



Stacks (1)

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Outline

- ❑ **Stack ADT**
- ❑ **Array-Based Stack**
- ❑ **Linked Stack**
- ❑ **Comparison of Array-Based and Linked Stacks**
- ❑ **Applications**

Stacks

- ❑ The stack is a list-like structure in which elements may be inserted or removed from only one end, called the top of the stack.
- ❑ All access is restricted to the most recently inserted elements
- ❑ Basic operations are push, pop

Stacks

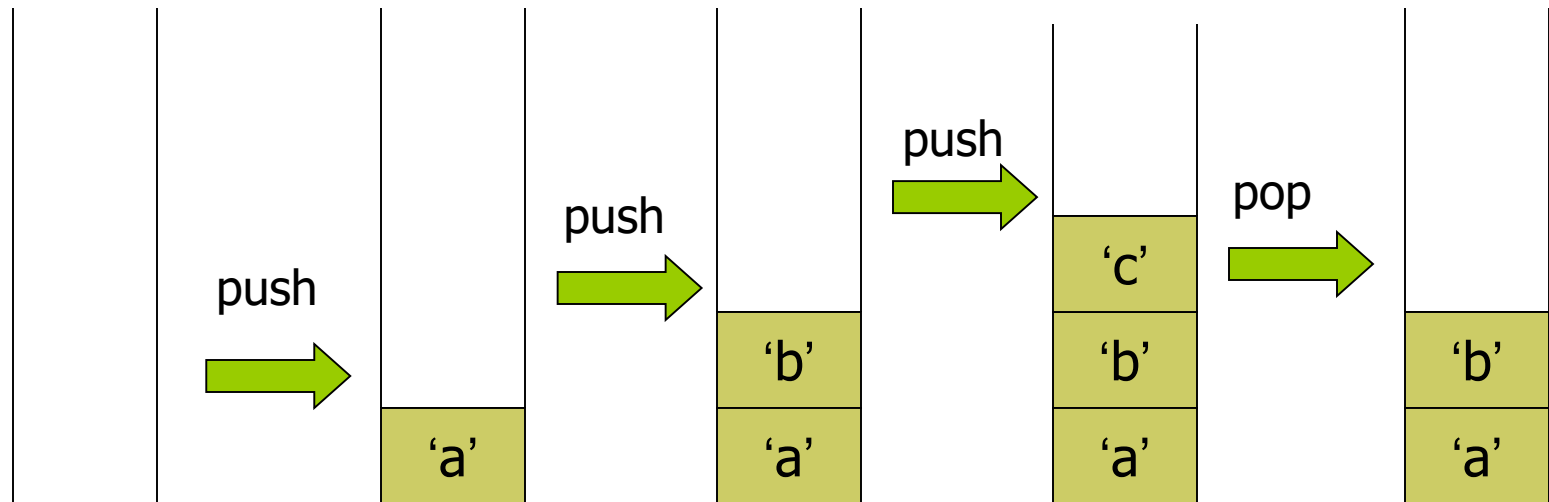
LIFO: Last In, First Out.

Restricted form of list: Insert and remove only at front of list.

Notation:

- ❑ Insert: PUSH
- ❑ Remove: POP
- ❑ The accessible element is called **top element**.

Example: Stack of Char



Stack ADT

// Stack abstract class

template <typename E> class Stack {

private:

void operator =(const Stack&) {} // Protect assignment

Stack(const Stack&) {} // Protect copy constructor

public:

Stack() {} // Default constructor

virtual ~Stack() {} // Base destructor

// Reinitialize the stack. The user is responsible for

// reclaiming the storage used by the stack elements.

virtual void clear() = 0;



Stack ADT

```
// Push an element onto the top of the stack.  
// it: The element being pushed onto the stack.  
virtual void push(const E& it) = 0;  
// Remove the element at the top of the stack.  
// Return: The element at the top of the stack.  
virtual E pop() = 0;  
// Return: A copy of the top element.  
virtual const E& topValue() const = 0;  
// Return: The number of elements in the stack.  
virtual int length() const = 0;  
}
```

Array-Based Stack

- ❑ The array-based stack implementation is essentially a simplified version of the array-based list.
- ❑ The only important design decision to be made is which end of the array should represent the top of the stack.
 - One choice is to make the top be at **position 0** in the array. This implementation is inefficient. (Why?)
 - The other choice is have the top element be at **position n-1** when there are n elements in the stack.
- ❑ For the implementation of Figure 4.18, **top** is defined to be the array index of the **first free position** in the stack. Thus, an empty stack has top set to 0, the first available free position in the array.

