArray A;
```

- We can now use a priority queue to sort the elements of array A in increasing order.
- We can successfully use the ADT priority queue whose interface was given earlier **without having to know any details of its implementation**.

Sorting Using a Priority Queue (cont'd)

```
/* this is the main program */

#include <stdio.h>
#include "PQInterface.h"

typedef PQItem SortingArray[MAXCOUNT];
/* Note: MAXCOUNT is 10 */

void PriorityQueueSort(SortingArray A)
{
    int i;
    PriorityQueue PQ;

    Initialize(&PQ);
    for (i=0; i<MAXCOUNT; ++i) Insert(A[i], &PQ);
    for (i=MAXCOUNT-1; i>=0; --i) A[i]=Remove(&PQ);
}
```

Sorting Using a Priority Queue (cont'd)

```
int SquareOf(int x)
{
    return x*x;
}

int main(void)
{
    int i; SortingArray A;

    for (i=0; i<10; ++i){
        A[i]=SquareOf(3*i-13);
        printf("%d ",A[i]);
    }
    printf("\n");

    PriorityQueueSort(A);

    for (i=0; i<10; ++i) {
        printf("%d ",A[i]);
    }
    printf("\n");

    return 0;
}
```

Implementations of Priority Queues

- We will present two implementations of a priority queue:
 - Using sorted linked lists
 - Using unsorted arrays

The Priority Queue Data Types

In the **sorted linked list case**, the file `PQTypes.h` can be defined as follows:

```
#define MAXCOUNT 10

typedef int PQItem;

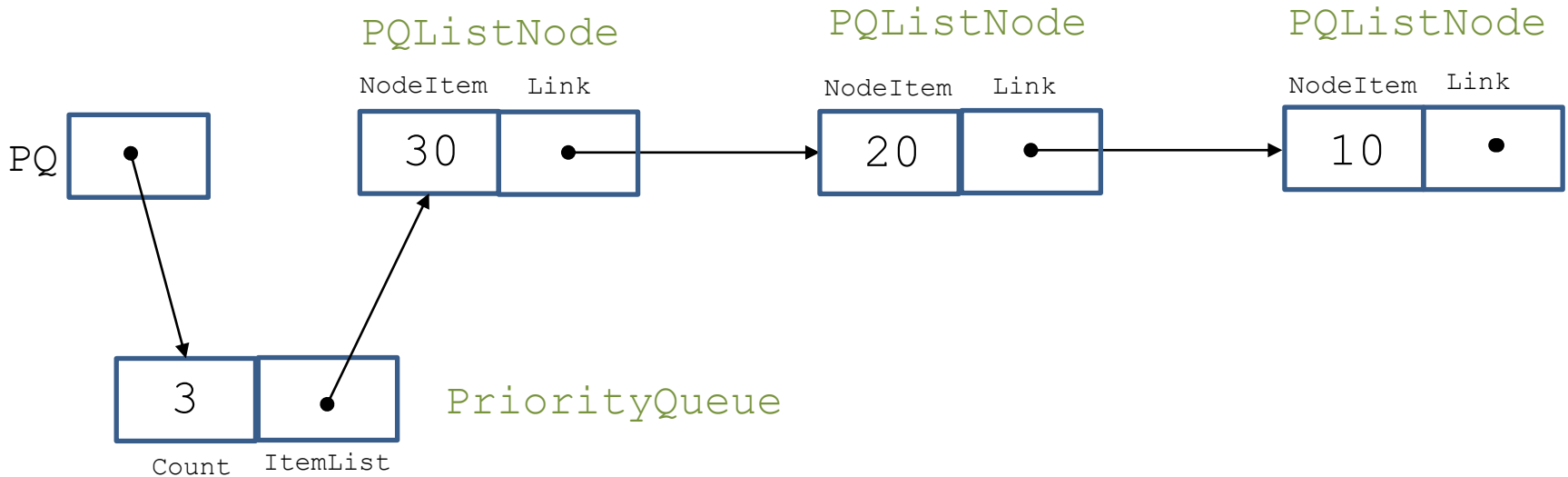
typedef struct PQNodeTag {
    PQItem    NodeItem;
    struct PQNodeTag *Link;
} PQListNode;

