REPRESENTATION, MUTABLE TREES, LINKED LISTS Guide

CSM 61A

March 7 - March 11, 2022

Recommended Timeline

There are three big topics on this worksheet: representation, linked lists and trees. There are plenty of problems, so poll your students about which topic to dive into; if no consensus, maybe present a little bit from each topic as time permits.

- Representation
- Representation Mini Lecture 8 min
- Representation WWPD 10 min (No need to cover all of it)
- Tree
- Trees Mini Lecture 5 min
- Tree Sum 5 min
- Double Tree 10 min
- Linked Lists
- Linked Lists Lecture 10 min
- WWPD 10 min
- Skip 5 min
- Skip (no mutate) 10 min
- Has Cycle 10 min

Representation

Representation Overview: __repr__ and __str__

Classes can have "magic methods" that add special built-in syntax features. They start and end with double underscores, such as in __init__. The goal of __str__ is to convert an object to a human-readable string. The __str__ function is helpful for printing objects and giving us information that's more readable than __repr__. Whenever we call print() on an object, it will call the __str__ method of that object and print whatever value the __str__ call returned. However, if a class only defines __repr__ but not __str__, the print() call on an object will print what __repr__ returns instead. For example, if we had a Person class with a name instance variable, we can create a __str__ method like this:

```
def __str__(self):
    return "Hello, my name is " + self.name
```

This __str__ method gives us readable information: the person's name. Now, when we call print on a person, the following will happen:

```
>>> p = Person("John Denero")
>>> str(p)
'Hello, my name is John Denero'
>>> print(p)
Hello, my name is John Denero
```

The __repr__ magic method returns the "official" string representation of an object. You can invoke it directly by calling repr (<some object>). However, __repr__ doesn't always return something that is easily readable, that is what __str__ is for. Rather, __repr__ ensures that all information about the object is present in the representation. Specifically, by convention, this should look like a valid Python expression that could be used to recreate an object with the same value. When you ask Python to represent an object in the Python interpreter, it will automatically call repr on that object and then print out the string that repr returns. If we were to continue our Person example from above, let's say that we added a repr method:

```
def __repr__(self):
    return f"Person({self.name})"
    # Note that this returns a string that is exactly the
    # same as the expression we use to construct this object.
```

Then we can write the following code:

```
# Python calls this object's repr function to see what
# to print on the line. Note, Python prints whatever
# result it gets from repr so it removes the quotes
# from the string.
>>> p
Person("John Denero")

# User is invoking the repr function directly.
# Since the function returns a string, its output
# has quotes. In the previous line, Python called
# repr and then printed the value. This line works
# like a regular function call: if a function
# returns a string, output that string with quotes.
>>> repr(p)
'Person("John Denero")'
```

1. **Musician** - What would Python display? Write the result of executing the code and the prompts below. If a function is returned, write "Function". If nothing is returned, write "Nothing". If an error occurs, write "Error".

```
class Musician:
    popularity = 1
    def __init__(self, instrument):
        self.instrument = instrument
    def perform(self):
        print("a rousing " + self.instrument + " performance")
        self.popularity = self.popularity + 2
    def __repr__(self):
        return f'Musician({self.instrument})'
    def __str__(self):
        return self.instrument
class BandLeader(Musician):
    def init (self):
        self.band = []
    def recruit(self, musician):
        self.band.append(musician)
    def perform(self, song):
        for m in self.band:
            m.perform()
        # Musician.popularity += 1
        print (song)
    def ___str___(self):
        band = ""
        for m in self.band:
            band += str(m) + ", "
        return band[:-2] + " - here's the band!"
miles = Musician("trumpet")
goodman = Musician("clarinet")
ellington = BandLeader()
```

Some Quick Refreshers

Defining attributes: Instance attributes are defined with the self.attr_name notation (usually in __init__ but could be elsewhere like in this problem). Class attributes are defined outside of methods in the body of the class definition, like the variable popularity in the class Musician.

