Node-Based Structures More on Linked Lists

CS 311 Data Structures and Algorithms Lecture Slides Friday, October 23, 2020

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## Review

- Our problem for most of the rest of the semester:
  - Store: A collection of data items, all of the same type.
  - Operations:
    - Access items [single item: retrieve/find, all items: traverse].
    - Add new item [insert].
    - Eliminate existing item [delete].
  - Time & space efficiency are desirable.

#### A solution to this problem is a **container**.

In a generic container, client code can specify the value type.

#### Unit Overview Data Handling & Sequences

Major Topics	
<ul> <li>Data abstraction</li> </ul>	
<ul> <li>Introduction to Sequences</li> </ul>	
<ul> <li>Interface for a smart array</li> </ul>	)
<ul> <li>Basic array implementation</li> </ul>	
<ul> <li>Exception safety</li> </ul>	Smart Arrays
<ul> <li>Allocation &amp; efficiency</li> </ul>	
<ul> <li>Generic containers</li> </ul>	J
<ul> <li>Node-based structures</li> </ul>	
<ul> <li>More on Linked Lists</li> </ul>	
<ul> <li>Sequences in the C++ STL</li> </ul>	-

- Stacks
- Queues

Originally, our resizable array class had two data members:

- Size
- Pointer to array

This design is inappropriate for a resizable array. It cannot keep track of the amount of extra allocated space, if any. Thus, it must do a **reallocate-and-copy** every time it is resized larger.

The fix is to add an additional data member to hold the **capacity**: the amount of allocated space.

When this is done, the **size** is still the space used by the client's dataset, but it may be smaller than the capacity.



### An operation is **amortized constant-time** if

k consecutive operations require O(k) time.

Thus, over many consecutive operations, the operation averages constant-time.

This is our last efficiency-related terminology.

- Not the same as constant-time average case—which averages over all possible inputs.
- Amortized constant-time is not something we can compare with (say) logarithmic time.

Insert-at-end for a well written smart array is amortized constanttime:

- Store both currently used size and allocated capacity.
- When space runs out, reallocate-and-copy with capacity increased by a constant factor (doubled, for example).

Note. Insert-at-end is still linear time!

When we write a generic container, our value type is specified by the client code. Its member functions may throw. We generally have no idea how to handle these exceptions. Only the client code knows.

A function that allows exceptions thrown by client-provided code to propagate unchanged to the caller, is said to be **exception neutral**.

This is our last exception-related terminology.



## **Node-Based Structures**

Our primary building block for data structures has been the array.



- Items are stored in contiguous memory locations.
- Look-up operations are usually very fast.
- Operations that do rearrangement (insert, delete, etc.) can be slow.

Many data structures are, instead, built out of *nodes*.

 A node is usually a small block of memory that is referenced via a pointer, and which may reference other nodes via pointers.



- Memory-management changes significantly.
- To find a node, follow a chain of pointers. Look-up can be slow.
- Operations that require rearrangement might be very fast.

When we draw pictures of node-based data structures, the positions of nodes in the picture usually have nothing to do with their positions in memory.

For example, if a structure is stored like this ...



... then we might draw it like this:



Think of nodes as resources to be owned & managed.

- Who owns them?
  - It is good to document ownership (here: in the class invariants).
- Internal pointers in a node-based structure are typically owning pointers.
  - A node is typically owned by the node that points to it.
  - A node's destructor typically frees all nodes that it points to.

This can make destroying a node-based structure *easy*.

- Each node is responsible for destroying the nodes it owns.
- To destroy the whole structure, all we need to do is destroy the nodes that are not owned by other nodes.
- And there is often just one of these.

Handling ownership is particularly easy if we use *smart pointers* ...

In 2011, **smart pointer** class templates were added to the C++ Standard Library. These use RAII to handle ownership of dynamic objects automatically.

std::unique\_ptr<T> (<memory>)

- One-owner-at-a-time ownership of a dynamic object of type T.
- The destructor of an owning unique\_ptr destroys the object pointed to.
- Movable but not copyable. Moving transfers ownership.
- std::shared\_ptr<T> (<memory>)
  - Allows shared ownership of a dynamic object of type T.
  - Uses a reference count. Destroys object when the count hits 0.
    - "The last one to leave turns out the lights."
  - Copyable. Copying grants shared ownership.

A default-constructed smart pointer does not point to anything.

unique\_ptr<Foo> unp;

We can pass a pointer returned by new to the constructor of a unique\_ptr/shared\_ptr, which will then do the delete for us.

