

# MAHAVEER INSTITUTE OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY

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ESTD : 2001

Department of Computer Science and Engineering  
(R22)

## DATA STRUCTURES

B. Tech II YEAR – I SEM

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**CS302PC: DATA STRUCTURES**  
**B.Tech. II Year I Sem.**

Prerequisites: Programming for Problem Solving

Course Objectives

- Exploring basic data structures such as stacks and queues.
- Introduces a variety of data structures such as hash tables, search trees, tries, heaps, graphs.
- Introduces sorting and pattern matching algorithms

Course Outcomes

- Ability to select the data structures that efficiently model the information in a problem.
- Ability to assess efficiency trade-offs among different data structure implementations or combinations.
- Implement and know the application of algorithms for sorting and pattern matching.
- Design programs using a variety of data structures, including hash tables, binary and general tree structures, search trees, tries, heaps, graphs, and AVL-trees.

UNIT - I

Introduction to Data Structures, abstract data types, Linear list – singly linked list implementation, insertion, deletion and searching operations on linear list, Stacks- Operations, array and linked representations of stacks, stack applications, Queues- operations, array and linked representations.

UNIT - II

Dictionaries: linear list representation, skip list representation, operations - insertion, deletion and searching.

Hash Table Representation: hash functions, collision resolution-separate chaining, open addressing linear

probing, quadratic probing, double hashing, rehashing, extendible hashing.

UNIT - III

Search Trees: Binary Search Trees, Definition, Implementation, Operations- Searching, Insertion and

Deletion, B- Trees, B+ Trees, AVL Trees, Definition, Height of an AVL Tree, Operations – Insertion,

Deletion and Searching, Red –Black, Splay Trees.

UNIT - IV

Graphs: Graph Implementation Methods. Graph Traversal Methods.

Sorting: Quick Sort, Heap Sort, External Sorting- Model for external sorting, Merge Sort.

UNIT - V

Pattern Matching and Tries: Pattern matching algorithms-Brute force, the Boyer –Moore algorithm, the

Knuth-Morris-Pratt algorithm, Standard Tries, Compressed Tries, Suffix tries.

TEXT BOOKS:

1. Fundamentals of Data Structures in C, 2 nd Edition, E. Horowitz, S. Sahni and Susan Anderson Freed, Universities Press.

2. Data Structures using C – A. S.Tanenbaum, Y. Langsam, and M.J. Augenstein, PHI/Pearson Education.

REFERENCE BOOK:

1. Data Structures: A Pseudocode Approach with C, 2 nd Edition, R. F. Gilberg and B.A.Forouzan,

Cengage Learning.



27/11/19

# Introduction

\* Data structure is data organization, management, & storage format that enables efficient access and modification.

\* Data structure is a way in which data is stored on a computer.

Need of Data structure:

\* Data structure allow data to be stored in specific manner.

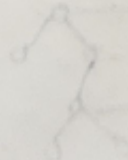
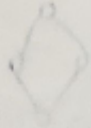
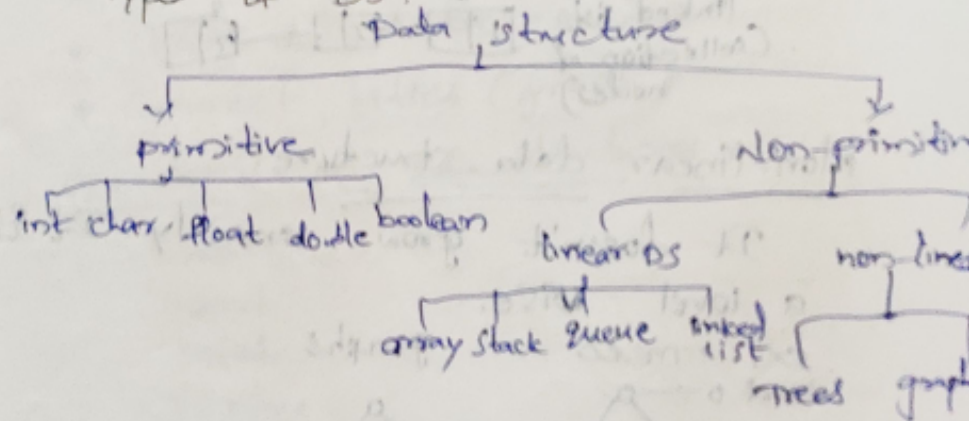
\* It allows efficient data search and retrieval.

\* Specific data structures are decided to work for specific problems.

So that it can be accessed and worked in a appropriate manner.

\* It allows to manage large amount of data. such as large database & indexing services.

types of DS



primitive data type

non-primitive data type

1) primitive data type (or) structures are pre-defined data types. 2) these structures are not pre-defined.

1) All these data types are supported by all programming languages. 2) these can be implemented with the help of primitive data types.

Ex: int, char, float etc.

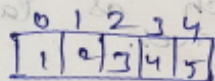
Ex: Arrays, stacks, queues etc.

1) these are linear. 2) these are linear & non-linear in nature.

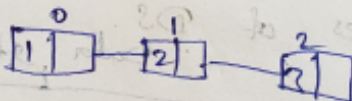
Linear data structure

It grows linearly. Different operations which can be performed in a linear way.

Ex: Array



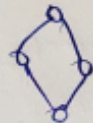
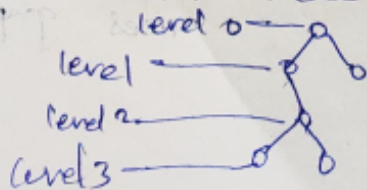
linked list (collection of nodes)



Non-linear data structure

It doesn't grow linearly. It grows a level wise.

Ex: trees, graphs



## Sequential data structure

It utilises memory which is allotted sequentially nothing but sequential data structure.

Ex: Array 1D, 2D, 3D

Char A[20]

## Non-sequential DS

It doesn't utilise memory in sequential.

Memory allotted is scattered in the memory space.

this data structures are nothing but non-sequential DS.

Ex: linked list, trees, graphs.

## Applications

- \* Recursive function calls. (stack)
- \* printer in network (queues)
- \* Stores the data (files)
- \* Connect cities (graph)

## Operations on Data structures

Create

Insert

Delete

Display

Search

modify (or) update.



## Static and Dynamic representation

### Static representation:

- Do you have a fixed size.
- \* Use when the size of the data is known by the programmer.
- \* memory used is fixed, so no control over the structure is needed to prevent issues with the structure using too much memory.
- \* Memory allocated to the structure can be reused or redirected.

### Dynamic representation

- \* Doesn't have fixed size.
- \* Uses a heap which is a section of memory which can be increased or decreased in size required.
- \* Useful when implementing a data structure where the <sup>size of</sup> data is not known to be stored by the programmer.

### Strings 2.0 in C programming.

Read and write strings in C programming

1) printf, scanf

2) puts, gets

Syntax  
scanf ("%s", str1);    printf ("%s", str1);  
gets (str1);        puts (str1);

```

main()
{
char name[20];
printf("Enter your name");
scanf("%s", name);
printf("%s", name);
return 0;
}

```

```

main()
{
char name[20];
printf("Enter your name");
gets(name);
puts(name);
return 0;
}

```

length of string String Handling functions

```

void main()
{
int i;
char str1[10];
printf("Enter name");
gets(str1);
for(i=0; str1[i] != '\0'; ++i) (or) i = strlen(str1);
printf("the length of string is: %d", i);
return 0;
}

```

Compare of strings

```

void main()
{
int i;
char str1[10], str2[10];
printf("Enter names");
gets(str1);
gets(str2);
for(i=0; str1[i] != '\0' && str2[i] != '\0'; ++i)
{
if(str1[i] < str2[i])
printf("both are not equal");
}
}

```

```

else if (str1[i] != str2[i])
    printf("both are not equal");
else
    printf("both are equal");
}
return 0;
}

if (strcmp(str1, str2) == 0)
    printf("str1, str2 are equal");
else
    printf("str1, str2 are not equal");
return 0;
}

```

### String copy

```

void main()
{
    int i;
    char str1[10], str2[10];
    printf("Enter name");
    gets(str1);

    for (i=0; str1[i] != '\0'; i++)
    {
        str2[i] = str1[i];
    }
    str2[i] = '\0';
    printf(str2);
    return 0;
}

```

(or)

```

strcpy(str2, str1);
printf(str2);

```

## String reverse

```
void main()
{
    int i=0;
    char str1[10], str2[10];
    printf("Enter name");
    gets(str1);
    i < j
    j = strlen(str1) - 1;
    while (i < j || (strlen(str1) > 1))
    {
        str2[i] = str1[j];
        i++;
        j--;
    }
    puts(str2);
    return 0;
}
```

(or) `str2 = strrev(str1);`  
`puts(str2);`

## String concatenation

```
void main()
{
    int i=0;
    char str1[20], str2[20];
    printf("Enter name");
    gets(str1);
    gets(str2);
    a = strlen(str1);
    for (j=0, i=a+1; str2[j] != '\0'; i++, j++)
    {
        str1[i] = str2[j];
    }
    str1[i] = '\0';
    puts(str1);
    return 0;
}
```

(or) `strcat(str1, str2);`  
`puts(str1);`



## Stacks

### linked list

→ write a program to print the given string.

```
#include <stdio.h>
#include <string.h>
int main()
{
    char str[10];
    printf("Enter str:");
    scanf("%s", str);
    printf("string is: %s", str);
    return 0;
}
```

output:

Enter str: Alpha  
string is: Alpha

→ write a program to handle the program using gets and puts

```
#include <stdio.h>
#include <string.h>
int main()
{
```

```
    char str[10];
    printf("Enter string:");
    gets(str);
    puts(str);
    return 0;
}
```

output

Enter string: Alpha



→ write a program to print the length of string.

```
#include <stdio.h>
#include <string.h>
int main()
{
    int i;
    char str[10];
    printf("Enter string:");
    gets(str);
    i = strlen(str);
    printf("length of string: %d", i);
    return 0;
}
```

output  
Enter string: ankitkth9  
length of string: 7

→ write a program to compare two strings.

```
#include <stdio.h>
#include <string.h>
int main()
{
    char str1[10], str2[10];
    printf("Enter string1:");
    gets(str1);
    printf("Enter string2:");
    gets(str2);
    if (strcmp(str1, str2) == 0)
        printf("both are equal");
    else
        printf("both are not equal");
    return 0;
}
```

output  
Enter string1: ankitkth9  
Enter string2: ankitkth9  
both are equal

→ write a program to copy a string.

```
#include <stdio.h>
#include <string.h>
int main()
{
    char str1[10], str2[10];
    printf("enter string:");
    gets(str1);
    strcpy(str2, str1);
    puts(str2);
    return 0;
}
```

output:  
enter string: ankitha  
ankitha

→ write a program to concatenate two strings

```
#include <stdio.h>
#include <string.h>
int main()
{
    char str1[10], str2[10];
    printf("enter string1:");
    gets(str1);
    printf("enter string2:");
    gets(str2);
    strcat(str1, str2);
    puts(str1);
    return 0;
}
```

output:  
enter string1: mittapally  
enter string2: ankitha  
mittapallyankitha

→ write a program to reverse a given string

```
#include <stdio.h>
#include <string.h>
int main()
{
    char str[10];
    printf("enter string:");
    gets(str);
    strrev(str);
    puts(str);
    return 0;
}
```

output:  
enter string: ankitha  
ahkitha

→ write a program to find the average of

four numbers using arrays

```
#include <stdio.h>
int main()
{
    int a[10], n=0, i, sum=0, avg=0;
    printf("enter size of array:");
    scanf("%d", &n);
    for (i=0; i<n; i++)
    {
        scanf("%d", &a[i]);
    }
    for (i=0; i<n; i++)
    {
        sum = sum + a[i];
    }
    avg = sum/n;
    printf("avg is: %d", avg);
    return 0;
}
```

output:  
enter size of array: 4  
1  
3  
5  
7  
avg is: 4

→ write a program to access student details using structure.

```
#include <stdio.h>
#include <string.h>
struct student
{
    int rollno;
    float marks;
    char name[10];
};
void main()
{
    struct student s1;
    s1.rollno = 14;
    s1.marks = 50.5;
    strcpy(s1.name, "ankitha");
    printf("details of student:");
    printf("\nrollno: %d", s1.rollno);
    printf("\nmarks: %f", s1.marks);
    printf("\nname: %s", s1.name);
}
```

output:

details of student:

rollno: 14

marks: 50.500000

name: ankitha



→ write a program to access student details using union.

```
#include <stdio.h>
#include <string.h>
union student
{
    int rollno;
    float marks;
    char name[10];
};
void main()
{
    union student s1;
    printf("details of student:");
    s1.rollno = 14;
    printf("rollno: %d", s1.rollno);
    s1.marks = 50.0;
    printf("marks: %f", s1.marks);
    strcpy(s1.name, "ankitha");
    printf("name: %s", s1.name);
}
```

output:

details of student:

rollno: 14

marks: 50.000000

name: ankitha

→ write program to implement  
enumerated datatype.

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

```
enum week {sunday, monday, tuesday,  
           wednesday, thursday, friday, saturday}
```

```
int main()
```

```
{
```

```
enum week today;
```

```
today = thursday;
```

```
printf ("day %d", today + 1);
```

```
return 0;
```

```
}
```

output  
day 5

Creating a node:

```
snode *create_node(int val)
{
    newnode = (snode *) malloc(sizeof(snode));
    if(newnode == null)
    {
        printf("memory is not allocated");
        return 0;
    }
    else
    {
        newnode->value = val;
        newnode->next = null;
        return newnode;
    }
}
```

Inserting in beginning

```
void insert_node_first()
{
    int val;
    printf("Enter value");
    scanf("%d", &val);
    newnode = create_node(val);
    if(first == last && first == null)
    {
        first = last = newnode;
        first->next = null;
        last->next = null;
    }
    else {
        temp = first;
        first = newnode;
        first->next = temp;
    }
    printf("Inserted node in beginning");
}
```

Inserting in the ending:

```
void insert_node_last()
{
    int val;
    printf("Enter value");
    scanf("%d", &val);
    newnode = create_node(val);
    if (first == last && last == null)
    {
        first = last = newnode;
        first->next = null;
        last->next = null;
    }
    else
    {
        last->next = newnode;
        last = newnode;
        last->next = null;
    }
    printf("Inserted in the ending");
}
```



## Inserting at position (pos):

```
void insert_node_pos()
{
    int pos, val, cnt=0, *prev, ptr;
    printf("Enter value");
    scanf("%d", &val);
    new node = create_node(val);
    printf("Enter position to be inserted");
    scanf("%d", &pos);
    ptr = first;
    while (ptr != null)
    {
        ptr = ptr->next;
        cnt++;
    }
    if (pos == 1)
    {
        if (first == last && first == null)
        {
            first = last = new node;
            first->next = null;
            last->next = null;
        }
        else
        {
            temp = first;
            first = new node;
            first->next = temp;
        }
    }
    printf("Inserted");
    else if (pos > 1 && pos < cnt)
    {
        ptr = first;
```

```

for (i=0; i<pos; i++)
{
    prev = ptr;
    ptr = ptr->next;
}
prev->next = newnode;
newnode->next = ptr;
printf("Inserted");
}
else
{
    printf("not in given range");
}
}
}

```

} to remember previous & next elements  
 } keeping element in particular position

### Display

```

void display()
{
    if (first == null)
        printf("no elements");
    else
    {
        temp = first;
        while (temp->next != null)
        {
            printf("%d", temp->value);
            temp = temp->next;
        }
        (or) for (temp = first; temp->next != null; temp = temp->next)
            printf("%d", temp->value);
    }
}

```

## Deletion

```
void del_pos()
{
    if (first == NULL)
    {
        printf("no elements");
    }
    else
    {
        printf("Enter value to be deleted");
        scanf("%d", &val);
        ptr = first;
        while (ptr != NULL)
        {
            if (ptr->value != val)
            {
                prev = ptr;
                ptr = ptr->next;
                cnt++;
            }
            else if (ptr->value == val)
            {
                prev->next = ptr->next;
                free(ptr);
                printf("deleted");
                break;
            }
            else
            {
                printf("no element to be deleted");
            }
        }
    }
}
```

qdate 0-1, 2, 3, 4, 5  
↓  
6

## Stacks

```
int stack(10), choice, n, top, x, i;  
void push();  
void pop();  
void display();  
int main()  
{  
    top = -1; stack size  
    printf("Enter your choice");  
    scanf("%d", &n);  
    do  
    {  
        printf("1. push, 2. pop, 3. display, 4. exit");  
        printf("Enter your choice");  
        scanf("%d", &choice);  
        switch(choice)  
        {  
            case 1:  
                push();  
                break;  
            case 2:  
                pop();  
                break;  
            case 3:  
                display();  
                break;  
            case 4:  
                printf("exit");  
                break;  
        }  
    }  
}
```

overflow [fill element]  
underflow [no element]



```
default  
{  
    printf("Invalid input");  
}
```

```
while(choice != 4);  
return 0;  
}
```

```
void push()
```

```
{  
    if(top >= n);  
    {  
        printf("Stack is overflow");  
    }  
    else  
    {  
        printf("Enter element");  
        scanf("%d", &x);  
        top++;  
        stack[top] = x;  
    }  
}
```

```
void pop()
```

```
{  
    if(top <= -1)  
    {  
        printf("Stack is underflow");  
    }  
    else  
    {  
        printf("Element is deleted from stack", stack[top]);  
        top--;  
    }  
}
```

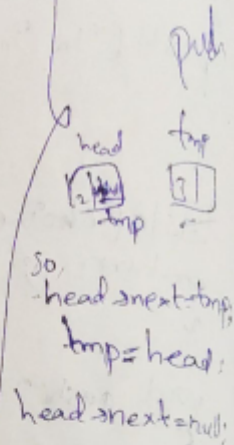
```
void display()
```

```
{  
    if(top <= -1)  
    {  
        printf("no elements");  
    }  
    else  
    {  
        for(i=0; i <= top; i++)  
            printf("%d", stack[i]);  
    }  
}
```

```

struct node
{
    int data;
    struct node *next;
}
void init(struct node *head)
void push(); head = null;
void pop();
void display();
int main()
{
    struct node *head = null;

```



# Queue

```
void delete()
```

```
{  
  if (front <= -1)  
  {  
    printf("Queue is underflow");  
  }  
  else  
  {  
    printf("%d-disdeleted element", queue[front]);  
    front++;  
    top--;  
  }  
}
```

inserts  
deletes  
displays

```
front = -1  
rear = -1
```

```
void insert()
```

```
{  
  int x;  
  if (rear == max)  
  {  
    printf("Queue is overflow");  
  }  
  else  
  {  
    if (front == -1)  
    {  
      front = 0;  
    }  
    printf("Enter x");  
    scanf("%d", &x);  
    rear = rear + 1;  
    queue[rear] = x;  
  }  
}
```

```
void delete()
```

```
{  
  if (front == -1 || front > rear)  
  {  
    printf("Queue is underflow");  
  }  
  else  
  {  
    printf("%d-disdeleted  
    from the queue,  
    queue[front]);  
    front = front + 1;  
  }  
}
```

```
void display()
```

```
{  
  if (front == -1 || front > rear)  
  {  
    printf("no elements");  
  }  
  else  
  {  
    for (i = front; i <= rear; i++)  
    {  
      printf("%d", queue[i]);  
    }  
  }  
}
```

## Infix notation

The operators go in between the operands ('A' and 'B') is called 'infix' notation.

ex:  $A * B$ ,  $A + B$

## Prefix notation:

\* Instead of saying 'A plus B', we could say "add A, B" and write " $+AB$ ".

\* This is prefix notation.

## Postfix notation

Another alternative is to put the operators after the operands as in " $AB+$ " called postfix.

## parenthesis

→ evaluate  $2 + 3 * 5$

first:

$$+ (2+3) * 5 = 5 * 5 = 25$$

\* first:

$$2 + (3 * 5) = 2 + 15 = 17$$

→ Infix notation requires parenthesis



prefix

$$\rightarrow +2 * 35 = +2 * 35 \\ = +215 = 17$$

$$\rightarrow * + 235 = * + 235 \\ = * 35 \\ = 25$$

No parenthesis needed

postfix

$$235 * +$$

$$215 + = 17$$

$$23 + 5 * = 23 + 5 *$$

$$= 55 *$$

$$= 25$$

No parenthesis is needed.

→ parenthesis are required for infix

$$(A+B) * (C-E) / (F+G)$$

$$-AB+CE - *(FG+)$$

$$\rightarrow AB+CE - *FG+ /$$

output

$$-AB+CE - *FG+ /$$

$$\text{stack } ((+) * (-)) / (+)$$

## Infix to postfix

```
char stack[20];
```

```
int top = -1;
```

```
void push(char x)
```

```
{
```

```
    stack[top] = x;
```

```
}
```

```
void pop()
```

```
{
```

```
    if (top == -1)
```

```
        printf("no elements");
```

```
    else
```

```
        return stack[top--];
```

```
}
```

```
int priority(char x)
```

```
{
```

```
    if (x == '(')
```

```
        return 0;
```

```
    if (x == '+' || x == '-')
```

```
        return 1;
```

```
    if (x == '*' || x == '/')
```

```
        return 2;
```

```
}
```

```
void main()
```

```
{
```

```
    char exp[20];
```

```
    char *e, x;
```

```
    printf("Enter expression");
```

```
    scanf("%s", exp);
```

```
    e = exp;
```

```
while (*e != '\0')
```

```
{
```

```
if (isalnum(*e))
```

```
printf("%c", *e);
```

```
else if (*e == '(')
```

```
push(*e);
```

```
else if (*e == ')')
```

```
while (a = pop() != '(')
```

```
printf("%c", a);
```

```
else
```

```
{ while (priority(stack[top]) >= priority(*e))
```

```
printf("%c", pop());
```

```
push(*e);
```

```
}
```

```
e++;
```

```
} while (top != -1)
```

```
{ printf("%c", pop());
```

```
}
```

```
}
```

## post-fix evaluation

$$\rightarrow \frac{23 * 4 +}{64 +} \\ 10$$

$$\rightarrow 16 * 5 + 4 * 7 - \text{infix} \\ \underline{165 * 47 * + -} \text{postfix} \\ 8047 * + \\ 8028 + \\ 108$$

27/1/19

# Introduction

\* Data structure is data organization, management, & storage format that enables efficient access and modification.

\* Data structure is a way in which data is stored on a computer.

Need of Data structure:

\* Data structure allow data to be stored in specific manner.

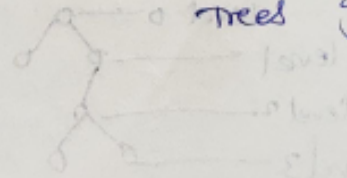
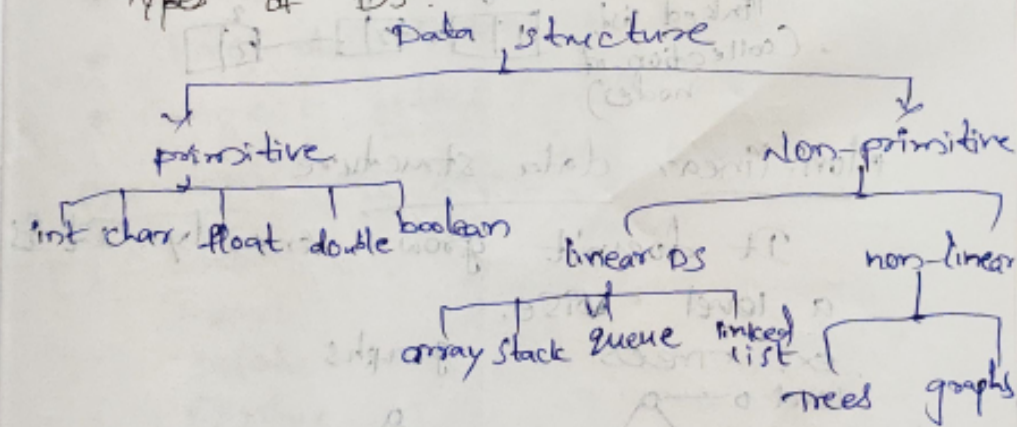
\* It allows efficient data search and retrieval.

\* Specific data structures are decided to work for specific problems.

So that it can be accessed and worked in a appropriate manner.

\* It allows to manage large amount of data, such as large database & indexing services.

types of DS

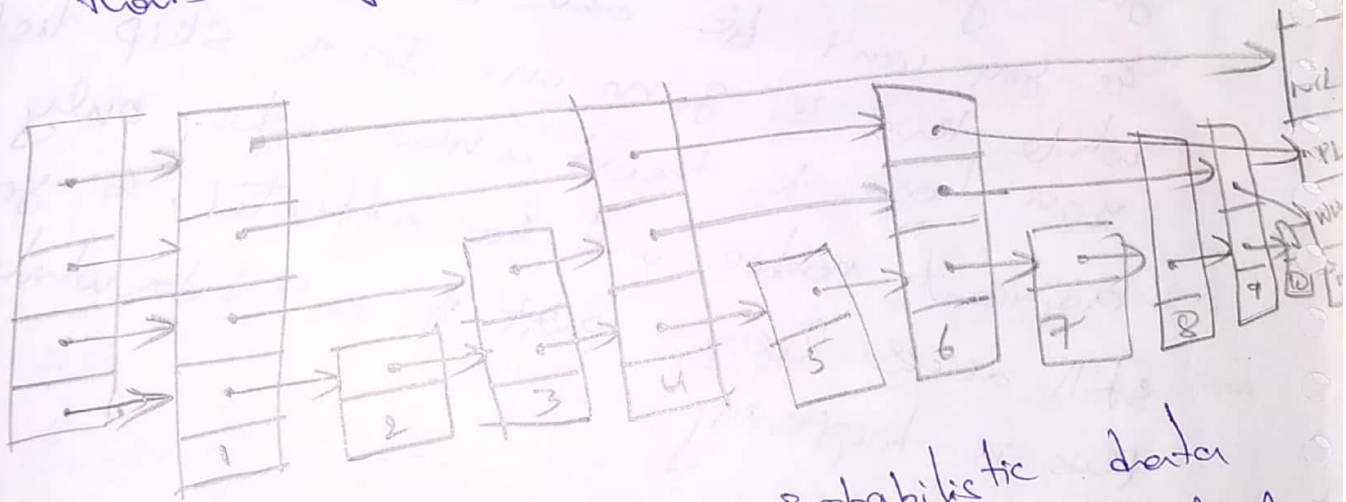




Skip list in data structure:

A skip list is a data structure that is used for storing a sorted list of items with a help of hierarchy of linked lists that connects increasingly sparse subsequence of the items. A skip list allows the process of item look up in efficient manner.

The skip list data structure skip over many of the items of the full list in one step that's why it is known as skip list.



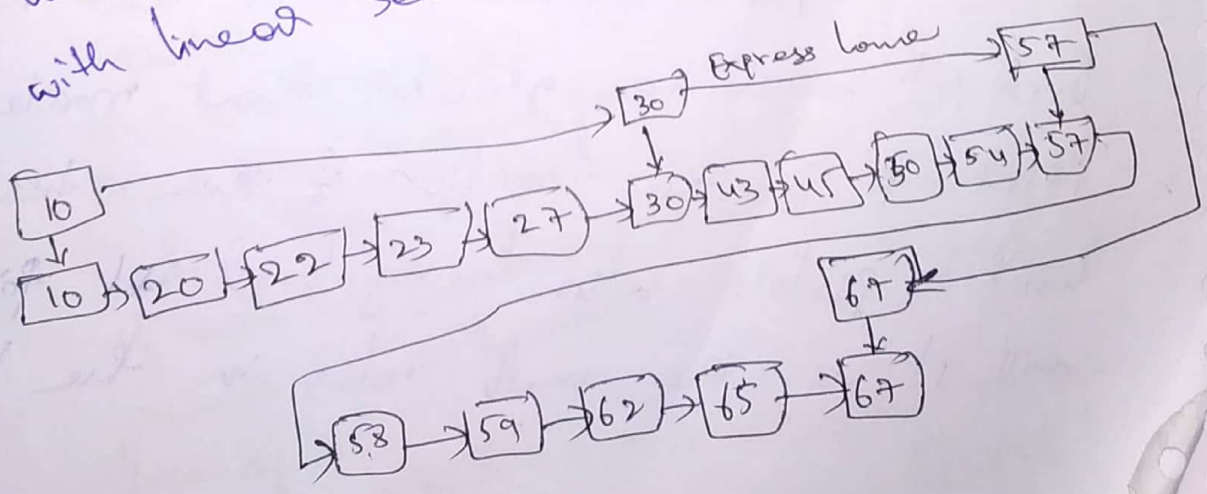
The skip list is a probabilistic data structure that is build upon the general ideal of a linked list. The skip list uses probability to build linked list. Each additional layer of links contains fewer elements but no new elements.

Example: You can think about the skip list like a subway system. There's one train that stops at every single stop. However, there is also an express train. This train doesn't visit any unique stops, but it will skip at several stops. This makes the express train an attractive option if you know where it stops.

Skip lists are very useful when you need to be able to concurrently access your data structure. Imagine a red-black tree, an implementation of the binary search tree. If you might have to rebalance the entire thing because you won't be able to access your data while this is going on. In a skip list if you have to insert a new node, only the adjacent nodes will be affected, so you can still access large part of your data while this is happening.



The idea is simple, we create multiple layers so that we can skip some nodes. See following example list with 16 nodes and two layers. The upper layer works as an "express lane" which connects only main outer stations, and the lower layer works as a "normal lane" which connects every station. Suppose we want to search for 50 we start from first node of "express lane" we keep moving on "express lane" till we find a node whose next is greater than 50. once we find such a node (30 is the node in following example) on "express lane", we move to "normal lane" using pointer from this node, we linearly search for 50 on "normal lane". In following example we start from 30 on "normal lane" and with linear search, we find 50.





