

# Data structures. ADT.

## Stacks and queues

# Data structures. Abstract data types (ADT)

- **Data structure.** A collection of data values, the relationships among them, and the functions or operations that can be applied to the data
- Data structures serve as the basis for **abstract data types (ADT)**
- **ADT.** Defines the **logical form** of the data type. A mathematical model for data types, where a **data type is defined by its behavior (semantics)** from the **point of view** of a **user** of the data, specifically in terms of possible values, possible operations on data of this type, and the behavior of these operations
- **Data structure.** Defines the **physical form** of the data type. Data structures are concrete representations of data, and are the **point of view** of an **implementer**, not a user

# Data types. Applications programming interface (API)

- **Data types.** A data type is a set of values and a set of operations on those values
- **Abstract data types.** An abstract data type is a data type whose **internal representation is hidden from the client**
- **Applications programming interface (API).** To specify the behavior of an abstract data type, we use an application programming interface (API), which is a list of **constructors** and **instance methods (operations)**

# Separation between interface and implementation

- Definitions:
  - **Client:** program using operations defined in interface
  - **Implementation:** actual code implementing operations
  - **Interface:** description of data type, basic operations
- Benefits:
  - Client can't know details of implementation  $\Rightarrow$  client has many implementation from which to choose
  - Implementation can't know details of client needs  $\Rightarrow$  many clients can re-use the same implementation
  - **Design:** creates modular, reusable libraries
  - **Performance:** use optimized implementation where it matters

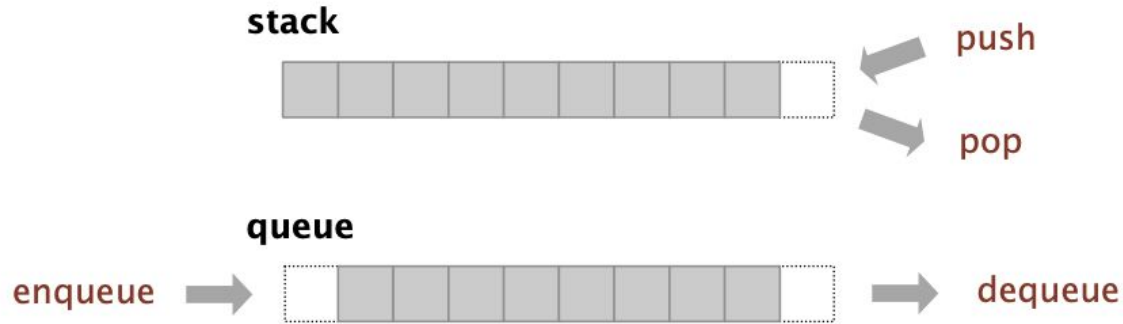
# Example. List in Python

- Non-exhaustive list of methods:
  - append (add single element)
  - extend (add elements from another list to this list)
  - clear (remove all elements)
  - index (find the given element, return its index)
- A user doesn't need to know how the list is implemented
- However:
  - It's important to know and understand the **complexity of operations** (which depends on their implementation and the physical data structure)
  - It might be useful to know the internal implementation to take **memory usage** into account
  - Besides asymptotic complexity, there are other factors that impact performance and stem from the implementation internals: constant time, whether elements are stored contiguously or there is a need to follow links (pointers), etc.

# Stacks and queues

- Both are **collections of objects**
- Support a pretty standard set of operations: insert, remove, iterate over values, check size / if empty, etc.
- Insertion is the same for both
- The difference is in how elements are removed

# Stacks and queues



- **Stack.** Examine the item most recently added (**LIFO** = “last in first out”)
- **Queue.** Examine the item least recently added (**FIFO** = “first in first out”)

# Stack implementation (backed by linked list)

- Start with defining the general structure
- The stack would contain instances of *Node*
- *Node* contains: 1) reference to *data* value; 2) reference to the *next Node*
- Stack only points to the current *head* element (of type *Node*)

```
class Node:
    def __init__(self, data):
        self.data = data
        self.next = None

class Stack:
    def __init__(self):
        self.head = None

    def is_empty(self):
        return self.head is None
```



