

Figure 3.17: A Deque)

```

char_deque.add_rear(ch)

still_equal = True

while char_deque.size() > 1 and still_equal:
    first = char_deque.remove_front()
    last = char_deque.remove_rear()
    if first != last:
        still_equal = False

return still_equal

print (pal_checker("lsdkjfskf"))
print (pal_checker("radar"))

```

---

## 3.7 Lists

Throughout the discussion of basic data structures, we have used Python lists to implement the abstract data types presented. The list is a powerful, yet simple, collection mechanism that provides the programmer with a wide variety of operations. However, not all programming languages include a list collection. In these cases, the notion of a list must be implemented by the programmer.

A list is a collection of items where each item holds a relative position with respect to the others. More specifically, we will refer to this type of list as an unordered list. We can consider the list as having a first item, a second item, a third item, and so on. We can also refer to the beginning of the list (the first item) or the end of the list (the last item). For simplicity we will assume that lists cannot contain duplicate items.

For example, the collection of integers 54, 26, 93, 17, 77, and 31 might represent a simple unordered list of exam scores. Note that we have written them as comma-delimited values,

a common way of showing the list structure. Of course, Python would show this list as [54, 26, 93, 17, 77, 31].

### 3.8 The Unordered List Abstract Data Type

The structure of an unordered list, as described above, is a collection of items where each item holds a relative position with respect to the others. Some possible unordered list operations are given below.

- `List()` creates a new list that is empty. It needs no parameters and returns an empty list.
- `add(item)` adds a new item to the list. It needs the item and returns nothing. Assume the item is not already in the list.
- `remove(item)` removes the item from the list. It needs the item and modifies the list. Assume the item is present in the list.
- `search(item)` searches for the item in the list. It needs the item and returns a boolean value.
- `is_empty()` tests to see whether the list is empty. It needs no parameters and returns a boolean value.
- `size()` returns the number of items in the list. It needs no parameters and returns an integer.
- `append(item)` adds a new item to the end of the list making it the last item in the collection. It needs the item and returns nothing. Assume the item is not already in the list.
- `index(item)` returns the position of item in the list. It needs the item and returns the index. Assume the item is in the list.
- `insert(pos,item)` adds a new item to the list at position pos. It needs the item and returns nothing. Assume the item is not already in the list and there are enough existing items to have position pos.
- `pop()` removes and returns the last item in the list. It needs nothing and returns an item. Assume the list has at least one item.
- `pop(pos)` removes and returns the item at position pos. It needs the position and returns the item. Assume the item is in the list.

### 3.9 Implementing an Unordered List: Linked Lists

In order to implement an unordered list, we will construct what is commonly known as a **linked list**. Recall that we need to be sure that we can maintain the relative positioning of the items. However, there is no requirement that we maintain that positioning in contiguous memory. For example, consider the collection of items shown in Figure 3.18. It appears that these values have been placed randomly. If we can maintain some explicit information in each item, namely



Figure 3.18: Items Not Constrained in Their Physical Placement

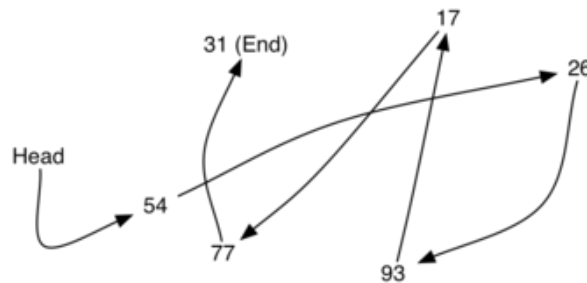


Figure 3.19: Relative Positions Maintained by Explicit Links.

the location of the next item (see Figure 3.19, then the relative position of each item can be expressed by simply following the link from one item to the next.

It is important to note that the location of the first item of the list must be explicitly specified. Once we know where the first item is, the first item can tell us where the second is, and so on. The external reference is often referred to as the head of the list. Similarly, the last item needs to know that there is no next item.