## Deleting an element from the skip list (3)

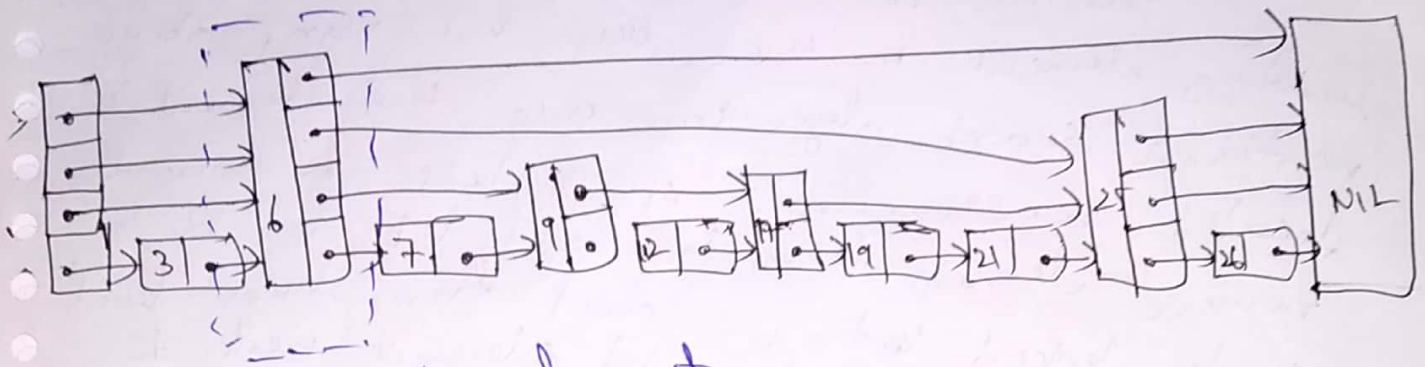
Deletion of an element  $x$  is preceded by locating element in the skip list using above mentioned search algorithm. once the element is located, rearrangement of pointers is done to remove element from list just like we do in singly linked list. we start from lowest level to do rearrangement until element next to be deleted is not  $x$ .

After deletion of element there could be level with no elements, so we will remove these level as well by decrementing the level of skip list.

Following is the code for deletion:

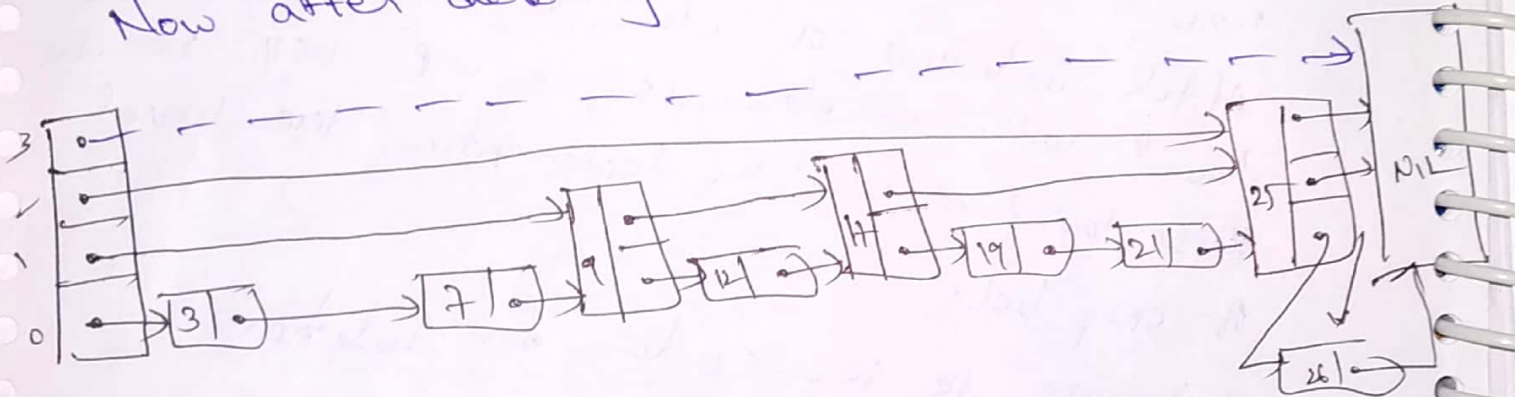
```
delete(list, searchkey)
local update [0 --- maxlevel + 1]
x := list → header
for i := list → level down to 0 do
  while x → forward[i] → key forward[i]
    update[i] := x
  x := x → forward[0]
if x → key = searchkey then
  for i := 0 to list → level do
    if update[i] → forward[i] ≠ x then break
  update[i] → forward[i] := x → forward[i]
  free(x)
  while list → level > 0 and list → header → forward
    [list → level] = nil do
  list → level := list → level - 1
```

Consider this example where we want to delete element 6.

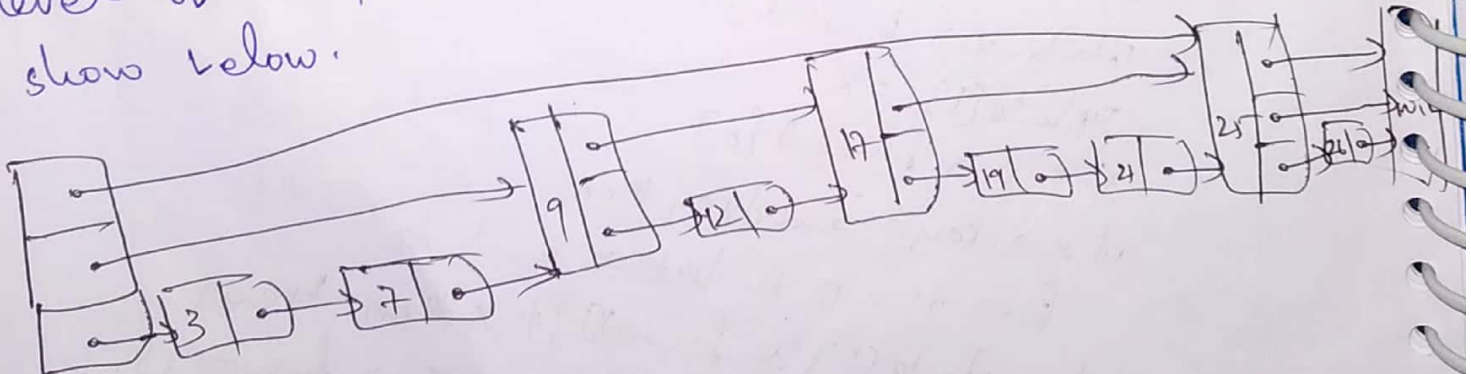


deleted element.

Now after deleting element 6 from skip list



Now here at level 3, there is no element (shown in blue) after deleting element 6. So we will decrement level of skip list by 1. Now level will be 2! show below.





searching an element in skip list:

searching an element is very similar to approach for searching a spot for inserting an element in skip list. The basic idea is if

- (1) key of next node is less than search key then we keep on moving forward on the same level.
- (2) key of next node is greater than the key to be inserted then we store the pointer to current node  $i$  at  $update[i]$  & move one level down & continue our search.

At the lowest level (0), if the element next to the rightmost element ( $update[0]$ ) has key equal to the search key, then we have found key otherwise failure.

Following is the code for searching element

```
search(list, searchkey)
```

```
x := list → header.
```

```
-- loop invariant: x → key level down to 0 do
```

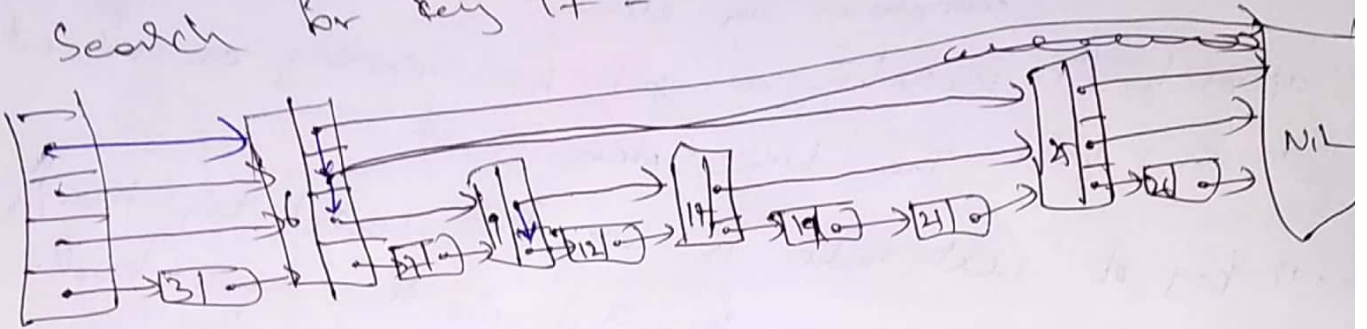
```
while x → forward[i] → key forward[i]
```

```
x := x → forward[0]
```

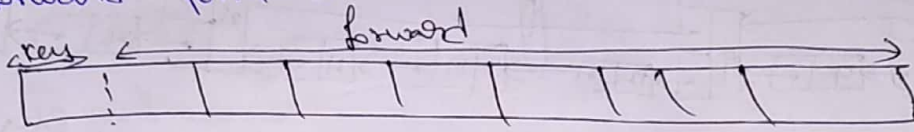
```
if x → key = searchkey then return x-value
```

```
else return failure.
```

Consider this example where we want to search for key 17 -



Node structure: Each node carries a key and a forward array carrying pointers to nodes of a different level. A level  $i$  node carries  $i$  forward pointers indexed through 0 to  $i$ .



### Node.

Insertion in skip list:

we will start from highest level in the list we compare key of next node of current node with the key to be inserted.

Basic idea is if -

- (1) key of next node is less than key to be inserted then we keep on moving forward on the same level.
- (2) key of next node is greater than the key to be inserted then we store the pointer to current node  $i$  at  $update[i]$  we move one level down we continue our search.

At the level 0, we will definitely find a position to insert given key. Following

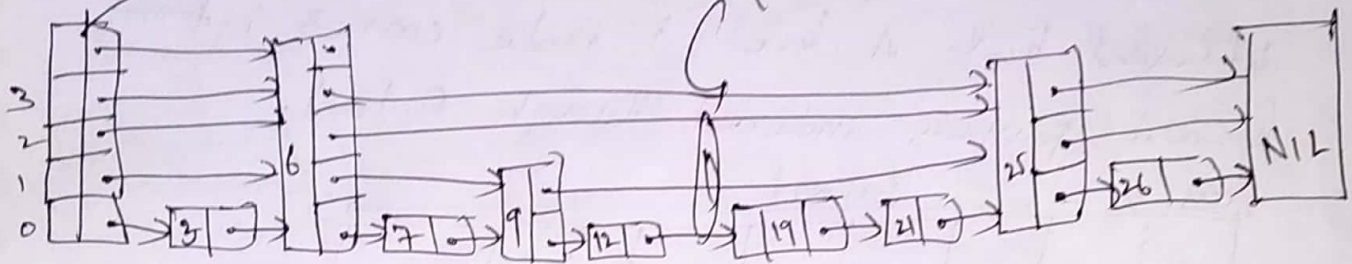
is here  $update[i]$  holds the pointer to node at level  $i$  from which we moved down to level  $i-1$  we point to node left to insertion position at level 0. Consider this example where we want to insert key 17.



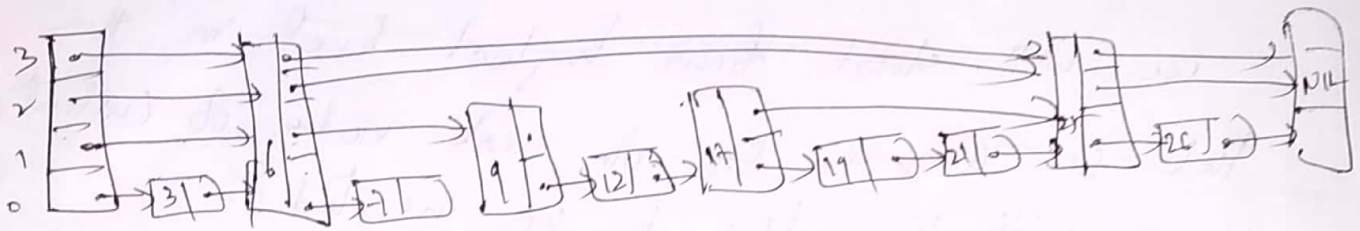
Example

search path

update [i] → forward [i]



original list 17 to be updated



level

Pointel

0	1	2	3
12	6	6	6

update array



# skip list

Type list  
 Invented 1989  
 Invented by W. Pugh.

<u>Algorithm</u>	<u>Time complexity in big O notation.</u>	
	<u>Average</u>	<u>worst case</u>
space	$O(n)$	$O(n \log n)$
search	$O(\log n)$	$O(n)$
Insert	$O(\log n)$	$O(n)$
Delete	$O(\log n)$	$O(n)$

## Applications of skip list

- \* skip list are used in distributed applications. In distributed systems, the nodes of skip list represented the computer systems & pointers represent a/w connection
- \* skip list are used for implementing highly scalable concurrent priority queues with less lock contention

What is Hashing:

Hashing is a technique for performing almost constant time in case of insertion deletion and find operation

Hashing is a technique that is used to uniquely identify a specific object from a group of similar objects.

mapping key must be simple to compute so must help in identifying the associated records.

Function that help us in generating such type of key is termed as Hash function.

Need of Hashing: Hashing is the process of mapping large amount of data item to a smaller table with the help of a hashing function. To essence of hashing is to facilitate the next level searching method when compared with the linear or binary search

The advantage of this searching method is its efficiency to hand vast amount of data items in a given collection (i.e collection size) Due to this hashing process, the result is a Hash data structure that can stores or retrieve data items in an average time disregard to the collection size.

Hash Table: Hash table support on col the most efficient type of searching. Fundamentally a hash table consists of an array in which data is accessed via a special index called key.

Application of Hash table:

- \* Database system
- \* symbol table in compiler
- \* Tagged buffer etc.



Hash table  $\rightarrow$

Hash table is a data structure which stores data in an associative manner. In a hash table, data is stored in an array format, where each data value has its own unique index value. Thus, it becomes a data structure in which insertion and search operations are ~~are~~ very fast irrespective of the size of the data.

Hash Table uses an array as a storage medium and uses hash technique to generate an index where an element is to be inserted or is to be located from.

Hashing:

Hashing is an important data structure which is designed to use a special function called the hash function which is used to map a given value with a particular key for faster access of elements. The efficiency of mapping depends on the efficiency of the hash function used.

Let a hash function  $H(x)$  maps the value  $x$  at the index  $x \% 10$  in an array.

For example if the list of value is  $[11, 12, 13, 14, 15]$  it will be stored at positions  $\{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$  in the array or hash table respectively.



# Hashing Data structure

$$\text{list} = \{11, 12, 13, 14, 15\}$$

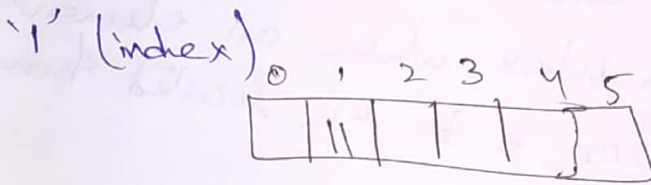
$$H(x) = [x \% 10]$$

X = Key

$$H(x) = 11 \% 10$$

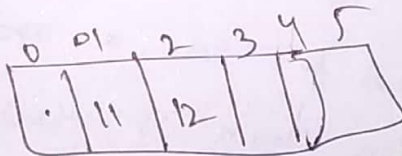
$$\begin{array}{r} 10 \overline{) 11} \quad (1 \\ \underline{10} \\ 1 \end{array}$$

Then '11' is placed in the place of



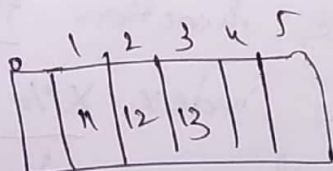
$$H(x) = 12 \% 10$$

$$\begin{array}{r} 10 \overline{) 12} \quad (1 \\ \underline{10} \\ 2 \end{array}$$



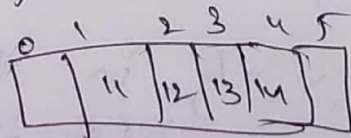
$$H(x) = 13 \% 10$$

$$\begin{array}{r} 10 \overline{) 13} \quad (1 \\ \underline{10} \\ 3 \end{array}$$



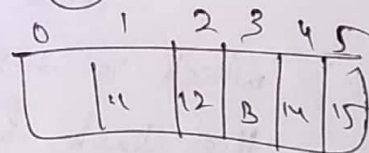
$$H(x) = 14 \% 10$$

$$\begin{array}{r} 10 \overline{) 14} \quad (1 \\ \underline{10} \\ 4 \end{array}$$



$$H(x) = 15 \% 10$$

$$\begin{array}{r} 10 \overline{) 15} \quad (1 \\ \underline{10} \\ 5 \end{array}$$

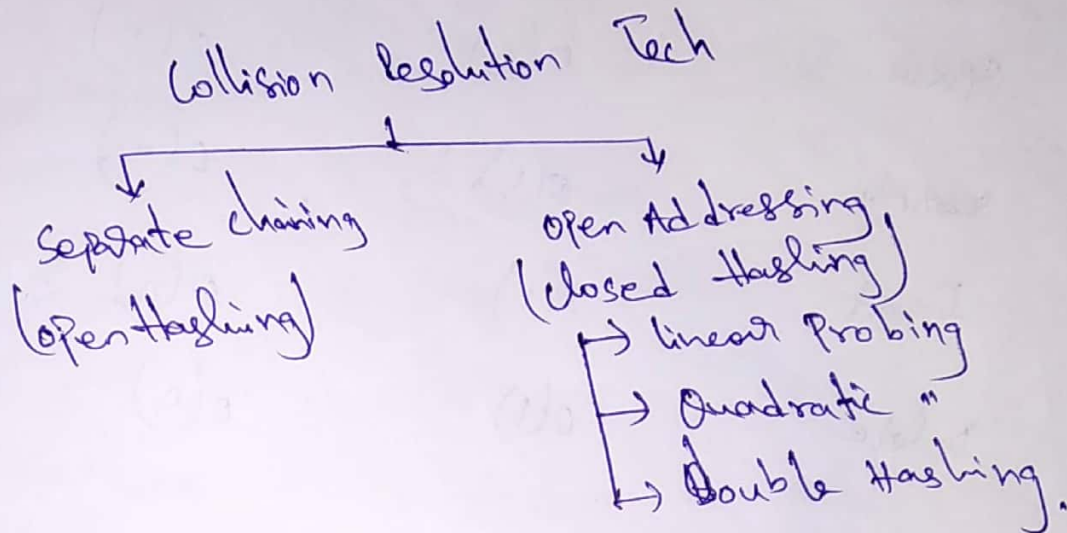


# Time Complexity in big O notation

Algorithm	Average	worst case
space	$O(n)$	$O(n)$
search	$O(1)$	$O(n)$
Insert	$O(1)$	$O(n)$
Delete	$O(1)$	$O(n)$

Collision Resolution:- Two key mapping to the same location in the hash table is called "Collision". Collision can be reduced with a selection of a good hash function.

Collision resolution techniques are classified as



\* Separate Chaining and Open Addressing.

Separate Chaining:- To handle the collision.

\* This technique creates a linked list to the slot for which collision occurs.

\* The new key is then inserted in the linked list.

\* These linked lists to the slots appear like chains

\* That is why, this technique is called as

Separate Chaining

Practic Problem Based on separate chaining

Problem:- Using the hash function 'key mod 7' insert the following sequence of keys in the hash table.

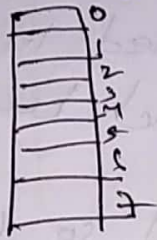
50, 700, 76, 85, 92, 73 and 101.

Use separate chaining technique for collision resolution. The given sequence of key will be inserted in the hash table as.



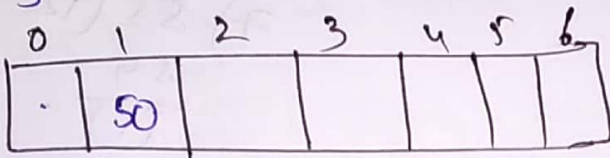
Step-01:- Draw an empty hash table.

- \* For the given hash function, the possible range of hash value is  $[0, 6]$
- \* So, draw an empty hash table consisting of 7 buckets as



Step-02:- Insert the given keys in the hash table one by one

- \* The first key to be inserted in the hash table = 50
- \* Bucket of the hash table to which key 50 maps =  $50 \bmod 7 = 1$
- \* So, key 50 will be inserted in bucket of the hash table of

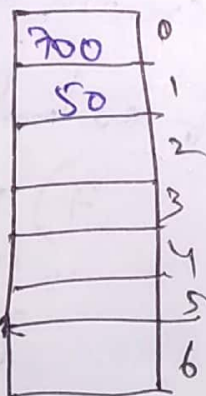


$$\begin{array}{r} 7 \overline{) 50} \\ \underline{49} \\ 1 \end{array}$$

Step-03:- The next key to be inserted in the hash table = 700

- \* Bucket of the hash table to which key 700 maps = 700
- $\text{mod } 7 = 0$
- \* So key 700 will be inserted in bucket-0 of the hash table

as



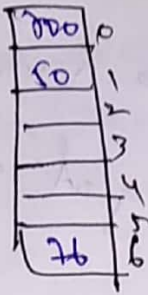
$$\begin{array}{r} 7 \overline{) 700} \\ \underline{700} \\ 0 \end{array}$$

Step-04:- The next key to be inserted in the hash

table = 76

- \* Bucket of the hash table to which key 76 maps = 6
- $\text{mod } 7 = 6$
- \* So, key 76 will be inserted in bucket-6 of the hash table





$$\begin{array}{r} 7) 76 \overline{) 10} \\ \underline{70} \\ 6 \end{array}$$

Step-05: - The next key to be inserted in the hash table = 85

\* Bucket of the hash table to which key 85 maps = 85

$$\text{mod } 7 = 1$$

\* Since bucket - 1 is already occupied, so collision occurs

\* Separate chaining handles the collision by creating a linked list to bucket = 1

\* So, key 85 will be inserted in bucket - 1 of the hash table.



$$\begin{array}{r} 7) 85 \overline{) 12} \\ \underline{84} \\ 1 \end{array}$$

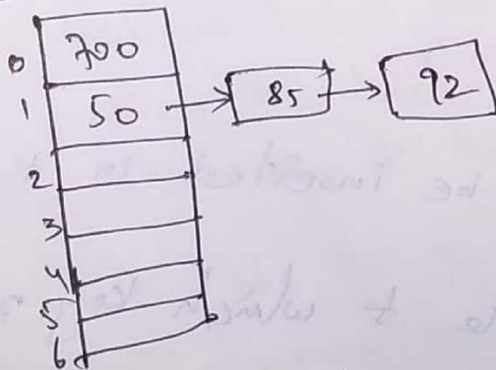
Step-06: - The next key to be inserted in the hash table = 92

\* Bucket of the hash table to which key 92 maps = 92 mod 7 = 1

\* Since bucket - 1 is already occupied, so collision occurs.

\* Separate chaining handles the collision by creating a linked list to bucket - 1

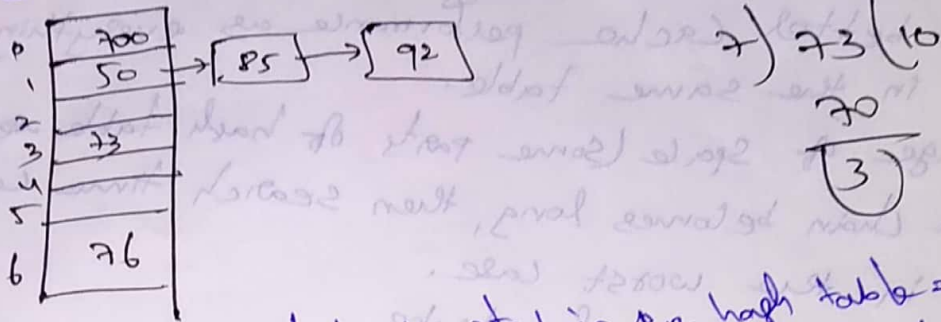
\* So, key 92 will be inserted in bucket - 1 of the hash table as:



$$\begin{array}{r} 7) 92 \overline{) 13} \\ \underline{91} \\ 1 \end{array}$$

Step-07: - The next key to be inserted in the hash table = 73

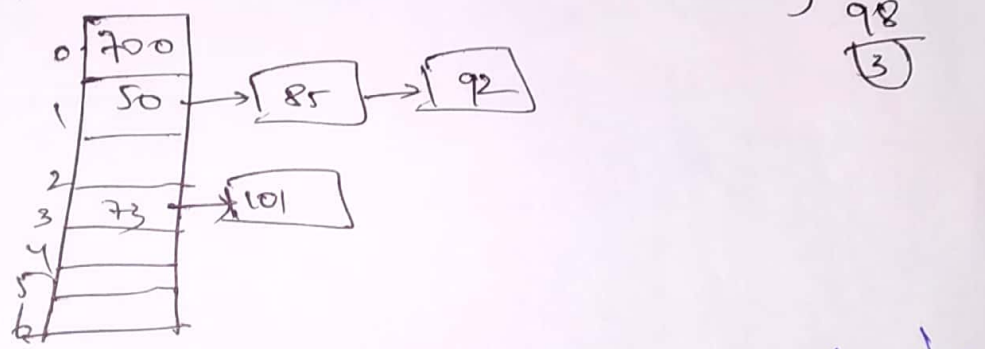
\* Bucket of the hash table to which key 73 maps  $= 73 \bmod 73$   
 \* so, key 73 will be inserted in bucket -3 of the hash table as



step-08 The next key to be inserted in the hash table = 101  
 \* Bucket of the hash table to which key 101 maps  $= 101 \bmod 73$

\* Since bucket -3 is already occupied, so collision occurs  
 \* separate chaining handles the collision by creating a linked list to bucket -3

\* so, key 101 will be inserted in bucket -3 of the hash table as



Advantage:- The biggest advantage of separate chaining is its collision avoidance capabilities. This means that many data items may be hashed with the same keys creating long link chains

- \* simple to implement
- \* Hash table never fills up, we can always add more elements to the chain.
- \* less sensitive to the hash function or load factors
- \* It is mostly used when it is known how many & how frequently key may inserted or deleted

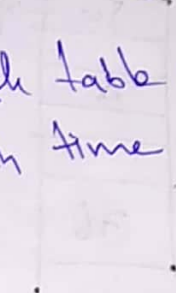


Disadvantages:- Cache performance of chaining is not good as key are stored using linked list. open addressing provides better cache performance as everything is stored in the same table.

- \* wastage of space (some parts of hash table are never used)
- \* If the chain becomes long, then search time can become  $O(n)$  in the worst case.

\* uses extra space for links

Time complexity:- This approach is  $O(N)$  where  $N$  is the size of the string.



The project advantages for separate chaining is its collision avoidance capabilities. This means that many data items may be hashed into the same bucket. Creating long and long chains. It is simple to implement. \* Hash table never fills up, we can always add more elements to the chain. \* Use sensitive to the hash function or bad for \* It is mostly used when it is known how many \* It is mostly used when it is known how many

Difference b/w separate chaining (open Hashing) and open Addressing (closed Hashing).

chaining

- \* elements can be stored at outside of the table
- \* In chaining at anytime the no. of elements in the hash table may greater than the size of the hash table
- \* In case of deletion ~~chaining~~ chaining is the best method
- \* chaining requires more space.

open Addressing

- \* In open addressing elements should be stored inside the table only
- \* In open addressing the no. of elements present in the hash table will not exceed to no. of indices in hash table.
- \* If deletion is not required only inserting & searching is required open addressing is better.
- \* open addressing requires less space than chaining.



Hashing Name

Hash Function

Hashing with chaining

$$h(k) = k \bmod n$$

Linear Probing

$$h(k, i) = (h'(k) + i) \bmod m$$

$$h'(k) = k \bmod m$$

Quadratic Probing

$$h(k, i) = (h'(k) + c_1 i + c_2 i^2) \bmod m$$

$$h'(k) = k \bmod m$$

$$h'(k) = k \bmod m$$

$c_1$  &  $c_2$  are constant

Double Hashing

$$h(k, i) = (h_1(k) + i \cdot h_2(k)) \bmod m$$

$$h_1(k) = k \bmod m$$

$$h_2(k) = k \bmod m$$

Here  $m$  is slightly lesser

than  $m_1$  (say  $m_1$  or  $m_2$ )

Open addressing or closed hashing: Is a method of collision resolution in hash tables. With this method a hash collision is resolved by probing, or searching through alternate locations in the array until either ~~that~~ the target record is found, or an unused array slot is found, which indicates that there is no such key in the table. Well known probe sequences include.

Insert: ( $k$ ): key probing until an empty slot is found. Once an empty slot is found, insert  $k$ .

Search ( $k$ ): keep probing until slot's key doesn't become equal to  $k$  or an empty slot is reached.

Delete ( $k$ ): Delete operation is interesting, if we simply delete a key, then search may fail. So slots of deleted keys are marked specially as "deleted".

Insert can insert an item in a deleted slot, but the search doesn't stop at a deleted.

Probing (try)



## Linear Probing:-

\* when collision occurs, we linearly probe for the next slot(bucket).

\* we keep probing until an empty bucket is found.

In linear probing, we linearly probe for next slot. For example, typical gap between two

probes is 1 as taken in below example also.

Advantage:- It is easy to compute.

Disadvantage:- The main problem with linear probing is clustering.

\* many consecutive elements from groups.

\* Then, it takes time to search an element or to find an empty bucket.

Time Complexity:- Worst time to search an element in linear probing is  $O(\text{table size})$ .

\* Even if there is only one element present and all other elements are deleted

\* Then, "deleted" marker present in the hash table makes search the entire table.



Alg:-

\* use an array of linked list

→ `LinkedList[] Table;`

→ `Table = new LinkedList(N)`, where  $N$  is the table size

\* Define load factor of Table as

→  $\lambda = \text{no. of keys} / \text{size of the table}$

( $\lambda$  can be more than 1)

\* still need a good hash function to distribute keys evenly.

\* for search and updates.

Advantages:

\* Simple to implement.

\* Hash table never fills up, we can always add more elements to the chain.

\* less sensitive to the hash function or load factors

\* It is mostly used when it is unknown how frequently keys may be inserted or deleted.

## Disadvantages:

- \* cache performance of chaining is not good as keys are stored using a linked list. open addressing provides better cache performance as everything is stored in the same table.
- \* wastage of space (some parts of hash table are never used).
- \* If the chain becomes long, then search time can become  $O(n)$  in the worst case.
- \* uses extra space for links.

## Linear Probing:

The idea:

- \* Table remains a simple array of size  $N$
- \* on insert( $x$ ), compute  $f(x) \bmod N$ , if the cell is full, find another by sequentially searching for the next available slot.
  - \* Go to  $f(x) + 1$ ,  $f(x) + 2$  etc...
- \* on find( $x$ ), compute  $f(x) \bmod N$ , if the cell doesn't match, look elsewhere.
- \* Linear Probing function can be given by  
$$\rightarrow h(x, i) = (f(x) + i) \bmod N \quad (i = 1, 2, \dots)$$

Clustering: - The main problem with linear probing is clustering, many consecutive elements from groups and it starts taking time to find a free slot or to search an element.



when home address is occupied, go to the next address  
(current address + 1)

In this method, when a collision occurs, the record is placed in the next available bucket. If an empty bucket is not found till the end of the table, then again search for available bucket is done from start of the table upto the home bucket. In other words, when searching for a empty bucket, the table is considered to be circular.

