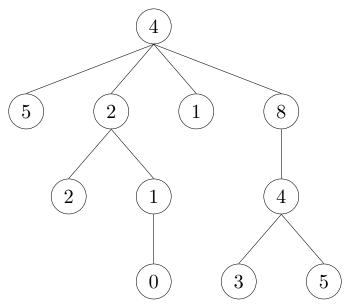
FUNCTION-BASED TREES, MUTABILITY, ITERATORS & GENERATORS Solutions

COMPUTER SCIENCE MENTORS 61A

October 7 – October 11, 2024

Tree ADT

Trees are a kind of recursive data structure. Each tree has a root label (which is some value) and a sequence of branches. Trees are "recursive" because the branches of a tree are trees themselves! A typical tree might look something like this:



This tree's root label is 4, and it has 4 branches, each of which is a smaller tree. The 6 of the tree's subtrees are also leaves, which are trees that have no branches.

Trees may also be viewed relationally, as a network of nodes with parent-child relationships. Under this scheme, each circle in the tree diagram above is a node. Every non-root node has one parent above it and every non-leaf node has at least one child below it.

Trees are represented by an abstract data type with a tree constructor and label and branches selectors. The tree constructor takes in a label and a list of branches and returns a tree. Here's how one would construct the tree shown above with tiree:

```
tree(4,
    [tree(5),
```

```
tree(2,
    [tree(2),
        tree(1,
            [tree(0)])]),
tree(1),
tree(8,
    [tree(4,
            [tree(3), tree(5)])])])
```

The implementation of the ADT is provided here, but you shouldn't have to worry about this too much. (Remember the abstraction barrier!)

```
def tree(label, branches=[]):
    return [label] + list(branches)

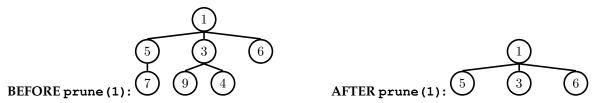
def label(tree):
    return tree[0]

def branches(tree):
    return tree[1:] # returns a list of branches
```

Because trees are recursive data structures, recursion tends to a be a very natural way of solving problems that involve trees.

- The **recursive case** for tree problems often involves recursive calls on the branches of a tree.
- The **base case** is often reached when we hit a leaf because there are no more branches to recurse on.

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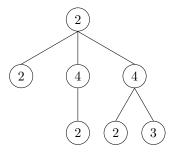


1. Implement prune, which takes in a tree t and a depth k, and should return a new tree that is a copy of only the first k levels of t. Suppose t is the tree shown to the right. Then prune (t, 1) returns nodes up to a depth of level 1.

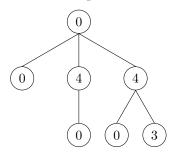
```
def prune(t, k):
    if k == 0:
        return tree(label(t))
    else:
        return tree(label(t), [prune(b, k - 1) for b in branches(t)])
```

2. Write a function, $replace_x$ that takes in a tree, t, and returns a new tree with all labels x replaced with 0.

For example, if we called replace_x(t, 2) on the following tree:



We would expect it to return



return _____

if _____:

return _____

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```
def replace_x(t, x):
    new_branches = []
    for b in branches(t):
        new_branches.append(replace_x(b, x))
    if label(t) == x:
        return tree(0, new_branches)
    return tree(label(t), new_branches)
```

An alternate solution using list comprehensions is as follows:

```
def replace_x(t, x):
   new_branches = [replace_x(b, x) for b in branches(t)]
   if label(t) == x:
        return tree(0, new_branches)
   return tree(label(t), new_branches)
```

Here, we construct and return a new tree. First, we construct a new list of branches where each branch is the same as the previous branch but all occurrences of x have been replaced with 0 as per our recursive function. The if statement guarantees that if our root node's label is an occurrence of x, we replace the subtree we're on starting at its root – keeping all else before it the same while replacing the specific subtree's root node label to be zero.

We do not need a base case here, as if we are at a leaf, the list comprehension we use to create the new branches will evaluate to an empty list. Then we will either return tree(0, []) or tree(label(t), []) as appropriate.

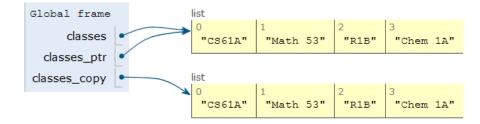
3. [Exam Level] Write a function that returns True if and only if there exists a path from root to leaf that contains at least n instances of elem in a tree t.