### 3.9.1 The Node Class

The basic building block for the linked list implementation is the **node**. Each node object must hold at least two pieces of information. First, the node must contain the list item itself. We will call this the **data field** of the node. In addition, each node must hold a reference to the next node. To construct a node, you need to supply the initial data value for the node. Evaluating the assignment statement below will yield a node object containing the value 93 (see Figure 3.20). You should note that we will typically represent a node object as shown in Figure 3.21. The Node class also includes the usual methods to access and modify the data and the next reference.

---

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

    def get_data(self):
        return self.data
```

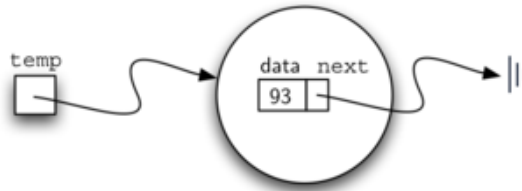


Figure 3.20: A Node Object Contains the Item and a Reference to the Next Node



Figure 3.21: A Typical Representation for a Node.

```
def get_next(self):  
    return self.next  
  
def set_data(self, new_data):  
    self.data = newdata  
  
def set_next(self, new_next):  
    self.next = new_next
```

We create Node objects in the usual way.

```
>>> temp = Node(93)  
>>> temp.get_data()  
93
```

The special Python reference value `None` will play an important role in the Node class and later in the linked list itself. A reference to `None` will denote the fact that there is no next node. Note in the constructor that a node is initially created with `next` set to `None`. Since this is sometimes referred to as “grounding the node,” we will use the standard ground symbol to denote a reference that is referring to `None`. It is always a good idea to explicitly assign `None` to your initial next reference values.

### 3.9.2 The Unordered List Class

As we suggested above, the unordered list will be built from a collection of nodes, each linked to the next by explicit references. As long as we know where to find the first node (containing the first item), each item after that can be found by successively following the next links. With this in mind, the `UnorderedList` class must maintain a reference to the first node. The following code shows the constructor. Note that each list object will maintain a single reference to the head of the list.

```
class UnorderedList:
```

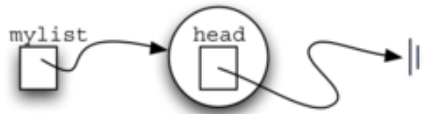


Figure 3.22: An Empty List

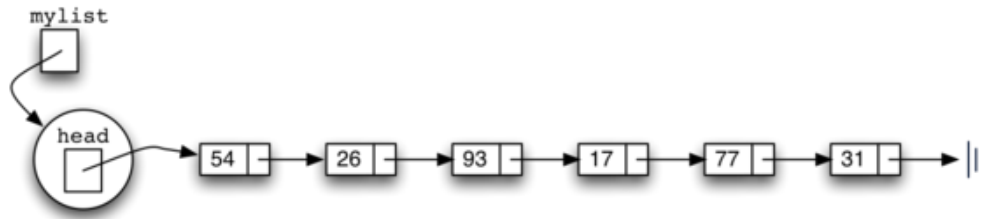


Figure 3.23: Linked List of Integers

```
def __init__(self):
    self.head = None
```

Initially when we construct a list, there are no items. The assignment statement

```
>>> mylist = UnorderedList()
```

creates the linked list representation shown in Figure 3.22. As we discussed in the Node class, the special reference None will again be used to state that the head of the list does not refer to anything. Eventually, the example list given earlier will be represented by a linked list as shown in Figure 3.23. The head of the list refers to the first node which contains the first item of the list. In turn, that node holds a reference to the next node (the next item) and so on. It is very important to note that the list class itself does not contain any node objects. Instead it contains a single reference to only the first node in the linked structure.

The `is_empty` method simply checks to see if the head of the list is a reference to None. The result of the boolean expression `self.head==None` will only be true if there are no nodes in the linked list. Since a new list is empty, the constructor and the check for empty must be consistent with one another. This shows the advantage to using the reference None to denote the “end” of the linked structure. In Python, None can be compared to any reference. Two references are equal if they both refer to the same object. We will use this often in our remaining methods.

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

So, how do we get items into our list? We need to implement the `add` method. However, before we can do that, we need to address the important question of where in the linked list to place the new item. Since this list is unordered, the specific location of the new item with respect to the other items already in the list is not important. The new item can go anywhere. With that in mind, it makes sense to place the new item in the easiest location possible.

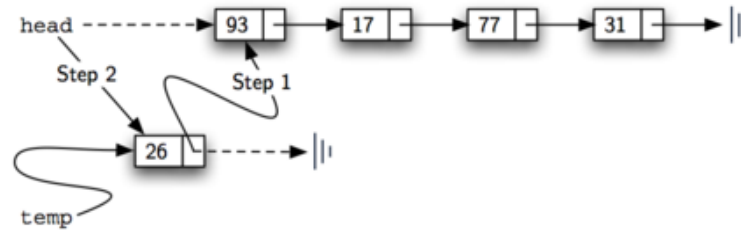


Figure 3.24: Adding a New Node is a Two-Step Process

Recall that the linked list structure provides us with only one entry point, the head of the list. All of the other nodes can only be reached by accessing the first node and then following next links. This means that the easiest place to add the new node is right at the head, or beginning, of the list. In other words, we will make the new item the first item of the list and the existing items will need to be linked to this new first item so that they follow.

The linked list shown in Figure 3.23 was built by calling the add method a number of times.

---