For example:-

let us take the hash function  $f(k) = k \% 5$

3, 9, 8, 6, 4

$f(3) = 3 \% 5 = 3$

0	1	2	3	4
			3	

Here '3' is installed in place 3<sup>rd</sup> place in hash table.

$f(9) = 9 \% 5 = 4$

0	1	2	3	4
			3	9

Here '9' is going to be inserted in the place of 4<sup>th</sup> place in hash table.

$f(8) = 8 \% 5 = 3$

0	1	2	3	4
8			3	9

Here '8' is inserted in the place of

$f(6) = 6 \% 5 = 1$

0	1	2	3	4
8	6		3	9

$f(4) = 4 \% 5 = 4$

0	1	2	3	4
8	6	4	3	9

Example:

Cells  $h_0(x)$ ,  $h_1(x)$ ,  $h_2(x)$  ... are tried in succession where  
 $h_i(x) = (\text{hash } h_{i-1}(x) + f(i)) \bmod \text{TableSize}$  with  $f(0) = 0$

The function  $f$  is the collision resolution strategy.

36, 18, 72, 43, 93, 47, 40, 76, 55

Hash key = key % table size

Step 1:

$$36 \% 8$$

$$\begin{array}{r} 8 \overline{) 36} \quad (4) \\ \underline{32} \\ (4) \end{array}$$

Now '36' is inserted in the space of 4<sup>th</sup> place. Now Hash table is

0	1	2	3	36	4	5	6	7
---	---	---	---	----	---	---	---	---

0
1
2
3
4
5
6
7

Step 2:-

$$18 \% 8$$

$$\begin{array}{r} 8 \overline{) 18} \quad (2) \\ \underline{16} \\ (2) \end{array}$$

0
1
18
2
36
4
5
6
7



Step 3: The next key to be inserted in the hash table = 72.

\* Bucket of the hash table to which key 72 maps =  $72 \bmod 8$

$$72 \% 8 = 0$$

$$\begin{array}{r} 8 \overline{) 72} \phantom{0} \\ \underline{72} \phantom{0} \\ 0 \end{array}$$

Now <sup>hash</sup> Table

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
72		18		36			

Step 4: The next key to be inserted in the hash table = 43

\* Bucket of the hash table to which key 43 maps =  $43 \bmod 8$

$$43 \% 8 = 3$$

$$\begin{array}{r} 8 \overline{) 43} \phantom{0} \\ \underline{40} \phantom{0} \\ 3 \end{array}$$

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
72		18	43	36			

Step 5: The next key to be inserted in the hash table = 93

\* Bucket of the hash table to which key 93 maps =  $93 \bmod 8$

$$93 \% 8 = 5$$

$$\begin{array}{r} 8 \overline{) 93} \phantom{0} \\ \underline{88} \phantom{0} \\ 5 \end{array}$$

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
72		18	43	36	93		

Step 6: The next key to be inserted in the hash table = 47

\* Bucket of the hash table to which key 47 maps =  $47 \bmod 8$

$$47 \% 8 = 7$$

$$\begin{array}{r} 8 \overline{) 47} \phantom{0} \\ \underline{40} \phantom{0} \\ 7 \end{array}$$

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
72		18	43	36	93		47



Step 7: The next key to be inserted in the hash table = 40  
 \* Bucket of the hash table to which key 40 maps =  $40 \text{ mod } 8$   
 \* Since bucket (hash table) is already occupied, so collision occurs  
 \* When collision occurs, the record is placed in the next available bucket (hash table)

$$\begin{array}{r} 8 \overline{) 40} \quad (5) \\ \underline{40} \\ 0 \end{array}$$

Then 0<sup>th</sup> position is already occupied with some data, it searches next empty position in the hash table. Now

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
72	40	18	43	36	93	20	47

1<sup>st</sup> position is empty it placed (inserted) in the 1<sup>st</sup> position.

Step 8: The next key to be inserted in the hash table = 76  
 \* Bucket of the hash table to which key 76 maps =  $76 \text{ mod } 8$   
 \* Since bucket (hash table) is already occupied, so collision occurs.  
 \* When collision occurs the record is inserted in the next available bucket (hash table)

$$\begin{array}{r} 8 \overline{) 76} \quad (9) \\ \underline{72} \\ 4 \end{array}$$

The 4<sup>th</sup> position is already occupied with some data it searches next empty position in the hash table. Now the 6<sup>th</sup> position is empty it inserted in the 6<sup>th</sup> position.

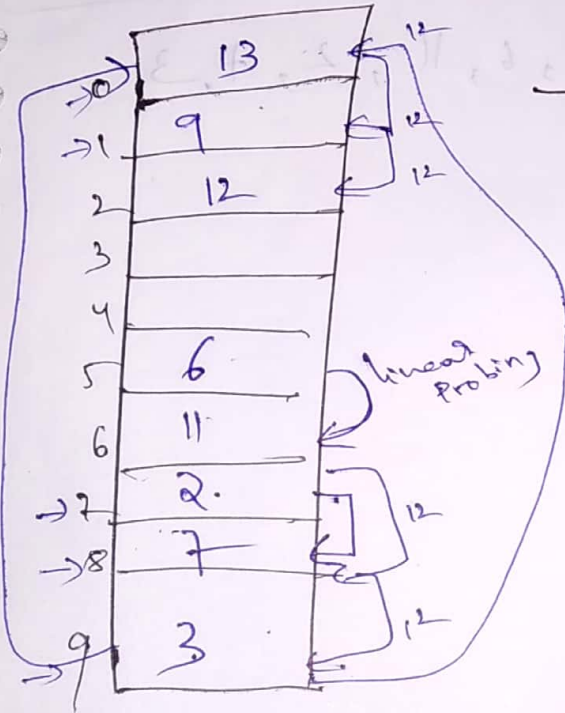
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
72	40	18	<del>43</del>	<del>36</del>	93	76	47



Linear probing Example → 3, 2, 9, 6, 11, 13, 19, 12  
 use Division method & open addressing to  
 store these values

$$h(k) = 2k + 3$$

$$m = 10$$



key	location (u)	Probes
3	$((2 \times 3) + 3) \% 10 = 9$	1
2	$((2 \times 2) + 3) \% 10 = 7$	1
9	$((2 \times 9) + 3) \% 10 = 1$	1
6	$((2 \times 6) + 3) \% 10 = 5$	1
11	$((2 \times 11) + 3) \% 10 = 5$	2
13	$((2 \times 13) + 3) \% 10 = 9$	2
7	$((2 \times 7) + 3) \% 10 = 7$	2
12	$((2 \times 12) + 3) \% 10 = 7$	6

Step 1:-  $3 \rightarrow (2 \times 3) + 3 \Rightarrow 6 + 3 \Rightarrow 9 \% 10 = 9$

Step 2:-  $2 \rightarrow (2 \times 2) + 3 \Rightarrow (4 + 3) \% 10 \Rightarrow 7 \% 10 = 7$

Step 3:-  $9 \rightarrow ((2 \times 9) + 3) \% 10 \Rightarrow (18 + 3) \% 10 \Rightarrow 21 \% 10 \Rightarrow 1$

Step 4:- 6  
 $((2 \times 6) + 3) \% 10$   
 $(12 + 3) \% 10$   
 $15 \% 10 \Rightarrow 5$

10) 15  
 $\frac{10}{5}$  Collision

Step 5:-  
 $11 \rightarrow ((2 \times 11) + 3) \% 10$   
 $(22 + 3) \% 10$   
 $25 \% 10 = 5$

10) 25  
 $\frac{20}{5}$  Collision  
 occurred

Step 6:-  
 $13 \rightarrow ((2 \times 13) + 3) \% 10$   
 $(36 + 3) \% 10$   
 $39 \% 10 = 9$   
 10) 39 ( Collision  
 $\frac{30}{9}$  occurred  
 linear search

Step 7  $\rightarrow ((2 \times 7) + 3) \% 10$

$(14 + 3) \% 10$

$17 \% 10 = 7$

$\begin{array}{r} 10 \overline{) 17} \\ \underline{10} \\ 7 \end{array}$

Collision occured

Step 8  $\rightarrow ((2 \times 12) + 3) \% 10$

$(24 + 3) \% 10$

$27 \% 10$

$27 \div 10 = 2 \text{ remainder } 7$

Order

13, 9, 12, -, -, 6, 11, 2, 7, 3

1	13	13
2	9	9
3	12	12
4	-	-
5	-	-
6	6	6
7	11	11
8	2	2
9	7	7
10	3	3

$P = 01.10P \rightarrow (2 \times 13) + 3 = 29 \rightarrow 29 \% 10 = 9$   
 $f = 01.01f \rightarrow (2 \times 9) + 3 = 21 \rightarrow 21 \% 10 = 1$   
 $l = 01.01l \rightarrow (2 \times 12) + 3 = 27 \rightarrow 27 \% 10 = 7$   
 $g = 01.01g \rightarrow (2 \times 6) + 3 = 15 \rightarrow 15 \% 10 = 5$   
 $h = 01.01h \rightarrow (2 \times 11) + 3 = 25 \rightarrow 25 \% 10 = 5$   
 $i = 01.01i \rightarrow (2 \times 2) + 3 = 7 \rightarrow 7 \% 10 = 7$   
 $j = 01.01j \rightarrow (2 \times 7) + 3 = 17 \rightarrow 17 \% 10 = 7$   
 $k = 01.01k \rightarrow (2 \times 3) + 3 = 9 \rightarrow 9 \% 10 = 9$



Quadratic Probing! — This method of resolving collision uses the following formula.

Quadratic probing is an open addressing scheme in computer programming for resolving collision in hash tables. When an incoming data's hash value indicates it should be stored in an already occupied slot or bucket. Quadratic probing operates by taking the original hash index and adding successive values of an arbitrary quadratic polynomial until an open slot is found.

Quadratic probing is similar to linear probing.

The difference is that if you were to try to insert into a space that is filled you would first check  $1^2 = 1$  element away then  $2^2 = 4$  elements away then  $3^2 = 9$  element away then  $4^2 = 16$  elements away and so on.

With linear probing we know that we will always find an open spot if one exists (it might be a long search but we will find it). However, this is not the case with quadratic probing unless you take care in the choosing of the table size. For example consider what happens would happen in the following situation.

Table size is 16. First 5 pieces of data that all hash to index 2.

\* First piece goes to index 2.

\* Second piece goes to 3  $((2+1) \% 16)$

\* Third " " " 6  $((2+4) \% 16)$

\* Fourth " " " "  $((2+9) \% 16)$

\* Fifth " " " " " " " " " " " "

\* fifth piece doesn't get inserted because  
 $(2+16) \% 16 = 2$  which is full so we end up  
back where we started and we haven't searched  
all empty spots.

In order to guarantee that your quadratic probe  
will hit every single available spot eventually, your  
table size must meet these requirements.

\* Be a prime number.

\* never be more than half full (even by one element)

$$h(x, i) = (h(x) + i^2) \bmod m$$

where  $m$  is the hash table size

and  $i = 0, 1, 2, \dots, m-1$



Disadvantage:— Can suffer from secondary clustering.  
 If two keys have the same initial probe position then their probe sequences are the same.  
 Insertion sometimes fails although the table still has free fields.

```
void insert (key, r[])
```

```
{ int n;
```

```
  int i, last;
```

```
  i = hash function (key); /* Computes h(x) */
```

```
  last = (i + m - 1) % m;
```

```
  while (i != last && !empty (r[i]) && !deleted (r[i])  
         && r[i] != key)
```

```
    i = (i * i + 1) % m;
```

```
  if (empty (r[i]) || deleted (r[i]))
```

```
    r[i] = key; /* * insert here */
```

```
  else Error; /* * Error: table full or key already  
              in table */
```

```
}
```

Advantages:— Compared to linear probing access becomes inefficient at a high load factor.



## Example:

Alg:-

- \* Another open addressing method.
- \* Resolve collision by examining certain cells (1, 2, 3, ...)
- away from the original probe point
- \* Collision policy:  
Define  $h_0(x), h_1(x), h_2(x), h_3(x), \dots$   
where  $h_i(x) = (\text{hash}(x) + i) \bmod \text{size}$

\* Caveat:

\* may not find a vacant cell!

\* Probe must be less than half full

\* linear probing always finds a cell. ( $\lambda < 1/2$ )

Example: Assume a table has 10 slots. using QP insert the following elements in the given order 89, 18, 49, 58 and 69 all inserted into a hash table.

Now  
step 1:  
 $10 \overline{) 89} (8$  then 89 is occupied  
 $\underline{80}$  9<sup>th</sup> position in the  
 $\underline{9}$  hash table.

49	0
	1
	2
69	3
	4
	5
	6
58	7
<del>18</del>	8
89	9

step 2:  
 $10 \overline{) 18} (1$  Now 18 is occupied  
 $\underline{10}$  by '08' position is  
 $\underline{8}$  the hash table

step 3:  
 $10 \overline{) 49} (4$  Now 49 is occupied by '49' in the  
 $\underline{40}$  position 9<sup>th</sup> place but 9<sup>th</sup> position  
 $\underline{9}$  already occupied by '89' Now

Collision occurred.

Insert at  $9 + 1^2 = 9 + 1 = 10 \Rightarrow 1 + 0 = 0$ .

0<sup>th</sup> position 49 is occupied.  
 // by already 8<sup>th</sup> position is occupied

step 4:  
 $10 \overline{) 58} (5$  Now Insert 58=8 is occupied by  
 $\underline{50}$  next 3 locations are occupied  
 $\underline{8}$  So  $8 + 3^2 = 8 + 9 = 17 \Rightarrow 7$  location



Step 5:-  $69 \% 10 = 9$

$$\begin{array}{r} 10 \overline{) 69} \quad (6 \\ \underline{60} \\ 9 \end{array}$$

2 attempts  $- 2^2 = 4$  spots

$9 + 2^2 \Rightarrow 13 = 3$  or 4 places

Deriv: Time required to search the probe number

$(n+1)^2 = n^2 + 2n + 1$  increment factor.

Example: solution in quadratic probing

relatively check

$(\text{hash}(\text{key}) + i^2) \text{ Mod } N$

$h(x) = x \text{ mod } 10$

key = (2, 12, 22, 32)

step 1:- hash = (2, 2, 2, 2)



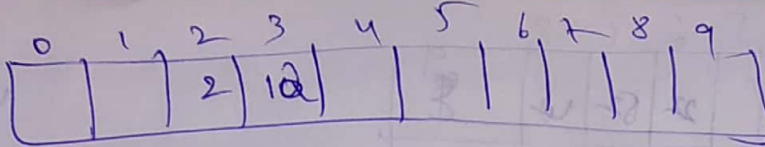
Step 2:

$$\begin{array}{r} 10 \overline{) 12} \quad (1 \\ \underline{10} \\ 2 \end{array}$$

To store 10 value in table we have to apply formula  $(\text{hash}(\text{key}) + i^2) \text{ Mod } N$   
 Now hash(key) is '2'

$2 + i^2 = 2 + 1 = 3$  Now 10 is going to store in 3rd position.





Step 3:- Now 22 value again it is pointing to the location  
 2nd then again we have to apply Quadratic  $10) \frac{22}{2} (2$

Probing

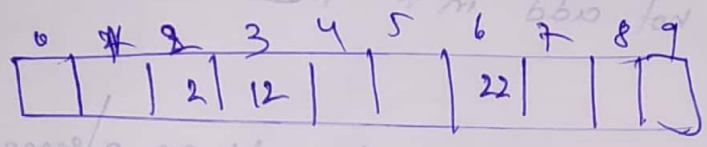
Now check

$2 + 1^2 = 3$  false

$2 + 2^2 = 2 + 4 = 6$

Now, 22 is going

to store in the position '6th'



Step 4:- Now 32 value again it is pointing to the 2nd location. The 2nd position is not empty. apply  $10) \frac{32}{30} (3$

position is not empty. apply

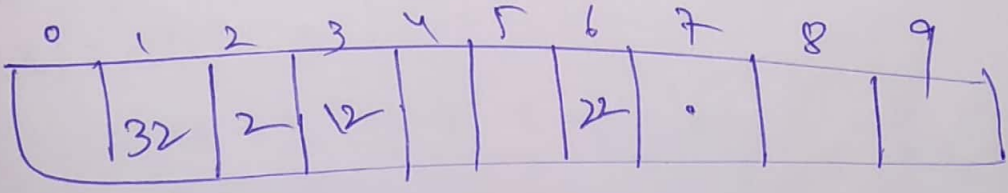
Now

\*  $2 + 1^2 = 3$  false

\*  $2 + 2^2 = 2 + 4 = 6$  false.

\*  $2 + 3^2 = 2 + 9 = 11$

11 is equal to 1.



Step 5:- Now we want add '12' then we will

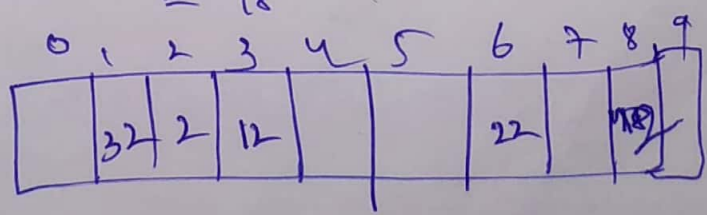
$2 + 1^2 = 3$

$2 + 4^2 = 2 + 16$

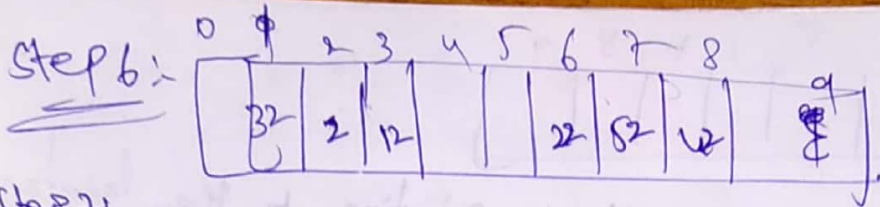
$2 + 2^2 = 6$

$= 18$

$2 + 3^2 = 11$



up to n-1 we can go



$$10) \begin{array}{r} 27 \\ 20 \\ \hline 7 \end{array}$$

Step 7:

To add 62

$$10) \begin{array}{r} 62 \\ 60 \\ \hline 2 \end{array}$$

$$2 + 3^2 = 11 \% 10 = 1$$

$$2 + 4^2 = 18 \% 10 = 8$$

$$2 + 5^2 = 27 \% 10 = 7$$

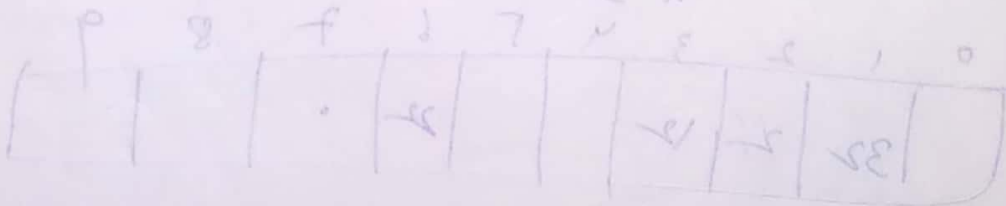
$$2 + 10^2 = 2 + 100 = 102 \% 10 = 2$$

62 we can not add in to the hash table after doing all iteration

Secondary clustering: unable to add an element in quadratic probing, because the index calculated is never empty

This occurs in quadratic probing

There are empty space but still we can not enter in the quadratic probing



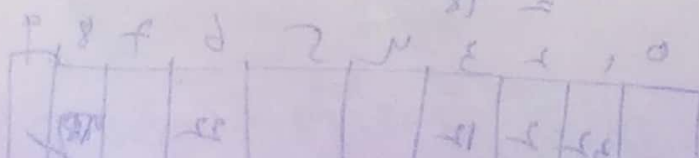
Now we want add 62, then we will

$$2 + 11^2 = 123 \% 10 = 3$$

$$2 + 1^2 = 3$$

$$2 + 2^2 = 6$$

$$2 + 2^2 = 6$$



$$2 + 3^2 = 11$$



3, 2, 9, 6, 11, 13, 7, 12  $i = 0 \text{ to } (m-1)$

$h(k) = 2k + 3$   $m = 10$

0	13
1	9
2	
3	12
4	
5	6
6	11
7	2
8	7
9	3
	UUU

Key	location(u)	probe
3	$(2 \times 3) + 3 \pmod{10} = 9$	1
2	$(2 \times 2) + 3 \pmod{10} = 7$	1
9	$(2 \times 9) + 3 \pmod{10} = 1$	1
6	$(2 \times 6) + 3 \pmod{10} = 5$	1
11	$(2 \times 11) + 3 \pmod{10} = 5$ $= 6$	2
13	$(2 \times 13) + 3 \pmod{10} = 0$	2
7	$(2 \times 7) + 3 \pmod{10} = 7$	2
12	$(2 \times 12) + 3 \pmod{10} = 3$	5

In Quadratic Probing  $(u + i^2) \% m$

~~Step 2:-~~

Step 1:-

$h(k) = 2k + 3$

$h(2) = 2(2) + 3$

$= 4 + 3 \Rightarrow 7$

$= 7 \% 10$

$= (2 \times 3 + 3)$

$\Rightarrow 6 + 3 \Rightarrow 9 \% 10$

Step 3:-

$9 = 2(9) + 3$

$= 18 + 3$

$= 21 \% 10$

$10 \overline{) 21} \begin{matrix} 2 \\ \underline{20} \\ 1 \end{matrix} = 1$

Step 4:-

$6 = (2)(6) + 3$

$= 12 + 3$

$= 15 \% 10$

$10 \overline{) 15} \begin{matrix} 1 \\ \underline{10} \\ 5 \end{matrix}$

Step 5:-

$(11)(6) + 3$

$22 + 3$

$25 \% 10$

$10 \overline{) 25} \begin{matrix} 2 \\ \underline{20} \\ 5 \end{matrix}$

Collision Here.



If collision occurs use the quadratic

probing

- use  $k_i$  at first free location from  $(u + i^2) \% m$
- where  $i = 0$  to  $m - 1$

Now

step 5:- Now  $u = 5$

$$11 \rightarrow (5 + 0^2) \% 10$$

$$5 \% 10$$

5 already occupied

$$(5 + 1^2) \% 10$$

$$(5 + 1) \% 10$$

$$6 \% 10$$

$$6$$

step 6:-  $(2 \times 13) + 3$

$$26 + 3 = 29 = 9$$

Now  $(u + i^2) \% 10$

$$(9 + 0) \% 10$$

$$9 \% 10 = 9$$

$$(9 + 1) \% 10 = 0$$

step 7:-  $7 \Rightarrow (2 \times 7) + 3$

$$(u + i^2) \% m$$

$$7 + i^2 \% 10$$

$$7 + 0^2 \% 10$$

$$7 + 0 \% 10$$

$$7 \% 10 = 7$$

$$8 \% 10 = 8$$

step 8:-  $(2 \times 12) + 3$

$$(7 + 2^2) \% 10$$

$$(u + i^2) \% m \Rightarrow 7 + 0 = 7 \% 10 = 7$$

$$(7 + 4) \% 10$$

$$7 + 1 = 8 \% 10 = 8$$

$$11 \% 10 = 1$$

$$(7 + 3^2) \% 10$$

$$(7 + 9) \% 10$$

$$16 \% 10 \Rightarrow 6$$

$$(7 + 4^2) \% 10$$

$$(7 + 16) \% 10$$

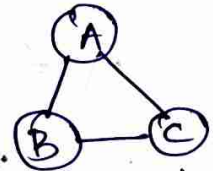
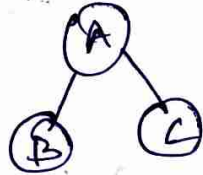
$$23 \% 10$$

$$= 3$$

Order 13, 9, -, 12, -, 6, 11, 2, 7, 3

## UNIT - III

Tree: A tree is a collection of nodes connected by directed (or undirected) edges. A tree is a non linear data structure.

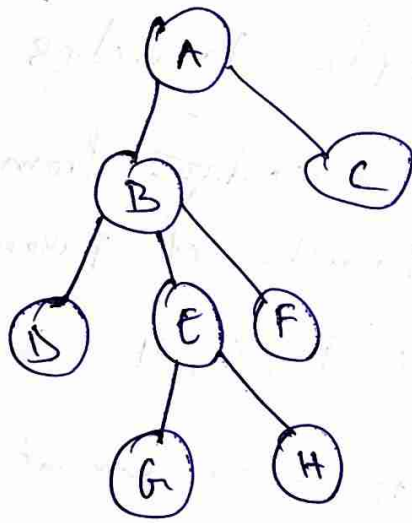


Not a tree  
bez closed.

Element - Nodes

We are going to represent by Nodes

Node: Element of a tree is called Node



Simple tree

A can have no. of nodes.

A, B, C, D, E, F, G, H are elements or nodes

Root Node: Starting Node of tree called root node.

In ~~the~~ example 'A' is a root node  
Tree will have only one root



Edge: edge is a link or connection b/w two nodes.

For tree  $N$ -nodes it will be having  $(N-1)$  edges.

$N = \text{No. of nodes}$   
 $= 8 \text{ nodes}$

$E = 7 \text{ edges}$   $(N-1) \Rightarrow (8-1) \Rightarrow 7$

Parent :- Node with branches from top to bottom

In example: A, B, E are parent nodes.

Parent Node can have multiple branches

Child :- Node with ~~branch~~ edge from bottom to top. (or) Branches of parent.

In example B, C, D, E, F, G, H  $\rightarrow$  child.

Siblings :- Child nodes of same parent node

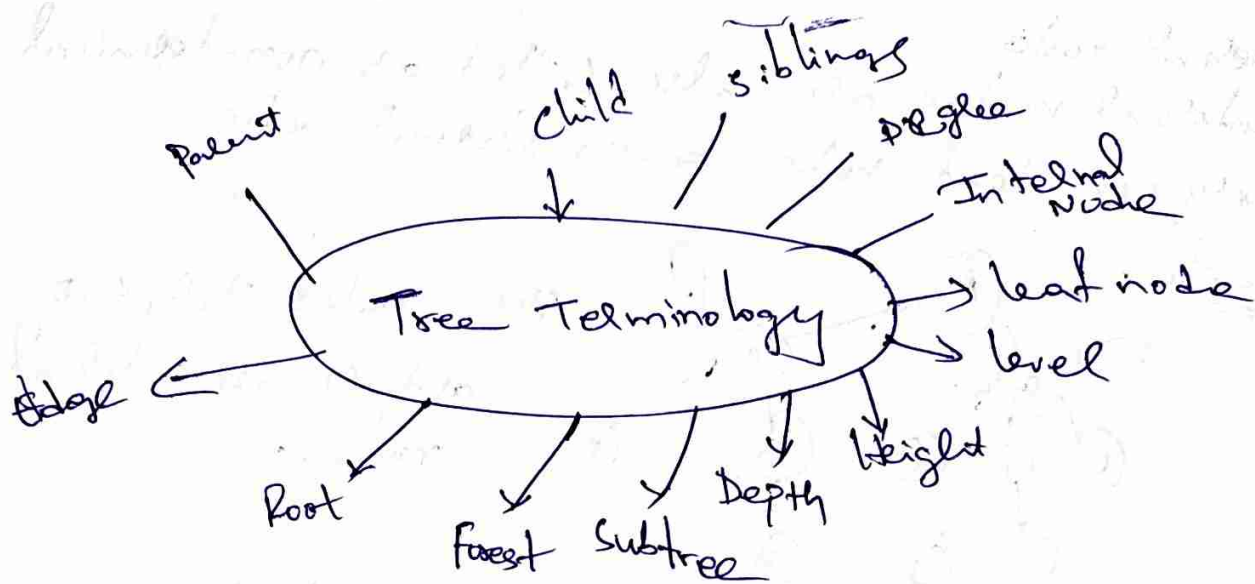
In example B, C - are siblings

D, E, F - " "

G, H - " "

Leaf :- Node without child node.

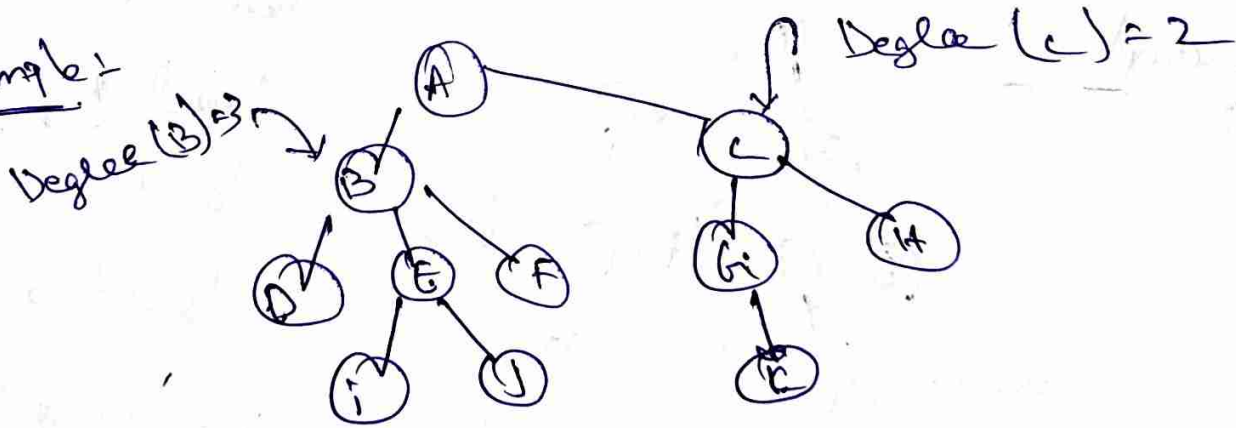
In example :- C, D, F, G, H



Degree:-

- Degree of a node is the total no. of children of that node
- Degree of a tree is the highest degree of a node among all the nodes in the tree.

Example:-



Here:-

* Degree of node		Value
A	=	2
B	=	3
C	=	2
D	=	2
E	=	2
F	=	0
G	=	1

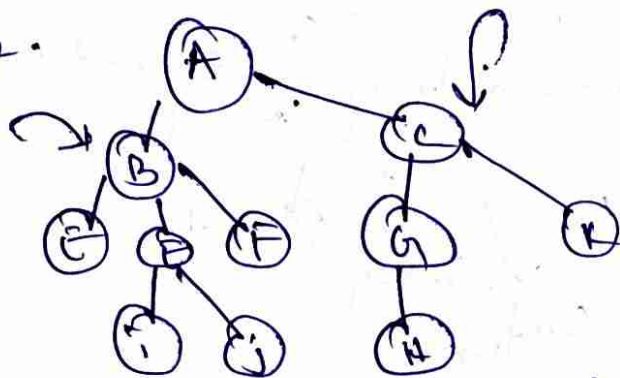
Degree of node		Value
H	=	0
I	=	0
J	=	0
K	=	0



## Internal Node:-

- \* The node which has at least one child is called as an internal node.
- \* Internal nodes are also called as non-terminal nodes.
- \* Every non-leaf node is an internal node.

