ADTs and Modules in Java and ANSI C

Introduction
This document introduces the concepts of Modules and ADTs, and describes how to implement them in both Java and ANSI C. Informally, an Abstract Data Type (ADT) is a mathematical entity, together with some associated operations. When an ADT is used in a program, it is usually implemented in its own module. Each module should be self-contained and have a well defined interface detailing what the module does and how it can be used.

Abstract Data types
The standard data types provided by many programming languages are not powerful enough to capture the way we think about the higher level objects in our programs. This is why most languages have a type declaration mechanism the allows the user to create high level types as desired. Often the implementation of these high level types gets spread throughout the program, creating complexity and confusion. Errors can be created when the legal operations on the high level types are not well defined or consistently used.

The term Abstract Data Type can mean different things to different people. For the purposes of this course, an ADT consists of two things:

(1) A set $S$ of ‘mathematical structures’, the elements of which are called states or values.
(2) An associated set of operations which can be applied to the states in $S$.

Each ADT object (or instance) has a state which is one of the mathematical structures in the set $S$. The operations on $S$ fall into two classes. Manipulation procedures are operations which cause an ADT object to change it’s state. Access functions are operations which return information about an ADT object, without altering it’s state. In this course we will maintain a clear distinction between the two types of operations. We will also from time to time consider operations which don’t fall into either category, but we will not consider operations which belong to both categories.

An ADT (or ADT object) is an abstract mathematical entity which exists apart from any computing device. On the other hand, ADTs are frequently implemented by a program module. We will distinguish between the mathematical ADT and it’s implementation in some programming language. In fact, a single ADT could have many different implementations, all with various advantages and disadvantages.

Example Consider an integer queue. In this case $S$ is the set of all finite sequences of integers, and the associated operations are: Enqueue, Dequeue, getFront, getLength, and isEmpty. The meaning of these operations is given below. One possible state for this ADT is $(5, 1, -7, 2, -3, 4, 2)$. (It is recommended that the reader who is unfamiliar with elementary data structures such as queues, stacks, and lists, review sections 10.1 and 10.2 of the text.)
### Manipulation procedures

- **Enqueue**: Insert a new integer at the back of the queue
- **Dequeue**: Remove an integer from the front of the queue

### Access functions

- **getFront**: Return the integer at the front of the queue
- **getLength**: Return the number of integers in the queue
- **isEmpty**: Return true if length is zero, false otherwise

Other examples of mathematical structures which could form the basis for an ADT are: sets, graphs, trees, matrices, polynomials, or finite sequences of such structures. In principle the underlying set $S$ could be anything, but typically it is a set of discrete mathematical objects of some kind.

An ADT object is always associated with a particular sequence, or history, of states, brought about by the application of ADT operations. In our queue example we could have the following sequence starting with the empty state $\emptyset$:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>Operation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$\emptyset$</td>
<td>Enqueue(5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(5)</td>
<td>Enqueue(1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(5, 1)</td>
<td>Enqueue(7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(5, 1, 7)</td>
<td>Dequeue</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(1, 7)</td>
<td>Enqueue(3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(1, 7, 3)</td>
<td>getLength</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(1, 7, 3)</td>
<td>............</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Observe that if isEmpty is true for some state, then getFront and Dequeue are undefined on that state. One option to deal with this situation would be to make special definitions for Dequeue and getFront on an empty queue. We could for instance define getFront to return zero on an empty queue, and define Dequeue to not change it's state. Unfortunately, these special cases complicate the ADT and can easily lead to errors. A better solution is to establish **preconditions** for each operation indicating exactly when (i.e. to which states) that operation can be applied. Thus a precondition for both getFront and Dequeue is: 'not isEmpty'. In order for an ADT to be useful, the user must be able to determine if the preconditions for each operation are satisfied. Good ADTs clearly indicate the preconditions for each operation, usually as a sequence of access function calls. Even those operations whose preconditions are always met should have an indication to that effect. We may also establish **postconditions**, i.e. conditions which will be true after an operation is performed. For example, a postcondition of Enqueue is ‘not isEmpty’. ADT operations can sometimes be thought of as functions in the mathematical sense. Preconditions and postconditions then define the function's domain and codomain. Only when all operations gave been defined, along with all relevant preconditions and postconditions, can we say that an ADT has been fully specified.

We often consider multiple instances of the same ADT. For example, we may speak of several simultaneous integer queues. Therefore ADT operations will usually specify which object is being operated on. It is also possible for some operations to refer to multiple objects. We could for instance have an operation called Concatenate which operates on two queues by emptying one queue and placing its contents at the end of the other queue.
It is sometimes helpful to think of an ADT object as being a ‘black box’ equipped with a control panel containing buttons which can be pushed (manipulation procedures), and indicators which can be read (access functions).

