Elementary Data Structures: Part 1: Arrays, Lists

CSE 2320 – Algorithms and Data Structures Vassilis Athitsos University of Texas at Arlington

Basic Types

- Types like integers, real numbers, characters. In C:
 - int
 - float
 - char
 - and variations: short, long, double, ...
- Each basic type takes up a fixed amount of memory.
 - E.g: 32 bits for an int, 32 bits for a float, 8 bits for a char.
 - For C, this may vary, but the above values are common.
- Fixed memory implies limits in range, precision.
 - Integers above and below certain values are not allowed.
 - Real numbers cannot be specified with infinite precision.

Sets and Sequences

- A set is a very basic mathematical notion.
- Since this is not a math class, we can loosely say that a set is a collection of objects.

- Some of these objects may be sets themselves.

- Sequences are **ordered sets**.
- In sequences, it makes sense to talk of:
 - first element, second element, last element.
 - previous element, next element.
- In sets, order does not matter.

Sets and Sequences in Programs

- It is hard to imagine large, non-trivial programs that do not involve sets or sequences.
- Examples where sets/sequences are involved:
 - Anything involving text:
 - Text is a sequence of characters.
 - Any database, that contains a set of records:
 - Customers.
 - Financial transactions.
 - Inventory.
 - Students.
 - Meteorological observations.
 - ...

Any program involving putting items in order (sorting).

Representing Sets and Sequences

- Representing sets and sequences is a common and very important task in software design.
- Our next topic is to study the most popular choices for representing <u>sequences</u>.
 - Arrays.
 - Lists.
 - Strings.
- Arrays and lists can store arbitrary types of objects.
- Strings are custom-made to store characters.
- Each choice has its own trade-offs, that we need to understand.

Common Operations

- A data structure representing a sequence must support specific operations:
 - Initialize the sequence.
 - Delete the sequence.
 - Insert an item at some position.
 - Delete the item at some position.
 - Replace the item at some position.
 - Access (look up) the item at some position.
- The position (for insert, delete, replace, access) can be:
 - the beginning of the sequence,
 - or the end of the sequence,
 - or any other position.

Arrays

- In this course, it is assumed that you all are proficient at using arrays in C.
- IMPORTANT: the material in textbook chapter 3.2 is assumed to be known:
 - How to create an array.
 - How to access elements in an array.
 - Using **malloc** and **free** to allocate and de-allocate memory.
- Here, our focus is to understand the properties of array operations:
 - Time complexity.
 - Space complexity.
 - Other issues/limitations.

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If the size of the array is not known when we write the code:

• Any issues/limitations with array initialization?

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- Is that always possible?

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 - Allocate a size that (hopefully) is large enough.
- Problems with that:

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- What do we do if the size is not known in advance?
 - What did the textbook do for the examples in Union-Find, Binary Search, and Selection Sort?
 - Allocate a size that (hopefully) is large enough.
- Problems with allocating a "large enough" size:
 - Sometimes the size may not be large enough anyway.
 - Sometimes it can be a huge waste of memory.

Array Initialization and Deletion

- Time complexity of array initialization: constant time.
- How about array deletion? How is that done in C?
- If the array was statically allocated:
- If the array was dynamically allocated:
- Either way, the time complexity is: .

Array Initialization and Deletion

- Time complexity of array initialization: constant time.
- How about array deletion? How is that done in C?
- If the array was statically allocated: we do nothing.
- If the array was dynamically allocated: we call **free**.
- Either way, the time complexity is: O(1).

- "Inserting an item" for arrays can mean two different things.
- When the array is first created, it contains no items.
- The first meaning of "inserting an item" is simply to store a value at a position that previously contained no value.
- What is the time complexity of that?

- "Inserting an item" for arrays can mean two different things.
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- The first meaning of "inserting an item" is simply to store a value at a position that previously contained no value.
- What is the time complexity of that? O(1).