Example.

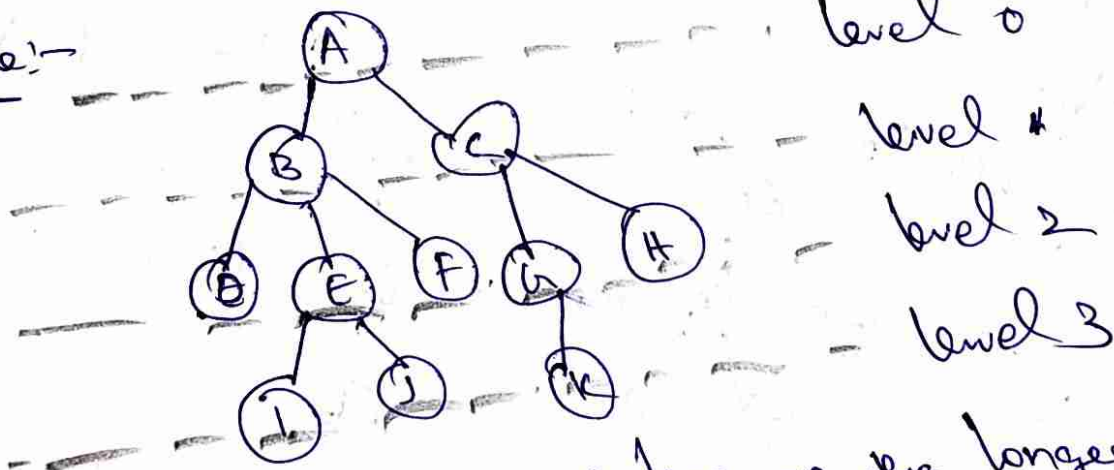


Here nodes A, B, C, E and G are internal nodes.

Level:- In a tree, each step from top to bottom is called as level of a tree.

- \* The level count starts with 0 i.e. increment by 1 each level or step.

Example:-

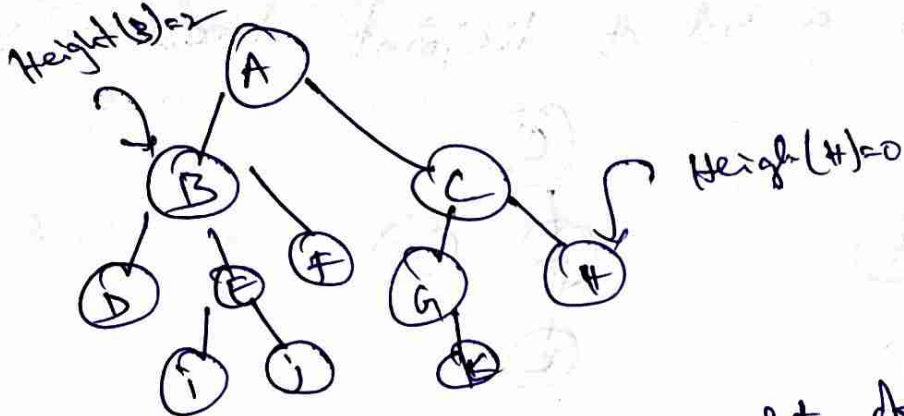


Height:- Total no. of edges that lies on the longest path from any leaf node to a particular node is called as height of that node.

- \* Height of a tree is the height of root node.
- \* Height of all leaf nodes = 0

Example





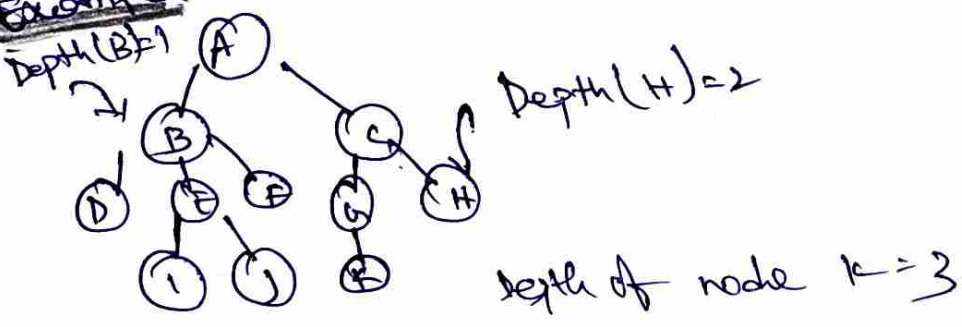
Hele:-  
 Height of node A = 3  
 " " " B = 2  
 " " " C = 2  
 " " " D = 0  
 " " " E = 1

Height of node F = 0  
 " " " G = 1  
 " " " H = 0  
 " " " I = 0  
 " " " J = 0  
 " " " K = 0

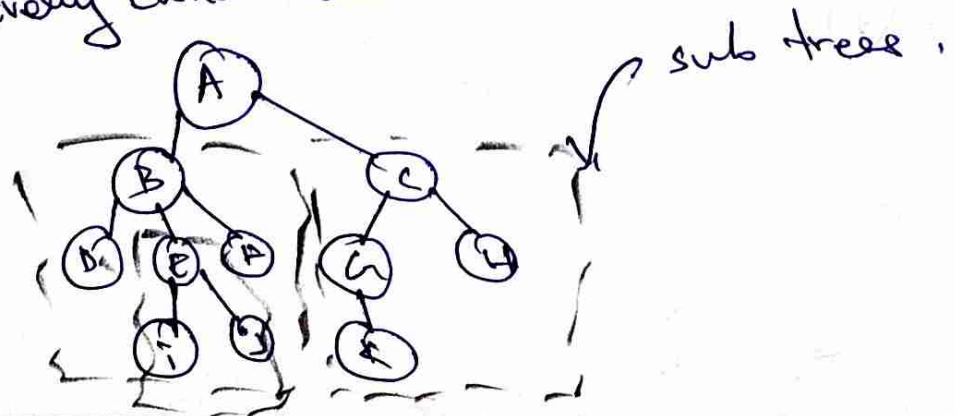
Depth :- Total no. of edges from root node to a particular node is called as depth of that node.  
 \* Depth of a tree is the total no. of edges from root node to a leaf node in the longest path.  
 \* Depth of the root node = 0

\* The term "level" or "depth" are used interchangeably.  
 Hele \* Depth of node A = 0  
 " " " B = 1  
 " " " C = 1  
 " " " D = 2  
 " " " E = 2  
 " " " F = 2  
 " " " G = 2  
 " " " H = 1  
 " " " I = 3  
 " " " J = 3

Example

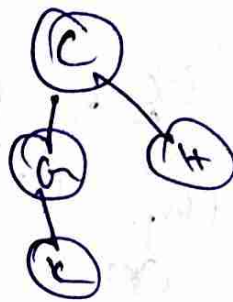
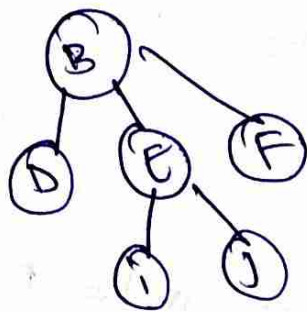


Sub tree :- In a tree, each child from a node forms a sub tree recursively.  
 \* Every child node forms a subtree on its parent node.



Forest: A forest is a set of disjoint trees.

Example:



Forest

Application of trees :-

\* class hierarchy in Java

\* File system.

\* string hierarchies in organization.

Tree ADT :- whatever the implement of a tree is, its interface is the following.

\* root()

\* size()

\* isEmpty()

\* parent(v)

\* children(v)

\* isInternal(v)

\* isExternal(v)

\* bloot()



Binary Tree :- A binary tree is a tree data structure where each node has up to two child nodes, creating the branches of the tree. The two children are usually called the left and right nodes. Parent nodes are nodes with children, while child nodes may include reference to their parents.

Explains Binary Tree: A binary tree is made up of at most two nodes, often called the left or right nodes, and a data element. The topmost node of the tree is called the root node, and the left or right pointers direct to smaller subtrees on either side.

Binary trees are used to implement binary search trees and binary heaps. They are also often used for sorting data as in a heap sort.

Binary Tree Representation in C: A tree is represented by a pointer to the topmost node in tree. If the tree is empty, then value of root is NULL.

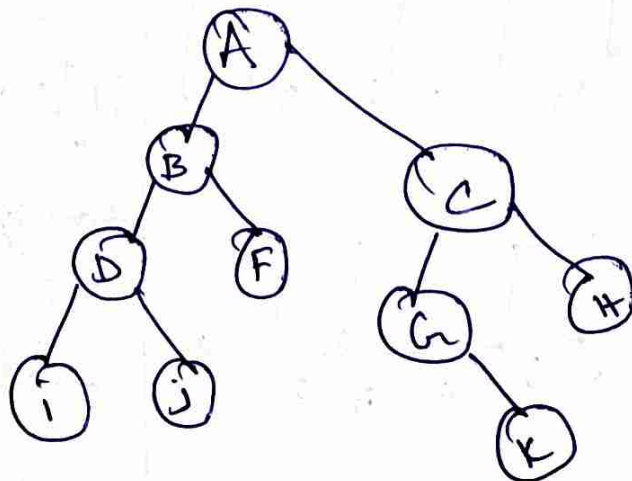
A tree node contains following parts.

\* Data \* pointer to left child \* pointer to right child

Binary tree data structure is represented using two methods. Those methods are as follows:

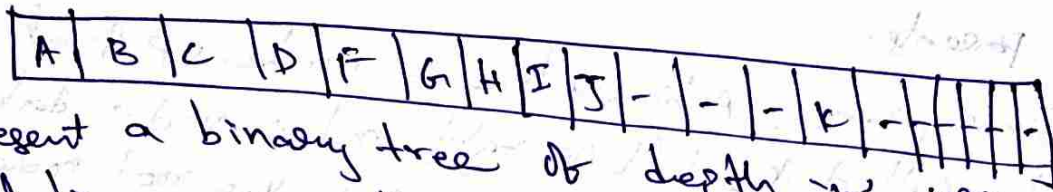
- 1) Array Representation
- (2) linked list Representation

Consider the following binary tree

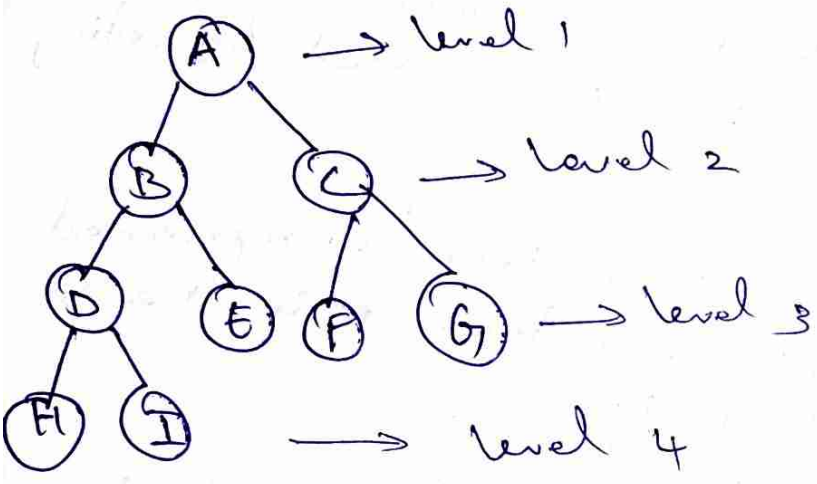




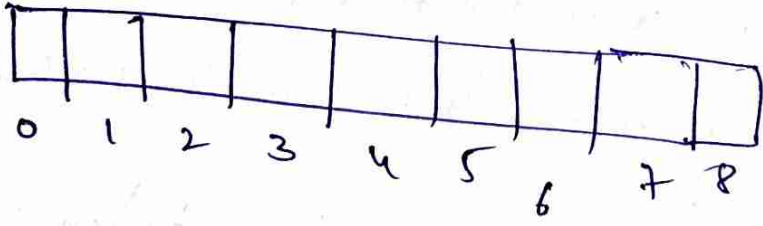
1) Array Representation of Binary Tree: In array representation of a binary tree, we use one-dimensional array (1-D Array) to represent a binary tree. Consider the above example of a binary tree and it is represented as follows...



To represent a binary tree of depth 'n' using array representation, we need one dimensional array with a maximum size of  $2^{n+1}$ .

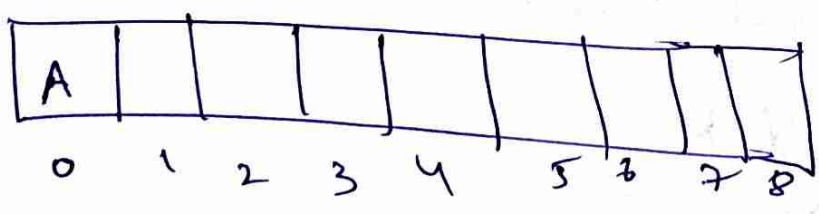


case I

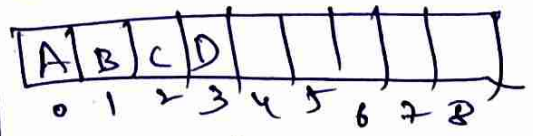


→ we have start from root ~~node~~ we are going fill the array by level by level and from left to right

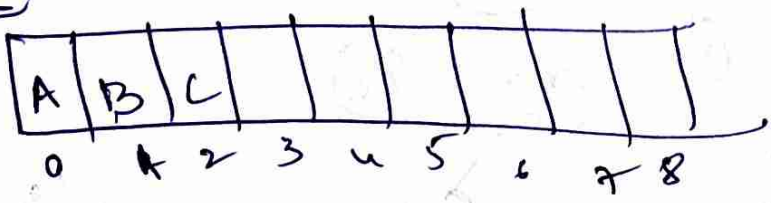
step 2



step 4



step 3



don't represent all the steps complete tree levels up to level 4.

A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8

In array representation we can not find root node and child node which is root node and which node is child to find that we have

\* if a node is at  $i^{\text{th}}$  index ..

\* left child would be at -  $[(2*i) + 1]$

\* right child would be at -  $[(2*i) + 2]$

To find of parent

parent would be at =  $\left\lfloor \frac{(i-1)}{2} \right\rfloor$

taking

Example  $i = 4$

of 'E'

E is present at  $i^{\text{th}}$  position Now we have find parent

parent would be at =  $\left\lfloor \frac{(i-1)}{2} \right\rfloor$  Now  $i = 4$

$$= \left\lfloor \frac{(4-1)}{2} \right\rfloor \Rightarrow \frac{3}{2} \Rightarrow 1.5 \Rightarrow 1$$

Now check in array at 1<sup>st</sup> position will find parent of E

	B			E				
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8

To find out left child -  $[(2*i) + 1]$

$$\Rightarrow [(2*4) + 1] \rightarrow 8 + 1 = 9$$

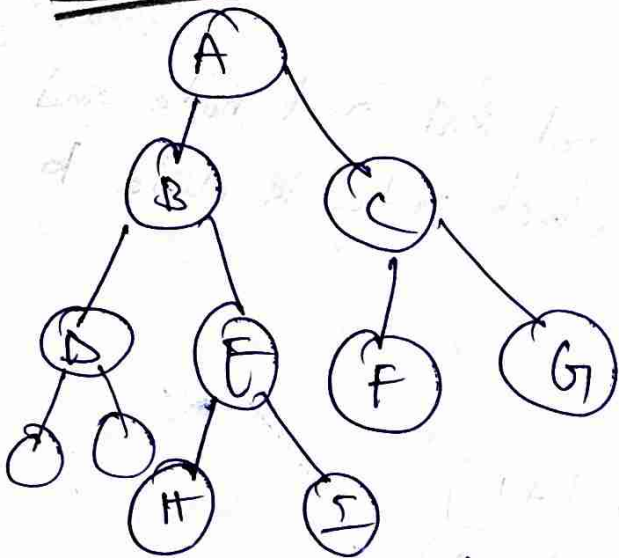
No left child for E.

To find out right child -  $[(2*i) + 2] \Rightarrow (2*4) + 2 \rightarrow 10$

No right child for E.



for Example



In this example for 'D'  
No child that if we have  
~~leaf~~ give nodes (empty nodes)  
as shown in the example  
then only before formulas  
can be apply.

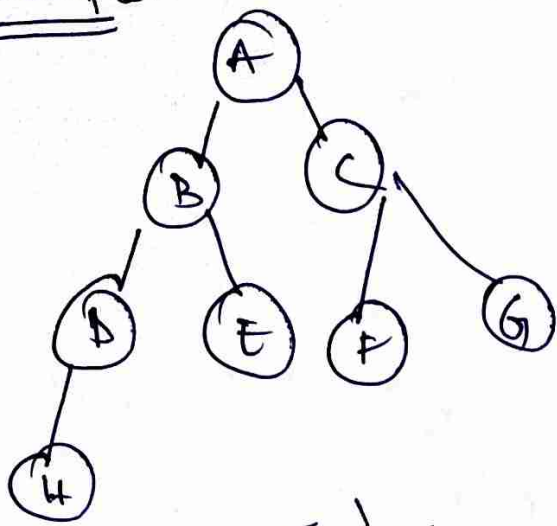
Now array Index

A	B	C	D	E	F	G	-	-	H	I	
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11

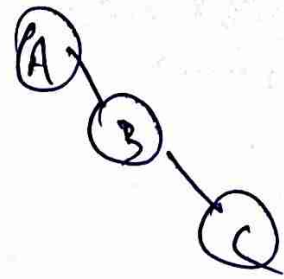
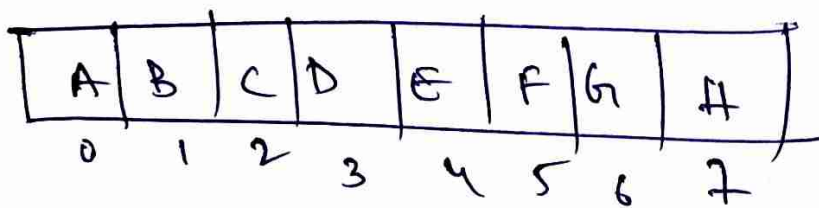
Now we can find out.



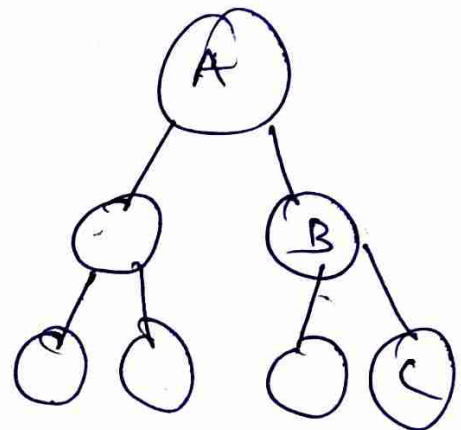
Example 2



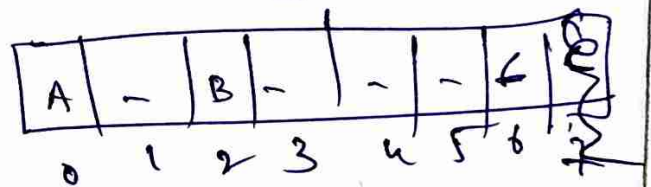
Now array Index



Now we have to do Complete Binary tree

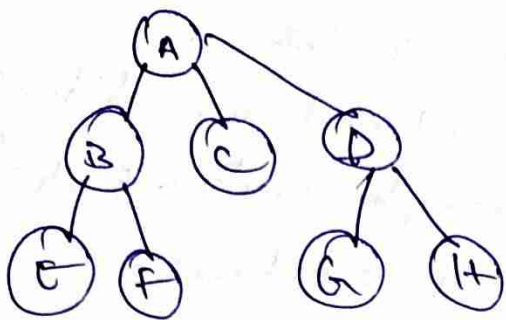


Now array Index

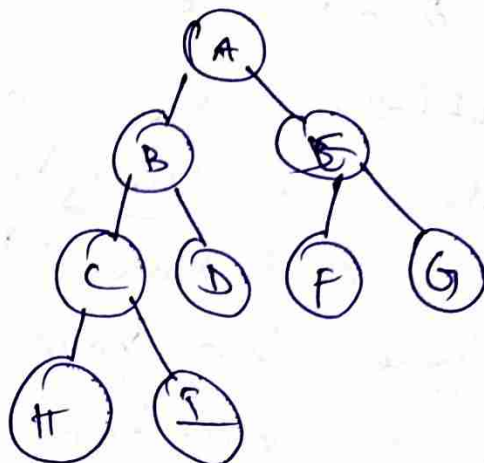


wast of space.

Binary Tree - Every node in a tree should have almost 2 children.



Not a Binary tree

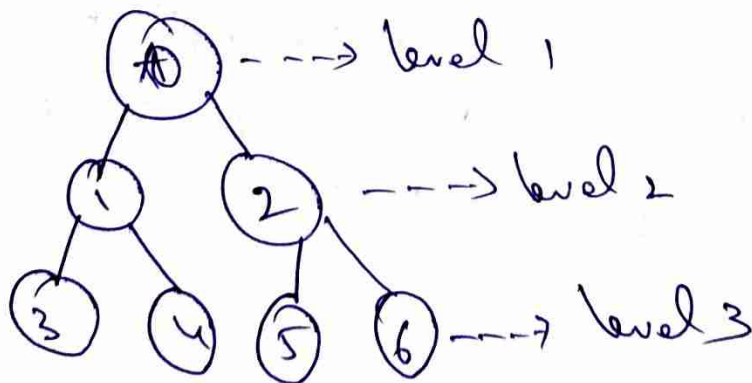


Binary Tree

Every node has '2' childrens.

Different types of Binary trees:

- \* Full Binary tree (strictly Binary tree)
- \* <sup>Almost</sup> complete " " (Incomplete " " )
- \* Perfect Binary tree (Complete " " )
- \* Left skewed " " }
- \* Right " " }



$2^{3-1} \Rightarrow 2^2 \Rightarrow 4$  Here 3 is level

$2^{i-1}$  in level i how many nodes =  $2^{i-1}$

Height :- '3' we are starting from 1.

$$2^3 - 1 = 8 - 1 \Rightarrow 7$$

$$2^n - 1$$

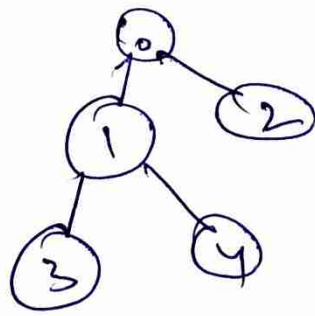
The difference b/w binary tree & tree is  
Each element in binary tree has at most two sub trees  
(one or both of these sub trees may be empty). Each element  
in a tree can have any no. of sub trees.

### Properties of binary tree:

The maximum no. of nodes at level 'i' of a binary tree  
is  $2^{i-1}$  (level of a root node is considered as 1)  
Maximum no. of nodes in a binary tree of height 'n' is  
 $2^n - 1$  (Height of a leaf node is considered as 1).

Full binary tree :- A full binary tree (sometimes prop  
binary tree or 2-tree or strictly binary tree is a tree  
in which every node other than the leaves has two children

Example

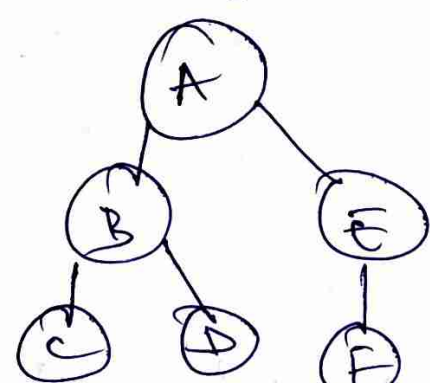


In this fig '0' having  
'2' children and '1' having  
'2' " but '2' has no  
child still It is known

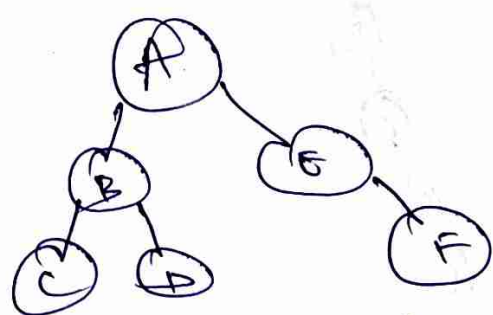
as full binary tree bez having '2' for childs.  
It is known as full binary tree.



In Complete binary trees:- A complete binary tree is filled at each depth from left to right in other word A complete binary tree is a binary tree in which every level, except possibly the last is completely filled out all nodes are as far left as possible

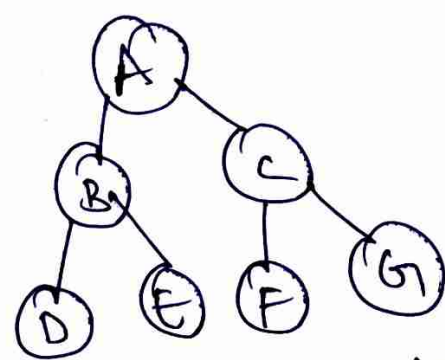


Complete binary tree



Not Complete binary tree

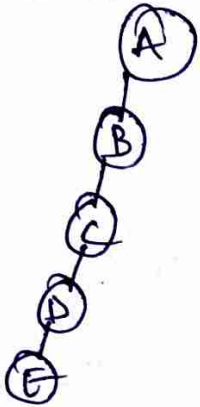
Perfect binary tree A binary tree with all leaf nodes at the same depth. All internal nodes have degree 2



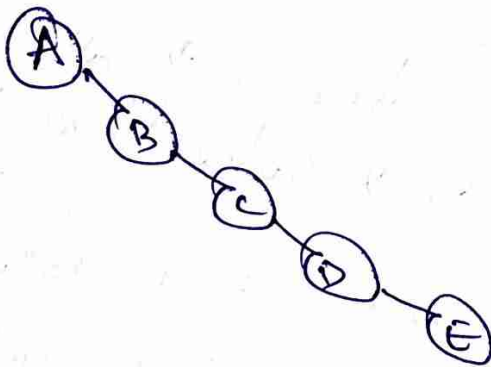
- 0<sup>th</sup> level -  $2^0 = 1$  node - A
- 1<sup>st</sup> level -  $2^1 = 2$  nodes - B, C
- 2<sup>nd</sup> level -  $2^2 = 4$  nodes - D, E, F, G

In this perfect binary tree the condition must be satisfied  
 Each level there must be  $2^L$  nodes, L-level.

\* Left skewed Binary : Every node should have only left children



\* Right skewed Binary : Every node should have only right children



Binary tree Traversals :-  
 (Inorder, Preorder and post order)

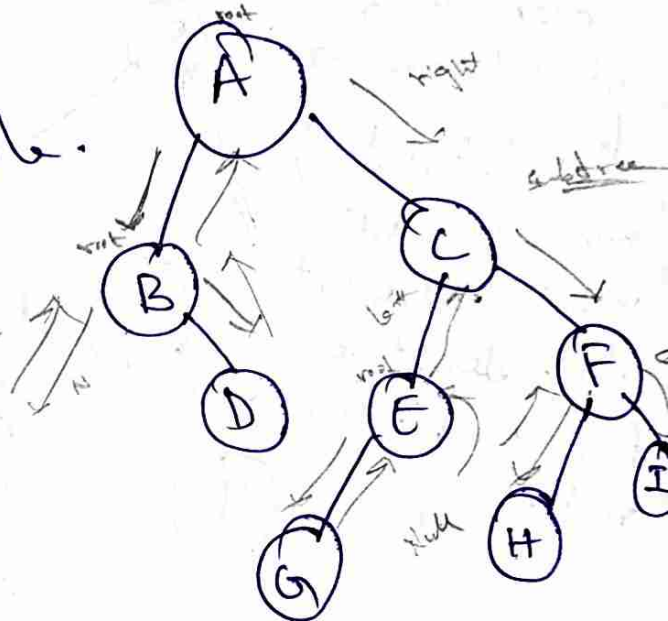
Inorder :- left - root - Right

Preorder :- root - left - Right

Postorder :- left - Right - root.

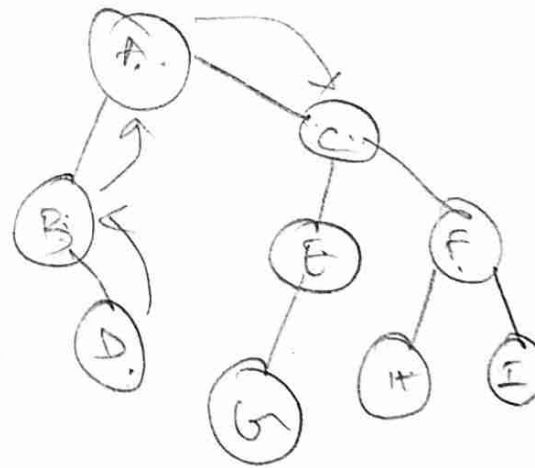
Inorder :- For give example.