typedef struct {
    int Count;
    PQListNode *ItemList;
} PriorityQueue;
```

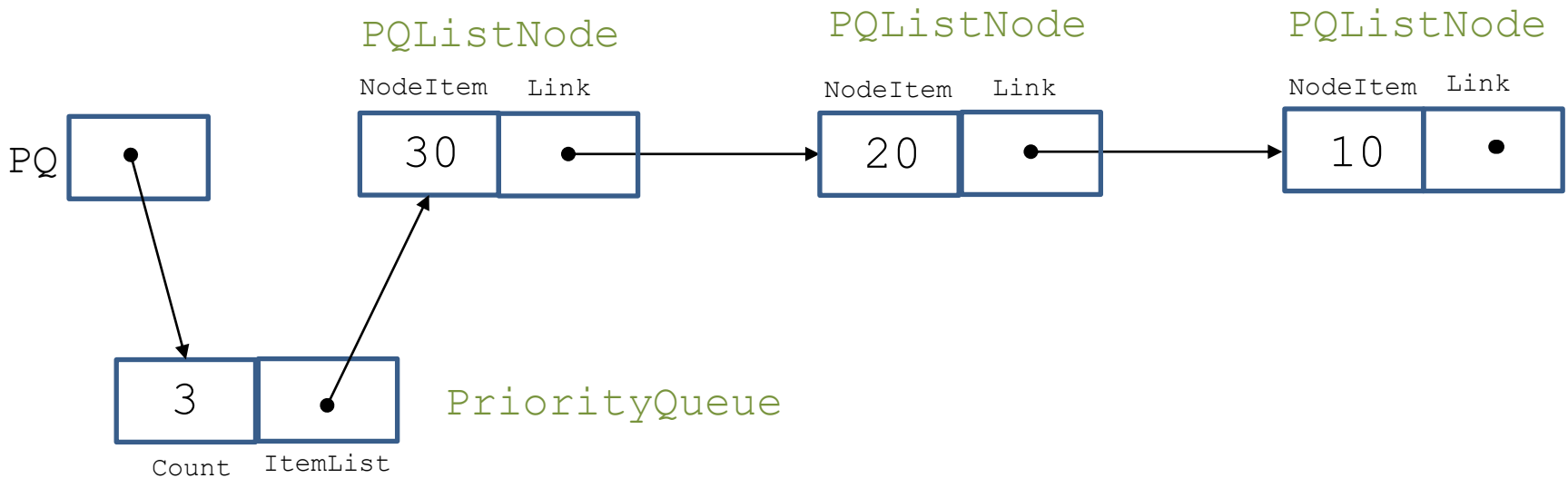

Notation

- In the diagrams in this part of the course, we will write:
 - Datatypes in green color.
 - Variables, structures and members of structures in black color.

A Priority Queue Implemented by a Sorted Linked List



A Priority Queue Implemented by a Sorted Linked List



Implementing Priority Queues Using Sorted Linked Lists

```
/* This is the file PQImplementation.c */

#include <stdio.h>
#include <stdlib.h>
#include "PQInterface.h"

/* Now we give all the details of the functions */
/* declared in the interface file together with */
/* local private functions. */

void Initialize(PriorityQueue *PQ)
{
    PQ->Count=0;
    PQ->ItemList=NULL;
}
```

Implementing Priority Queues Using Sorted Linked Lists (cont'd)

```
int Empty(PriorityQueue *PQ)
{
    return (PQ->Count==0) ;
}
```

```
int Full(PriorityQueue *PQ)
{
    return (PQ->Count==MAXCOUNT) ;
}
```

Implementing Priority Queues Using Sorted Linked Lists (cont'd)

```
PQListNode *SortedInsert(PQItem Item, PQListNode *P)
{
    PQListNode *N;

    if ((P==NULL) || (Item >=P->NodeItem)) {
        N=(PQListNode *)malloc(sizeof(PQListNode));
        N->NodeItem=Item;
        N->Link=P;
        return(N);
    } else {
        P->Link=SortedInsert(Item, P->Link);
        return(P);
    }
}
```

Implementing Priority Queues Using Sorted Linked Lists (cont'd)

```
void Insert(PQItem Item, PriorityQueue *PQ)
{
    if (!Full(PQ)) {
        PQ->Count++;
        PQ->ItemList=SortedInsert(Item, PQ->ItemList);
    }
}
```

Functions Insert and SortedInsert

- The function `Insert` keeps the elements of the list in **decreasing order** (the first item has the highest priority).
- The function `Insert` calls `SortedInsert` for doing the actual insertion.
- `SortedInsert` has three cases to consider:
 - If the `ItemList` of PQ is empty.
 - If the new item has priority greater than or equal the priority of the first item on `ItemList`.
 - If the new item has priority less than that of the first item on `ItemList`. In this case the function is called recursively on the tail of the list.

Implementing Priority Queues Using Sorted Linked Lists (cont'd)