```
def contains_n(elem, n, t):
   >>> t1 = tree(1, [tree(1, [tree(2)])])
   >>> contains_n(1, 2, t1)
   True
   >>> contains n(2, 2, t1)
   False
   >>> contains_n(2, 1, t1)
   >>> t2 = tree(1, [tree(2), tree(1, [tree(1), tree(2)])])
   >>> contains_n(1, 3, t2)
   True
   >>> contains_n(2, 2, t2) # Not on a path
   False
    11 11 11
   if n == 0:
       return True
   elif ____
       return _____
   elif label(t) == elem:
       return _____
   else:
def contains_n(elem, n, t):
   if n == 0:
       return True
   elif is_leaf(t):
       return n == 1 and label(t) == elem
   elif label(t) == elem:
       return True in [contains_n(elem, n - 1, b) for b in
         branches(t)]
   else:
       return True in [contains_n(elem, n, b) for b in
         branches(t)]
```

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Let's imagine it's your first year at Cal, and you have signed up for your first classes!

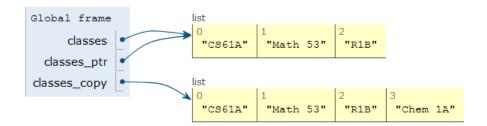
```
>>> classes = ["CS61A", "Math 53", "R1B", "Chem 1A"]
>>> classes_ptr = classes
>>> classes_copy = classes[:]
```



After a few weeks, you realize that you cannot keep up with the workload and you need to drop a class. You've chosen to drop Chem 1A. Based on what we know so far, to change our classes list, we would have to create a new list with all the same elements as the original list except for Chem 1A. But that is silly, since all we really need to do is remove the Chem 1A element from our list.

We can fix this issue with list mutation. In Python, some objects, such as lists and dictionaries, are mutable, meaning that their contents or state can be changed over the course of program execution. Other objects, such as numeric types, tuples, and strings are immutable, meaning they cannot be changed once they are created. Therefore, instead of creating a new list, we can just call classes.pop(), which removes the last element from the list.

>>> classes.pop() # pop returns whatever item it removed
"Chem 1A"



Here are more list methods that mutate:

Mutability in Lists

Function	Create or Mutate	Action/Return Value
Ist.append(element)	mutate	attaches element to end of the list and returns None
lst.extend(iterable)	mutate	attaches each element in iterable to end of the list and returns None
lst.pop()	mutate	removes last element from the list and returns it
Ist.pop(index)	mutate	removes element at index and returns it
Ist.remove(element)	mutate	removes element from the list and returns None
lst.insert(index, element)	mutate	inserts element at index and pushes rest of elements down and returns None
lst += lst2	mutates	attaches lst2 to the end of lst and returns None same as lst.extend(lst2)
Ist[start:end:step size]	create	creates a new list that start to stop (exclusive) with step size and returns it
lst = lst2 + [1, 2]	create	creates a new list with elements from lst2 and [1, 2] and returns it
list(iterable)	create	creates new list with elements of iterable and returns it

(Credits: Mihira Patel)

1. What would Python display? If an error occurs, write "Error". If a function is displayed, write "Function". If nothing is returned, write "Nothing".

```
>>> a = [1, 2]
>>> a.append([3, 4])
>>> a
[1, 2, [3, 4]]
>>> b = list(a)
>>> a[0] = 5
>>> a[2][0] = 6
>>> b
[1, 2, [6, 4]]
>>> a.extend([7])
>>> a += [8]
>>> a += 9
TypeError: 'int' object is not iterable
>>> a
[5, 2, [6, 4], 7, 8]
Challenge:
>>> b[2][1] = a[2:]
>>> a[2][1][0][0]
6
```

2. Given some list lst of numbers, mutate lst to have the accumulated sum of all elements so far in the list. If lst is a deep list, mutate it to similarly reflect the accumulated sum of all elements so far in the nested list. Your function should return an integer representing your "accumulated" sum (sum of all numbers in your list). You may not need all lines provided.

Hint: The **isinstance** function returns True for **isinstance**(1, **list**) if 1 is a list and False otherwise.

```
def accumulate(lst):
    11 11 11
   >>> 1 = [1, 5, 13, 4]
   >>> accumulate(1)
   23
   >>> 1
    [1, 6, 19, 23]
   >>> deep_1 = [3, 7, [2, 5, 6], 9]
   >>> accumulate(deep_l)
   32
   >>> deep_1
    [3, 10, [2, 7, 13], 32]
    sum_so_far = 0
    for _____
       if isinstance(_________, list):
           inside = _____
       else:
def accumulate(lst):
   sum so far = 0
    for i in range(len(lst)):
       item = lst[i]
       if isinstance(item, list):
           inside = accumulate(item)
           sum_so_far += inside
       else:
           sum_so_far += item
           lst[i] = sum_so_far
   return sum_so_far
```

3. **Scrabble!** [Exam Level - Adapted from CS61A Su19 Midterm Q7(b)]

Implement scrabbler which takes in a string chars, a list of strings words, and a dictionary values which maps letters to point values. It should return a dictionary where each key is a word in words which can be formed from the letters in chars and each value is the point value of that word.

For this problem, we will only consider words we can form using letters in chars in the same order they appear in the string. Assume values contains all the letters across valid words as keys.

Furthermore, you have access to the function is_subseq which returns true if a string is a subsequence of another string. A string is a sequence of another string if all the letters in the first string appear in the second string in the same order (but they do not need to be next to each other).