BDAGECHF I



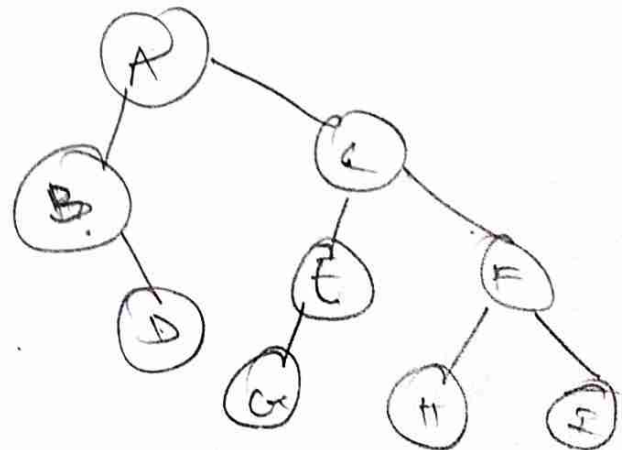
Preorder :-

ABDCEGFI



Post order

DBG EHFCA





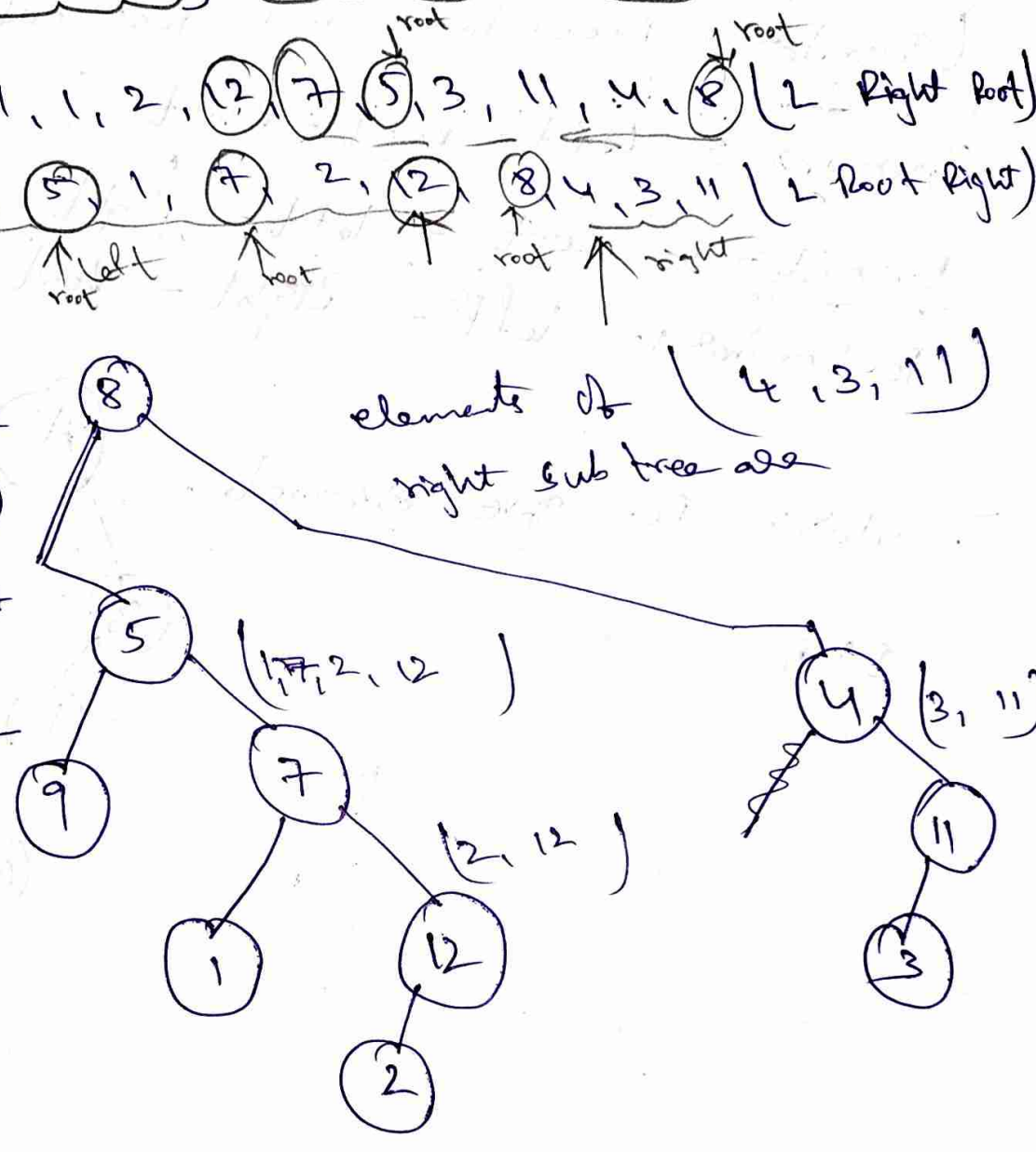
# Construct a Binary tree from Post order & Inorder

Post order :- 9, 1, 2, 12, 7, 5, 3, 11, 4, 8 (2 Right Root)

In order :- 9, 5, 1, 7, 2, 12, 8, 4, 3, 11 (2 Root Right)

element of left sub tree are (9, 5, 1, 7, 2, 12)  
 search right to left in post order to find which element is first that is the root.

elements of right sub tree are (4, 3, 11)



Construct Binary tree from given preorder

Post order

Pre order: F B A D C E

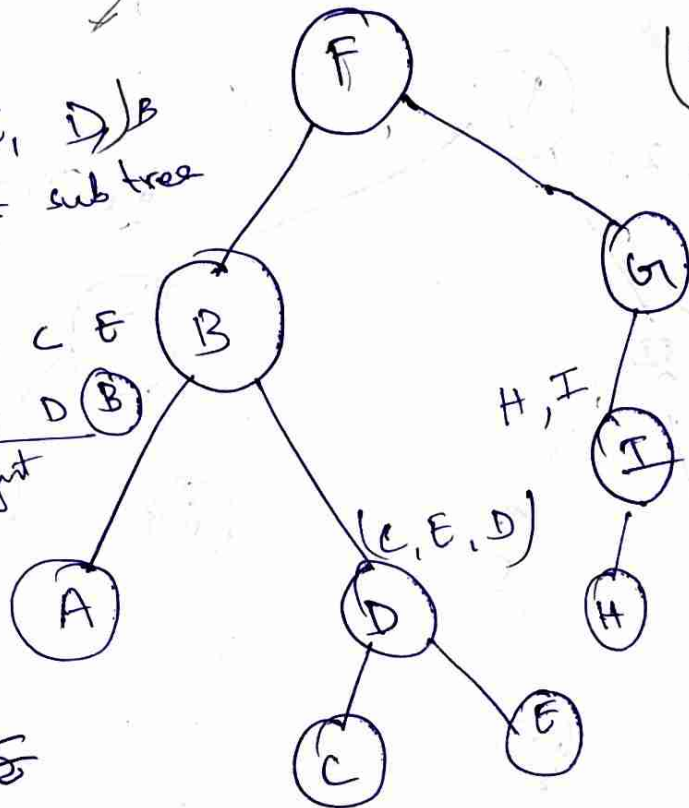
Post order: A C E D B

(Root LR)  
G I H

H I G F  
└──┬──┘  
L R Root

(A, C, E, D) B  
are left subtree

Pre - B A D C E  
Post: A C E D B  
Left Right



(H I G) are right subtree

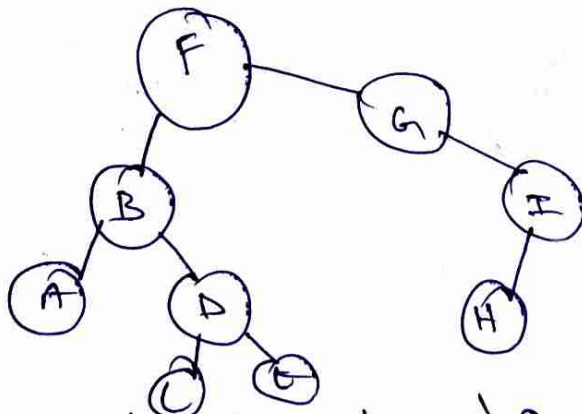
Pre - G I H  
Post H I G

Pre: I H  
Post - H I  
Left

Pre - D C E  
Post - C E D  
Right

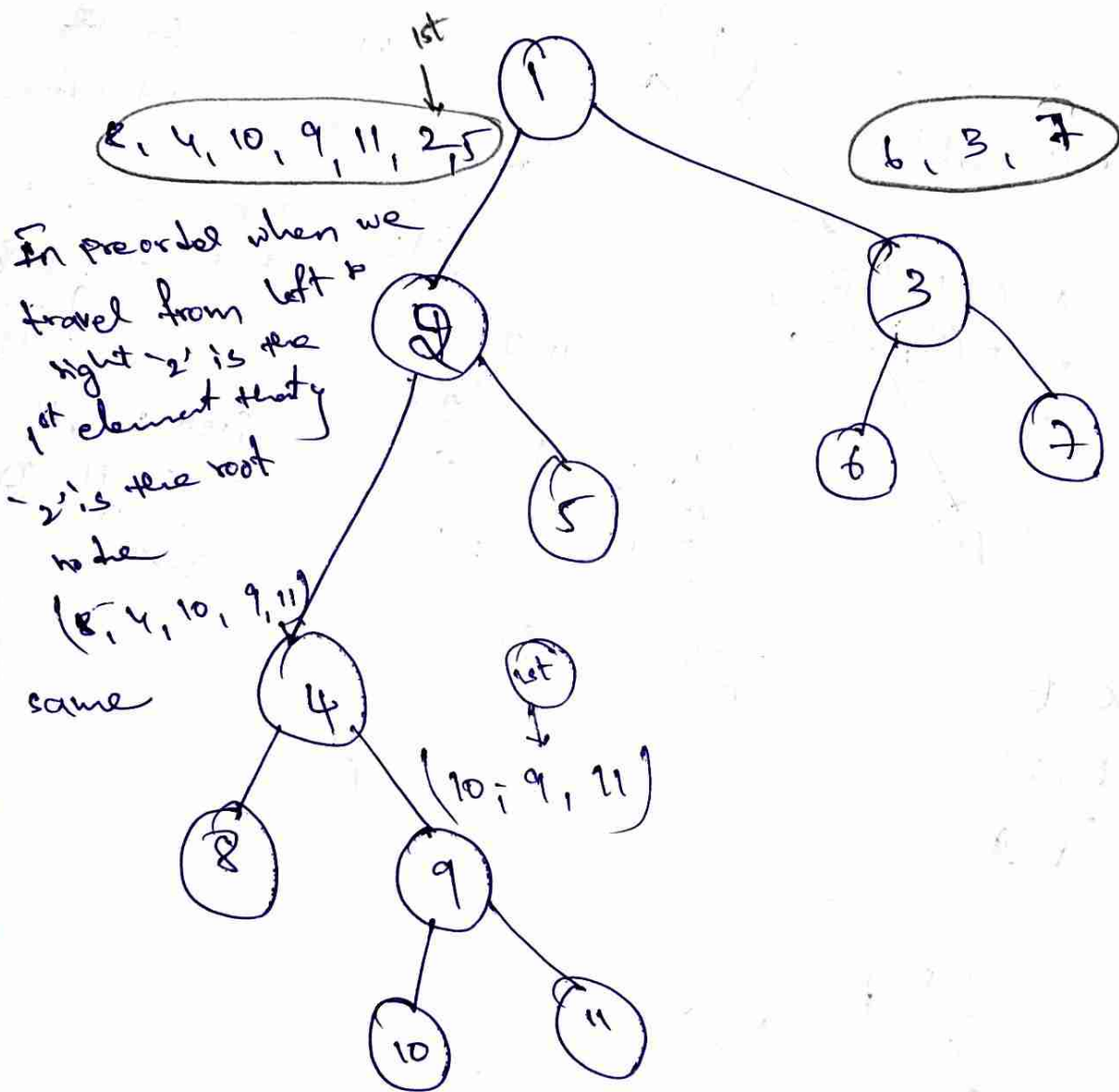
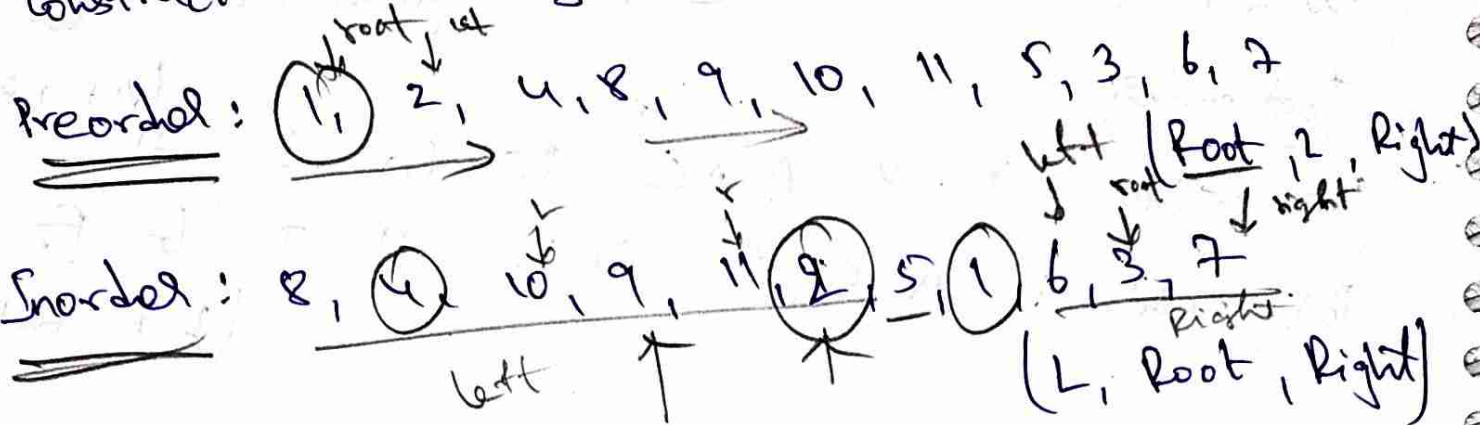
Pre (left) Right  
Left Right Root

Tree:



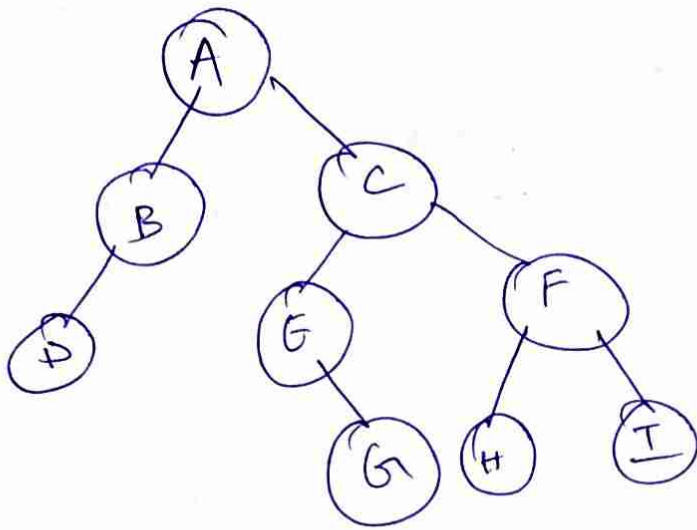
For pre order & post order we can not construct Unique Binary tree

Construct a Binary tree from Preorder & Inorder





# Tree Traversals



Inorder :- (Left-root-right)

D B A E G C H F I

Preorder :-

Root - left - right

A B D C E G F H I

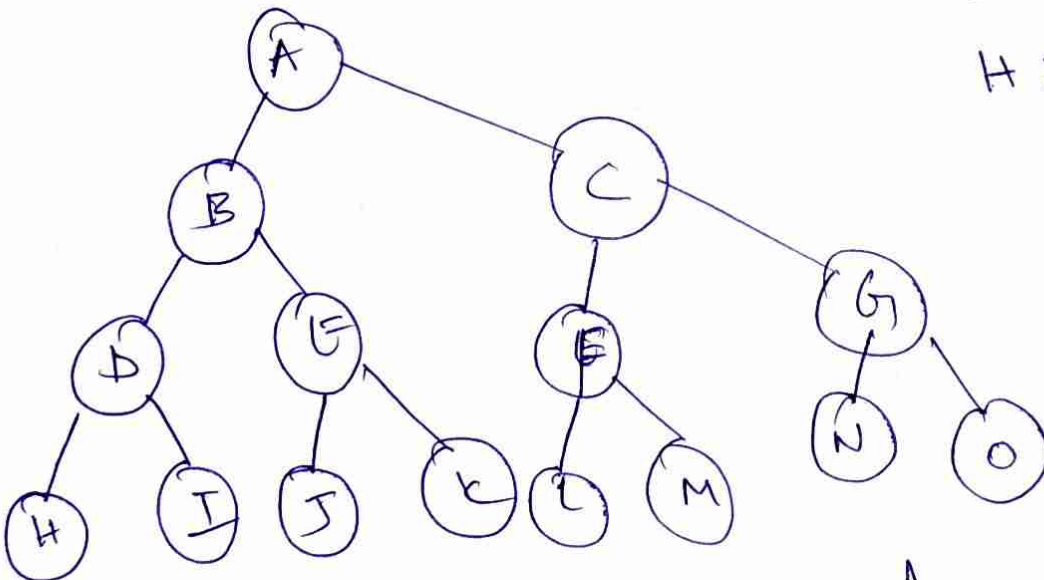
Post order left - right - root

D B G E H I F C A

Inorder :- (L-root-R)

H D I B J E K

A L F M C N G O



Pre order :- (Root - left - right)

A B D H I E J K C F L M G N O

Post order :- (left - right - Root)

H I D J K E B L M F N O G C A

What is searching:-

- \* Searching is the process of finding a given value position in a list of values.
- \* It decides whether a search key is present in the data or not.
- \* It is the algorithmic process of finding a particular item in a collection of items.
- \* It can be done on internal data structure or on external data structure.

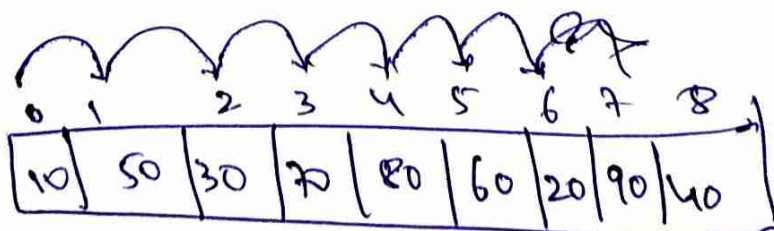
Searching Techniques :-

- \* Sequential search
- \* Binary search.

Sequential search :- In this the list or array is traversed sequentially and every element is checked. For example linear search.

This method can be performed on a sorted or an unsorted list (usually array). In case of a sorted list searching starts from 0<sup>th</sup> element and continues until the element is found (assuming the list is sorted in ascending order), the value being searched is reached.

Example



6<sup>th</sup> position 20 is found.

In sequential or linear way it is going to

do is searching element set search.

\* start from the leftmost element of  $arr[]$  and one by one compare  $x$  with each element of  $arr[]$

\* If  $x$  matches with an element return the index

\* If  $x$  doesn't match with any of element, return -1

A linear search scans one item at a time, without jumping to any item.

\* The worst case complexity is  $O(n)$ , sometimes known as  $O(n)$  search

\* Time taken to search elements keep increasing as the no. of elements are increased.



# Difference b/w trees and binary trees

## Tree

- \* Each element in a tree can have any no. of subtrees
- \* The subtrees in a tree are unordered

## Binary tree

- \* Each element in a binary tree has at most two subtrees
- \* The subtrees of each element in a binary tree are ordered (ie we distinguish b/w left & right subtrees).

# Difference b/w linear search & binary search

## Linear search

- \* The elements are in random order
- \* worst case time complexity  $O(n)$
- \* Access is slow
- \* Single & multidimensional array is sorted used

## Binary search

- \* The elements are sorted order
- \* worst case time complexity  $O(\log_2 n)$
- \* Access is faster.
- \* only single dimensional array is sorted used

# Linear search:-

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15	5	20	35	2	42	67	17

$n = 8$

data to search = 42

① element is present :-

② Not present

The searching element starts from 0<sup>th</sup> index we going to checking each the index one by one if it is matches then it returns index or else it checks next position up to ~~the~~ value or matches data

To search '42' in the array it checks 0<sup>th</sup> position 15 is not equal to 42 then next  
 1<sup>st</sup> " 5 " " " " " " " " "  
 it continues up to data or value matches in array

5<sup>th</sup> index 6<sup>th</sup> position 42 is present it display. data is present in the index value 5<sup>th</sup>. it returns '42' is element is present.



```
for (i=0 ; i < n ; i++)
{
    if (a[i] == data)
    {
        printf ("element found at index %d", i);
        break;
    }
}
//
if (i == n)
{
    printf ("element not found");
}
```

Time complexity :-

- Best case :  $O(1)$
- worst case  $O(n)$

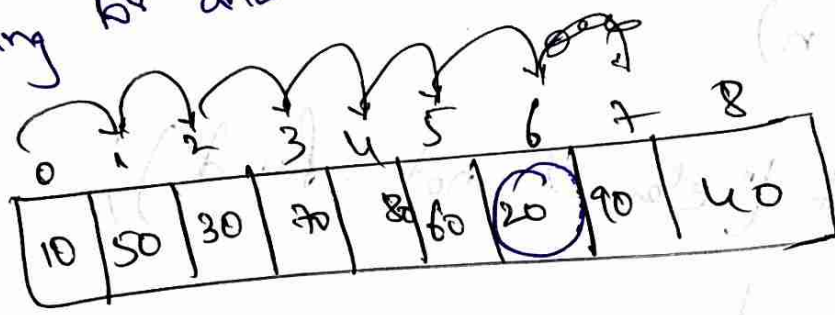
Linear searching :- A linear search is the most basic type of searching algorithm. A linear search sequentially moves through your collection (or data structure) looking for a matching value. In other words, it looks down a list, one item at a time without jumping.



# Linear search: Steps on how it works:-

Here is simple approach is to do linear search.

- \* Start from the leftmost element of array and one by one compare the element we are searching for with each element of the array.
- \* If there is a match b/w the element we are searching for and an element of the array return the index.
- \* If there is no match b/w the element we are searching for and an element of the array return -1.



Find 20

$$1 + 1 = 1$$

$$1 + 1 = 2$$

*[Faint, mostly illegible handwritten notes at the bottom of the page, possibly describing search complexity or related concepts.]*

# Binary search :-

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
5	9	17	23	25	45	59	63	71	89

\* In binary searching tech the array should be in sorted. un sorted array can not apply binary search tech. In above example data is ~~is~~ sorted.

searching : 59

left	right	mid	
0	9	$0 + 9/2 = 4$	$59 \neq 25$

In index 4 that data is 25 that means data is

greater than 25. By that

Now we should search the element on data right side.

In this 3 case all then

Case I = data == a[mid]

Case II = data < a[mid]

Case III = data > a[mid]

left	right	mid
5	9	$5 + 9/2 \Rightarrow \frac{14}{2} = 7$

Now case is less than 63. Now we can say that before 63 is data is present. The data is present left of mid

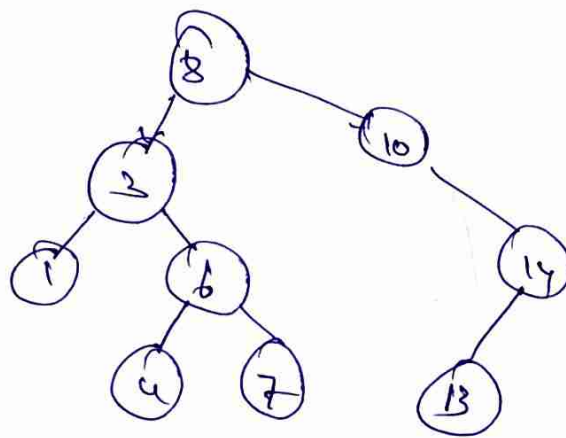


Binary search Tree: Is a node based binary tree data structure which has the following

properties:

- \* The left subtree of a node contains only nodes with keys lesser than the node's key.
- \* The right subtree of a node contains only nodes with keys greater than the node's key.
- \* The left or right subtree each must also be a binary search tree.

Example



The above properties of Binary search tree provide an ordering among key so that the operations like search, minimum and maximum can be done fast. If there is no ordering, then we may have to compare every key to search a given key.

Searching a key :- To search a given key in Binary search tree, we first compare it with root, if the key is present at root, we return root. If key is greater than root's key, we recur for right subtree of root node. Otherwise we recur for left subtree.

Basic Operation :- Following are the basic operations of a tree.

Search :- searches an element in a tree.

Insert :- Inserts an " " " "

~~Recursion~~



Example:-

11, 6, 8, 19, 4, 10, 5, 17, 23, 49, 31

Step 2:-

Compare with root node



6 is less than 11  
that's left side  
of '11'



Step 3:-

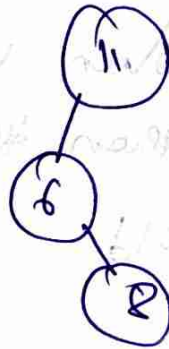
Compare with root node

8 then 8 is less than 11 then it is left side now it should be

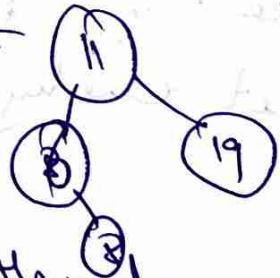
compare with '6' now

here 8 is greater than 6 then it is placed at right of '6'.

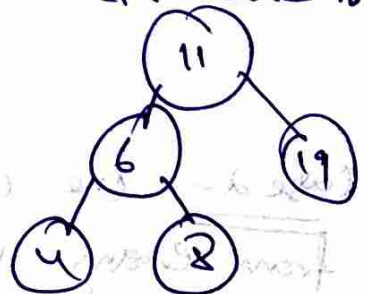
Now



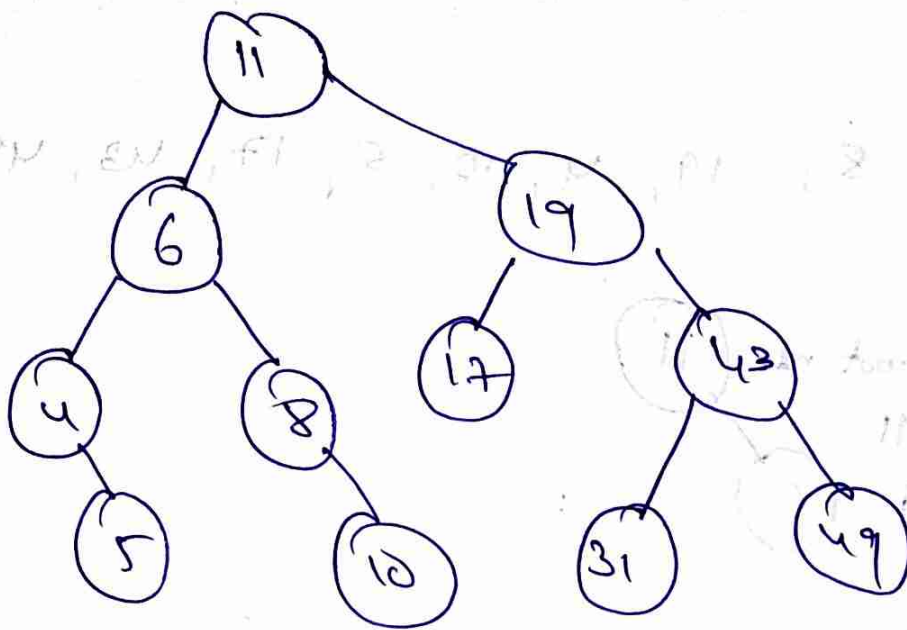
Step 4:- Now next element is 19. Compare with root node 19 is greater than '11' then right of '11' now.



Step 5:- Now next element is '4'. Compare with root node 4 is less than left side again it should compare with '6'. 4 is less than '6' then left side of 6.



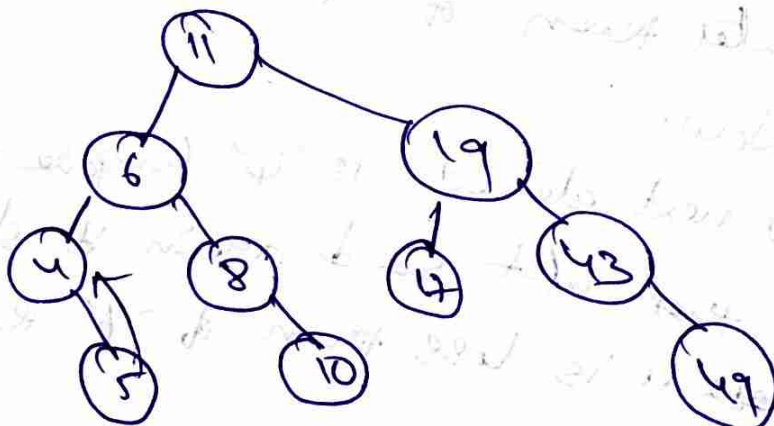
Step 6:- continues the all steps up to complete of tree.



Deletion :- when we are deleting from binary search tree then there could be three cases:

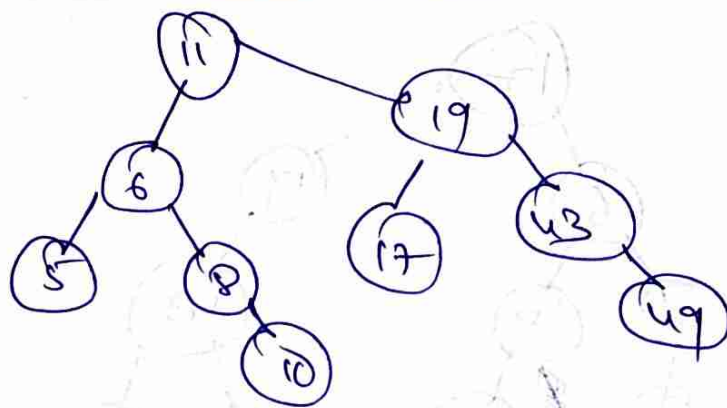
- \* 0' zero child
- \* one child
- \* two children.

Case 1:- 0' zero child we are going to delete from tree. 31' is no child, then from tree 31 can delete easily. Now tree becomes:



Case 2:- one child we are going to delete from tree from exam 'u' is having only one child '5', then u is deleted and 5 is replaced with 'u'. Now tree becomes



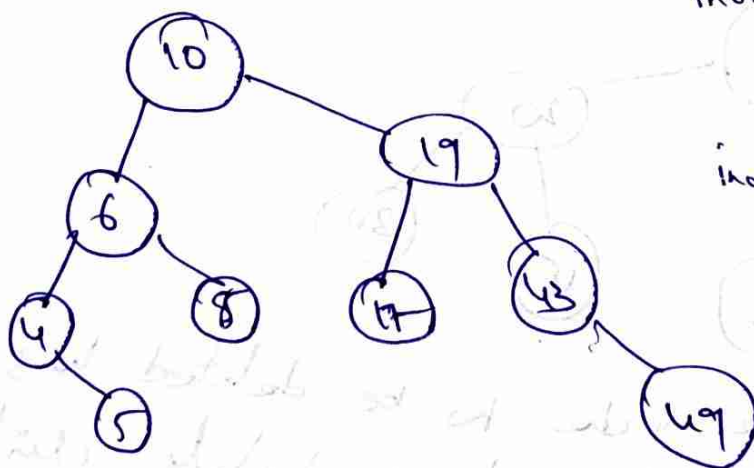


Case 3:- when deleting 'two' children we are going to delete 11. 11 is having left sub tree and right sub tree. Now 11 is replaced by which number for this two case are there.

→ \* Inorder predecessor (Before)

→ \* Inorder successor (next value)

Inorder predecessor :- It is very simple the largest number from left subtree. Now in fig 6, 5, 8, 10 from that 10 is the largest element then we can replace 11 with 10 after replacing 10 the tree becomes.