```
PQItem Remove(PriorityQueue *PQ)
{
    PQItem temp;
    if (!Empty(PQ)) {
        temp=PQ->ItemList->NodeItem;
        PQ->ItemList=PQ->ItemList->Link;
        PQ->Count--;
        return(temp);
    }
}
```

Question

- What is missing in the previous function?

Answer

- We need to free the space that became available.
- Do it as an exercise!

Function Remove

- The function `Remove` simply deletes the item in the first node of the linked list representing `PQ` (this is the item with highest priority) and returns the value of its field `NodeItem`.

Question

- Do we need element `Count` in the struct `PriorityQueue` and constant `MAXCOUNT` in the `PQTypes.h` file?

Answer

- We could avoid the use of `Count` by using `NULL` as the value of member `ItemList` of structure `PriorityQueue` for empty queues.
- But checking that `Count==MAXCOUNT` is useful for knowing whether the priority queue is full, and we cannot get this in any other way.
- `Count` can also tell us how many elements we have in the priority queue without having to search.

The Priority Queue Data Types

In the **unsorted array case**, the file `PQTypes.h` can be defined as follows:

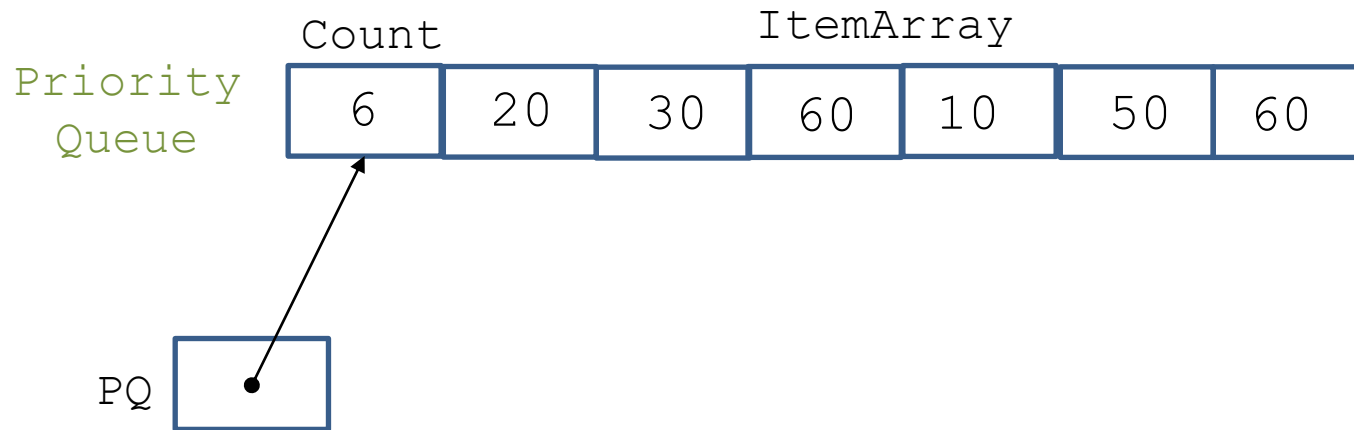
```
#define MAXCOUNT 10

typedef int PQItem;

typedef PQItem PQArray[MAXCOUNT];

typedef struct {
    int Count;
    PQArray ItemArray;
} PriorityQueue;
```

A Priority Queue Implemented by an Unsorted Array



Implementing Priority Queues Using Unsorted Arrays

```
/* This is the file PQImplementation.c */

#include <stdio.h>
#include "PQInterface.h"

/* Now we give all the details of the functions */
/* declared in the interface file together with */
/* local private functions. */

void Initialize(PriorityQueue *PQ)
{
    PQ->Count=0;
}
```

Implementing Priority Queues Using Unsorted Arrays (cont'd)

```
int Empty(PriorityQueue *PQ)
{
    return (PQ->Count==0) ;
}
```

```
int Full(PriorityQueue *PQ)
{
    return (PQ->Count==MAXCOUNT) ;
}
```

Implementing Priority Queues Using Unsorted Arrays (cont'd)