```
>>> mylist.add(31)
>>> mylist.add(77)
>>> mylist.add(17)
>>> mylist.add(93)
>>> mylist.add(26)
>>> mylist.add(54)
```

---

Note that since 31 is the first item added to the list, it will eventually be the last node on the linked list as every other item is added ahead of it. Also, since 54 is the last item added, it will become the data value in the first node of the linked list.

The add method is shown below. Each item of the list must reside in a node object. Line 2 creates a new node and places the item as its data. Now we must complete the process by linking the new node into the existing structure. This requires two steps as shown in Figure 3.24. Step 1 (line 3) changes the next reference of the new node to refer to the old first node of the list. Now that the rest of the list has been properly attached to the new node, we can modify the head of the list to refer to the new node. The assignment statement in line 4 sets the head of the list.

The order of the two steps described above is very important. What happens if the order of line 3 and line 4 is reversed? If the modification of the head of the list happens first, the result can be seen in Figure 3.25. Since the head was the only external reference to the list nodes, all of the original nodes are lost and can no longer be accessed.

---

```
def add(self, item):
    temp = Node(item)
    temp.set_next(self.head)
    self.head = temp
```

---

The next methods that we will implement—size, search, and remove—are all based on a technique known as linked list traversal. Traversal refers to the process of systematically visiting each

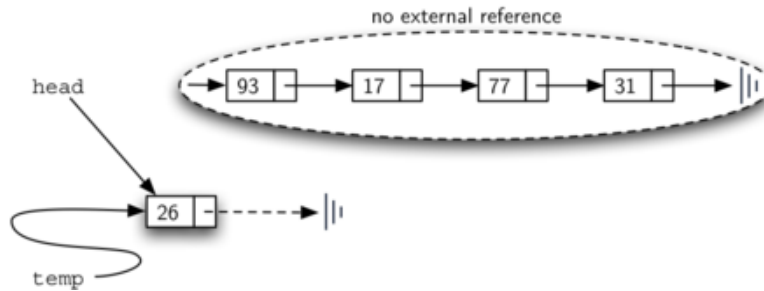


Figure 3.25: Result of Reversing the Order of the Two Steps.

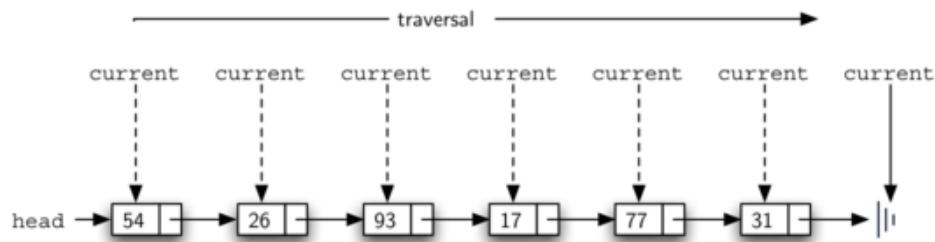


Figure 3.26: Traversing the Linked List from the Head to the End.

node. To do this we use an external reference that starts at the first node in the list. As we visit each node, we move the reference to the next node by “traversing” the next reference.

To implement the size method, we need to traverse the linked list and keep a count of the number of nodes that occurred. Below we show the Python code for counting the number of nodes in the list. The external reference is called `current` and is initialized to the head of the list in line 2. At the start of the process we have not seen any nodes so the count is set to 0. Lines 4–6 actually implement the traversal. As long as the `current` reference has not seen the end of the list (`None`), we move `current` along to the next node via the assignment statement in line 6. Again, the ability to compare a reference to `None` is very useful. Every time `current` moves to a new node, we add 1 to count. Finally, count gets returned after the iteration stops. Figure 3.26 shows this process as it proceeds down the list.

---