- The second meaning of "inserting an item", which is the meaning we use in this course, is to insert a value at a position between other existing values.
- An example:
 - suppose we have an array of size 1,000,000.
 - suppose we have already stored value at the first 800,000 positions.
 - We want to store a new value at position 12,345,
 <u>WITHOUT</u> replacing the current value there, or any other value.
- We need to move a lot of values one position to the right, to make room.

```
for (i = 800000; i >= 12345; i--)
    a[i] = a[i-1];
a[12345] = new value;
```

• Why are we going backwards?

```
for (i = 800000; i >= 12345; i--)
    a[i] = a[i-1];
a[12345] = new value;
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- Why are we going backwards?
 - To make sure we are not writing over values that we cannot recover.
- If the array size is N, what is the worst-case time complexity of this type of insertion?

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Arrays: Deleting an Item

- Again, we have an array of size 1,000,000.
 - We have already stored value at the first 800,000 positions.
 - We want to delete the value at position 12,345.
 - How do we do that?

Arrays: Deleting an Item

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 - We have already stored value at the first 800,000 positions.
 - We want to delete the value at position 12,345.
 - How do we do that?

```
for (i = 12345; i < 800000; i++)
a[i] = a[i+1];</pre>
```

 If the array size is N, what is the worst-case time complexity of deletion?

Arrays: Deleting an Item

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 - We have already stored value at the first 800,000 positions.
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a[i] = a[i+1];</pre>
```

 If the array size is N, what is the worst-case time complexity of deletion?

```
-O(N).
```

Arrays: Replacing and Accessing

 How do we replace the value at position 12,345 with a new value?

a[12345] = new_value;

• How do we access the value at position 12,345?

int b = a[12345];

• Time complexity for both: *O*(1).

Arrays: Summary

- Initialization: *O(1)* time, but must specify the size, which is a limitation.
- Deletion of the array: *O(1)* time, easy.
- Insertion: O(N) worst case time.
- Deletion of a single element: *O(N)* worst case time.
- Replacing a value: O(1) time.
- Looking up a value: O(1) time.
- Conclusions:
 - Arrays are great for looking up values and replacing values.
 - Initialization requires specifying a size, which is limiting.
 - Insertion and deletion are slow.

Linked Lists

- Many of you may have used lists, as they are built-in in many programming languages.
 - Java, Python, C++, ...
- They are not built in C.
- Either way, this is the point in your computer science education where you learn to implement lists yourselves.

Contrast to Arrays

- An array is a contiguous chunk of memory.
 - That is what makes it easy, and fast, to access and replace values at specific positions.
 - That is also what causes the need to specify a size at initialization, which can be a problem.
 - That is also what causes insertion and deletion to be slow.
- Linked lists (as we will see in the next few slides) have mostly opposite properties:
 - No need to specify a size at initialization.
 - Insertion and deletion can be fast (though it depends on the information we provide to these functions).
 - Finding and replacing values at specific positions is slow.

The Notion of a Link

- When we create a list, we do not need to specify a size in advance.
 - No memory is initially allocated.
- When we insert an item, we allocate just enough memory to hold that item.
 - This allows lists to use memory very efficiently:
 - No wasting memory by allocating more than we need.
 - Lists can grow as large as they need (up to RAM size).
- Result: list items are not stored in contiguous memory.
 - So, how do we keep track of where each item is stored?
 - Answer: each item knows where the next item is stored.
 - In other words, each item is a **link** to the next item.

Links

typedef struct node * link; struct node {Item item; link next; };

- Note: the Item type can be defined using a **typedef**. It can be an int, float, char, or any other imaginable type.
- A linked list is a set of links.

- This definition is simple, but **very important**.

Representing a List

- How do we represent a list in code?
- Initial choice: all we need is the first link. So, lists have the same type as links.

- I don't like that choice, but we must first see how it works.

• How do we access the rest of the links?

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 - Step by step, from one link to the next.
- How do we know we have reached the end of the list?

Representing a List

- How do we represent a list in code?
- Initial choice: all we need is the first link. So, lists have the same type as links.

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- How do we access the rest of the links?
 - Step by step, from one link to the next.
- How do we know we have reached the end of the list?
 - Here we need a convention.
 - The convention we will follow: the last link points to NULL.