Array-Based Stack

```
// Array-based stack implementation
Template <typename E> class AStack:public Stack<E>{
private:
    int MaxSize;        // Maximum size of stack
    int top;            // Index for top element
    E    *listArray;    // Array holding elements
public:
    AStack(int size =defaultSize) // Constructor
        { maxSize = size; top = 0; listArray = new E[size]; }
    ~AStack() { delete [] listArray; } // Destructor
    void clear() { top = 0; } // Reinitialize
    void push(const E& it) { // Put "it" on stack
        Assert(top != maxSize, "Stack is full");
        listArray[top++] = it;
    }
}
```



Array-Based Stack

```
E pop() { // Pop top element
    Assert(top != 0, "Stack is empty");
    return listArray[--top];
}

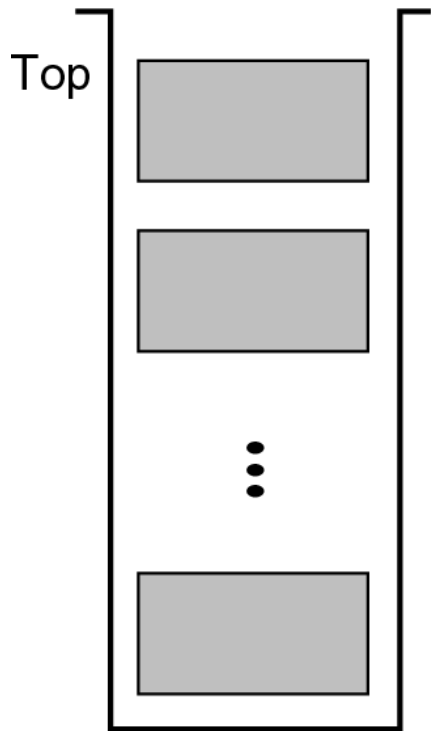
const E& topValue() const { // Return top element
    Assert(top != 0, "Stack is empty");
    return listArray[top-1];
}

int length() const { return top; } // Return length
};
```

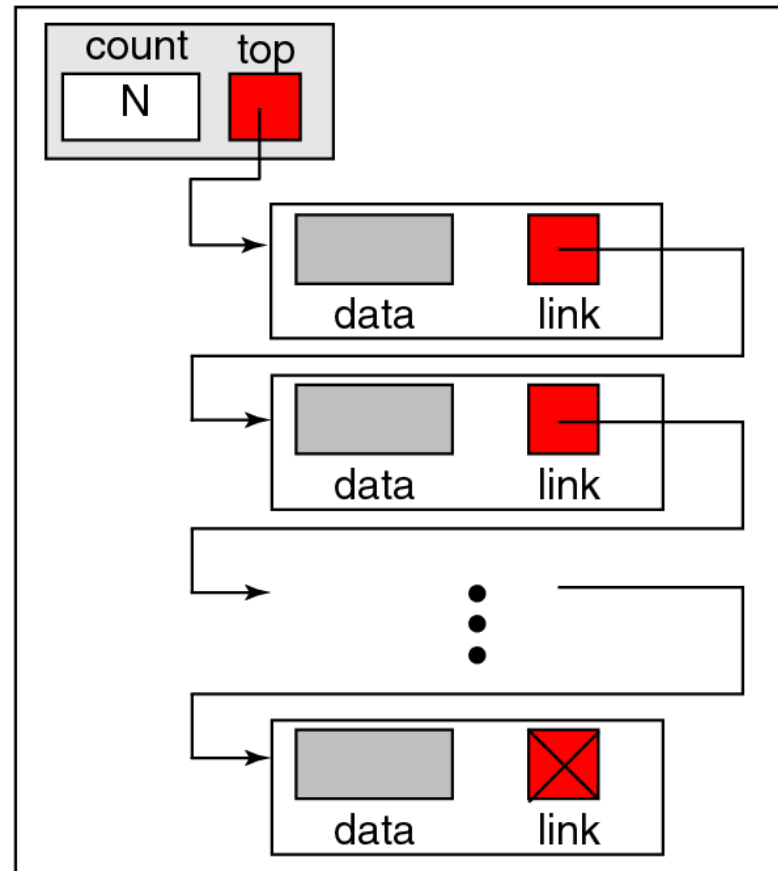
Issues:

- ❑ Which end is the top?
- ❑ What is the cost of the operations?

Linked Stack



Conceptual view



Linked list implementation

Linked Stack

- ❑ The linked stack implementation is quite simple. The freelist of Section 4.1.2 is an example of a linked stack.
- ❑ Elements are inserted and removed only from the head of the list. A header node is not used because no special-case code is required for lists of zero or one elements.
- ❑ The only data member is **top**, a pointer to the first (top) link node of the stack.

Linked Stack

```
// Linked stack implementation
Template <typename E> class LStack: public Stack<E>{
private:
    Link<E>* top;    // Pointer to first element
    int size;        // Count number of elements
public:
    LStack(int sz =defaultSize) // Constructor
    { top = NULL; size = 0; }
    ~LStack() { clear(); } // Destructor
```



Linked Stack

```
void clear() { // Reinitialize
    while (top != NULL) { // Delete link nodes
        Link<E>* temp = top;
        top = top->next;
        delete temp;
    }
    size = 0;
}

void push(const E& it) { // Put "it" on stack
    top = new Link<E>(it, top);
    size++;
}
```



Linked Stack

```
E pop() { // Remove "it" from stack
    Assert(top != NULL, "Stack is empty");
    E it = top->element;
    Link<E>* ltemp = top->next;
    delete top;
    top = ltemp;
    size--;
    return it;
}
```



Linked Stack

```
const E& topValue() const { // Return top value
    Assert(top != 0, "Stack is empty");
    return top->element;
}
int length() const { return size; } // Return length
};
```

What is the cost of the operations?

How do space requirements compare to the array-based stack implementation?

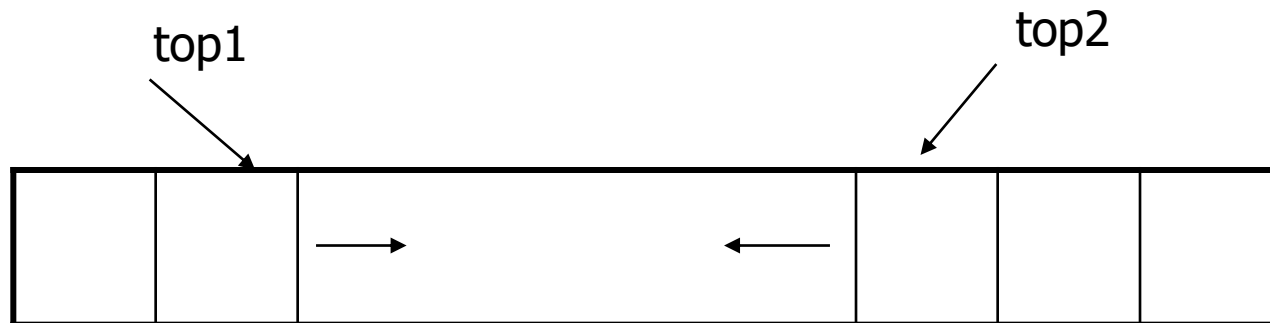


Comparison of Array-Based and Linked Stacks

- ❑ All operations for the array-based and linked stack implementations take constant time
- ❑ Total space required: the analysis is similar to that done for list implementations
- ❑ When multiple stacks are to be implemented, it is possible to take advantage of the one-way growth of the array-based stack. This can be done by using a single array to store two stacks, as illustrated by Figure 4.20

Problem

- Modify the code of Figure 4.18 to implement two stacks sharing the same array, as shown in Figure 4.20.