Accessing attributes: Instance attributes are referred to using self.attr_name Class attributes can be referred to using classname.attr_name or self. attr_name (Note: using the latter will only work if there are no instance attributes bound with the name attr_name).

Before running any of the code below, miles and goodman are set to the musicians created as a result of calling the __init__ constructor method in Musician. ellington uses BandLeader's __init__ method, since BandLeader is the subclass and has __init__ defined.

```
>>> ellington.recruit(goodman)
>>> ellington.perform()
```

Error

ellington.recruit (goodman) adds goodman to the end of ellington's instance attribute, band. Then, ellington checks its class (BandLeader) for the perform() method. But this perform() is expecting an argument, so this errors.

```
>>> ellington.perform("sing, sing, sing")
```

a rousing clarinet performance sing, sing, sing

Using the same perform() method, now providing the correct number of arguments. First, going through the band list, goodman calls its perform() method, which is defined in Musician. Here, we print "a rousing" + goodman's instrument + "performance", and then goodman's self.popularity = self.popularity + 2 happens. The self.popularity on the right of the equal sign is Musician.popularity because goodman doesn't have its own instance attribute named popularity yet; then it becomes self.popularity = 1 + 2, and this creates the instance attribute popularity for goodman. Then Musician.popularity, the class attribute, in incremented by 1.

```
>>> goodman.popularity, miles.popularity
(3,1)
```

First, we try to get the value of goodman.popularity. In our environment diagram, we see that goodman has the instance variable popularity already defined. Therefore, we get that value, 3, back. Then, we try to access miles.popularity. In this case, miles doesn't have a popularity instance variable defined, so we default to the class variable. There, we see it defined as 1, so we get that value. Finally, since commas in Python define a tuple, we return the two values as (3, 1).

```
>>> ellington.recruit (miles)
>>> ellington.perform("caravan")
a rousing clarinet performance
a rousing trumpet performance
caravan
```

First, we call ellington.recruit (miles). This appends miles to ellington 's instance variable, band. After that, we call ellington.perform("caravan"). Similar to the previous call on perform, we will loop through all of the values in ellington.band, calling their perform methods in order. This causes the first two lines to be printed. Lastly, we print the song variable that was passed in, completing the last line.

```
>>> ellington.popularity, goodman.popularity, miles.popularity (1,5,3)
```

```
>>> print (ellington)
```

clarinet, trumpet - here's the band!

print() expects the string representation of ellington, which is given by calling
the __str__() method of ellington. ellington checks to see if BandLeader
has a __str__() method, which it does. Inside the for loop, we ask for the string
representation for the musicians in this band, and concatenate them together, separated by a comma and a whitespace. The string slicing band[:-2] serves to remove
the comma and space following the last musician. Finally, print (ellington) then
becomes print("clarinet, trumpet - here's the band!").

>>> miles

Musician(trumpet)

When prompting for miles's value, we return the representation of ellington given by __repr__(). So, we call Musician's __repr__() method.

- For the error, it's important to make sure your students realize that BandLeader overrides Musician's perform function, and therefore a function call without the correct number of parameters in the new function will not work.
- Clarify to students the difference between __str__ and __repr__, especially that **print** implicitly calls __str__ and __repr__.
 - Another nuance to this which may confuse students is the __repr__ method in BandLeader, which calls str on all Musicians in the band. Since the Musician class does not have a defined __str__ method, it defaults to the defined __repr__ method.
- The main challenge with this problem is distinctly identifying the class and instance variables and modifying both separately.
 - In particular, every Musician begins with a class variable popularity. However, after the first call to perform, a new instance variable self.popularity is created, which begins with the value Musician.popularity + 2.
 - After this first call to a Musician's perform, successive calls will increment the respective instance variable by 2.
 - Calling a BandLeader's perform function will increment the class variable Musician.popularity, which will raise the starting popularities of any new Musicians after their initial performances.
 - Ensure that students understand the interplay between the popularity class and instance variable.