Foo \* p = new Foo(5, "xy", 3.2); // Do not delete p
unique\_ptr<Foo> unp(p); // unp does the delete

But there is a better way: call make\_unique/make\_shared, passing constructor arguments.

auto unp = make\_unique<Foo>(5, "xy", 3.2);
 // Both new and delete are done for us
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for Foo

constructor.

Dereference a unique\_ptr/shared\_ptr just like a regular pointer.

```
cout << *unp << endl;</pre>
```

The arrow operator is also available.

unp->bar(); // Member function of the referenced object

If you need a regular (non-smart) pointer to the object a unique\_ptr/shared\_ptr points to, call member function get.

```
Foo * p = unp.get();
p->bar();
```

A unique\_ptr/shared\_ptr that does not point to anything is said to be **empty**. This corresponds to a null pointer. Test whether a smart pointer is empty by treating it like a bool.

if (unp) // Is unp nonempty (does it point to anything)?
{
 unp->bar();
}
Similarly, "if (!unp)" checks whether unp is empty.
Unlike with a regular pointer, this test works on a
smart pointer that has not been set to a particular
value—including a default-constructed smart pointer.

Member function reset relinquishes ownership *early* and makes the smart pointer empty. If the referenced object had only one owner, then it is destroyed.

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To transfer ownership, pass or return a unique\_ptr by value. This unique\_ptr must be an Rvalue; std::move may be required.

```
unique_ptr<Foo> makeAFoo()
{
    return make_unique<Foo>(5, "xy", 3.2);
}
```

```
auto unp = makeAFoo();
```

If we are not transferring ownership, then a unique\_ptr should be passed by reference or reference-to-const.

A shared\_ptr may be passed by value arbitrarily. Passing by value shares ownership.

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Programmers have found that shared ownership is rarely needed. It is true that, whenever you might use unique\_ptr, it will also work to use shared\_ptr. On the other hand, using unique\_ptr helps the compiler find bugs for you (and it is more efficient!).

#### Suggestions

- When you want a smart pointer, start by using unique\_ptr and make\_unique.
- Pass a smart pointer by reference or reference-to-const when you do not want to transfer/share ownership.
- If code does not compile because it tries to copy a unique\_ptr:
  - If you want to transfer ownership, then you might simply need to wrap the unique\_ptr in std::move.
  - If you do not want to transfer ownership, then you can call get to obtain a non-owning regular pointer and use that instead.
  - If it turns out that you really need shared ownership, then do a global search/replace: unique → shared

# More on Linked Lists

Earlier, we looked briefly at a simple node-based structure: the Linked List (or Singly Linked List).

• Like an array, a Linked List stores a sequence of data items.

Array



 A Linked List is made of **nodes**. Each has a single data item and a pointer to the next node, or a null pointer at the end of the list.



- These pointers are the only way to find the next item. Unlike with an array, we cannot quickly find (say) the 100,000th item in a Linked List. Nor can we quickly find the previous item.
- A Linked List is a one-way sequential-access structure. So its iterators are forward iterators, which have only the ++ operator.

Why not always use (smart) arrays? One reason: Linked Lists support fast insertion.

Suppose we have a sequence 3, 1, 5, 3, 5, 2.
We wish to insert a 7 before the first 5.
With an array, we move all later items up.
With a Linked List, *if we know the proper location*, insertion is very fast.





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With Linked Lists, we can also do a fast **splice**:



Note that, if we allow for efficient splicing, then we cannot efficiently keep track of a Linked List's size. With Linked Lists, iterators, pointers, and references to items will always stay valid and never change what they refer to, as long as the Linked List exists—unless we remove or change the item referenced.



What is the order of each of the following when using (a) a smartarray implementation of a Sequence, and (b) a Linked-List implementation? Assume good design and good algorithms.

- Look-up an item by index.
- Search in a sorted Sequence.
- Search in an unsorted Sequence.
- Sort a Sequence.
- Insert an item at a given position ("position": think iterator)
- Remove an item at a given position.
- Splice part of one Sequence into another.
- Insert item at the beginning of a Sequence.
- Remove item at the beginning of a Sequence.
- Insert item at the end of a Sequence.
- Remove item at the end of a Sequence.
- Traverse a Sequence (iterate through all items, in order).

What other issues arise when comparing the two data structures?