# Adding and removing elements

- **Push (insert):** create new *Node* that points to the current *head* (since the new *Node* is on top of the stack), and reassign the *head* reference to point to this new *Node*
- **Pop (remove from the top of the stack):** save the *Node* we're removing, reassign the *head* to point to the next element, and return *data* contained in the *Node* we remove

```
def push(self, data):  
    new_node = Node(data)  
    new_node.next = self.head  
    self.head = new_node  
  
def pop(self):  
    if self.is_empty():  
        return None  
  
    popped_node = self.head  
    self.head = self.head.next  
    popped_node.next = None  
    return popped_node.data
```

# Convert the stack to string

- Useful for debugging
- Implementation: iterate until we find the last element (by following *next* references), and add every data value we find to the result string
- **Note the method naming:** in Python, methods that start and end with two underscores are called dunder (“double under (scores)”) or “magic” methods

```
def __str__(self):  
    if self.is_empty():  
        return '[]'  
  
    current_node = self.head  
    string = ''  
    while current_node is not None:  
        if string:  
            string += ', '  
        else:  
            string += '['  
        string += str(current_node.data)  
        current_node = current_node.next  
    string += ']'  
    return string
```

# Dunder methods

- These methods let you emulate the behavior of built-in types with a special calling convention. However, these are just normal methods
- Example:
  - You have a class *MyObject* and it contains a constructor (`__init__` method) that receives a single argument
  - An instance of this class can be created as follows: *MyObject*(123)
  - Actually, this call is “translated” to *MyObject.\_\_init\_\_(123)* (you can call it this way as well)
  - Similarly, when you get the length of a collection (*len(my\_collection)*), the `__len__` dunder method gets invoked
  - Whenever an instance of an object that implements `__str__` gets passed to a method that expects a string (like *print(my\_object)*), the dunder method `__str__` gets invoked

# Let's use this stack

```
stack = Stack()
```

```
stack.push(11)
```

```
stack.push(22)
```

```
stack.push(33)
```

```
stack.push(44)
```

```
print(stack)  # outputs [44, 33, 22, 11]
```

```
stack.pop() # returns 44
```

```
stack.pop() # returns 33
```

```
print(stack)  # outputs [22, 11]
```

# Something is missing

With a built-in list, we can do this:

```
l = [1, 2, 3]
print(len(l)) # outputs 3
for value in l:
    # outputs 'Value: 1' and so on
    print(f'Value: {value}')
```

This doesn't work with our stack:

```
print(len(stack)) # throws TypeError: object of type 'Stack' has no len()
for value in stack: # throws TypeError: 'Stack' object is not iterable
    print(f'Value: {value}')
```

# Let's implement `__len__`

```
# inside Stack class
def __len__(self):
    length = 0
    current_node = self.head
    while current_node is not None:
        length += 1
        current_node = current_node.next
    return length
```

Now we can do `print(len(stack))`

# Let's implement iterator

*# inside Stack class*

**class** StackIterator:

**def** *\_\_init\_\_*(self, head):  
        self.current\_node = head

**def** *\_\_next\_\_*(self):  
        **if** self.current\_node **is** None:  
            **raise** StopIteration

        value = self.current\_node.data  
        self.current\_node = self.current\_node.next  
        **return** value

**def** *\_\_iter\_\_*(self):  
    **return** self.StackIterator(self.head)

**for** value **in** stack:  
    **print**(f'**Value:** {value}')

This works now as well

# Complexity

Operation	Complexity
construct	$O(1)$
push	$O(1)$
pop	$O(1)$
size	$O(n)$
iterate	$O(n)$



# Array-backed stack

- This implementation uses the built-in Python list
- Python list is a dynamic array (meaning it resizes automatically)
- In this code, we've used the available methods (append and pop) to implement the logic we need
- However, using (almost) readily available code is of no interest to us as we aim to understand the internals

```
class Stack:
    def __init__(self):
        self.items = list()

    def push(self, item):
        self.items.append(item)

    def pop(self):
        return self.items.pop()

    def __len__(self):
        return len(self.items)
```

# Array-backed stack

- We'll use the array from **numpy** library instead
- numpy is a widely used library for numerical computing
- Can be installed as follows (in terminal): *pip install numpy*
- It contains highly optimized data structures and methods for linear algebra and other mathematical operations
- numpy arrays are **fixed size** and conceptually similar to the ones in C programming language