```
def size(self):
    current = self.head
    count = 0
    while current != None:
        count = count + 1
        current = current.get_next()

    return count
```

---

Searching for a value in a linked list implementation of an unordered list also uses the traversal technique. As we visit each node in the linked list we will ask whether the data stored there matches the item we are looking for. In this case, however, we may not have to traverse all the way to the end of the list. In fact, if we do get to the end of the list, that means that the item we are looking for must not be present. Also, if we do find the item, there is no need to continue.

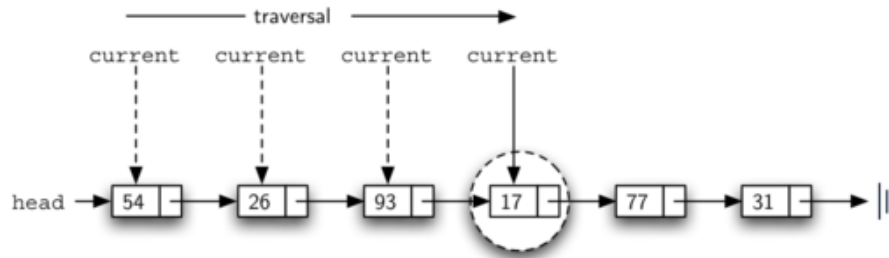


Figure 3.27: Successful Search for the Value 17

The code below shows the implementation for the search method. As in the size method, the traversal is initialized to start at the head of the list (line 2). We also use a boolean variable called `found` to remember whether we have located the item we are searching for. Since we have not found the item at the start of the traversal, `found` can be set to `False` (line 3). The iteration in line 4 takes into account both conditions discussed above. As long as there are more nodes to visit and we have not found the item we are looking for, we continue to check the next node. The question in line 5 asks whether the data item is present in the current node. If so, `found` can be set to `True`.

---

```
def search(self, item):
    current = self.head
    found = False
    while current != None and not found:
        if current.get_data() == item:
            found = True
        else:
            current = current.get_next()

    return found
```

---

As an example, consider invoking the search method looking for the item 17.

---

```
>>> mylist.search(17)
True
```

---

Since 17 is in the list, the traversal process needs to move only to the node containing 17. At that point, the variable `found` is set to `True` and the while condition will fail, leading to the return value seen above. This process can be seen in Figure 3.27

The remove method requires two logical steps. First, we need to traverse the list looking for the item we want to remove. Once we find the item (recall that we assume it is present), we must remove it. The first step is very similar to search. Starting with an external reference set to the head of the list, we traverse the links until we discover the item we are looking for. Since we assume that item is present, we know that the iteration will stop before `current` gets to `None`. This means that we can simply use the boolean `found` in the condition.

When `found` becomes `True`, `current` will be a reference to the node containing the item to be removed. But how do we remove it? One possibility would be to replace the value of the



item with some marker that suggests that the item is no longer present. The problem with this approach is the number of nodes will no longer match the number of items. It would be much better to remove the item by removing the entire node.

In order to remove the node containing the item, we need to modify the link in the previous node so that it refers to the node that comes after current. Unfortunately, there is no way to go backward in the linked list. Since current refers to the node ahead of the node where we would like to make the change, it is too late to make the necessary modification.

The solution to this dilemma is to use two external references as we traverse down the linked list. current will behave just as it did before, marking the current location of the traverse. The new reference, which we will call previous, will always travel one node behind current. That way, when current stops at the node to be removed, previous will be referring to the proper place in the linked list for the modification.

The code below shows the complete remove method. Lines 2–3 assign initial values to the two references. Note that current starts out at the list head as in the other traversal examples. previous, however, is assumed to always travel one node behind current. For this reason, previous starts out with a value of None since there is no node before the head (see Figure 3.28). The boolean variable found will again be used to control the iteration.

In lines 6–7 we ask whether the item stored in the current node is the item we wish to remove. If so, found can be set to True. If we do not find the item, previous and current must both be moved one node ahead. Again, the order of these two statements is crucial. previous must first be moved one node ahead to the location of current. At that point, current can be moved. This process is often referred to as “inch-worming” as previous must catch up to current before current moves ahead. Figure 3.29 shows the movement of previous and current as they progress down the list looking for the node containing the value 17.

---