```
void Insert(PQItem Item, PriorityQueue *PQ)
{
    if (!Full(PQ)) {
        PQ->ItemArray[PQ->Count]=Item;
        PQ->Count++;
    }
}
```

Function Insert

- The function `Insert` simply appends the new item to the end of array `ItemArray` of `PQ`.

Implementing Priority Queues Using Unsorted Arrays (cont'd)

```
PQItem Remove(PriorityQueue *PQ)
{
    int i;
    int MaxIndex;
    PQItem MaxItem;

    if (!Empty(PQ)) {
        MaxItem=PQ->ItemArray[0];
        MaxIndex=0;
        for (i=1; i<PQ->Count; ++i){
            if (PQ->ItemArray[i] > MaxItem){
                MaxItem=PQ->ItemArray[i];
                MaxIndex=i;
            }
        }
        PQ->Count--;
        PQ->ItemArray[MaxIndex]=PQ->ItemArray[PQ->Count];
        return (MaxItem);
    }
}
```

Function Remove

- In the function `Remove`, we first find the item with highest priority. Then, we save it in a temporary variable (`MaxItem`), we delete it from the array `ItemArray` and move the last item of the array to its position. Then, we return the item of the highest priority.

Interface Header Files

- Note that the module interface header file `PQInterface.h` is included in two important but distinct places:
 - At the beginning of the **implementation files** that define the hidden representation of the externally accessed module services.
 - At the beginning of **programs** that need to gain access to the external module services defined in the interface file.

Separate Compilation

- We can compile the module and the client program **separately**:

```
gcc -c PQImplementation.c -o PQ.o
gcc -c sorting.c -o sorting.o
gcc PQ.o sorting.o -o program.exe
```

With the first two commands, we compile the C files to produce **object files**. Then, the object files are **linked** to produce the final executable.

Information Hiding Revisited

- Let us revisit the sorting program we wrote earlier and consider the new `printf` statement.

```
#include <stdio.h>
#include "PQInterface.h"

typedef PQItem SortingArray[MAXCOUNT];
/* Note: MAXCOUNT is 10 */

void PriorityQueueSort(SortingArray A)
{
    int i;
    PriorityQueue PQ;

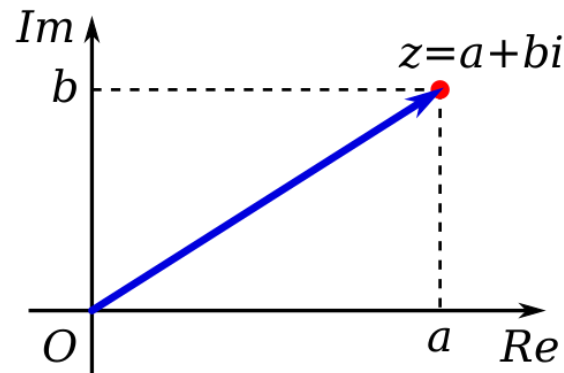
    Initialize(&PQ);
    for (i=0; i<MAXCOUNT; ++i) Insert(A[i], &PQ);
    printf("The queue contains %d elements\n", PQ.Count);
    for (i=MAXCOUNT-1; i>=0; --i) A[i]=Remove(&PQ);
}
```

Information Hiding Revisited (cont'd)

- This `printf` statement accesses the `Count` field of the priority queue `PQ`. Therefore, the previous module organization **has not achieved information hiding** as nicely as we would want it.
- We can live with that deficiency or try to address it. How?

Another Example: Complex Number Arithmetic

- A **complex number** (μγαδικός αριθμός) is an expression $a + bi$ where a and b are real numbers.
- a is called the **real part** (πραγματικό μέρος) and b the **imaginary part** (φανταστικό μέρος).



- $i = \sqrt{-1}$ is the **imaginary unit** (φανταστική μονάδα). It follows that $i^2 = -1$.
- To multiply complex numbers, we follow the usual algebraic rules.

Examples

- $(a + bi)(c + di) = ac + bci + adi + bdi^2 = (ac - bd) + (ad + bc)i$
- $(1 - i)(1 - i) = 1 - i - i + i^2 = -2i$
- $(1 + i)^4 = 4i^2 = -4$
- $(1 + i)^8 = 16$
- Dividing the two parts of the above equation by $16 = (\sqrt{2})^8$, we find that $(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} + \frac{i}{\sqrt{2}})^8 = 1$.

Applications

- Many branches of pure and applied mathematics
- Physics
- Fluid dynamics
- Signal processing (you have the course “Signals and Systems” in the 3rd semester!).
- Control theory
- Quantum mechanics
- Relativity

Complex Roots of Unity

- In general, there are many complex numbers that evaluate to 1 when raised to a power. These are the **complex roots of unity (μιγαδικές ρίζες της μονάδας)**.
- For each N , there are exactly N complex numbers z such that $z^N = 1$.
- The numbers $\cos(\frac{2\pi k}{N}) + i \sin(\frac{2\pi k}{N})$ for $k = 0, 1, \dots, N - 1$ can be easily shown to have this property.
- Let us now write a program that computes and outputs these numbers for a given N .

An ADT for Complex Numbers: the Interface