Solution

- ❑ `template <class E> class AStack2:public Stack<E> {`
- ❑ `private:`
- ❑ `int size; // Maximum size of stack`
- ❑ `int top1, top2; // Index for top element (two)`
- ❑ `E *listArray; // Array holding stack elements`
- ❑ `public:`
- ❑ `AStack2(int sz =defaultListSize) // Constructor`
- ❑ `{ size = sz; top1 = 0; top2 = size - 1; listArray = new E[sz]; }`
- ❑ `~AStack2() { delete [] listArray; } // Destructor`

Solution

- ❑ void clear(int st) {
- ❑ if (st == 1) top1 = 0;
- ❑ else top2 = size - 1;
- ❑ }
- ❑ bool push(int st, const Elem& item) {
- ❑ if (top1+1 >= top2) return false; // Stack is full
- ❑ if (st == 1) **listarray[top1++] = item;**
- ❑ else **listarraay[top2--] = item;**
- ❑ return true;
- ❑ }

Solution

- ❑ `bool pop(int st, Elem& it) { // Pop top element`
- ❑ `if ((st == 1) && (top1 == 0)) return false;`
- ❑ `if ((st == 2) && (top2 == (size-1))) return false;`
- ❑ `if (st == 1) it = listArray[--top1];`
- ❑ `else it = listArray[++top2];`
- ❑ `return true;`
- ❑ `}`

Solution

```
□ bool topValue(int st, Elem& it) const { // Return top
□   if ((st == 1) && (top1 == 0)) return false;
□   if ((st == 2) && (top2 == (size-1))) return false;
□   if (st == 1) it = listArray[top1-1];
□   else it = listArray[top2+1];
□   return true;
□ }
□ int length(int st) const {
□   if (st == 1) return top1;
□   else return size - top2 - 1;
□ }
□ };
```

Implementing Recursion

- ❑ Perhaps the most common computer application that uses stacks is the implementation of subroutine calls in most programming language runtime environments.
- ❑ A subroutine call is normally implemented by placing necessary information about the subroutine (including **the return address, parameters, and local variables**) onto a stack.
- ❑ Further subroutine calls add to the stack
- ❑ Each return from a subroutine pops the top **activation record** off the stack