```
1 def remove(self, item):
2     current = self.head
3     previous = None
4     found = False
5     while not found:
6         if current.get_data() == item:
7             found = True
8         else:
9             previous = current
10            current = current.get_next()
11
12    if previous == None:
13        self.head = current.get_next()
14    else:
15        previous.set_next(current.get_next())
```

---

Once the searching step of the remove has been completed, we need to remove the node from the linked list. Figure 3.30 shows the link that must be modified. However, there is a special case that needs to be addressed. If the item to be removed happens to be the first item in the list, then current will reference the first node in the linked list. This also means that previous will be None. We said earlier that previous would be referring to the node whose next reference

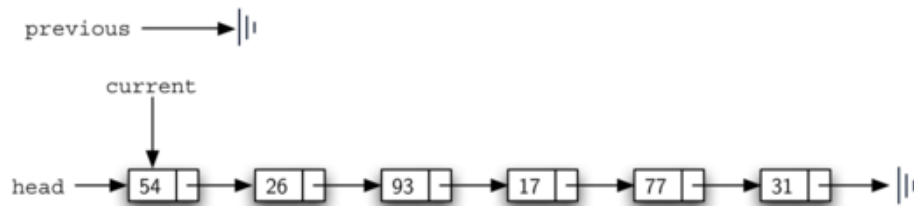


Figure 3.28: Initial Values for the previous and current references

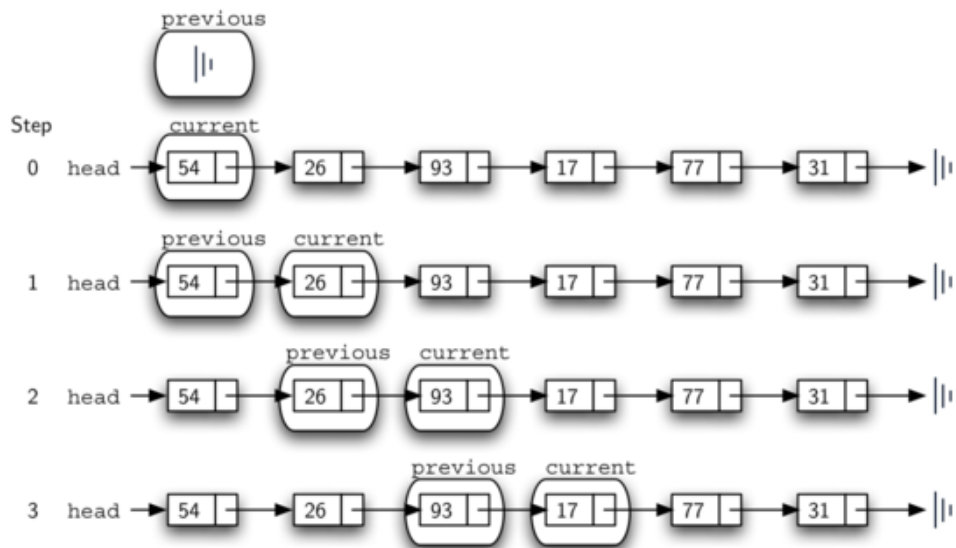


Figure 3.29: previous and current move down the list

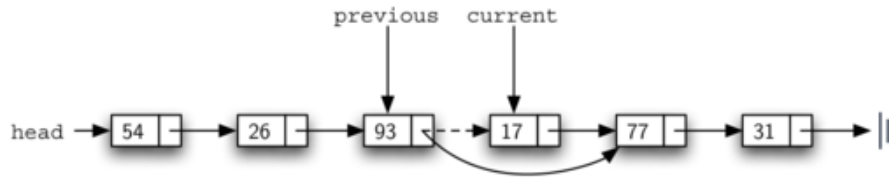


Figure 3.30: Removing an Item from the middle of the list

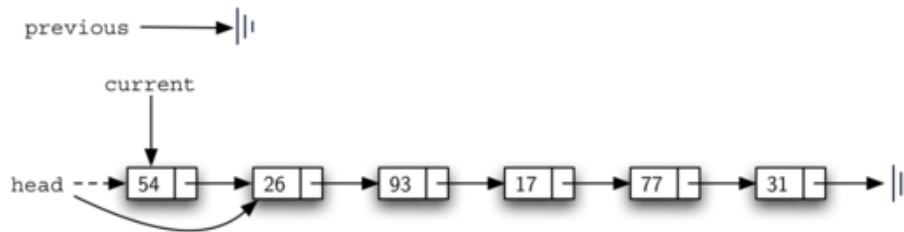


Figure 3.31: Removing the first node from the list

needs to be modified in order to complete the remove. In this case, it is not previous but rather the head of the list that needs to be changed (see Figure 3.31)

Line 12 allows us to check whether we are dealing with the special case described above. If previous did not move, it will still have the value None when the boolean found becomes True. In that case (line 13) the head of the list is modified to refer to the node after the current node, in effect removing the first node from the linked list. However, if previous is not None, the node to be removed is somewhere down the linked list structure. In this case the previous reference is providing us with the node whose next reference must be changed. Line 15 uses the set\_next method from previous to accomplish the removal. Note that in both cases the destination of the reference change is current.get\_next(). One question that often arises is whether the two cases shown here will also handle the situation where the item to be removed is in the last node of the linked list. We leave that for you to consider.

The remaining methods append, insert, index, and pop are left as exercises. Remember that each of these must take into account whether the change is taking place at the head of the list or someplace else. Also, insert, index, and pop require that we name the positions of the list. We will assume that position names are integers starting with 0.