```
/* This is the file COMPLEX.h */
```

```
typedef struct complex *Complex; 
```

```
Complex COMPLEXinit(float, float);
```

```
float Re(Complex);
```

```
float Im(Complex);
```

```
Complex COMPLEXmult(Complex, Complex);
```

Notes

- The interface on the previous slide provides clients with **handles** to complex number objects but **does not give any information about the representation**.
- The representation is a `struct` **that is not specified except for its tag name**.

Handles

- We use the term **handle** to describe a reference to an abstract object.
- Our goal is to **give client programs handles to abstract objects** that can be used in assignment statements and as arguments and return values of functions in the same way as built-in data types, **while hiding the representation of objects from the client program.**

Complex Numbers ADT Implementation

```
/* This is the file CImplementation.c */

#include <stdlib.h>
#include "COMPLEX.h"

struct complex { float Re; float Im; };

Complex COMPLEXinit(float Re, float Im)
{ Complex t = malloc(sizeof *t);
  t->Re = Re; t->Im = Im;
  return t;
}

float Re(Complex z)
{ return z->Re; }

float Im(Complex z)
{ return z->Im; }

Complex COMPLEXmult(Complex a, Complex b)
{ return COMPLEXinit(Re(a)*Re(b) - Im(a)*Im(b), Re(a)*Im(b) + Im(a)*Re(b));
}
```

Notes

- The implementation of the interface in the previous program includes **the definition of structure** `complex` (which is hidden from the clients) as well as **the implementation of the functions** provided by the interface.
- Objects are pointers to structures, so we dereference the pointer to refer to the fields.

Client Program

```
/* Computes the N complex roots of unity for given N */  
/* This is file roots-of-unity.c */
```

```
#include <stdio.h>  
#include <math.h>  
#include "COMPLEX.h"  
#define PI 3.141592625
```



```
main(int argc, char *argv[])  
{  
    int i, j, N = atoi(argv[1]);  
    Complex t, x;  
    printf("%dth complex roots of unity\n", N);  
    for (i = 0; i < N; i++)  
    {  
        float r = 2.0*PI*i/N;  
        t = COMPLEXinit(cos(r), sin(r));  
        printf("%2d %6.3f %6.3f ", i, Re(t), Im(t));  
        for (x = t, j = 0; j < N-1; j++)  
            x = COMPLEXmult(t, x);  
        printf("%6.3f %6.3f\n", Re(x), Im(x));  
    }  
}
```

Notes

- For an input number, the client program outputs the powers of unity up to that number, one by one, together with a verification that they are indeed such powers. To verify this, raising to a power is implemented by multiplication.

Notes

- In this case, we can see that the exact representation of a complex number is hidden from the client program.
- The client program can refer to the real and the imaginary part of a number **only by using the functions** Re and Im provided by the interface.

Command Line Arguments

- `argc` (argument count) is the number of command line arguments.
- `argv` (argument vector) is pointer to an array of character strings that contain the arguments, one per string.
- By convention, `argv[0]` is the name by which the program was invoked so `argc` is at least 1.
- In the previous program `argv[1]` contains the value of `N`.

Separate Compilation

- We compile the module and the client program separately:

```
gcc -c CImplementation.c -o CI.o
gcc -c roots-of-unity.c -o roots-of-unity.o
gcc CI.o roots-of-unity.o -o program.exe -lm
```

With the first two commands we compile the C files to produce object files. Then the object files are linked to produce the final executable. Notice that we have to use the option `-lm` to link the math library.

Exercise

- Revisit the ADT priority queue and define a better interface and its implementation so that we have information hiding.

Readings

- T. A. Standish. *Data Structures, Algorithms and Software Principles in C*.
Chapter 4.

The code that we presented, and which does not do good information hiding is from the book by Standish.

- Robert Sedgewick. Αλγόριθμοι σε C.
Κεφ. 4

The code that we presented, and which does good information hiding is from the book by Sedgewick.