2 Mutable Trees

For the following problems, use this definition for the Tree class:

```
class Tree:
    def __init__(self, label, branches=[]):
        self.label = label
        self.branches = list(branches)

def is_leaf(self):
        return not self.branches

def __repr__(self):
        if self.branches:
            branch_str = ', ' + repr(self.branches)
        else:
            branch_str = ''
        return 'Tree({0}{1})'.format(self.label, branch_str)
```

• The constructor constructs and returns a new instance of Tree

```
t = Tree(1) #creates a Tree instance with label 1 and no branches
```

• The label and branches are variables, and is_leaf() is a method of the class.

```
t.label #returns the label of the tree
t.branches #returns the branches of the tree, which is a list
of trees
t.is_leaf() #returns True if the tree is a leaf
```

A tree object is mutable

To modify a Tree object, simply reassign its attributes. For example, t.label = 2.

This means we can mutate values in the tree object instead of making a new tree that we return. In other words, we can solve tree class problems non-destructively and destructively.

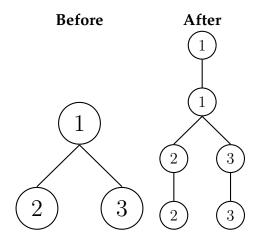
1. Implement tree_sum which takes in a Tree object and replaces the label of the tree with the sum of all the values in the tree. tree_sum should also return the new label.

```
def tree_sum(t):
    """
    >>> t = Tree(1, [Tree(2, [Tree(3)]), Tree(4)])
    >>> tree_sum(t)
    10
    >>> t.label
    10
    >>> t.branches[0].label
    5
    >>> t.branches[1].label
    4
    """

for b in t.branches:
        t.label += tree_sum(b)
    return t.label
```

- Make sure students understand why an explicit is leaf() base case is unnecessary. If the function is called on a leaf, the for loop does not run, and it simply returns the label.
- The recursion occurs as part of the expression updating the label, which may confuse students at first. Explain how the returning of the label makes this work.
 - It may also help to show how the code would be written without tree_sum(b) on the right hand side of the expression to make the recursion clearer.
- Consider first drawing the Tree out and running through a doctest, showing how
 you would sum the labels in subtrees first before updating the root label.

2. DoubleTree hired you to architect one of their hotel expansions! As you might expect, their floor plan can be modeled as a tree and the expansion plan requires doubling each node (the patented double tree floor plan). Here's what some sample expansions look like:



Fill in the implementation for double_tree.

```
def double_tree(t):
    Given a tree, return a new tree where entries appear
    twice.
    >>> double_tree(Tree(1))
    Tree(1, [Tree(1)])
    >>> double_tree(Tree(1, [Tree(2), Tree(3)]))
    Tree(1, [Tree(1, [Tree(2, [Tree(2)]),
                       Tree(3, [Tree(3)])
                      ])
            ])
    11 11 11
    if t.is_leaf():
        return Tree(t.label, [Tree(t.label)])
    else:
        dbl_branches = [double_tree(c) for c in t.branches]
        return Tree (t.label,
                     [Tree(t.label, dbl_branches)])
```

3 Linked Lists

Linked lists consists of a series of links which have two attributes: first and rest. The first attribute contains the value of the link (which can be an integer, string, list, even another linked list!). The rest attribute, on the other hand, is a pointer to another link or Link.empty, which is just an empty linked list represented traditionally by an empty tuple (but not necessarily, so never assume that it is represented by an empty tuple otherwise you will break an abstraction barrier!).

Because each link contains another link or Link.empty, linked lists lend themselves to recursion (just like trees). Consider the following example, in which we double every value in linked list. We mutate the current link and then recursively double the rest.