### Self Check

Implement the append method for UnorderedList. What is the time complexity of the method you created? It was most likely  $O(n)$ . If you add an instance variable to the UnorderedList class you can create an append method that is  $O(1)$ . Modify your append to be  $O(1)$ . Be careful! To really do this correctly you will need to consider a couple of special cases that may require you to make a modification to the add method as well.



Figure 3.32: An Ordered Linked List

## 3.10 The Ordered List Abstract Data Type

We will now consider a type of list known as an ordered list. For example, if the list of integers shown above were an ordered list (ascending order), then it could be written as 17, 26, 31, 54, 77, and 93. Since 17 is the smallest item, it occupies the first position in the list. Likewise, since 93 is the largest, it occupies the last position.

The structure of an ordered list is a collection of items where each item holds a relative position that is based upon some underlying characteristic of the item. The ordering is typically either ascending or descending and we assume that list items have a meaningful comparison operation that is already defined. Many of the ordered list operations are the same as those of the unordered list.

- `OrderedList()` creates a new ordered list that is empty. It needs no parameters and returns an empty list.
- `add(item)` adds a new item to the list making sure that the order is preserved. It needs the item and returns nothing. Assume the item is not already in the list.
- `remove(item)` removes the item from the list. It needs the item and modifies the list. Assume the item is present in the list.
- `search(item)` searches for the item in the list. It needs the item and returns a boolean value.
- `is_empty()` tests to see whether the list is empty. It needs no parameters and returns a boolean value.
- `size()` returns the number of items in the list. It needs no parameters and returns an integer.
- `index(item)` returns the position of item in the list. It needs the item and returns the index. Assume the item is in the list.
- `pop()` removes and returns the last item in the list. It needs nothing and returns an item. Assume the list has at least one item.
- `pop(pos)` removes and returns the item at position `pos`. It needs the position and returns the item. Assume the item is in the list.

### 3.10.1 Implementing an Ordered List

In order to implement the ordered list, we must remember that the relative positions of the items are based on some underlying characteristic. The ordered list of integers given above (17, 26, 31, 54, 77, and 93) can be represented by a linked structure as shown in Figure 3.32. Again, the node and link structure is ideal for representing the relative positioning of the items.

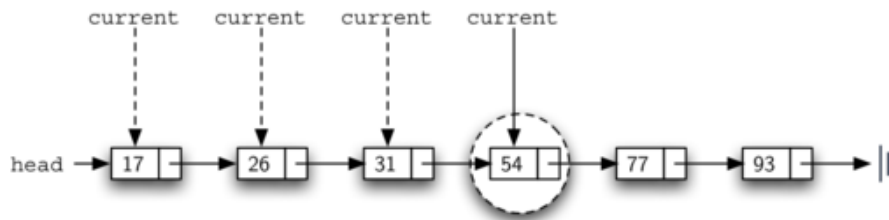


Figure 3.33: Searching an Ordered Linked List

To implement the `OrderedList` class, we will use the same technique as seen previously with unordered lists. Once again, an empty list will be denoted by a head reference to `None`.

---