Implementing Recursion

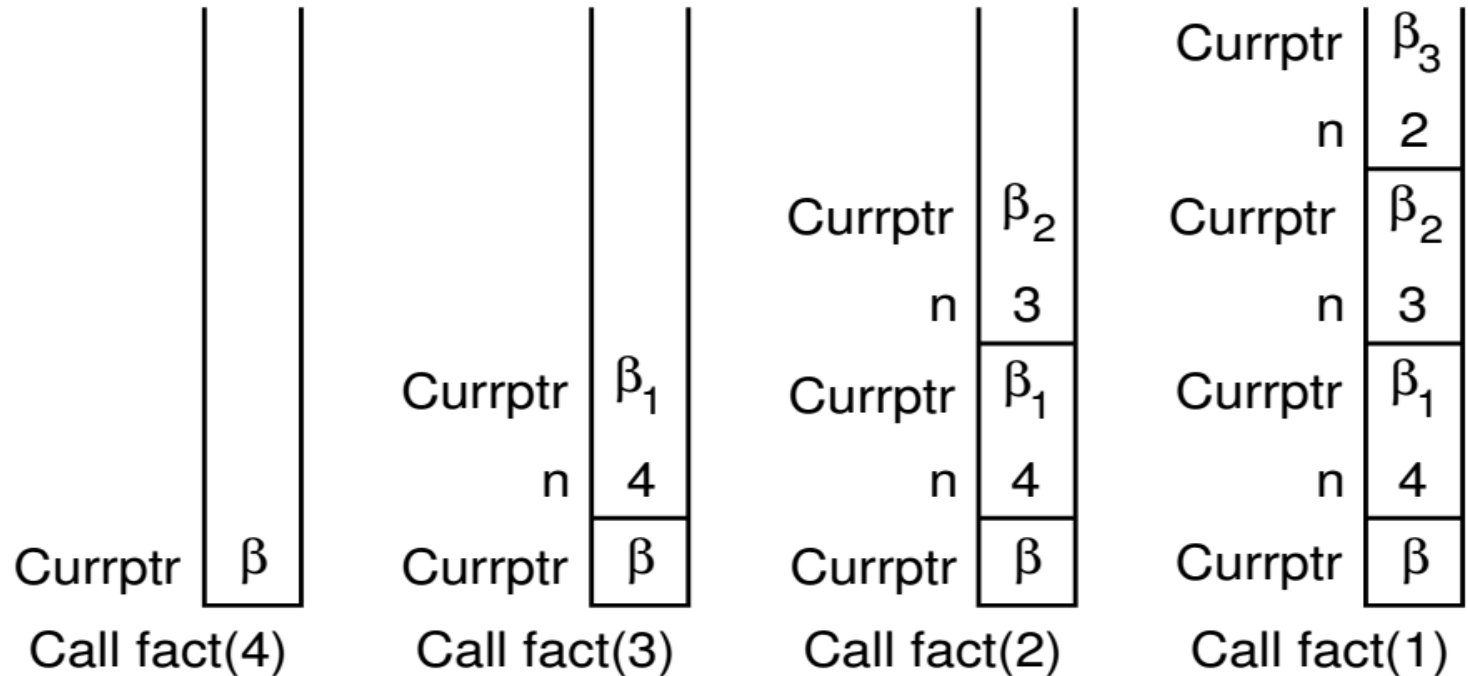
- An algorithm is recursive if it calls itself to do part of its work.
- In general, a recursive algorithm must have two parts:
 - **The base case**, which handles a simple input that can be solved without resorting to a recursive call
 - **The recursive part** which contains one or more recursive calls to the algorithm where the parameters are in some sense “closer” to the base case than those of the original call.

```
long fact(int n) {           // Compute n! recursively
    // To fit n! into a long variable, we require n <= 12
    Assert((n >= 0) && (n <= 12), "Input out of range");
    if (n <= 1) return 1; // Base case: return base solution
    return n * fact(n-1);  // Recursive call for n > 1
}
```