However, unlike with trees, we can also solve many linked list questions using iteration. Take the following example where we have written double_values using a while loop instead of using recursion:

Note that unlike Python lists, for a given linked list, we do not know its length immediately by calling **len**(). If we really need its length, we can calculate its manually by iteration or recursion.

- Try to draw box and pointer diagrams.
- Make clear that the pointer *points* to a linked list if we have nested linked lists.
- Try to experiment with going over various ways to mutate and create linked lists.
- We have a great visualizer on https://code.cs61a.org/ where you can call draw(lst) to visualize a list!
- Try using PythonTutor as well!

For each of the following problems, assume linked lists are defined as follows:

```
class Link:
    empty = ()
    def __init__(self, first, rest=empty):
        assert rest is Link.empty or isinstance (rest, Link)
        self.first = first
        self.rest = rest
    def __repr__(self):
        if self.rest is not Link.empty:
            rest_repr = ', ' + repr(self.rest)
        else:
            rest_repr = ''
        return 'Link(' + repr(self.first) + rest_repr + ')'
    def __str__(self):
        string = '<'
        while self.rest is not Link.empty:
            string += str(self.first) + ' '
            self = self.rest
        return string + str(self.first) + '>'
```

To check if a Link is empty, compare it against the class attribute Link.empty:

```
if link is Link.empty:
    print('This linked list is empty!')
```

1. What will Python output? Draw box-and-pointer diagrams to help determine this.

```
>>> a = Link(1, Link(2, Link(3)))
+---+--+ +---+ +---+
| 1 | --|->| 2 | --|->| 3 | / |
+---+--+ +---+ +---+
>>> a.first

1
>>> a.first

1
>>> a.first = 5
+---+--+ +---+ +---+
| 5 | --|->| 2 | --|->| 3 | / |
+---+--+ +---+ +---+
>>> a.first

5
>>> a.rest.first

2
>>> a.rest.rest.rest.rest.first
```

Error: tuple object has no attribute rest (Link.empty has no rest)

- For assignment statements, Python will not print anything but still have them draw out what the linked list will look like
- Note that we are doing mutation here, so we are actually altering the object that was created in the first assignment.
 - Some students may have minimal exposure to mutating objects so try to emphasize this and make it obvious through diagrams.
- For the error, walk-through how to keep track of which rest corresponds to which object in the box and pointer diagram. **Make sure they understand why calling rest a fourth time will give us an error (look back at the class definition)**
 - Abstraction:
 - * our last .rest is set to Link.empty
 - * Link.empty is not a Link objects they do not have a .rest attribute
 - Actual implementation:
 - * our last .rest is set to Link.empty

- * Link.empty is not a Link objects they do not have a .rest attribute
- Reassigning the last .rest to point back at the front always trips students up.
 - Make it clear that a is a pointer that points to the linked list. So we are trying to assign the last rest of a to point at what a points to, which is the beginning of the list. **To test their understanding ask what would be different if we instead had**:
 - * a.rest.rest.rest = a.rest
 - a way to explain the assignment for this problem is to emphasize the "evaluation" of the RHS and the LHS
 - what is the value of a (a pointer). Really emphasize the implications of pointers here.
 - where are we putting a into? (the box that represents a.rest.rest.rest)
 - same for a.rest.rest.rest = a.rest. what is the value of a.rest? (still a pointer!)
 - Mention that this creates a cycle in the list

2. Write a function skip, which takes in a Link and returns a new Link with every other element skipped.

Base cases:

- When the linked list is empty, we want to return a new Link.empty.
- If there is only one element in the linked list (aka the next element is empty), we want to return a new linked list with that single element.

Recursive case:

All other longer linked lists can be reduced down to either a single element or empty linked list depending on whether it has odd or even length. Therefore, we want to keep the first element, and recurse on the element after the next (skipping the immediate next element with lst.rest.rest). To build a new linked list, we can add new links to the end of the linked list by calling skip recursively inside the rest argument of the Link constructor.