# Let's start

- Here we import the **numpy** library, assigning it **np** alias (for brevity)
- In constructor, we create an empty (filled with *None*) numpy array with a capacity for 1 element
- *n* contains the current number of elements in this stack

```
import numpy as np

class ArrayStack:
    def __init__(self):
        self.arr = np.empty(1, dtype=object)
        self.n = 0

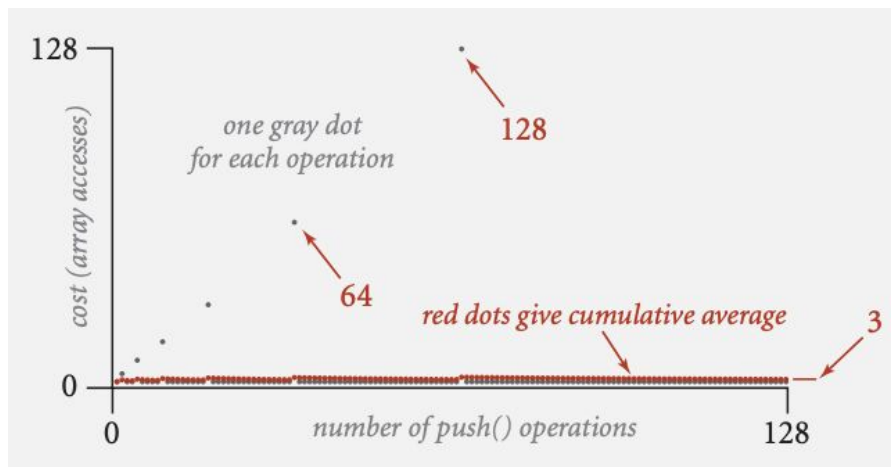
    def __len__(self):
        return self.n
```

# Resizing the array

- We've allocated an array of size 1
- Therefore, we can push one element, and then we'll need to resize this array (that is, increase its size)
- **Resizing operation.** Create a new array with a different size, and then copy the elements from the current array to the new one
- **Resizing is expensive.** If we increase the size of the array by 1 on every push, and decrease the size by 1 on every pop, it would be very slow:  
inserting first  $N$  items would take time proportional to  $1 + 2 + \dots + N \sim N^2 / 2$
- Hence we need to ensure that resizing happens infrequently

# Growing array

- If array is full, create a new array of twice the size, and copy items
- As a result, inserting first  $N$  items takes time proportional to  $N$  (not  $N^2$ )
- Cost of inserting first  $N$  items:  $N$  (1 array access per push) + <cost for doubling the size> =  $N + (2 + 4 + 8 + \dots + N) \sim 3N$



# Shrinking array

- We could halve size of array when its 50% full
- **Worst case:**
  - Push-pop-push-pop-... sequence when array is full
  - Each operation takes time proportional to N
- **Solution: halve size when array is 25% full**
- **Invariant.** Array is between 25% and 100% full

N = 5	to	be	or	not	to	null	null	null
N = 4	to	be	or	not				
N = 5	to	be	or	not	to	null	null	null
N = 4	to	be	or	not				

# push/pop implementation

- Use n for indexing and keeping track of the current number of elements in the stack
- Grow/shrink to maintain the invariant: keep array between 25% and 100% full

```
def push(self, data):  
    if self.n == len(self.arry):  
        self.resize(2 * len(self.arry))  
    self.arry[self.n] = data  
    self.n += 1  
  
def pop(self):  
    if self.n == 0:  
        return None  
  
    self.n -= 1  
    data = self.arry[self.n]  
    self.arry[self.n] = None  
    if self.n > 0 and self.n == len(self.arry) / 4:  
        self.resize(int(len(self.arry) / 2))  
    return data
```

# resize implementation

- Create a new array with the given capacity
- Copy elements from the old array to the new one
- Reassign the field

```
def resize(self, capacity):  
    new_arr = np.empty(capacity, dtype=object)  
    i = 0  
    while i < self.n:  
        new_arr[i] = self.arr[i]  
        i += 1  
    self.arr = new_arr
```



# Complexity

- **Amortized analysis.** Average running time per operation over a worst-case sequence of operations
- $O(n)$  operations in the table below correspond to doubling and halving operations