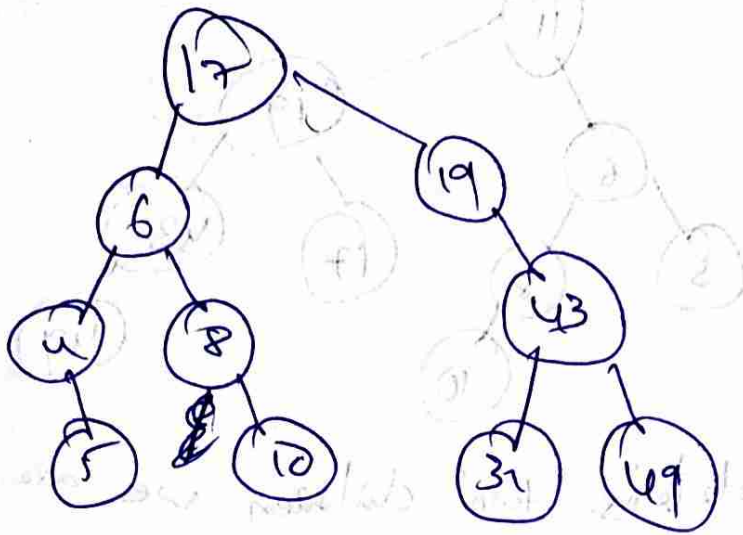


Inorder predecessor of 11 is → 10 (left)

Inorder successor of 11 is → 17 (right)

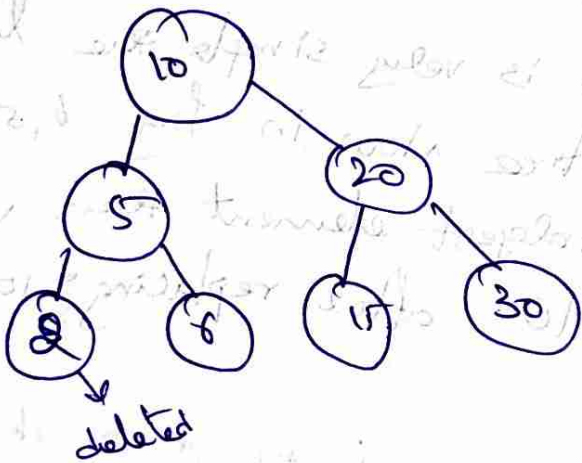
Inorder successor :- It is also very simple to find. Smallest number from right subtree. Now in fig 19, 17, 43, 49. from that 17 is the smallest number element then we can replace 11 with (or 10 with) 17 after replacing 17 the tree becomes.



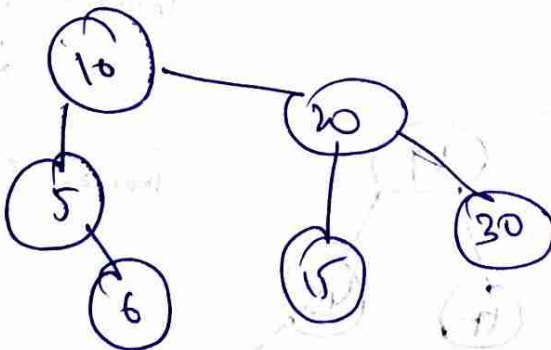


Example 2:- Deletion in Binary Search Tree (BST)

Case 1:- If the node to be deleted is a leaf node  
 (Simply delete the node) ↓  
no child

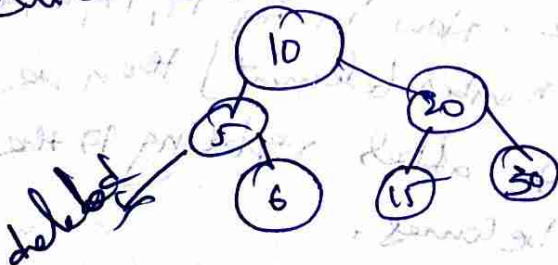


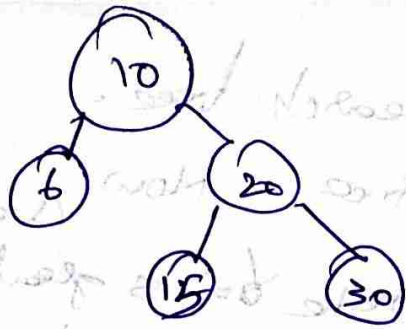
In this we want to delete Node Number 2  
 simply delete the node  
 Now tree becomes



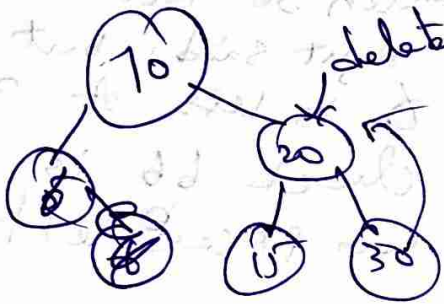
Case 2:- If the node to be deleted has only one child (Copy child to node & delete child)

In this we want to delete node number 5 for 5 one child is there. so copy child to node & delete child. now tree becomes





Case 3 If the node to be deleted has two children nodes - find Inorder successor of node then copy content of inorder successor of node & delete inorder successor.

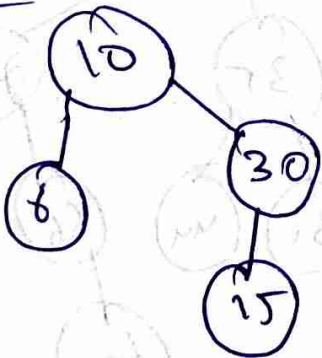


In this we want to delete node Number '20' for '20' children are there

Inorder :- Left root Right    6, 10, 15, 20, 30

Inorder successor is for '20' '30' is the inorder successor.

Now :-

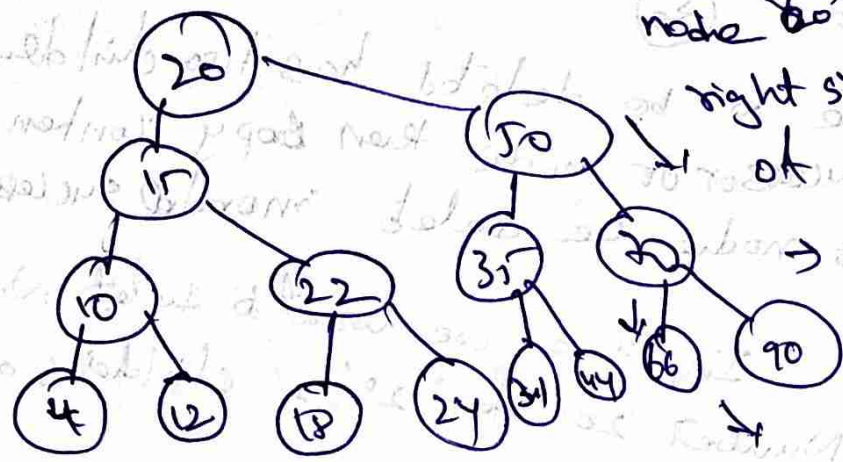




Example:

Insertion in Binary search tree.

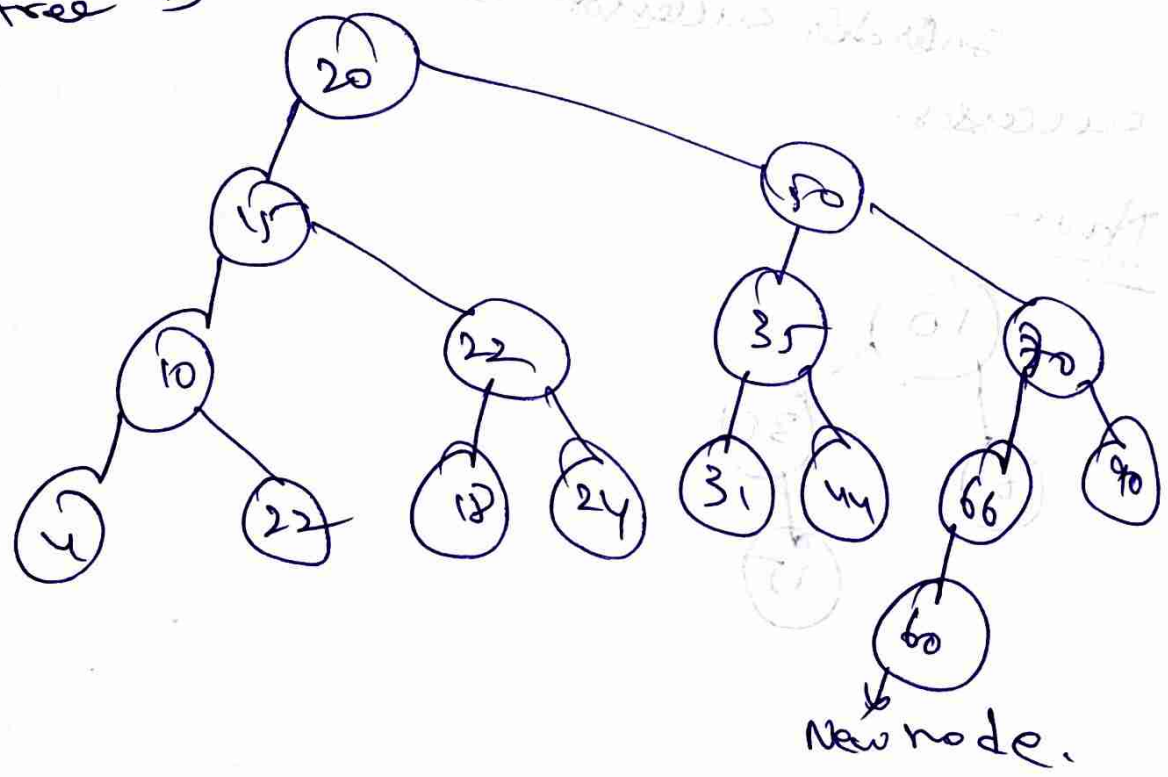
Insert 60 in the tree. Now check with root node 20. 60 is greater than 20 right side. Now check right of tree. Now



again 60 is greater than 50. Now again right side: but 60 is less than 70

then left side of 70. again check 66 is greater than 60. Now we can place 60 left side of 66.

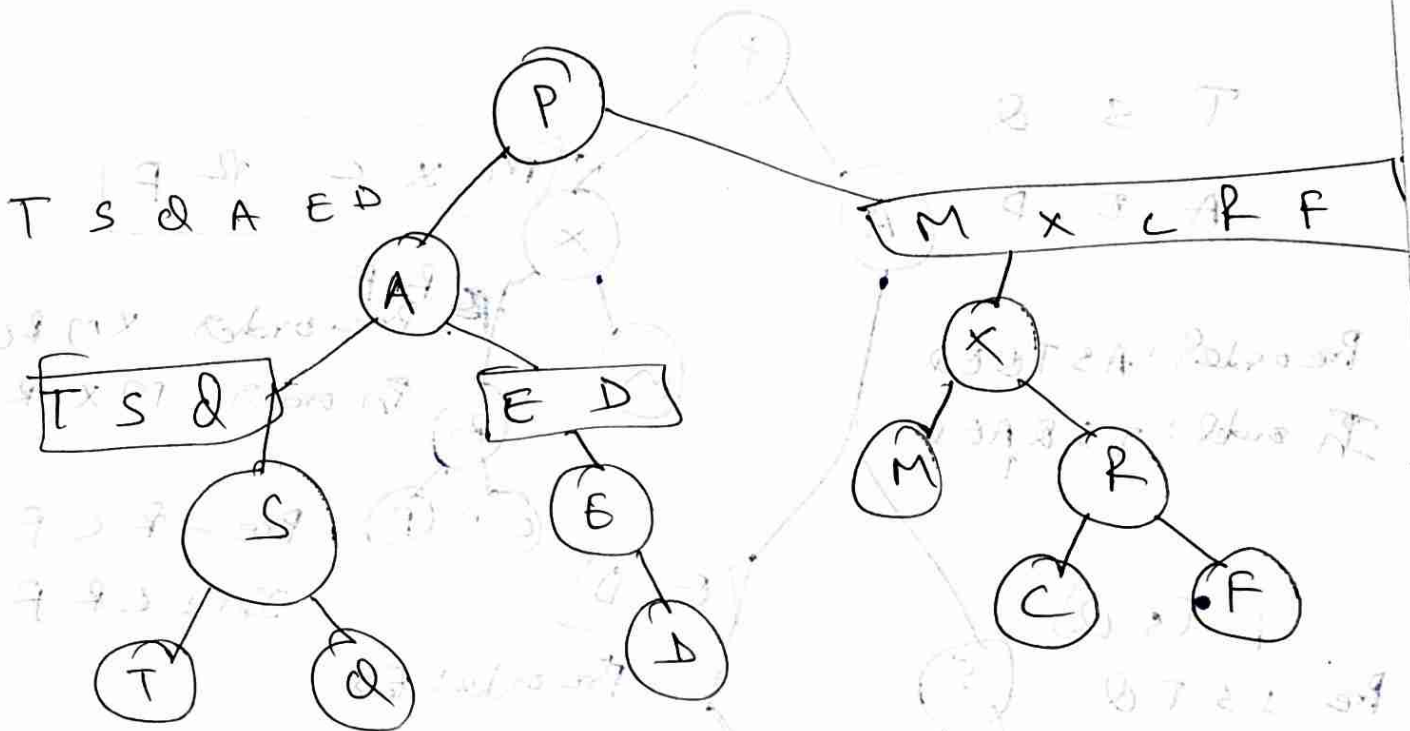
Now tree is





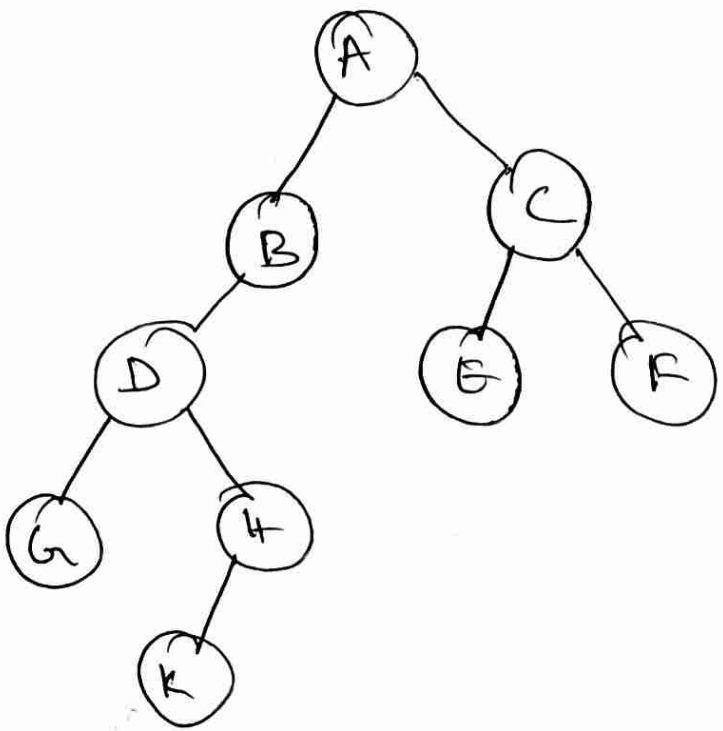
Post order: T Q S D E A M C F R X P

Inorder: T S Q A E D P M X C R F



Preorder = A B D G H K C E F

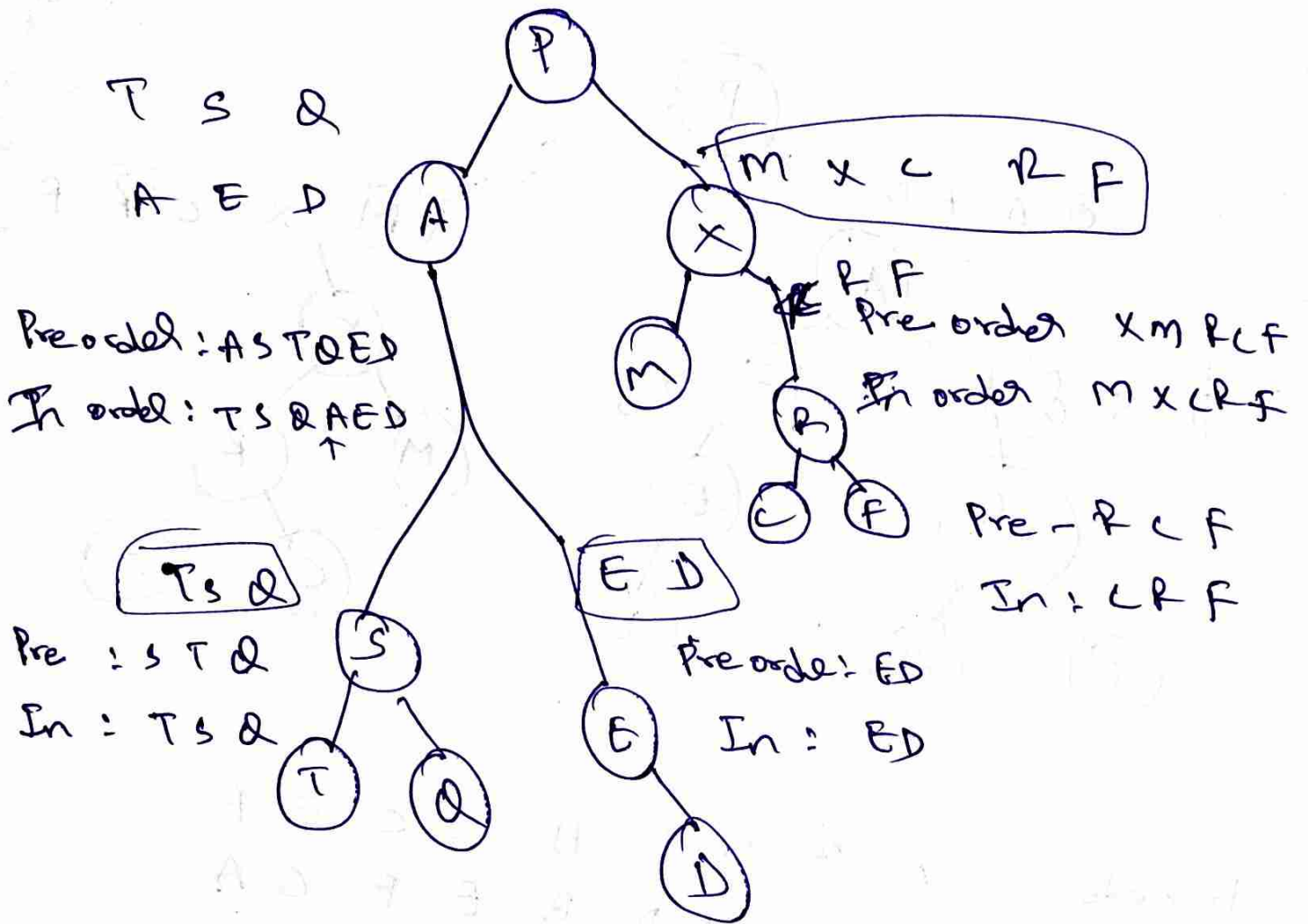
Post order = G K H D B E F C A



Example:

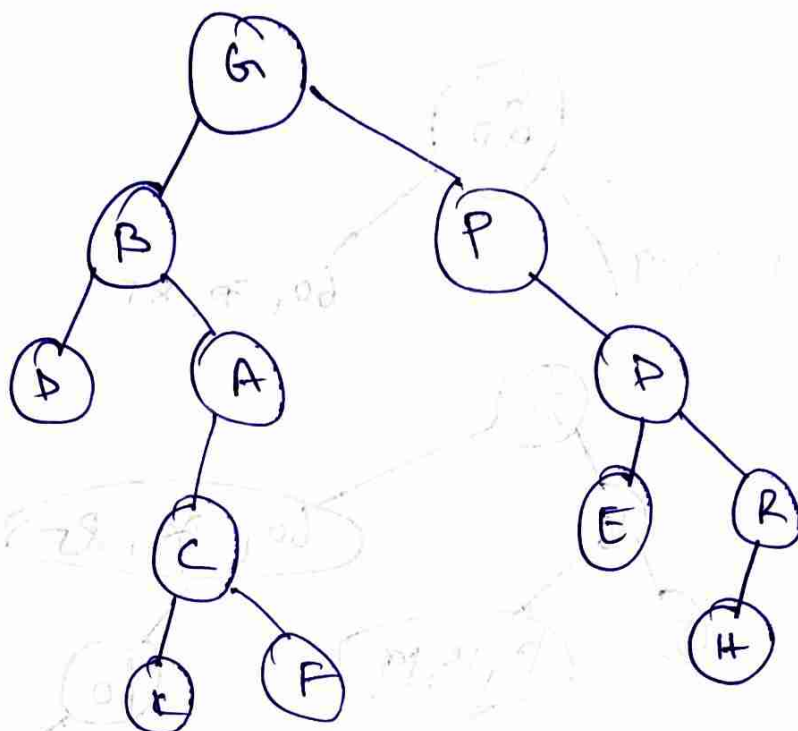
Preorder: P A S T Q E D X M R C F

Inorder: T S Q A E D P M X C R F

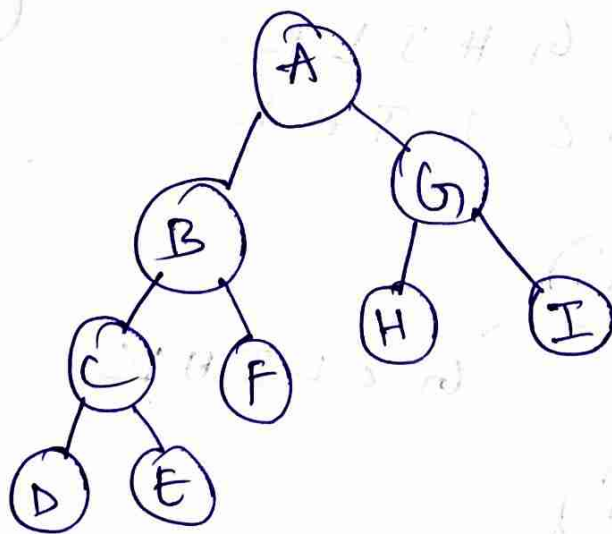


Pre order : G B Q A C K F P D E R H

In order : Q B K C F A G P E D H R

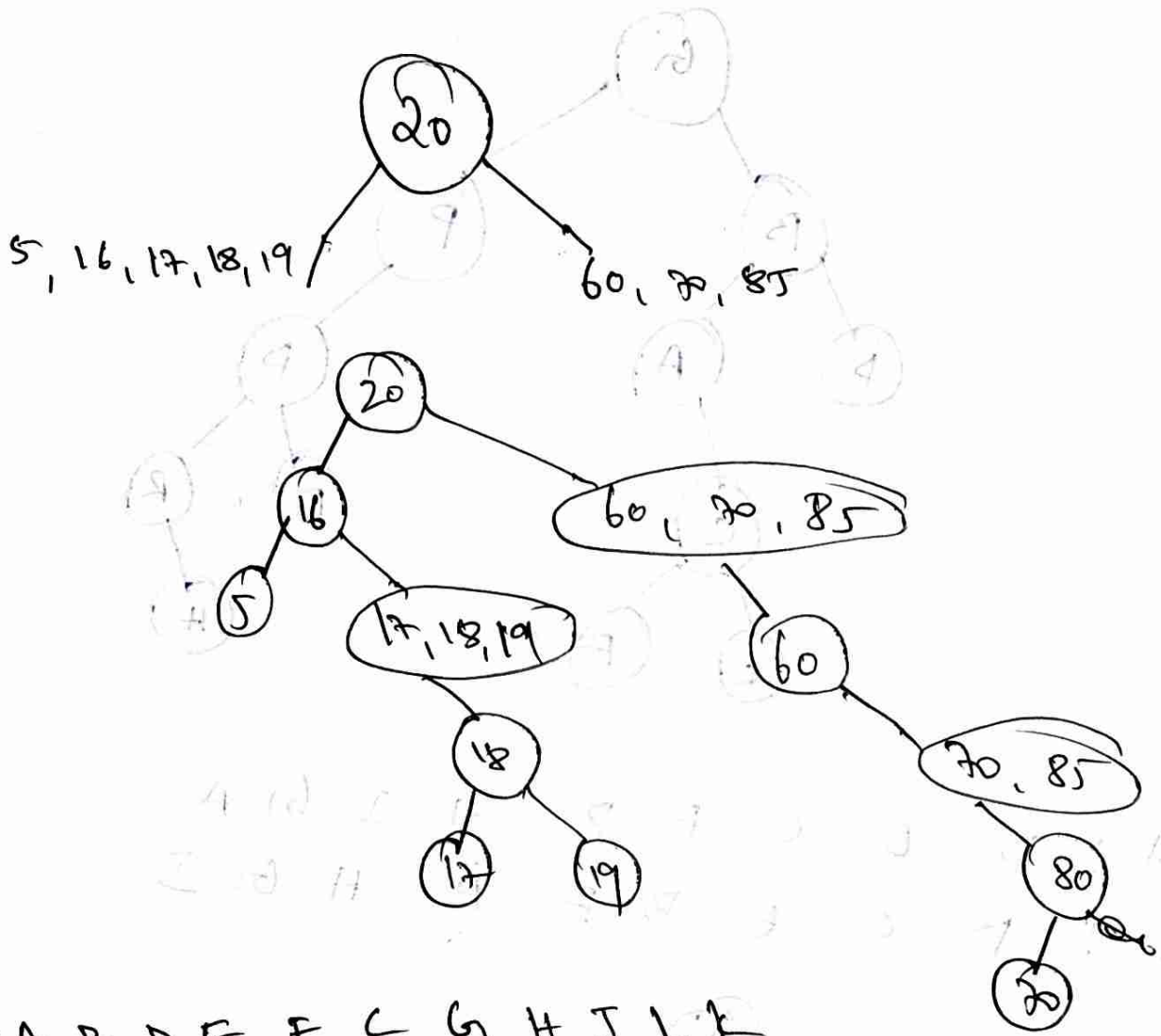


Post : D E C F B H I G A  
In : D C E B F A H G I

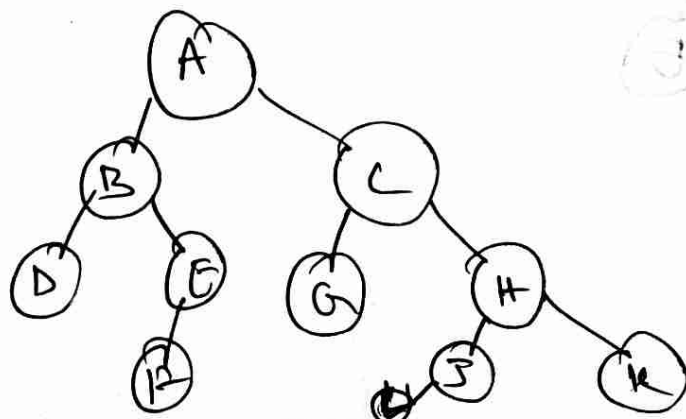




Pre: 20, 16, 5, 17, 18, 19, 60, 80, 85, 70  
 In: 5, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 60, 70, 85



Pre: A B D E F C G H J L K  
 In: D B F E A G C L J H K



AVL Tree :- AVL Trees were introduced by Adelson-Velsky and Landis (hence the acronym AVL). An AVL tree is a binary tree that is balanced in accordance to the height of the subtree. In the worst case, the height of an AVL tree is  $O(\log n)$ , where 'n' is the no. of nodes in a tree.

In a non-empty binary tree denoted by 's' contains two subtrees, i.e., left subtree ( $s_L$ ) and right subtree ( $s_R$ ) then s is said to be an AVL tree if it satisfies the following properties.

- (i) The left and right subtrees are AVL trees
- (ii) The diff b/w the ht of the left & right subtree is less than or equal to 1 i.e.,

$$|H_L - H_R| \leq 1$$

where  $H_L$  is ht of the left subtree  $s_L$  &  $H_R$  " " " " right "  $s_R$ .

AVL tree properties :- The properties of AVL tree are the follows

- ① An AVL tree consisting of 'n' elements or nodes which is of ht  $O(\log n)$
- ② An AVL tree can be constructed for each value of n, where  $n \geq 0$ .
- ③ The search complexity of an AVL tree of n-elements is  $O(\log n)$ .
- ④ The insertion of an element in an n-element AVL search results in an n+1 element AVL tree and time complexity for such an insertion is  $O(\log n)$ .
- ⑤ The deletion of an element in an n-element AVL search tree results in an n-1 element AVL tree & time complexity for such a deletion is  $O(\log n)$ .

List out various rotations of AVL tree :-

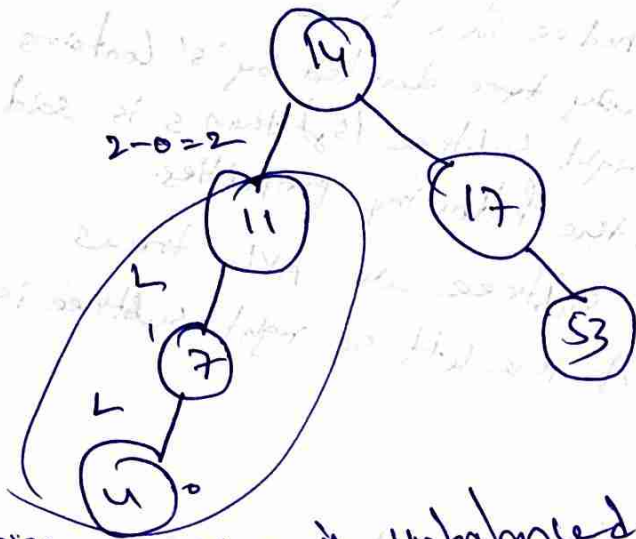
The different types of rotations that can be performed after inserting or deleting an element are .

- ① LL (left-left) rotation
- ② RR (right-right) " "
- ③ LR (left-right) rotation
- ④ RL (right-left) rotation



Construct AVL tree by inserting the following data:

14, 17, 11, 7, 53, 4, 13, 12, 8, 60, 19, 16, 20.