```
def scrabbler(chars, words, values):
   """ Given a list of words and point values for letters, returns a
   dictionary mapping each word that can be formed from letters in chars
   to their point value. You may not need all lines
   >>> words = ["easy", "as", "pie"]
   >>> values = {"e": 2, "a": 2, "s": 1, "p": 3, "i": 2, "y": 4}
   >>> scrabbler("heuaiosby", words, values)
   {'easy': 9, 'as': 3}
   >>> scrabbler("piayse", words, values)
   {'pie': 7, 'as': 3}
   result = ____
   return result
   def scrabbler(chars, words, values):
       result = {}
       for w in words:
           if is subseq(w, chars):
               total = sum([values[c] for c in w])
               result[w] = total
       return result
```

On a conceptual level, **iterables** are simply objects whose elements can be iterated over. Think of an iterable as anything you can use in a **for** loop, such as ranges, lists, strings, or dictionaries.

On a technical level, iterables are a bit more complicated. An **iterator** is an object on which you can (repeatedly) call **next**, which will return the next element of a sequence. For example, if it is an iterator representing the sequence 1, 2, 3, then we could do the following:

```
>>> next(it)
1
>>> next(it)
2
>>> next(it)
3
>>> next(it)
StopIteration
```

StopIteration is an exception that is raised when an iterator has no more elements to produce; it's how we know we've reached the end of an iterator. Iterators that will never produce a StopIteration exception are called *infinite*.

Under this regime, an iterable is formally defined as an object that can be turned into an iterator by passing it into the **iter** function. When you iterate over an iterable, Python first uses **iter** to create an iterator from the iterable and then iterates over the iterator. The simple **for** loop syntax abstracts away this fact. f There are a few useful functions that act on iterables that are particularly useful:

- map(f, it): Returns an iterator that produces each element of it with the function f applied to it.
- **filter** (pred, it): Returns an iterator that includes only the elements of it where the predicate function pred returns true.
- reduce (f, it, init): Reduces it to a single value by repeatedly calling the two-argument function f on the elements of it: reduce (add, [1, 2, 3]) → 6. Optionally, an initializer may be provided: reduce (add, [1], 5) → 6.

Generators, which are a specific type of iterator, are created using the traditional function definition syntax in Python (**def**) with the body of the function containing one or more <code>yield</code> statements. When a generator function (a function that has <code>yield</code> in the body) is called, it returns a generator object; the body of the function is not executed. Only when we call **next** on the generator object is the body executed until we hit a <code>yield</code> statement. The <code>yield</code> statement yields the value and pauses the function. <code>yield</code> **from** is another way to yield values. When we <code>yield</code> **from** another iterable, it yields each element from that other iterable one at a time.

The following generators all represent the sequence 1, 2, 3:

1. Given the following code block, what is output by the lines that follow?

```
def foo():
    a = 0
    if a == 0:
        print("Hello")
       yield a
        print("World")
>>> foo()
<generator object>
>>> foo_gen = foo()
>>> next(foo_gen)
Hello
>>> next (foo_gen)
World
StopIteration
>>> for i in foo():
... print(i)
Hello
0
World
>>> a = iter(filter(lambda x: x % 2, map(lambda x: x - 1, range(10))))
>>> next(a)
-1
>>> reduce(lambda x, y: x + y, a)
16
```

2. Define all_sums, a generator that iterates through all the possible sums of elements from lst. (Repeat sums are permitted.)

```
def all_sums(lst):
    11 11 11
    >>> list(all_sums([]))
    [0]
    >>> list(all_sums([1, 2]))
    [3, 2, 1, 0]
    >>> list(all_sums([1, 2, 3]))
    [6, 5, 4, 3, 3, 2, 1, 0]
    >>> list(all_sums([1, 2, 7]))
    [10, 9, 8, 7, 3, 2, 1, 0]
    if len(lst) == 0:
        yield 0
    else:
        for sum_rest in all_sums(lst[1:]):
            yield sum_rest + 1st[0]
            yield sum_rest
```