A First Program

```
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <stdio.h>
```

```
typedef struct node * link;
struct node {int item; link next; };
```

```
main()
{
    link the_list = malloc(sizeof(struct node));
    the_list->item = 573;
    the_list->next = NULL;
}
marking the end
    of the list.
```
A First Program

- What does the program in the previous slide do?
 - Not much. It just creates a list with a single item, with value 573.
- Still, this program illustrates some basic steps in creating a list:
 - There is no difference in the code between the list itself and the first link in the list.
 - To denote that there is only one link, the **next** variable of that link is set to **NULL**.
- Next: let's add a couple more links manually.

```
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <stdio.h>
typedef struct node * link;
struct node {int item; link next; };
link newLink(int value)
  link result = malloc(sizeof(struct node));
{
   result->item = value;
   result->next = NULL;
}
main()
   link the list = newLink(573);
{
   the list->next = newLink(100);
   the list->next->next = newLink(200);
}
```

- What does the program in the previous slide do?
- It creates a list of three items: 573, 100, 200.
- We also now have a function **new_link** for creating a new link.
 - Important: by default, new_link sets the next variable of the result to NULL.
- How does the list look like when we add value 573?

- What does the program in the previous slide do?
- It creates a list of three items: 573, 100, 200.
- We also now have a function new_link for creating a new link.
 - Important: by default, new_link sets the next variable of the result to NULL.
- How does the list look like when we add value 100?



- What does the program in the previous slide do?
- It creates a list of three items: 573, 100, 200.
- We also now have a function **new_link** for creating a new link.
 - Important: by default, new_link sets the next variable of the result to NULL.
- How does the list look like when we add value 200?



Printing the List

```
void print_list(link my_list)
{
    int counter = 0;
    link i;
    for (i = my_list; i != NULL; i = i->next)
    {
        printf("item %d: %d\n", counter, i->item);
        counter++;
    }
}
```

• The highlighted line in red is the CLASSIC way to go through all elements of the list. This is used EXTREMELY OFTEN.

Finding the Length of the List

```
int list_length(link my_list)
{
    int counter = 0;
    link i;
    for (i = my_list; i != NULL; i = i->next)
    {
        counter++;
    }
    return counter;
}
```

- The highlighted line in red is the CLASSIC way to go through all elements of the list. This is used EXTREMELY OFTEN.
- This kind of loop through the elements of a list is called <u>traversal of the list</u>.



- Suppose that we want to delete the middle node.
 What do we need to do?
- Simple approach:

the_list->next = the_list->next->next;





• Any problem with this approach?

the_list->next = the_list->next->next;

Outcome:the_list
$$\rightarrow$$
 573 \rightarrow 200 NULLitemnextitemnextitemnext



• Any problem with this approach? MEMORY LEAK

the_list->next = the_list->next->next;





• Fixing the memory leak:

link temp = the_list->next; the_list->next = the_list->next->next; free(temp);

Outcome:the_list \rightarrow 573 \rightarrow 200NULLitemnextitemnext

Deleting an Item from the Start



Deleting an Item from the Start



• This will work. Any issues?



Deleting an Item from the Start



• This will work. Any issues? It is not that elegant.

- We need to change the value of variable the_list.

```
link temp = the_list;
the_list = the_list->next;
free(temp);
```



Inserting an Item



 Suppose we want to insert value 30 between 100 and 200. How do we do that?

Inserting an Item



 Suppose we want to insert value 30 between 100 and 200. How do we do that?



Inserting an Item to the Start



• Suppose we want to insert value 30 at the start of the list:

Inserting an Item to the Start



• Suppose we want to insert value 30 at the start of the list:

Inserting an Item to the Start



- Suppose we want to insert value 30 at the start of the list:
- Any issues with this code? Again, it is inelegant.

item

next

As in deleting from the start, we need to change variable the_list.

item

next

item

```
link new_link = malloc(sizeof(struct node));
new_link->item = 30;
new_link->next = the_list;
the_list = new_link;
the_list → 30 → 100 → 200 NULL
```

next

An Example: Reading Integers

```
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <stdio.h>
```

```
typedef struct node * link;
struct node {int item; link next; };
```

```
main()
```