Note that in this example the Dequeue operation deletes the element at the front of the queue, but doesn’t return a value. Some texts (including our own) define Dequeue so as to return the front element, as well as to alter the state of the queue. We adopt this particular definition in order to maintain the distinction between Access functions and Manipulation Procedures. Note that such a change in the set of ADT operations results in a different ADT. If for instance we implement our queue using an array of fixed size, then we should add an access function called isFull which reports on whether there is room left in the array for another element. Enqueue would then have the precondition ‘not isFull’. Although this ADT and our original ADT can both be legitimately called queues, they are different ADTs.

**Implementing ADTs**
There is a straightforward way of implementing an ADT in both Java and ANSI C, once it has been specified. The implementation strategies in these two languages may look different on the surface, but conceptually they are quite similar, the differences being mostly syntactical.

In Java an ADT is embodied in a class. A class contains fields (or member variables) which form the ‘mathematical structure’, and methods which implement the ADT operations. Such a class may also contain some (private) inner classes as part of the ‘mathematical structure’. An instance of this class is accessed by a reference variable which represents an instance of the ADT.

**Example** The inside of our integer queue ‘black box’ can be pictured as
The user of the ADT should never be allowed to directly access the ‘structure’ inside the ‘box’. Instead a reference variable (myQueue) points to an instance of the class and is passed as an (implicit) first argument to the methods of the class. For example, the call

\[
\text{myQueue.getFront()}
\]

would return the front element in the ADT object referenced by myQueue. For this reason (instance) variables should always be declared as private. This is the idea of information hiding: the user of the ADT cannot see or directly effect anything inside the ‘black box’ except through the ADT operations.

Other methods are also needed but which do not correspond to ADT operations. Among these are the constructors which create new ADT instances, the toString method which provides a string representation of the class, and the main method which we will use as a test driver for the ADT implementation. An implementation of our integer queue ADT in Java would look something like:

```java
// Queue.java
// An integer queue ADT
class Queue {
    private class Node {
        // Fields
        private int data;
        private Node next;

        // Constructors
        Node() {...}
        Node(int data) {...}

        // Access functions
        int getData() {...}
        Node getNext() {...}

        // Manipulation procedures
        void setData(int data) {...}
        void setNext(Node next) {...}

        // toString: overrides Object’s toString method
        public String toString() {...}
    }

    // Fields
    private Node front;
    private Node back;
    private int length;

    // Constructors
    Queue() {...}
    Queue(int data) {...}
}
```
// Access functions
int getFront() {...}
int getLength() {...}
boolean isEmpty() {...}

// Manipulation procedures
void Enqueue(int data) {...}
void Dequeue() {...}

// other methods
// toString: Overrides Object's toString method.
public String toString() {...}

// main
// Used as a test driver for the List class.
public static void main(String[] args) {...}

Exercise
Fill in the definitions of all of these methods, i.e. replace {...} where it appears by some appropriate Java source code.

By convention, all of our ADT implementations in Java should follow this same pattern: private inner classes, followed by fields, then constructors, access methods, manipulation procedures, then all other methods, with main as the final method. This convention is by no means universal, but we adopt it in this course for the sake of uniformity.

A Module is a part of a program which is isolated from the rest of the program by a well defined interface. We think of modules as providing services (e.g. functions, data types, ..) to Clients. A client is anything (program, person, another module) which uses a module’s services. These services are said to be exported to the client or imported from the module.

The module concept supports the idea of information hiding, i.e. clients have no access to a module’s implementation details (inside the black box). The client can only access the services exported through the interface. Generally we will have a separate module for each ADT. As we’ve seen, an ADT module in Java will be embodied in a single .java file containing a single top level class. The module interface will consist of all variables and methods in that class which are not declared private.

In ANSI C the situation is somewhat different. Each ADT object consists of a header struct which provides access to the ‘mathematical structure’. The user of the ADT (i.e. client) is given a handle which is a pointer to this struct. One C function is defined for each of the ADT operations. Each such function takes an ADT handle as argument. This handle is defined in such a way that the client cannot
follow the pointer to access the interior of the ‘black box’, thus enforcing the information hiding paradigm.