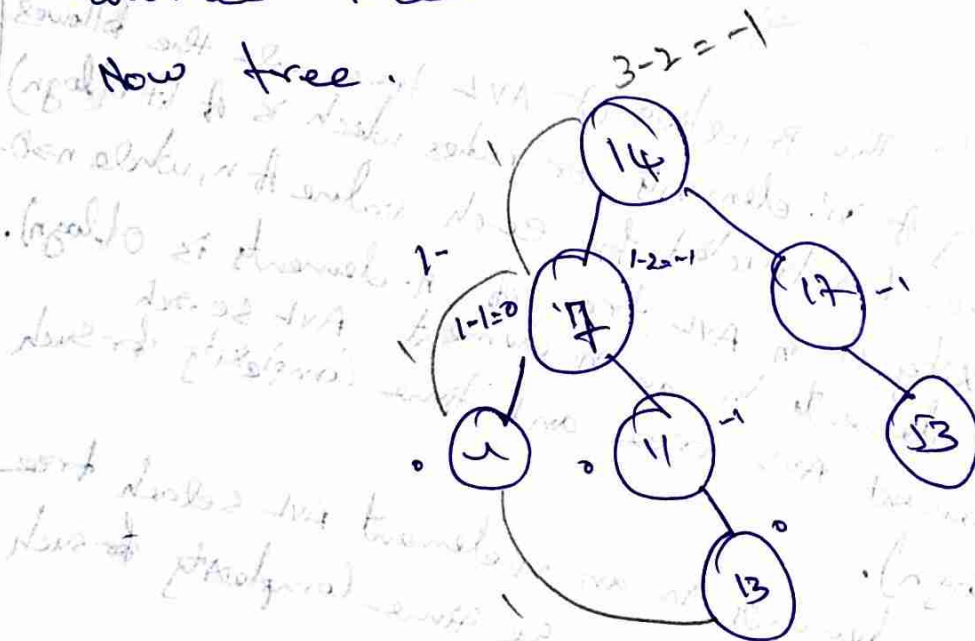


LL rotation

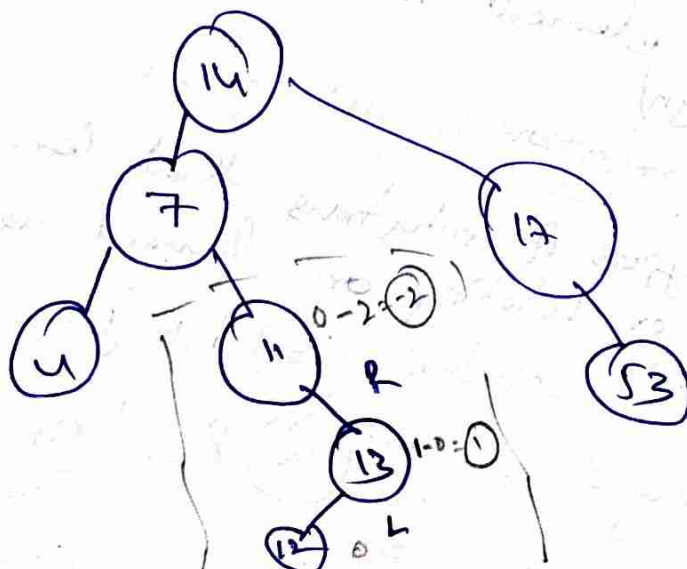
Now is unbalanced.

we have to make

balanced tree.



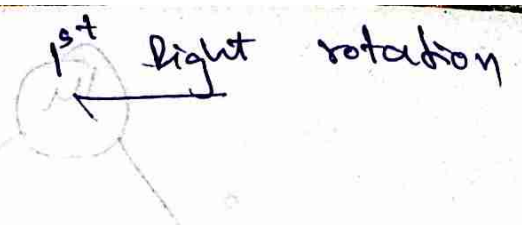
Now tree



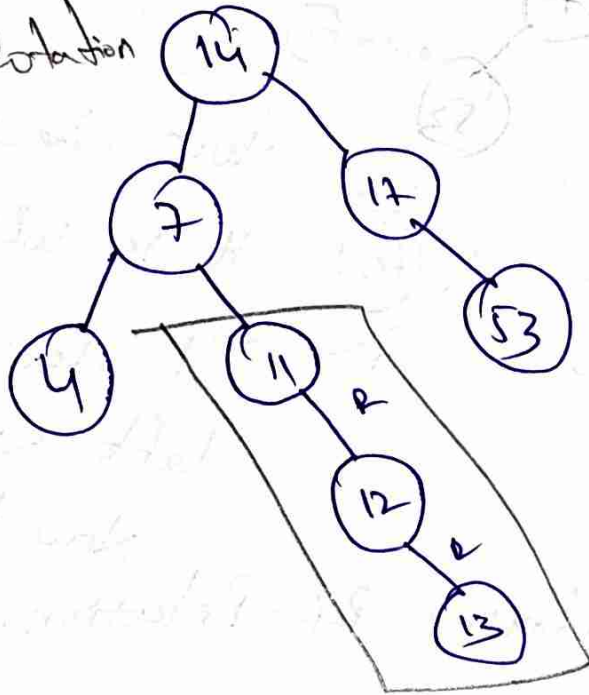
Here Right left rotation in AVL balanced tree should be there.



2-Rotation will be there  
 next left rotation.

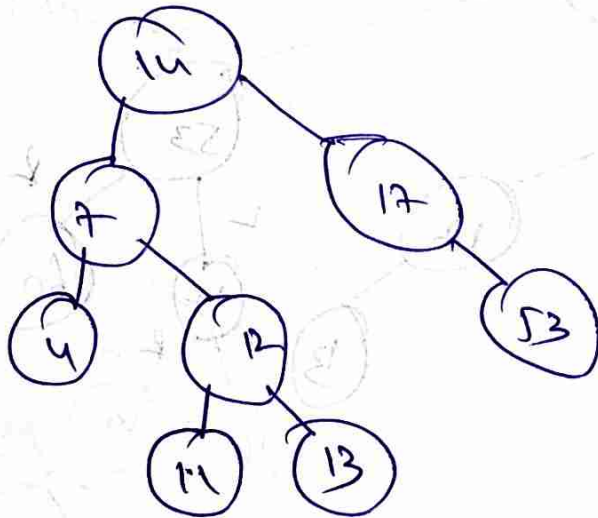


Right Rotation

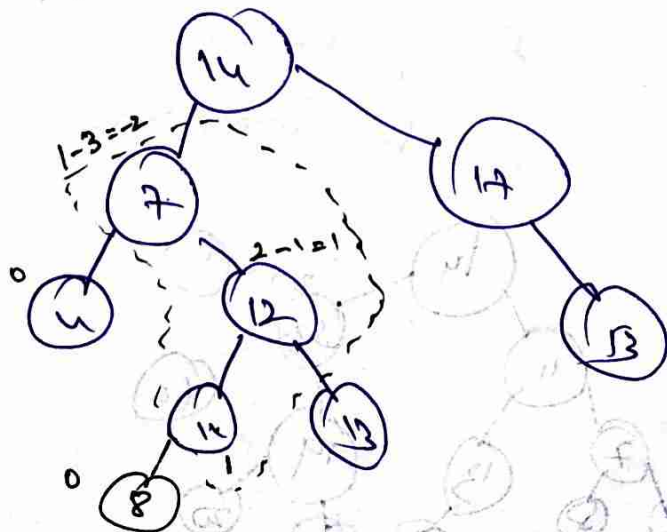


RR - rotation still unbalanced.

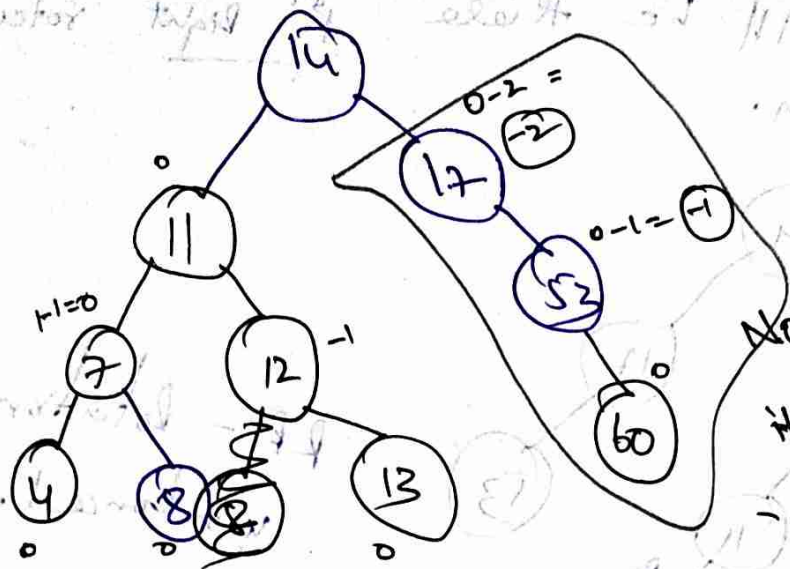
Left Rotation



Insert '8' in AVL tree.

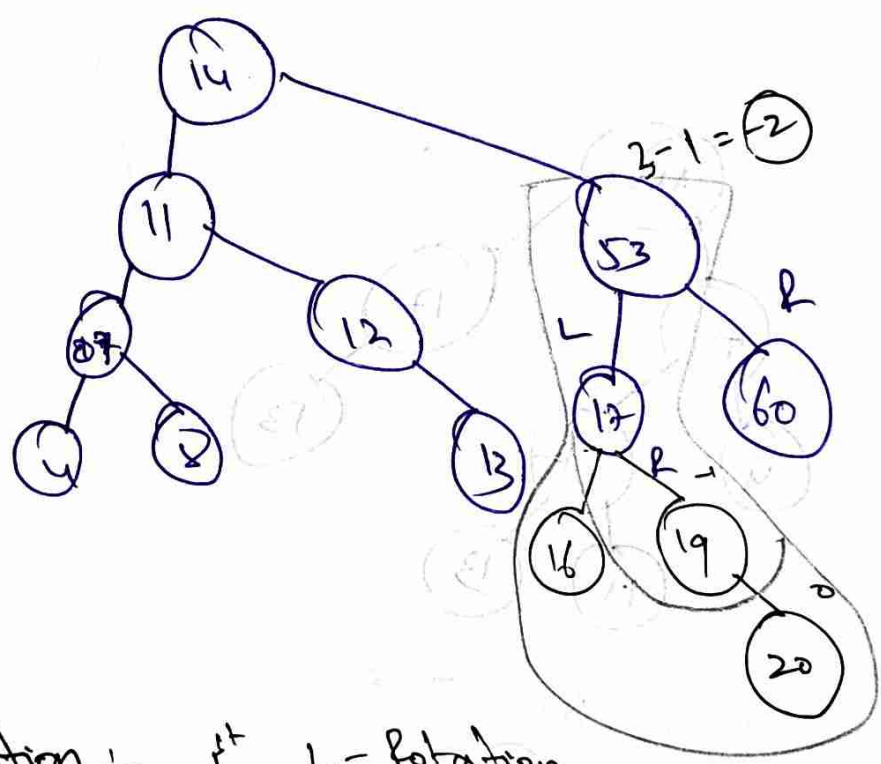


11 - should be root.



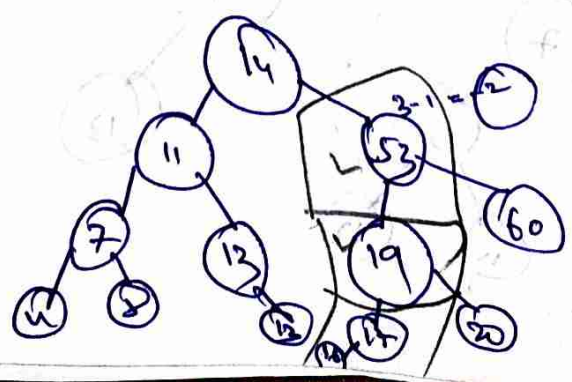
Now check '8'  
 it is left of  
 '11' Now check  
 left side of '11'  
 Now tree

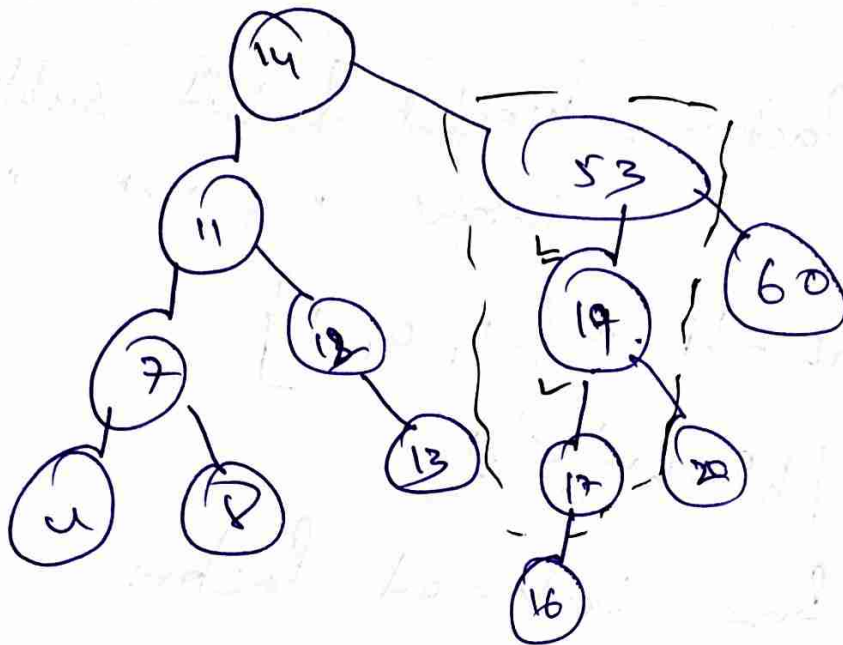
Now 17 is unbalanced R-Rotation.



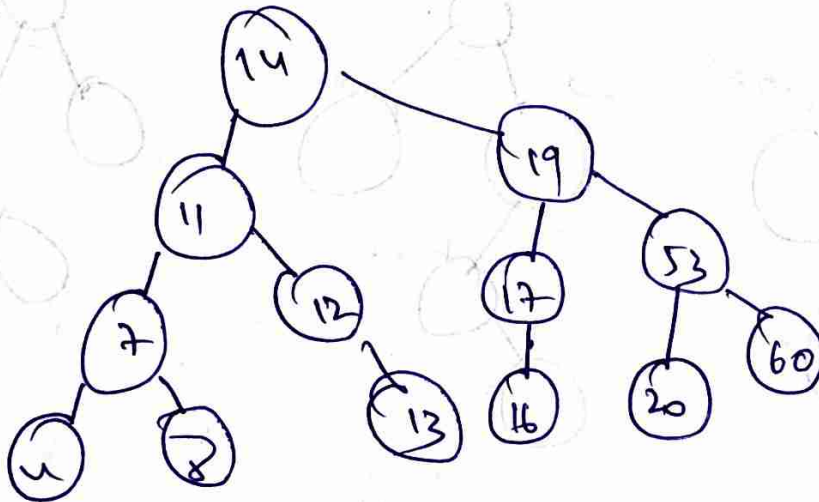
LR-Rotation :- 1<sup>st</sup> L-Rotation  
 2<sup>nd</sup> R-Rotation.

Now:-





Now



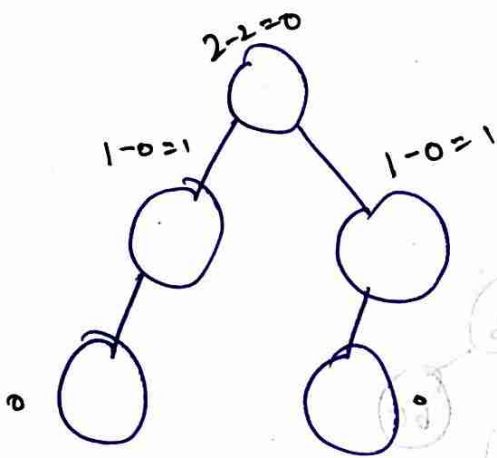


Balance factor = height of left subtree - height " right "

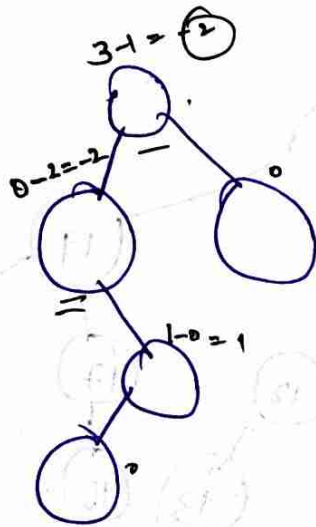
$$bf \Rightarrow hL - hR = \{-1, 0, 1\}$$

$$bf = |hL - hR| \leq 1$$

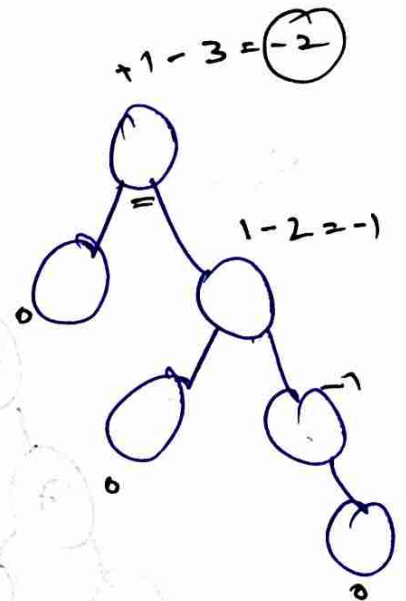
Example to find balanced factor:



balanced.

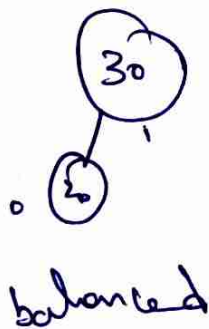


Unbalanced



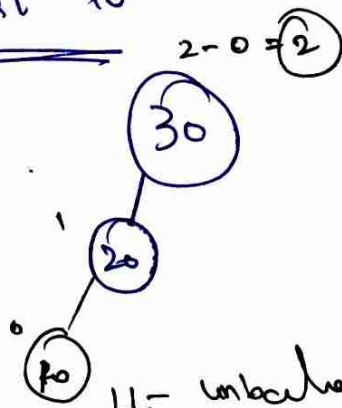
Example:

Initially



balanced

Insert 10

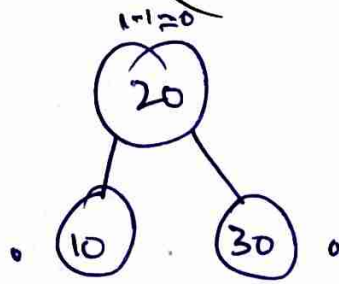


LL - unbalanced

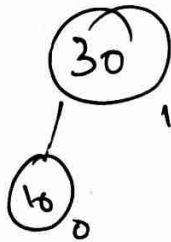
Now Rotation we have to

LL - rotation

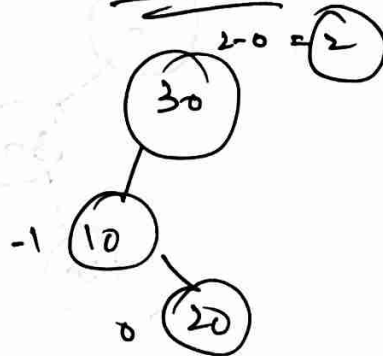
After Rotation :- (LL- Rotation)



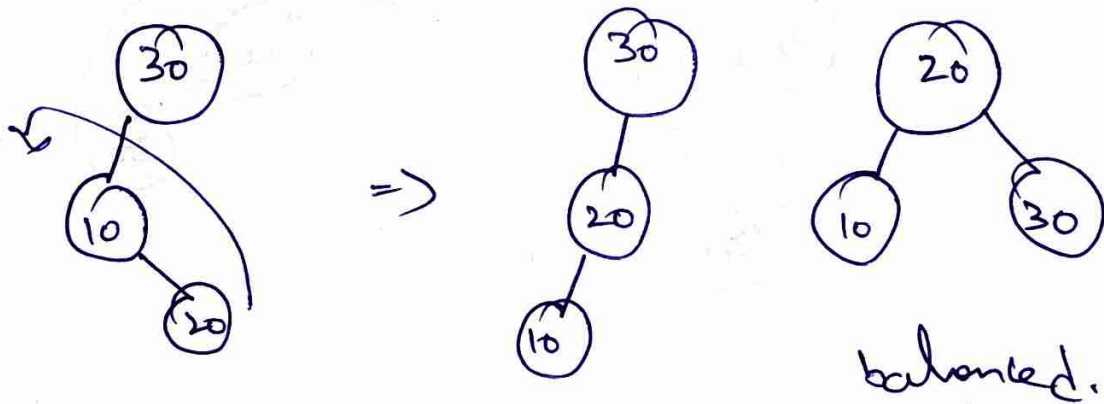
Initially



Insert 20



LL- imbalance.



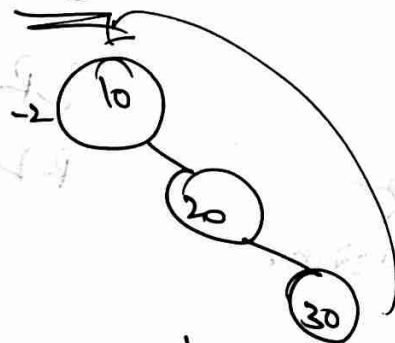
balanced.

double rotation. LL rotation.

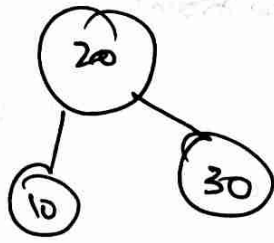
Initially



Insert 30

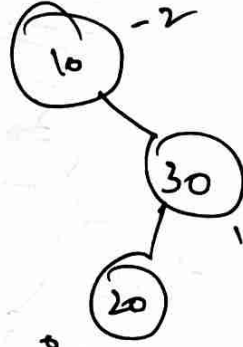
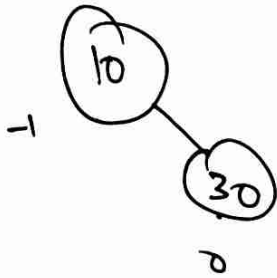


RR rotation.

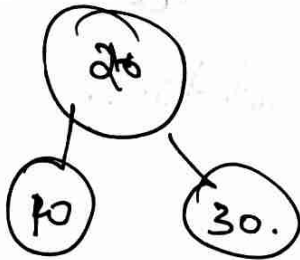
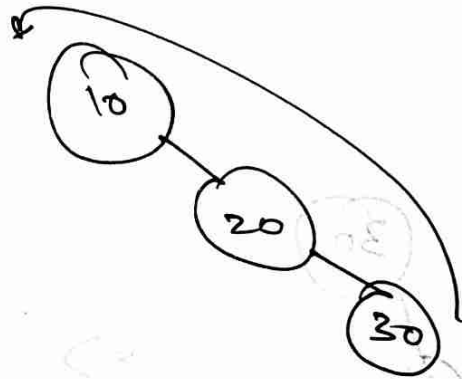
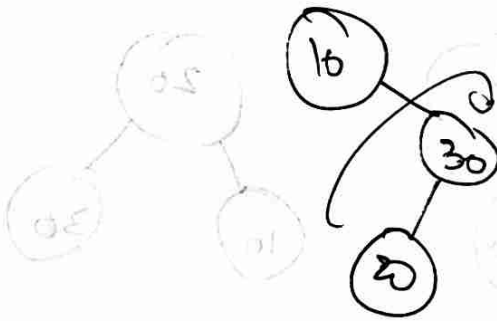


Initially

Insert 20



RL-rotation:

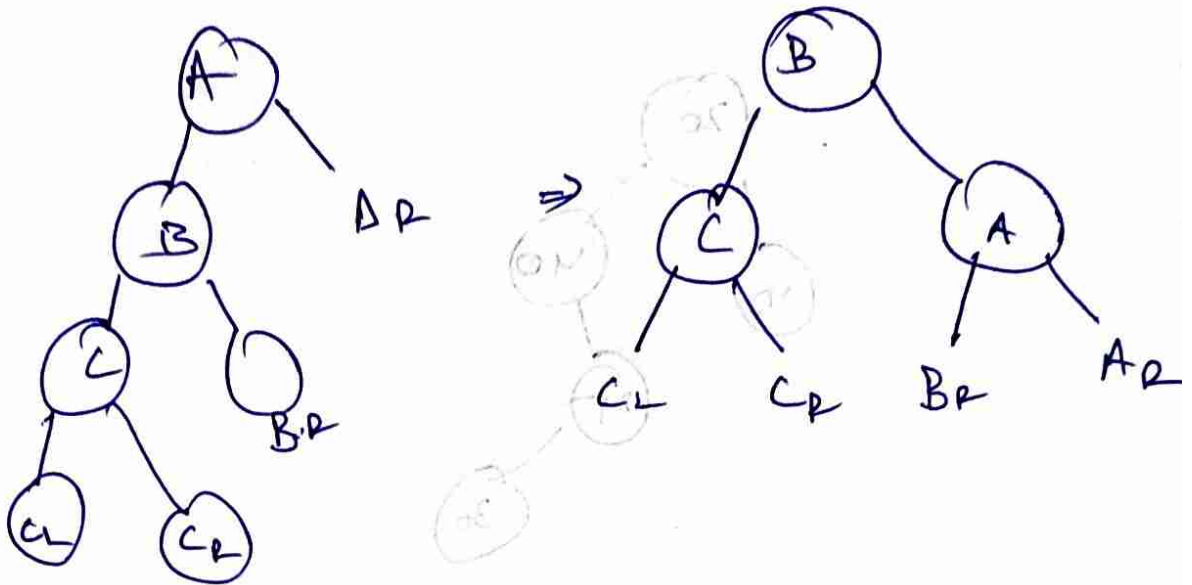


LL }  
RR } Single rotation.

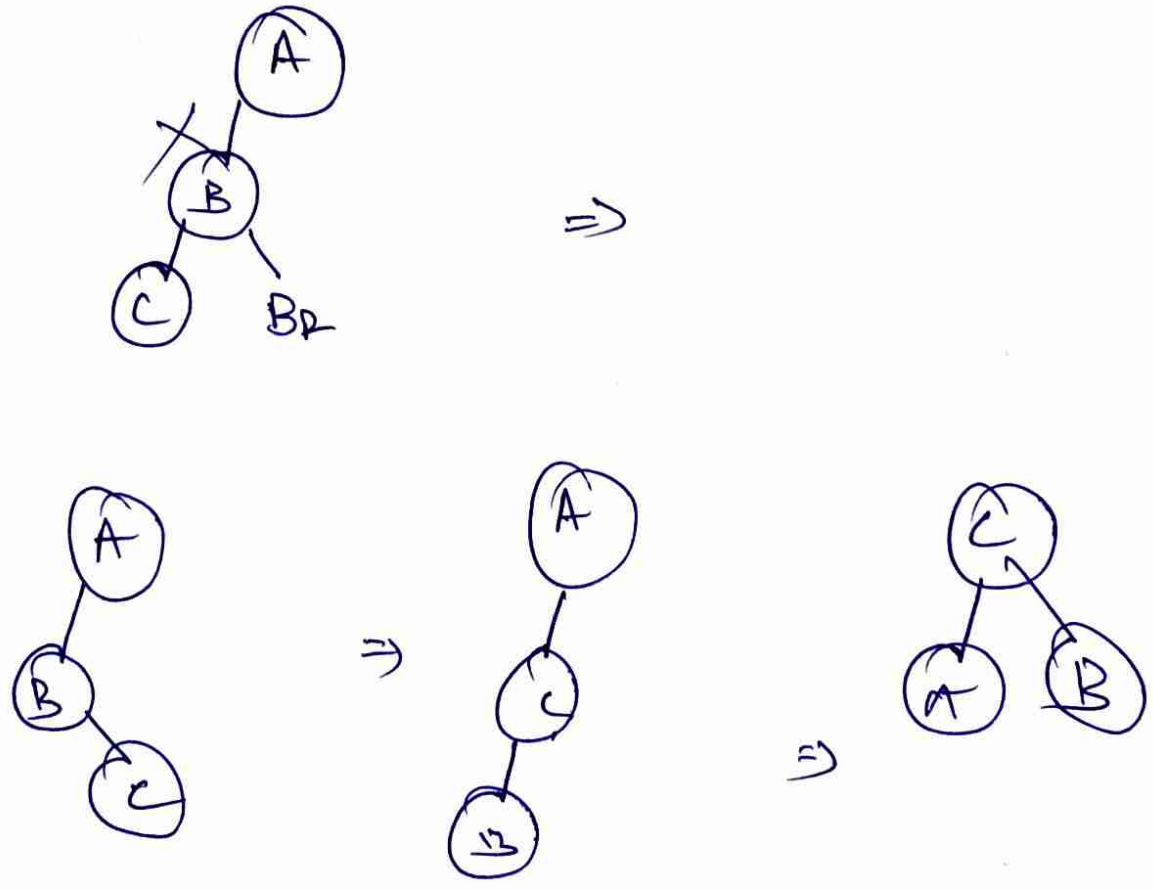
LR }  
RL } double rotation



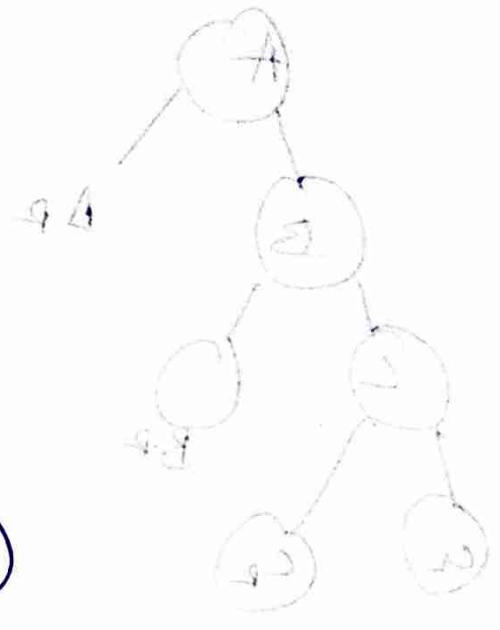
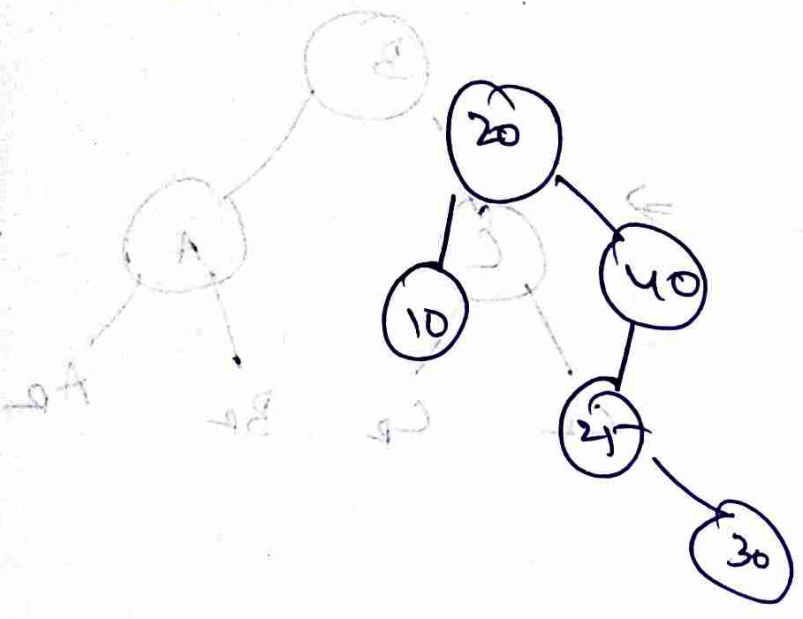
# LL-Rotation:



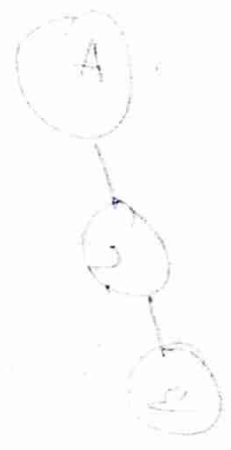
# RR-Rotation

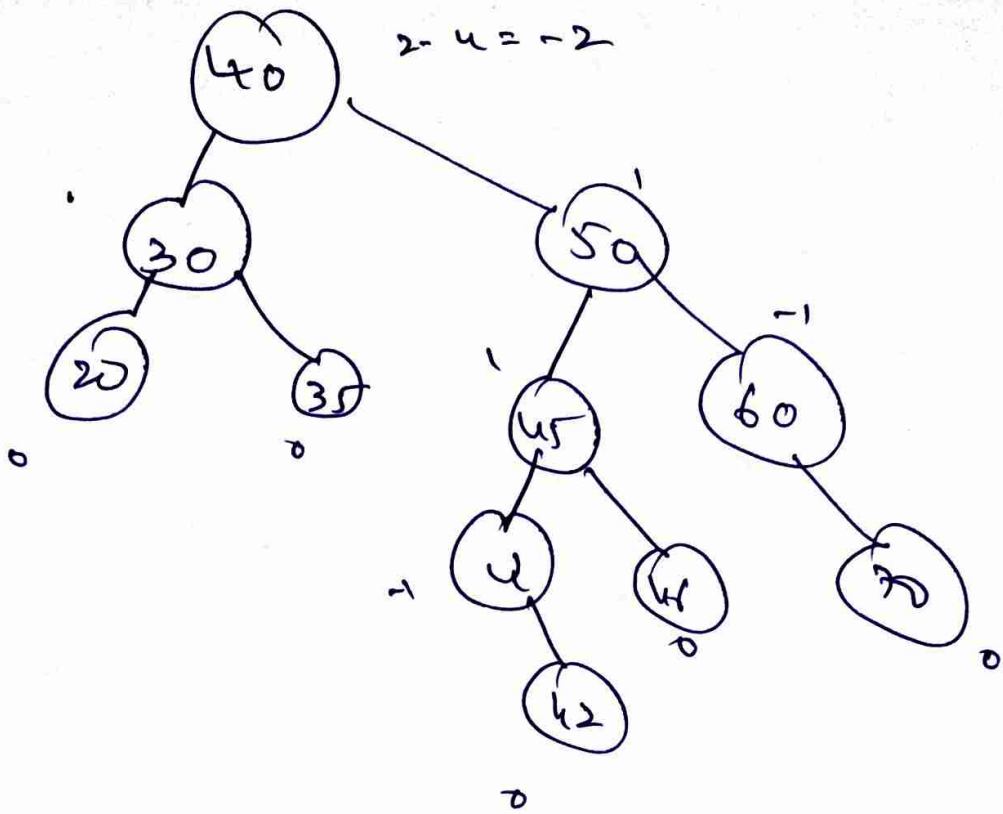


Key: 40, 20, 10, 25, 30, 22, 50



Handwritten text



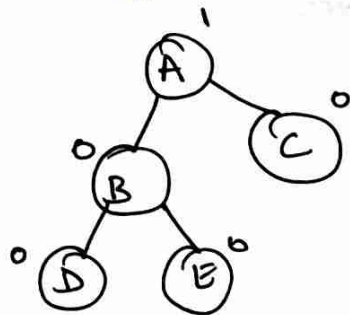


RLR

$O(\log n)$



LL Rotation - LL Rotation is a single rotation that can be applied when a node is inserted in the left subtree of the left child of a node. In this, rotation is performed in a clockwise direction. Consider the following AVL tree.