}

}

```
{ link the_list = NULL, current_link = NULL;
while(1)
```

```
{ int number;
```

```
printf("please enter an integer: ");
if (scanf("%d", &number) != 1) break;
link next_item = malloc(sizeof(struct node));
next_item->item = number; next_item->next = NULL;
if (the_list == NULL) the_list = next_item;
else current_link->next = next_item;
current_link = next_item;
```

Lists: What We Have Done So Far

- Defined a linked list as a set of links.
- Each link contains enough room to store a value, and to also store the address of the next link.
 - Why does each link need to point to the next link? Because otherwise we would not have any way to find the next link.
- Convention: the last link points to NULL.
- Insertions and deletions are handled by updating the link before the point of insertion or deletion.
- The variable for the list itself is set equal to the first link.
 - This is workable, but hacky and leads to inelegant code.

Lists: Next Steps

- Change our convention for representing the list itself.
 - Decouple the list itself from the first link of the list.
- Provide a set of functions performing standard list operations.
 - Initialize a list.
 - Destroy a list.
 - Insert a link.
 - Delete a link.

Representing a List

- First choice: a list is equal to the first link of the list.
- This is hacky. Conceptually, a variable representing a list should not have to change because we insert or delete a link at the beginning.
- The book proposes the "dummy link" solution, which I also don't like as much:
 - The first link of a list is always a dummy link, and thus it never has to change.
- The code in the book uses this solution.
- In class we will use another solution: lists and links are different data types.

The New List Representation

typedef struct struct_list * list; struct struct_list
{ link first; };

list newList(): ???

The New List Representation

```
typedef struct struct list * list;
struct struct list
{ link first; };
list newList()
{
   list result = malloc(sizeof(*result));
   result->first = NULL;
   return result;
}
```

Destroying a List

• How do we destroy a list?

void destroyList(list the_list): ???

Destroying a List

```
void destroyList(list the_list)
{
   link i = the list->first;
   while(1)
   {
      if (i == NULL) break;
      link next = i->next;
      free(i);
      i = next;
   }
   free(the list);
```

}

• How do insert a link?

void insertLink(list my_list, link prev, link new_link)

- Assumptions:
 - We want to insert the new link right after link **prev**.
 - Link **prev** is provided as an argument.

```
void insertLink(list my list, link prev, link new link)
{
   if (prev == NULL)
      new link->next = my list->first;
      my list->first = new link;
   else
      new link->next = prev->next;
      prev->next = new link;
```

• What is the time complexity of **insertLink**?

• What is the time complexity of insertLink? O(1).

void insertLink(list my_list, link prev, link new_link)

- Assumptions:
 - We want to insert the new link right after link **prev**.
 - Link **prev** is provided as an argument.
- What other functions for inserting a link may be useful?

void insertLink(list my_list, link prev, link new_link)

- Assumptions:
 - We want to insert the new link right after link **prev**.
 - Link **prev** is provided as an argument.
- What other functions for inserting a link may be useful?
 - Specifying the position, instead of the previous link.
 - Specifying just a value for the new link, instead of the new link itself.

Deleting a Link

• How do we delete a link?

```
void deleteNext(list my_list, link x)
```

- Assumptions:
 - The link x that we specify as an argument is NOT the link that we want to delete, but the link BEFOFE the one we want to delete. Why?
 - If we know the previous link, we can easily access the link we need to delete.
 - The previous link needs to be updated to point to the next item.

Deleting a Link

```
void deleteNext(list my_list, link x)
{
    link temp = x->next;
    x->next = temp->next;
    free(temp);
```

}

Deleting a Link

- What is the time complexity of **deleteLink**?
- What are the limitations of this version of deleting a link?
- What other versions of deleting a link would be useful?
Deleting a Link

- What is the time complexity of **deleteLink**? O(1).
- What are the limitations of this version of deleting a link?

– We cannot delete the first link of the list.

- What other versions of deleting a link would be useful?
 - Passing as an argument the node itself that we want to delete.
 - How can that be implemented?