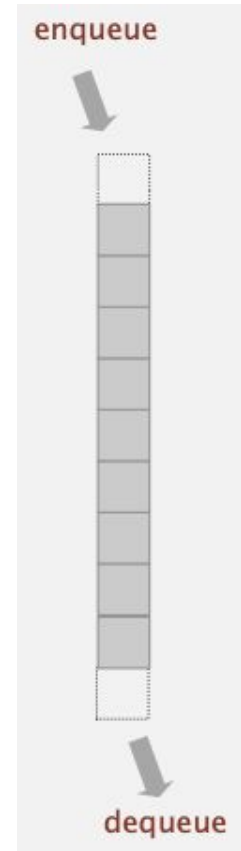
	best	worst	amortized
construct	$O(1)$	$O(1)$	$O(1)$
push	$O(1)$	$O(n)$	$O(1)$
pop	$O(1)$	$O(n)$	$O(1)$
size	$O(1)$	$O(1)$	$O(1)$

# Resizing array vs. linked list

- Our API consists of a set of operations that a client can use: *push*, *pop*, `__len__`, and so on
- The semantics of these methods don't depend on implementation details
- Can thus choose any implementation strategy
- **Linked list implementation:**
  - push/pop operations take **constant time in the worst case**
  - In practice, slightly slower and requires more memory (because of the need to store and deal with the references)
- **Array-based implementation:**
  - push/pop operations take **constant amortized time**
  - Usually faster in practice

# Queue

- Queue implementation is very similar to stack
- We'll only look at the one based on linked list
- Queue can also be implemented using resizable array



# General structure

- Note that we now need two references:  
*head* and *tail*
- *head* points to the least recently added element, therefore the one that should be removed first
- Similarly, *tail* points to the most recently added element, to be removed last

```
class Queue:
    def __init__(self):
        self.head = None
        self.tail = None

    def is_empty(self):
        return self.head is None
```

# enqueue/dequeue

- Very similar to stack, except for the two cases where we can whether the queue is empty
- These checks are needed to handle *head* and *tail* references properly

```
def enqueue(self, data):  
    old_tail = self.tail  
    self.tail = Node(data)  
    if self.is_empty():  
        self.head = self.tail  
    else:  
        old_tail.next = self.tail
```

```
def dequeue(self):  
    if self.is_empty():  
        return None  
  
    head_node = self.head  
    self.head = self.head.next  
    if self.is_empty():  
        self.tail = None  
    return head_node.data
```

# Array-backed queue

Use array `arr[]` to store items in queue.

- *enqueue()*: add new item at *arr[tail]*
- *dequeue()*: remove item from *arr[head]*
- Update *head* and *tail* modulo the capacity



# Applications

- **Queue:**

- Breadth-first search in graphs
- Synchronization for input/output
- Mostly used for queueing requests (servers, other data processing systems)

- **Stack:**

- Parsing/evaluation of mathematical expressions (example: shunting-yard algorithm)
- Function calls
- Scheduling algorithms
- Depth-first search in graphs
- Can also be used for queueing requests (for example, when the goal is to first process the most recent requests)

# Stack application example

- **Problem.** Given a string containing opening and closing braces, check if it represents a balanced expression or not
- Examples:
  - `{ [ ] { ( ) } }` – balanced
  - `[ { } { } ( ]` – unbalanced
- **Solution:**
  - When an open parentheses is encountered push it onto the stack
  - When closed parenthesis is encountered, match it with the top of stack and pop it
  - If stack is empty at the end, return 'balanced'. Otherwise, the expression is 'unbalanced'



# Balanced expressions. Code

```
def is_expression_balanced(expression):  
    stack = Stack()  
    opening_braces = ["[", "{", "("]  
    closing_braces = ["]", "}", ")"]  
    for char in expression:  
        if char in opening_braces:  
            stack.push(char)  
  
        if char in closing_braces:  
            if stack.is_empty():  
                return False  
  
            top_char = stack.pop()  
            if opening_braces.index(top_char) != closing_braces.index(char):  
                return False  
    return stack.is_empty()
```

```
print(is_expression_balanced('{[]{}()}')) # True  
print(is_expression_balanced('[{}{}]()')) # False  
print(is_expression_balanced('(1+1){[2+4](3+5)}')) # True  
print(is_expression_balanced('(1+1)[{2+4}(3+5)}')) # False
```