Two more C functions are necessary. One to create new objects (constructor) and one to free memory associated with ADT objects no longer in use (destructor). It is the responsibility of these functions to manage all of the memory inside the ‘black box’, balancing calls to malloc and free. Thus an ADT implementation in C will contain three types of functions:

1. Implementations of access functions
2. Implementations of manipulation procedures
3. Constructors-destructors

In C, we split our ADT module implementation into a .c file containing struct and function definitions, and a .h file containing typedefs and prototypes of exported functions. The interface consists of exactly that which appears in the .h file. Functions whose prototypes do not appear in this file are not exported.

Example

/* File: Queue.h */
typedef enum (False, True) Boolean;
typedef struct QueueStruct * QueueHndl;

/* Constructor-destructor */
QueueHndl NewQueue(void);
void FreeQueue(QueueHndl * ptrQ);

/* Access functions */
int getFront(QueueHndl Q);
int getLength(QueueHndl Q);
Boolean isEmpty(QueueHndl Q);

/* Manipulation procedures */
void Enqueue(QueueHndl Q, int data);
void Dequeue(QueueHndl Q);

Notice Queue.h defines a pointer to a struct called QueueStruct, which is not defined in this file. This is how data hiding is implemented in C. The client will #include Queue.h so the compiler recognizes calls to the exported functions. The client can also declare QueueHndl objects and define functions which take and return QueueHndl parameters. Note however that the client cannot reference through
the pointer QueueHndl since it does not have the definition of a QueueStruct. That definition appears in the next file.

/* File: Queue.c */
#include "Queue.h" /* other includes such as stdio.h, stdlib.h, etc. */

typedef struct Node
{
    int data;
    struct Node* next;
} Node;

typedef struct QueueStruct
{
    Node* front;
    Node* back;
    int length;
} QueueStruct;

/* Constructor-Destructor */
QueueHndl NewQueue(void)
{
    QueueHndl Q;
    Q = (QueueStruct*) malloc(sizeof(QueueStruct));
    Q->front = Q->back = NULL;
    Q->length = 0;
    return(Q);
}

void FreeQueue(QueueHndl* ptrQ) {...

/* Access functions */
int getFront(QueueHndl Q) {...
int getLength(QueueHndl Q) {...
Boolean isEmpty(QueueHndl Q) {...

/* Manipulation procedures */
void Enqueue(QueueHndl Q, int data) {...
void Dequeue(QueueHndl Q) {...

Exercise  Complete the definitions of these functions by replacing {...} by appropriate C code.

You should also include a constructor and destructor for the private Node struct (which are necessarily not exported). These functions would be used by Enqueue and Dequeue.

Node newNode(void) {...
void FreeNode(Node* ptrNode) {...

A function called printQueue which prints out the complete state of a Queue object would be helpful for diagnostic purposes. This function should be exported, and therefore its prototype should appear in Queue.h. This corresponds roughly to the toString() function in Java.
void printQueue(QueueHndl Q) {...}

To complete the ADT module one should create yet another file called QueueDriver.c, which acts as a test client for the Queue module. The purpose of this program is to thoroughly test the Queue module in isolation before using it in a real application. It should contain test calls to each of the functions which implement ADT operations. We accomplished this in Java by including a main method in our Queue class definition.

The complete code for both the Java and C implementations of Integer Queue will be placed on the class webpage. Follow the link to ‘Examples’.

Some people may (correctly) argue that our ANSI C Integer Queue is not really a general purpose queue, and that we should really write a queue of ‘anythings’. The problem is that C’s type mechanism is not advanced enough to properly deal with this issue. There are two possible solutions. The safer solution is to simply edit your Integer Queue to be a queue of whatever you need a queue of. Simply changing the appropriate ints to the new type will create a ready-made queue. This change can be easily accomplished by defining the type QueueElement in the .h file as

typedef int QueueElement

You can then use QueueElement whenever you want to refer to the things that are stored in the queue. This methodology lets you change the element type by editing a single line of code.

This simple fix has the drawback that if you want int queues and double queues in the same program, then you need two different queue modules. A more powerful (and dangerous) technique is to make QueueElement a generic pointer, by doing

typedef void* QueueElement

Now the queue module can handle queues which hold any kind of pointer. The danger is that a client might get confused and getFront or Enqueue the wrong kind of pointer. Using void* means that you will not find out about this problem until you run the program and get a segmentation fault. These types of pointer errors can be very difficult to debug. Given these warnings, both methods are considered acceptable in this course, but I would recommend the safer solution for those students who do not have extensive C experience.

The equivalent queue of ‘anything’ in Java is accomplished by simply defining the data field in the private node class to be Object rather than int. This is essentially the same as using void* in C, but without the same danger of runtime errors. If such an error does occur, Java’s exception handling mechanism should make it easier to track down.