Reversing a List

```
void reverse(list the list)
{
   link current = the list->first;
   link previous = NULL;
   while (current != NULL)
      link temp = current->next;
      current->next = previous;
      previous = current;
      current = temp;
   the list->first = previous;
```

Example: Insertion Sort

- Unlike our implementation for Selection Sort, here we do not modify the original list of numbers, we just creates a new list for the result.
- For each number *X* in the original list:
 - Go through the result list, until we find the first item Y that is bigger than M.
 - Insert X right before that item Y.

Insertion Sort Implementation

```
list insertionSort(list numbers)
{
   list result = newList();
   link s;
   for (s = numbers->first; s!= NULL; s = s->next)
   {
      int value = s->item;
      link current = 0;
      link next = result->first;
      while((next != NULL) && (value > next->item))
      {
         current = next;
         next = next->next;
      }
      insertLink(result, current, newLink(value));
   }
   return result;
```

}

Doubly-Linked Lists

- In our implementation, every link points to the next one.
- We could also have every link point to the previous one.
- Lists where each link points both to the previous and to the next element are called **doubly-linked lists**.
- The list itself, in addition to keeping track of the first element, could also keep track of the last element.
- Advantages:
 - To delete a link, we just need that link.
 - It is as easy to go backwards as it is to go forward.
- Disadvantages:
 - More memory per link (one extra pointer).

Summary: Lists vs. Arrays

| Operation | Arrays | Lists |
|-----------------------------|--------|-------|
| Access position <i>i</i> | O(1) | O(i) |
| Modify position <i>i</i> | O(1) | O(i) |
| Delete at position <i>i</i> | O(N) | O(1) |
| Insert at position i | 0(N) | O(1) |

- N: length of array or list.
- The table shows time of worst cases.
- Other pros/cons:
 - When we create an array we must fix its size.
 - Lists can grow and shrink as needed.

Abstracting the Interface

- When designing a new data type, it is important to hide the details of the implementation from the programmers who will use this data type (including ourselves).
- Why? So that, if we later decide to change the implementation of the data type, no other code needs to change besides the implementation.
- In C, this is doable, but somewhat clumsy.
- C++ and Java were designed to make this task easy.
 - By allowing for member functions.
 - By differentiating between private and public members.

List Interface

- The following files on the course website implement an abstract list interface:
 - list_interface.h
 - list_interface.c
- Other code that wants to use lists can only see what is declared at list_interface.h.
 - The actual implementation of lists and nodes is hidden.
- The implementation in list_interface.c can change, without needing to change any other code.
 - For example, we can switch between our approach of lists and nodes as separate data types, and the textbook's approach of using a dummy first node.

Circular Lists

• What is a circular list? It is a list where some link points to a previous link.



• When would a circular list be useful?

Circular Lists

• What is a circular list? It is a list where some link points to a previous link.



- When would a circular list be useful?
 - In representing items that can naturally be arranged in a circular order.
 - Examples: months of the year, days of the week, seasons, players in a board game, round-robin assignments, ...

The Josephus-Style Election

- This is a toy example of using circular lists.
- *N* people want to elect a leader.
 - They choose a number *M*.
 - They arrange themselves in a circular manner.
 - Starting from some person, they count *M* people, and they eliminate the *M*-th person. That person falls out of the circle.
 - Start counting again, starting from the person right after the one who got eliminated, and eliminate the *M*-th person again.
 - Repeat till one person is left.
- The last person left is chosen as the leader.

Implementing Josephus-Style Election

- If we assign numbers 1 to N to the N people, and we start counting from person 1, then the result is a function of N and M.
- This process of going around in a circle and eliminating every M-th item can be handled very naturally using a circular list.
- Solution: see josephus.c file, posted on course website.
- Note: our abstract interface was built for NULL-terminated lists, not circular lists.
- Still, with one change and one hack (marked on the code), it supports circular lists, at least for the purposes of the Josephus problem.
 - Change: in deleteNext, handle the case where we delete the first link.
 - Hack: make the list NULL-terminated before we destroy it.