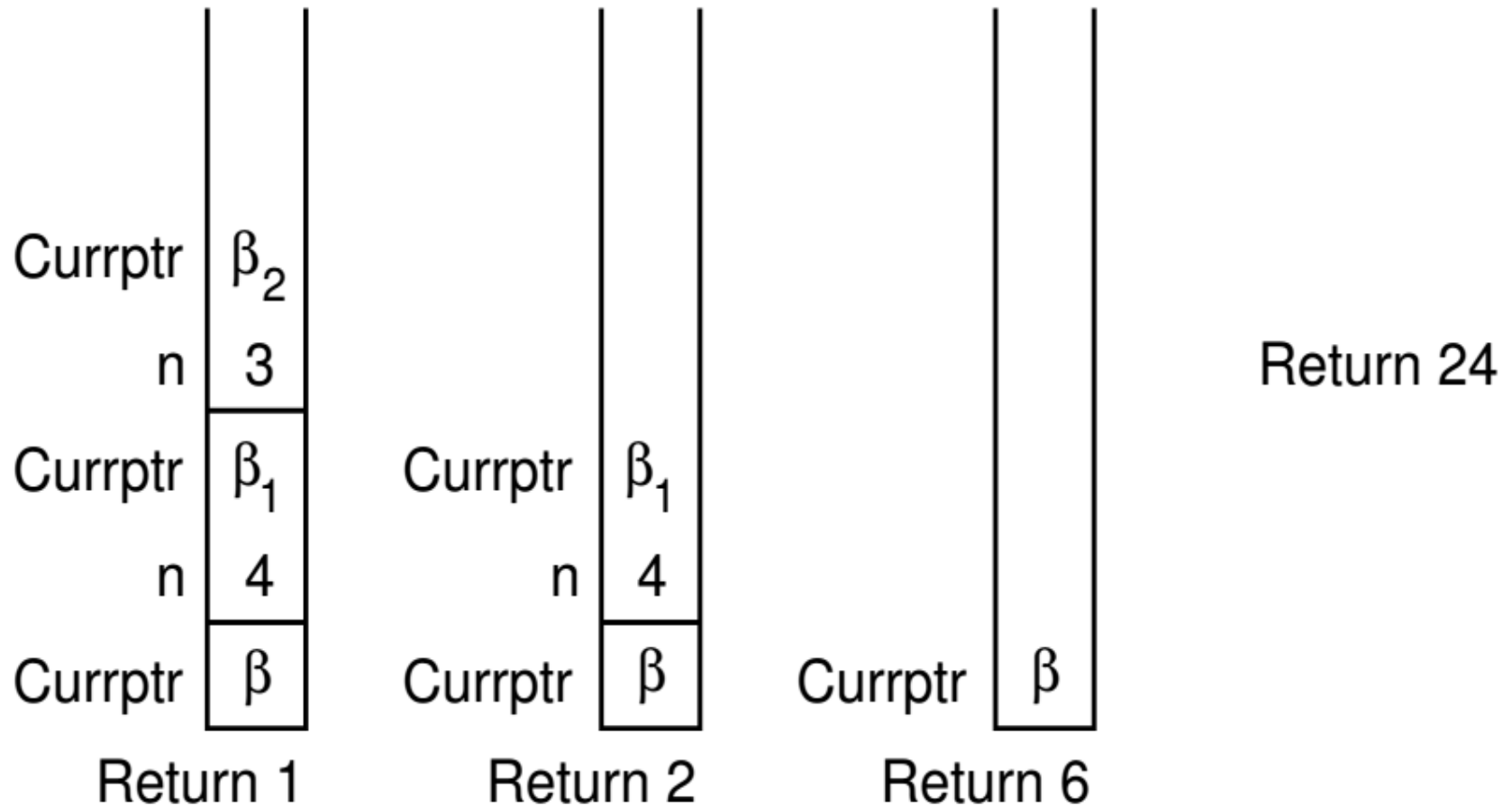


Implementing Recursion

Consider what happens when we call fact with the value 4:



Implementing Recursion





Stack Applications

Application 1

Data conversion

- A simple algorithm uses the following law:

$$N = (N / d) \times d + N \% d$$

eg: Convert decimal to binary

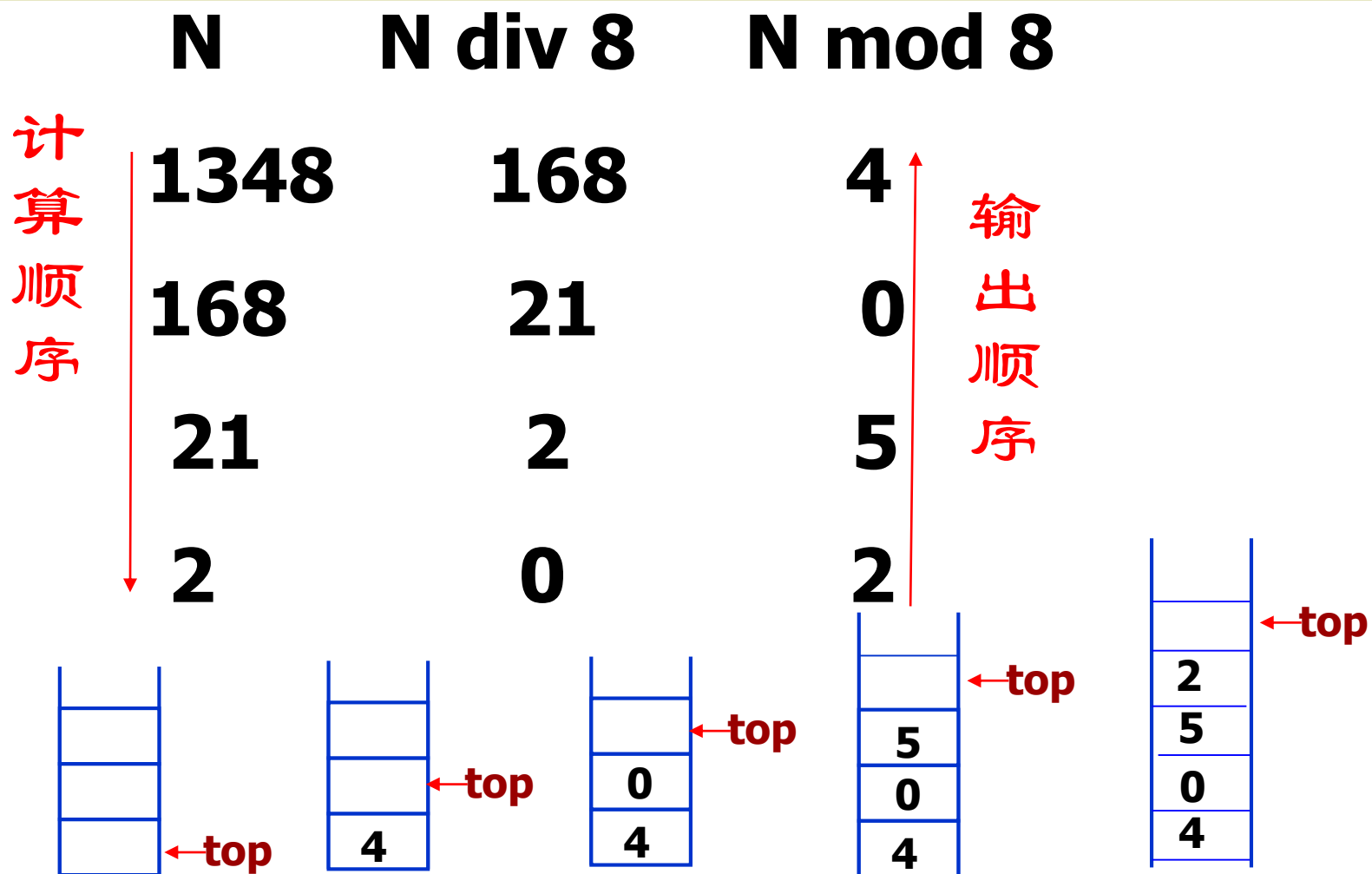
$$(100)_{10} = (1100100)_2$$

- divide decimal number by 2 continuously
 - record the remainders until the quotient becomes 0
 - print the remainders in backward order.
- Stack is an ideal structure to implement this process.
 - How to implement it?

2	100	
2	50	0
2	25	0
2	12	1
2	6	0
2	3	0
2	1	1
	0	1



例如： $(1348)_{10} = (2504)_8$ ，其运算过程如下：



Applications 2

Balancing Symbols

- How do we know the following parentheses are nested correctly ?

$7 - ((X * ((X + Y) / (J - 3)) + Y) / (4 - 2.5))$

1. There are an equal number of right and left parentheses.
2. Every right parenthesis is preceded by a matching left parenthesis.

□ $((A+B)$ or $A+B($ violate 1

□ $)A+B(-C$ or $(A+B))- (C+D$ violate 2



Applications 2

Balancing Symbols

- Stack can be used to check a program for balanced symbols (such as {}, (), []).
- Example: {}() is legal, {(}) is not (so simply counting symbols does not work).
- When a closing symbol is seen, it matches the most recently seen unclosed opening symbol. Therefore, a stack will be appropriate.

Applications 2

Balancing Symbols

- ❑ Make an empty stack. Read characters until end of file.
- ❑ If the character is an opening symbol, push it onto stack.
- ❑ If it is a closing symbol, then if the stack is empty, report an error. Otherwise, pop the stack.
- ❑ If the symbol popped is not the corresponding opening symbol, then report an error.
- ❑ At the end of file, if the stack is not empty, report an error.

Reference

- **Data Structures and Algorithm Analysis in C++ .Third Edition.Clifford A. Shaffer(P.120-127)**
- 《数据结构（C语言版）》，严蔚敏，吴伟民编著，清华大学出版社，1997年第1版,P48-49



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