	Smart Array	Linked List
Look-up by index	<i>O</i> (1)	O(n)
Search sorted	<i>O</i> (log <i>n</i> )	O(n)
Search unsorted	<i>O</i> ( <i>n</i> )	<i>O</i> ( <i>n</i> )
Sort	<i>O</i> ( <i>n</i> log <i>n</i> )	<i>O</i> ( <i>n</i> log <i>n</i> )
Insert @ given pos	<b>O</b> ( <i>n</i> )	<i>O</i> (1)*
Remove @ given pos	O(n)	<i>O</i> (1)*
Splice	O(n)	<i>O</i> (1)
Insert @ beginning	O(n)	<i>O</i> (1)
Remove @ beginning	O(n)	<i>O</i> (1)
Insert @ end	O(n)**	<i>O</i> (1) or <i>O</i> ( <i>n</i> )***
	amortized const	
Remove @ end	<i>O</i> (1)	<i>O</i> (1) or <i>O</i> ( <i>n</i> )***
Traverse	<i>O</i> ( <i>n</i> )	<i>O</i> ( <i>n</i> )

\*For Singly Linked Lists, insert/remove just *after* the given position.

Doubly Linked Lists can help.

\*\*O(1) if no reallocate-and-copy.

• Pre-allocate to ensure this.

\*\*\*For O(1), need a pointer to end of list. Otherwise, O(n).

- This can be tricky.
- And, for remove @ end, it is mostly impossible.
- Doubly Linked Lists can help.

**Find** faster with an array

**Rearrange** faster with a Linked List

#### Other Issues

- ⊗ Linked Lists use **more memory**.
- ③ When order is the same, Linked Lists are almost always **slower**.
- S Arrays keep consecutive items in **nearby memory locations**.
  - Many algorithms have the property that when they access a data item, the following accesses are likely to be to the same or nearby items. This property of an algorithm is called **locality of reference**.
  - Once a memory location is accessed, the CPU cache can prefetch nearby memory locations. With an array, these are likely to hold nearby data items.
  - Because of cache prefetching, an array can have a *significant* speed advantage over a Linked List, when used with an algorithm that has good locality of reference.
- ③ With an array, iterators, pointers, and references to items can be invalidated by reallocation. Also, insert/remove can change the item they reference.

### A Moral for Our Story

- Two kinds of design decisions affect the efficiency of code:
  - Deciding how to process data (algorithms).
  - Deciding how to store data (data structures).
- The latter often has the greater impact.

Very rough guidelines:

- Use arrays when we want fast look-up/search.
- Use Linked Lists when we want fast insert & delete (by iterator).



We have been discussing the **Singly Linked List**.



Recall: in a **Doubly Linked List**, each node has two pointers, next node (null at the end) and previous node (null at the beginning).



A Doubly Linked List typically has an end-of-list pointer. This can be efficiently maintained, resulting in constant-time insert and remove at the end of the list. Doubly Linked Lists have essentially all the advantages of Singly Linked Lists, plus some more.

- An end-of-list pointer can be maintained without trouble.
- They allow efficient insert/remove at both ends of the list.
- They allow efficient insert-before-this-node and remove-this-node.
- They allow efficient reverse iteration.

However, Doubly Linked Lists are a *little* slower.

Constant-time operations remain O(1), but the constant is larger.

The Bottom Line

- Doubly Linked Lists are a good basis for a general-purpose generic container type.
- Singly Linked Lists are more special-purpose (all those asterisks).

#### More on Linked Lists Doubly Linked Lists [3/3]

	Smart Array	<b>Doubly</b> Linked List
Look-up by index	<i>O</i> (1)	<b>O</b> (n)
Search sorted	<i>O</i> (log <i>n</i> )	<b>O</b> (n)
Search unsorted	<i>O</i> ( <i>n</i> )	<i>O</i> ( <i>n</i> )
Sort	<i>O</i> ( <i>n</i> log <i>n</i> )	<i>O</i> ( <i>n</i> log <i>n</i> )
Insert @ given pos	<b>O</b> (n)	<i>O</i> (1)
Remove @ given pos	<b>O</b> (n)	<i>O</i> (1)
Splice	O(n)	<i>O</i> (1)
Insert @ beginning	<b>O</b> (n)	<i>O</i> (1)
Remove @ beginning	<b>O</b> (n)	<i>O</i> (1)
Insert @ end	O(n)*	<i>O</i> (1)
	amortized const	
Remove @ end	<i>O</i> (1)	<i>O</i> (1)
Traverse	<i>O</i> ( <i>n</i> )	<i>O</i> ( <i>n</i> )

With Doubly Linked Lists, we can eliminate asterisks.

\*O(1) if no reallocate-and-copy.

Pre-allocate to ensure this.

**Find** faster with an array

**Rearrange** faster with a Linked List

More on Linked Lists will be continued next time.