```

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

---

As we consider the operations for the ordered list, we should note that the `is_empty` and `size` methods can be implemented the same as with unordered lists since they deal only with the number of nodes in the list without regard to the actual item values. Likewise, the `remove` method will work just fine since we still need to find the item and then link around the node to remove it. The two remaining methods, `search` and `add`, will require some modification.

The search of an unordered linked list required that we traverse the nodes one at a time until we either find the item we are looking for or run out of nodes (`None`). It turns out that the same approach would actually work with the ordered list and in fact in the case where we find the item it is exactly what we need. However, in the case where the item is not in the list, we can take advantage of the ordering to stop the search as soon as possible.

For example, Figure 3.33 shows the ordered linked list as a search is looking for the value 45. As we traverse, starting at the head of the list, we first compare against 17. Since 17 is not the item we are looking for, we move to the next node, in this case 26. Again, this is not what we want, so we move on to 31 and then on to 54. Now, at this point, something is different. Since 54 is not the item we are looking for, our former strategy would be to move forward. However, due to the fact that this is an ordered list, that will not be necessary. Once the value in the node becomes greater than the item we are searching for, the search can stop and return `False`. There is no way the item could exist further out in the linked list.

The following code shows the complete search method. It is easy to incorporate the new condition discussed above by adding another boolean variable, `stop`, and initializing it to `False` (line 4). While `stop` is `False` (not stop) we can continue to look forward in the list (line 5). If any node is ever discovered that contains data greater than the item we are looking for, we will set `stop` to `True` (lines 9 – 10). The remaining lines are identical to the unordered list search.

---

```

1 def search(self, item):
2     current = self.head
3     found = False
4     stop = False
5     while current != None and not found and not stop:
    
```

---

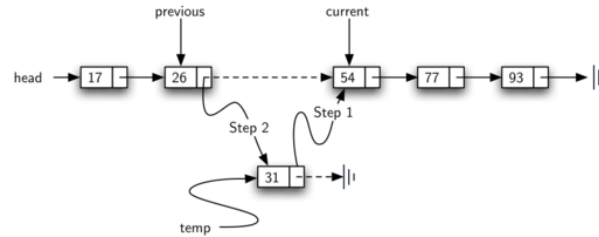


Figure 3.34: Adding an Item to an Ordered Linked List

```

6     if current.get_data() == item:
7         found = True
8     else:
9         if current.get_data() > item:
10            stop = True
11        else:
12            current = current.get_next()
13
14    return found
    
```

The most significant method modification will take place in `add`. Recall that for unordered lists, the `add` method could simply place a new node at the head of the list. It was the easiest point of access. Unfortunately, this will no longer work with ordered lists. It is now necessary that we discover the specific place where a new item belongs in the existing ordered list.

Assume we have the ordered list consisting of 17, 26, 54, 77, and 93 and we want to add the value 31. The `add` method must decide that the new item belongs between 26 and 54. Figure 3.34 shows the setup that we need. As we explained earlier, we need to traverse the linked list looking for the place where the new node will be added. We know we have found that place when either we run out of nodes (`current` becomes `None`) or the value of the `current` node becomes greater than the item we wish to add. In our example, seeing the value 54 causes us to stop.