- Walk through what we want to do by looking at an example box-and-pointer diagram first.
- Make sure they understand, in English, what we are trying to do.
- If students are struggling, have them think about what we can change (pointers), since we can't make new Link objects
 - Specifically, compare the pointers in the original list to the ones in the output list.
 - Think about how you could modify the original pointers.

3. Now write function skip by mutating the original list, instead of returning a new list. Do NOT call the Link constructor.

```
def skip(lst):
    """
    >>> a = Link(1, Link(2, Link(3, Link(4))))
    >>> skip(a)
    >>> a
    Link(1, Link(3))
    """

def skip(lst): # Recursively
    if lst is Link.empty or lst.rest is Link.empty:
        return
    lst.rest = lst.rest.rest
    skip(lst.rest)

def skip(lst): # Iteratively
    while lst is not Link.empty and lst.rest is not Link.empty
    :
        lst.rest = lst.rest.rest
    lst = lst.rest
```

Because this problem is mutative, we should never be creating a new list - we should never have Link(x), or the creation of a new Link instance, anywhere in our code! Instead, we'll be reassigning lst.rest.

In order to skip a node, we can assign lst.rest = lst.rest.rest. If we have lst assigned to a link list that looks like the following:

```
1 -> 2 -> 3 -> 4 -> 5
```

Setting lst.rest = lst.rest.rest will take the arrow that points form 1 to 2 and change it to point from 1 to 3. We can see this by evaluating lst.rest.rest.lst.rest is the arrow that comes from 1, and lst.rest.rest is the link with 3.

Once we've created the following list:

```
1 -> 3 -> 4 -> 5
```

we just need to call skip on the rest of the list. If we call skip on the list that starts at 3, we'll skip over the link with 4 and set the pointer from 3 to point to the link with 5. This is the behavior that we want! Therefore, our recursive call is skip (lst.rest), since lst.rest is now the link that contains 3.

- Make sure they understand when we are mutating and when we are creating a new linked list
- Draw box-and-pointer diagrams!
- Look for "patterns" or repeated work while you work with your box-and-pointer diagram that you can abstract away with your recursive call.
- Sometimes it is easier to write the recursive call before doing the base cases
- I usually write the recursive call and then see what could "break"
 - If we access lst.first at any point, we have to make sure that lst exists
 - If we access lst.rest.rest at any point we have to make sure that lst.rest exists
 - What errors would we get if we didn't ensure these conditions?

4. (Optional) Write has_cycle which takes in a Link and returns True if and only if there is a cycle in the Link. Note that the cycle may start at any node and be of any length. Try writing a solution that keeps track of all the links we've seen. Then try to write a solution that doesn't store those witnessed links (consider using two pointers!).

```
def has_cycle(s):
    11 11 11
    >>> has_cycle(Link.empty)
    >>> a = Link(1, Link(2, Link(3)))
    >>> has_cycle(a)
    False
    >>> a.rest.rest.rest = a
    >>> has_cycle(a)
    True
    11 11 11
    seen_before = []
    while s is not Link.empty:
        if s in seen_before:
            return True
        seen before.append(s)
    return False
    # Alternative solution - less intuitive but more efficient
    if s is Link.empty:
        return False
    slow, fast = s, s.rest
    while fast is not Link.empty:
        if fast.rest is Link.empty:
            return False
        elif fast is slow or fast.rest is slow:
            return True
        slow, fast = slow.rest, fast.rest.rest
    return False
```

- Go through multiple examples of Linked List with cycles alongside examples of Linked Lists without cycles.
- Ask your students what patterns they see for lists that have cycles
- It might take some time for students to come up with the fast and slow pointers solution. A common analogy used is the hare and tortoise analogy for this problem.
- If the slow pointer catches up to the fast pointer, we know a cycle must have occured because the slow pointer should never pass the fast pointer in a non-cycle list.