Circular Lists: Interesting Problems

- There are several interesting problems with circular lists:
 - Detect if a list is circular.
 - Have in mind that some initial items may not be part of the cycle:

the_list
$$\longrightarrow$$
 30 \rightarrow 40 \rightarrow 82 \rightarrow 25 \rightarrow 50

- Detect if a list is circular <u>in O(N) time</u> (N is the number of unique nodes). (This is a good interview question)
- Modifying our abstract list interface to fully support circular lists.
 - Currently, at least these functions would not support it: listLength, printList, destroyList, reverse.

Destructive Functions

void insertLink(list my_list, link prev, link new_link); void deleteNext(list my_list, link x); void reverse(list the list);

- We call a function <u>destructive</u> if it modifies one or more of its input arguments.
- Several of the list functions we have seen are destructive (see examples above).
- We use destructive functions frequently, because they have attractive properties in terms of time and space requirements.
- However, when using destructive functions we must be aware of certain issues.

Issues with Destructive Functions

- The input argument that is modified may be accessible by many parts of the code.
- A common source of bugs is to modify such an input argument, and then assume (in another part of the code) that it has not been modified.
- Using a destructive function requires the programmer to be aware of all possible ramifications.
 - This can be very complicated, in a large program.
- On the other hand, using non-destructive functions makes our life much more simple.
- Then, why do we use destructive functions?
 - Because some times they are far more efficient than other alternatives.

Shallow and Deep Copies

- We say that B is (at some particular moment) a shallow copy of A if:
 - B, at that moment, contains the same information as A.
 - It is possible for changes in A to change B as well, or ...
 - it is possible for changes in B to change A as well.
- We say that B is (at some particular moment) a deep copy of A if:
 - B, at that moment, contains the same information as A.
 - If A changes later, B is not affected.
 - If B changes later, A is not affected.

Example: List Deep Copy

```
list listDeepCopy(list input)
{
   list result = newList();
   link in = listFirst(input);
   link previous = NULL;
   while (in != NULL)
   {
      link out = newLink(linkItem(in));
      insertLink(result, previous, out);
      previous = out;
      in = linkNext(in);
   }
   return result;
```

}

Writing Non-Destructive Functions

- If we want to convert a destructive function to a nondestructive function, a common strategy is:
 - Identify the input arguments that the destructive function changes.
 - In the non-destructive version, make deep copies of those input arguments, and make changes to those deep copies.
 - Possibly return some of those modified deep copies, so they can be used by callers of the function.

Example: Destructive mergeLists

- Write a function that:
 - takes two arguments, a list **target**, and a list **source**.
 - adds all contents of source to target, effectively merging source to target.
- Note: at the end of the function, target has been changed, to be the result of merging the initial contents of target with the contents of source.

void mergeListsDestructive(list target, list source)

Example: Destructive mergeLists

```
void mergeListsDestructive(list target, list source)
{
   link previous = NULL;
   link c;
   /* find the last link of target*/
   for (c = target->first; c != NULL; c = c->next)
   {
      previous = c;
   }
```

/* now, previous is the last link of target */
setNext(previous, listFirst(source));

}

Example: Non-Destructive mergeLists

- Write a function that:
 - takes two arguments, a list **input1**, and a list **input2**.
 - returns a new list, that contains all contents of input1 and all contents of input2.
 - does not change the input arguments.

list mergeLists(list input1, list input2)

Example: Non-Destructive mergeLists

```
list mergeLists(list input1, list input2)
{
    list result = listDeepCopy(input1);
    list temp2 = listDeepCopy(input2);
    mergeListsDestructive(result, temp2);
    free(temp2);
    return result;
```

}

Non-Destructive Insertions?

void insertLink(list list1, link prev, link link1)

 How can we make a non-destructive version of insertLink?

- What would be the time complexity of the nondestructive version?
- Why is the destructive version more popular?

Non-Destructive Insertions?

void insertLink(list list1, link prev, link link1)

- How can we make a non-destructive version of insertLink?
 - Make a deep copy of the list
 - Insert the new link to the deep copy.
 - Return the deep copy (that now includes the new link).
- What would be the time complexity of the nondestructive version?
 - O(N), where N is the length of the list.
- Why is the destructive version more popular?
 - It takes O(1) time, and also does not duplicate memory.