As we saw with unordered lists, it is necessary to have an additional reference, again called `previous`, since `current` will not provide access to the node that must be modified. The below code shows the complete `add` method. Lines 2 – 3 set up the two external references and lines 9 – 10 again allow `previous` to follow one node behind `current` every time through the iteration. The condition (line 5) allows the iteration to continue as long as there are more nodes and the value in the `current` node is not larger than the item. In either case, when the iteration fails, we have found the location for the new node.

The remainder of the method completes the two-step process shown in Figure 3.34. Once a new node has been created for the item, the only remaining question is whether the new node will be added at the beginning of the linked list or some place in the middle. Again, `previous == None` (line 13) can be used to provide the answer.

```

1    def add(self, item):
2        current = self.head
3        previous = None
4        stop = False
    
```

```

5     while current != None and not stop:
6         if current.get_data() > item:
7             stop = True
8         else:
9             previous = current
10            current = current.get_next()
11
12    temp = Node(item)
13    if previous == None:
14        temp.set_next(self.head)
15        self.head = temp
16    else:
17        temp.set_next(current)
18        previous.set_next(temp)

```

---

### 3.10.2 Analysis of Linked Lists

To analyze the complexity of the linked list operations, we need to consider whether they require traversal. Consider a linked list that has  $n$  nodes. The `is_empty` method is  $O(1)$  since it requires one step to check the head reference for `None`. `size`, on the other hand, will always require  $n$  steps since there is no way to know how many nodes are in the linked list without traversing from head to end. Therefore, `length` is  $O(n)$ . Adding an item to an unordered list will always be  $O(1)$  since we simply place the new node at the head of the linked list. However, `search` and `remove`, as well as `add` for an ordered list, all require the traversal process. Although on average they may need to traverse only half of the nodes, these methods are all  $O(n)$  since in the worst case each will process every node in the list.

You may also have noticed that the performance of this implementation differs from the actual performance given earlier for Python lists. This suggests that linked lists are not the way Python lists are implemented. The actual implementation of a Python list is based on the notion of an array. We discuss this in more detail in another chapter.

## 3.11 Summary

- Linear data structures maintain their data in an ordered fashion.
- Stacks are simple data structures that maintain a LIFO, last-in first-out, ordering.
- The fundamental operations for a stack are `push`, `pop`, and `is_empty`.
- Queues are simple data structures that maintain a FIFO, first-in first-out, ordering.
- The fundamental operations for a queue are `enqueue`, `dequeue`, and `is_empty`.
- Prefix, infix, and postfix are all ways to write expressions.
- Stacks are very useful for designing algorithms to evaluate and translate expressions.
- Stacks can provide a reversal characteristic.

- Queues can assist in the construction of timing simulations.
- Simulations use random number generators to create a real-life situation and allow us to answer “what if” types of questions.
- Deques are data structures that allow hybrid behavior like that of stacks and queues.
- The fundamental operations for a deque are `add_front`, `add_rear`, `remove_front`, `remove_rear`, and `is_empty`.
- Lists are collections of items where each item holds a relative position.
- A linked list implementation maintains logical order without requiring physical storage requirements.
- Modification to the head of the linked list is a special case.

### 3.12 Key Terms

balanced parentheses	data field	deque
first-in first-out (FIFO)	fully parenthesized	head
infix	last-in first-out (LIFO)	linear data structure
linked list	linked list traversal	list
node	palindrome	postfix
precedence	prefix	queue
simulation	stack	

### 3.13 Discussion Questions

1. Convert the following values to binary using “divide by 2.” Show the stack of remainders.
  - 17
  - 45
  - 96
2. Convert the following infix expressions to prefix (use full parentheses):
  - $(A + B) * (C + D) * (E + F)$
  - $A + ((B + C) * (D + E))$
  - $A * B * C * D + E + F$
3. Convert the above infix expressions to postfix (use full parentheses).
4. Convert the above infix expressions to postfix using the direct conversion algorithm. Show the stack as the conversion takes place.
5. Evaluate the following postfix expressions. Show the stack as each operand and operator is processed.