Balanced tree before insertion

In fig (1), a node 'F' is inserted in the left subtree of left child of node A. This is shown in fig (2)

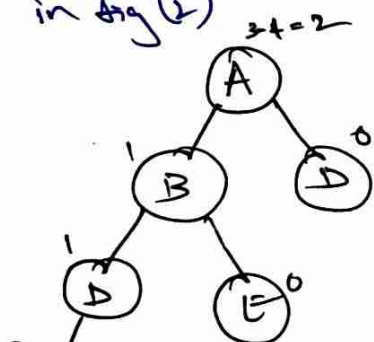


Fig (2)

node F is inserted  
Imbalanced Tree After insertion

After the insertion, the tree becomes imbalanced because node A has a balance factor 2. Thus to rebalance the tree in accordance to the balance factors  $\{-1, 0, +1\}$ , the following operation must be performed

(i) The root of the subtree in which the node F is inserted i.e. node B is made as the new root node. This is shown in fig (3).

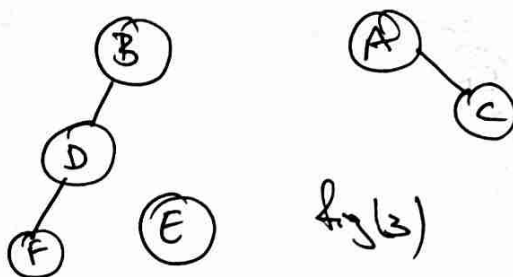


Fig (3)

(ii) The original root node i.e. A is made as the right subchild of the new root node B. This is shown in fig (4)

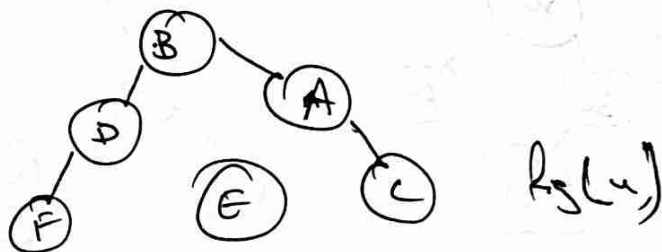
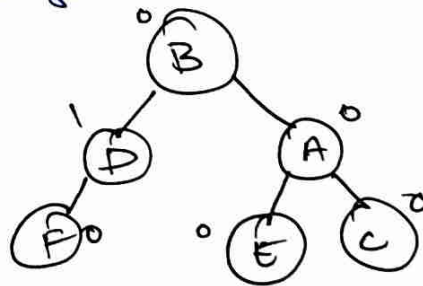


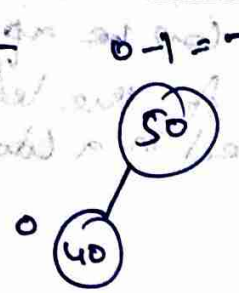
Fig (4)

(iii) The right child of node B i.e. E is made as the left subchild of A, whereas the right child of A i.e. C remains unchanged. This is shown in fig (5)

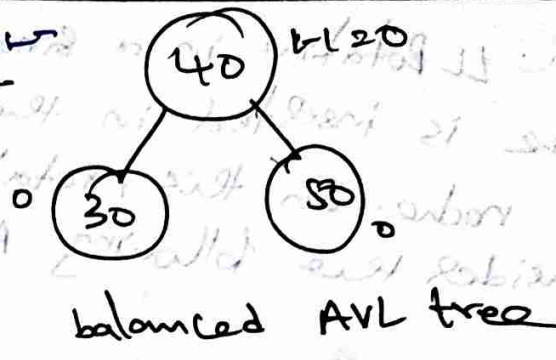


7

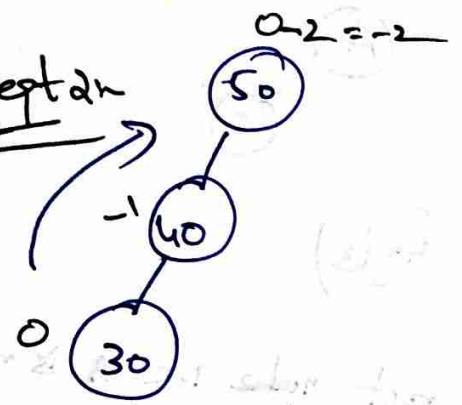
Step 1:-



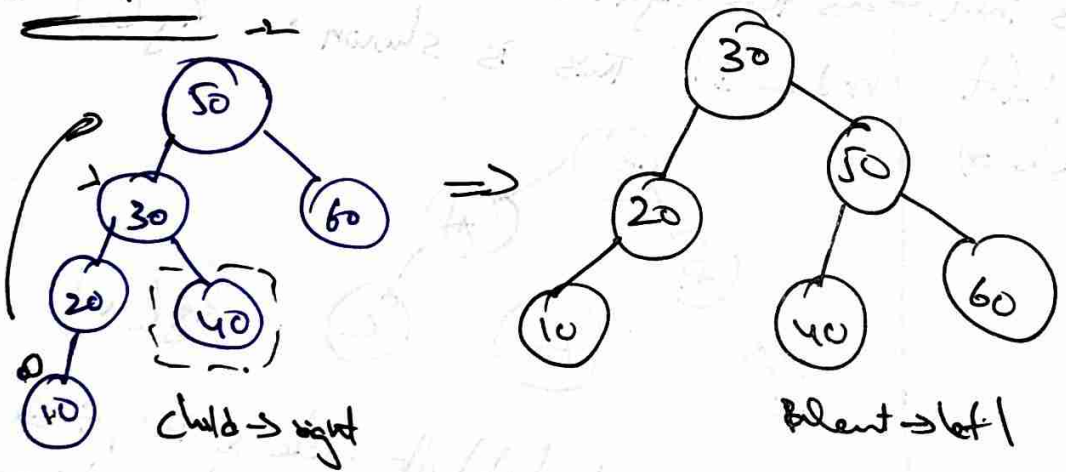
Step 3:-



Step 2:-

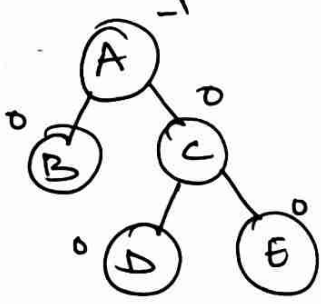


Examples



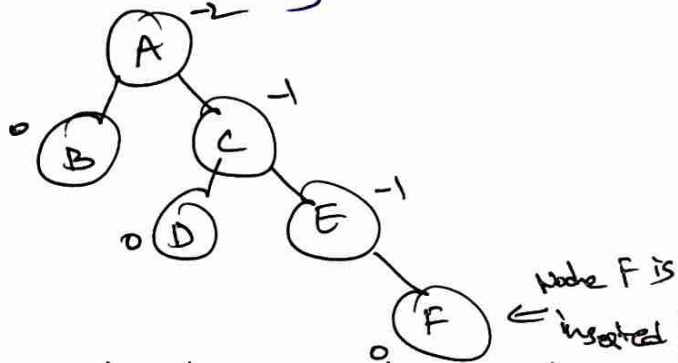


LR-Rotation:- LR-rotation is also a single rotation that can be performed when a node is inserted in the right subtree of the right child of a node. In this, the rotation is performed in an anti-clockwise direction. Consider the following AVL tree.



Balanced tree before insertion

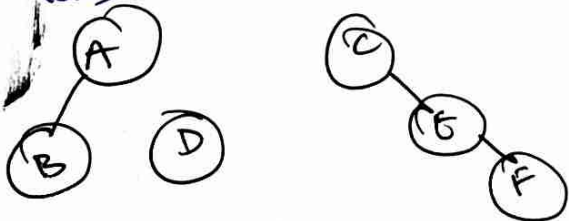
In the fig, a node F is inserted in the right subtree of the right child of a node A. This is shown in fig



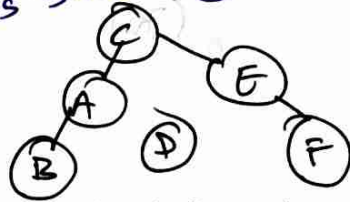
Imbalanced tree after inserted:

After insertion the tree becomes imbalanced because node A has a balance factor of -2. Thus to rebalance the tree in accordance to the balance factors, -1, 0, +1 the following operation must be performed:

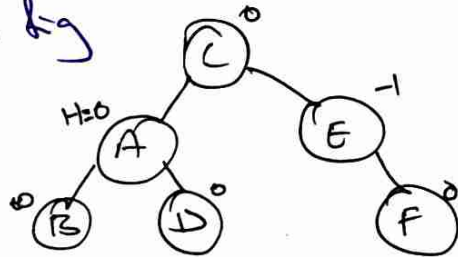
(i) The root of the subtree in which the node F is inserted (i.e., C) is made as the new root node. This is shown in fig



(ii) The original root node A, is made left subchild of the new root node C. This is shown fig.



(iii) The left child of node C (i.e. D) is made as the right subchild of A, whereas the left child of A (i.e. B) remains unchanged. This is shown in fig

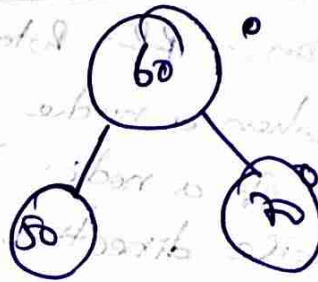




Example



single  
right rotation



if the left child of node A is a right child of node B, then a right rotation is performed around node A. This results in node A becoming the root, with its original left child as its left child and its original right child as its right child.

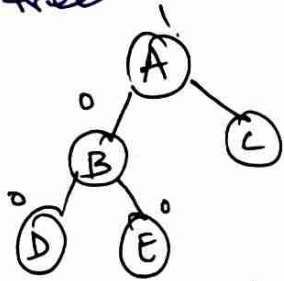


if the right child of node A is a left child of node B, then a left rotation is performed around node A. This results in node A becoming the root, with its original left child as its left child and its original right child as its right child.

if the left child of node A is a left child of node B, then a left-right rotation is performed around node A. This results in node A becoming the root, with its original left child as its left child and its original right child as its right child.

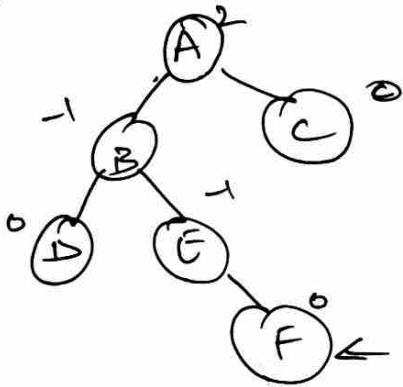
if the right child of node A is a right child of node B, then a right-left rotation is performed around node A. This results in node A becoming the root, with its original left child as its left child and its original right child as its right child.

LR rotation: LR rotation is a double rotation that can be performed when a node is inserted in the right subtree of the left child of a node. In this type of rotation, RR rotation followed by LL rotation are performed. Consider the following AVL tree.



Balanced tree before insertion

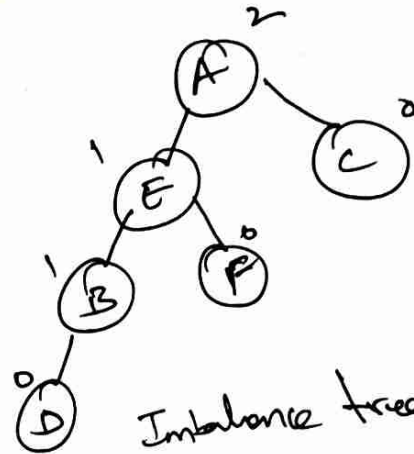
In the fig above a node F is inserted in the right subtree of left child of the node A. This is shown in fig



Imbalanced tree after insertion. Node F is inserted

After insertion, the tree becomes imbalanced because node A has a balance factor 2. Thus to rebalance the tree in accordance to the balance factors -1, 0, +1, the following operation must be performed.

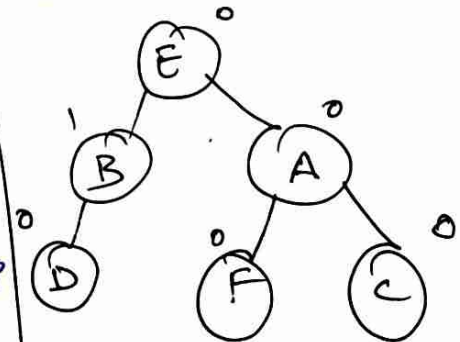
(i) Initially, RR rotation must be performed by rotating the parent of the inserted node (i.e. E) in an anti-clockwise direction making it as the root of the subtree. Thus B, D becomes the left child and F becomes the right child of node E. This is shown in fig.



Imbalanced tree after RR rotation

(ii) The tree shown in fig is also an imbalanced tree because of the balance factor 2 at node A. Now, LL rotation is to be performed in a clockwise direction so as to make the tree balanced.

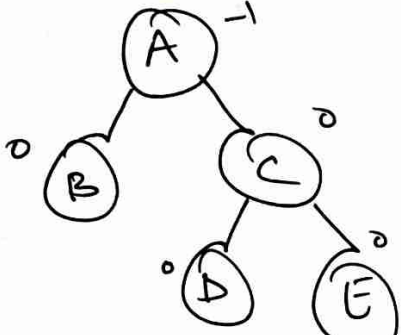
(iii) In LL rotation, the parent of the inserted node (i.e. E) is made as the new root of the tree. The original root A is made as the right child of E and node F is made as the left child of A. This is shown in fig.



Balanced Tree after LL-Rotation.

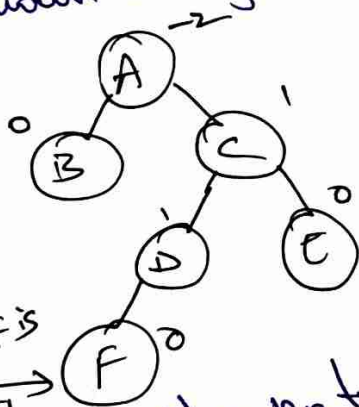


RL Rotation :- RL rotation is also a double rotation that can be performed when a node is inserted in the left subtree of the right child of a node. In this type of rotation, LL rotation followed by the RL-rotation are performed. Consider the following AVL tree.



Balanced tree before insertion.

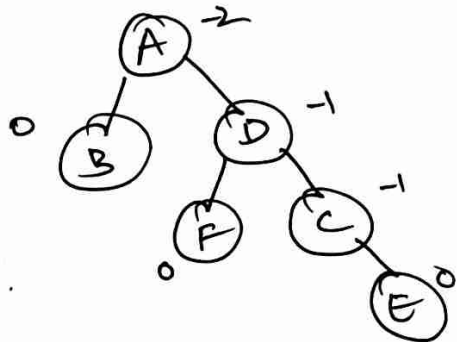
In the above fig, a node F is inserted into the left subtree of the right child of node A. This is shown in fig.



Node F is inserted

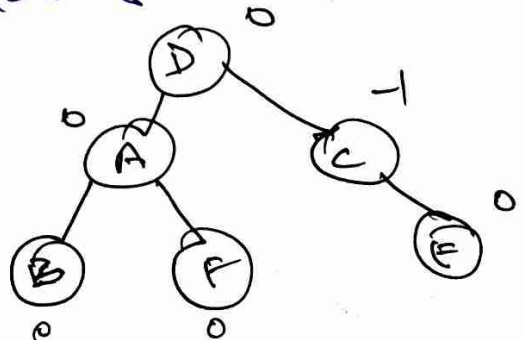
After the insertion, the tree becomes imbalanced because node A has a balance factor of 2. Thus to rebalance the tree in accordance to the balance factors  $-1, 0, +1$  the following rotation must be performed. Initially LL rotation must be performed by rotating the parent of the inserted node (i.e.) in a clockwise direction to making it the root of the subtree. Thus

C becomes the right child and F becomes the left child of node D. This is shown in fig.



Imbalanced tree after LL rotation  
(i) The tree shown in fig is an imbalanced tree because of the balance factor of node A. Now, RL rotation is to be performed in an anti-clockwise direction so as to make the tree balanced.

(iii) In RL rotation, the parent of the inserted node (i.e.) D is made the new root node of the tree. The original root A is made as the left child of D and the node F is made as the right child of A. However, the nodes B remaining unchanged. This is shown in fig.





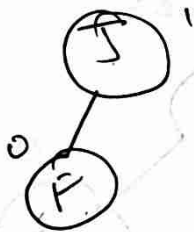
Construct AVL tree for the list { J, F, M, A, N, K, L, A, S, O, P, D }

Step 1:- Initially, the AVL tree is empty, construct an AVL tree by inserting J into the empty tree.



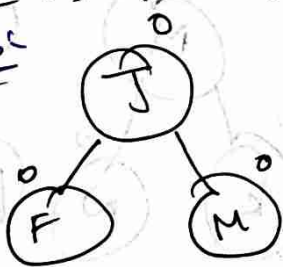
Insert (J)

Step 2:- Then, a new element (i.e. F) is inserted into an AVL tree. This item is inserted into the left subtree of node J, causing the left subtree J to grow in height. After insertion, the balance factor of node J is 1.



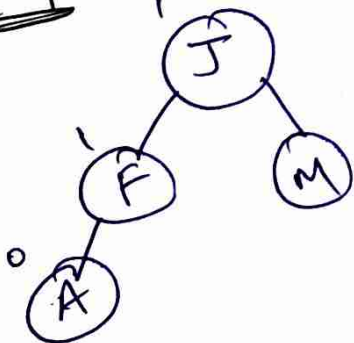
The subsequent insertion are as follows,

Step 3

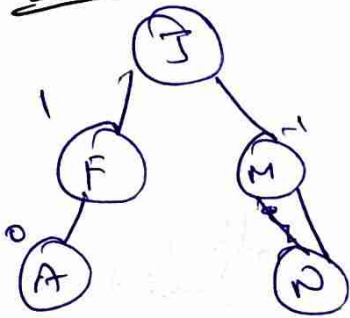


(Insert M)

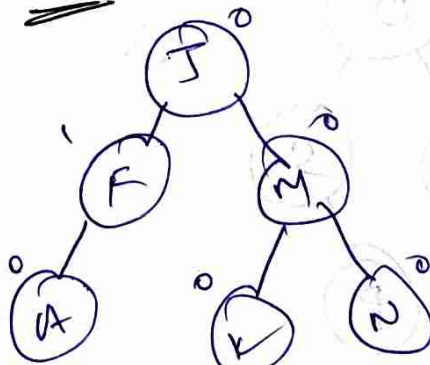
Step 4:- Insert A



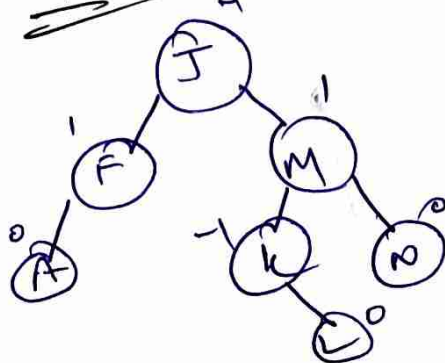
Step 5:- Insert N



Step 6:- Insert K

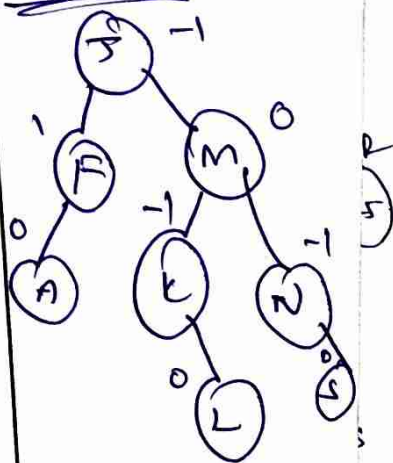


Step 7:- Insert L

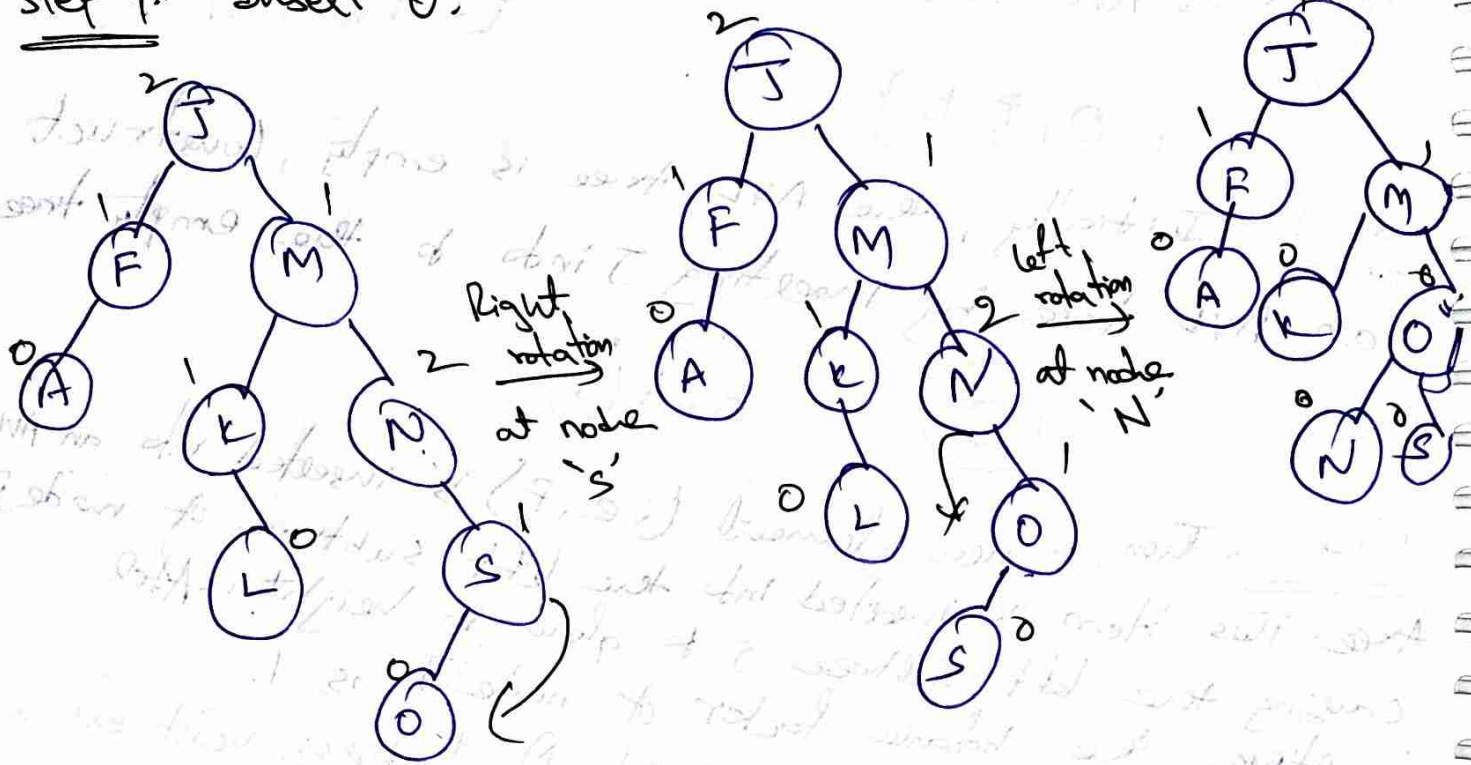


Step 8:- Next element to insert is A, since this element already exists in the AVL tree it is rejected. ~~Step next 'S'~~ is inserted into the AVL tree.

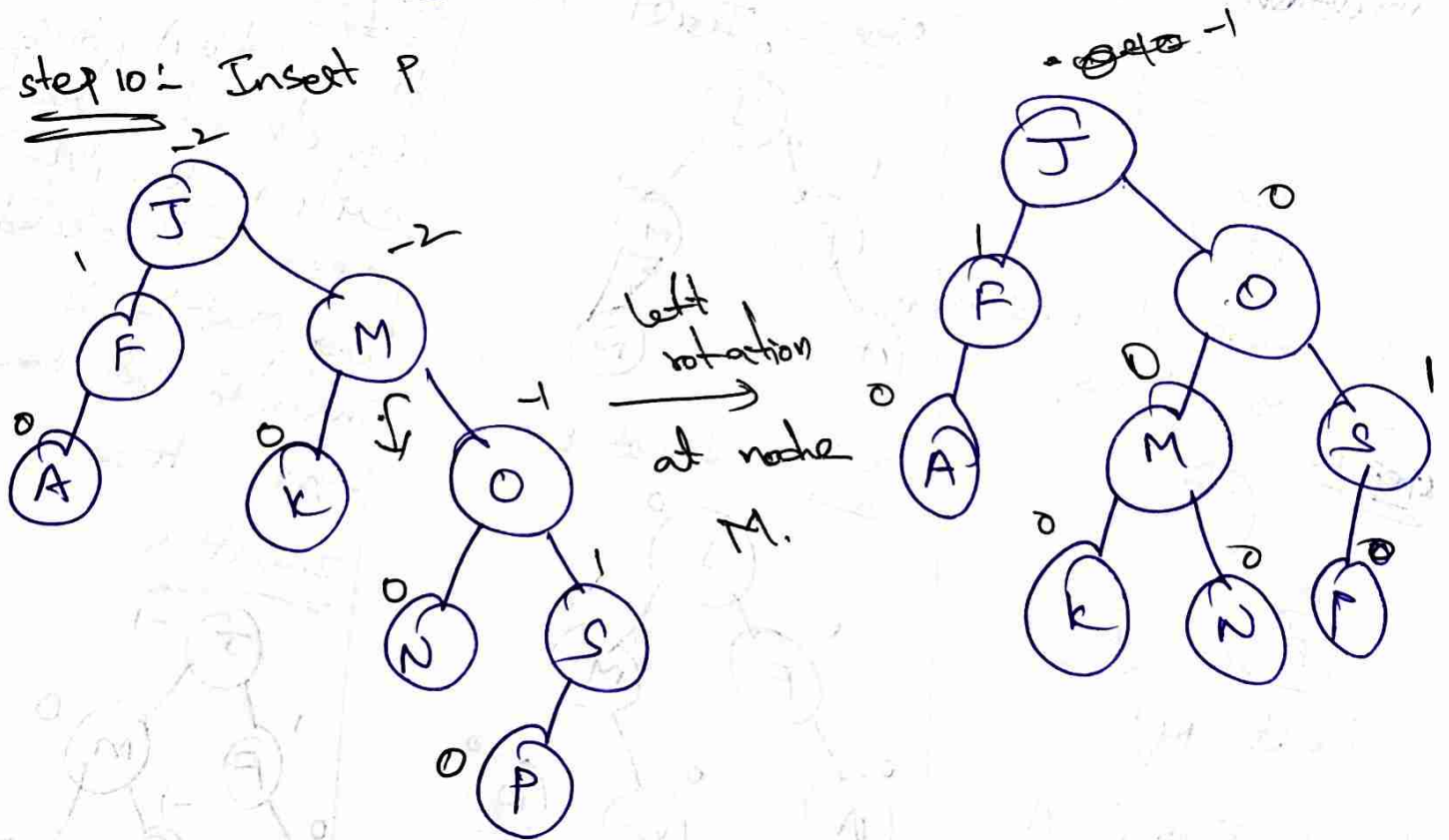
Insert S



step 9:- Insert O:-

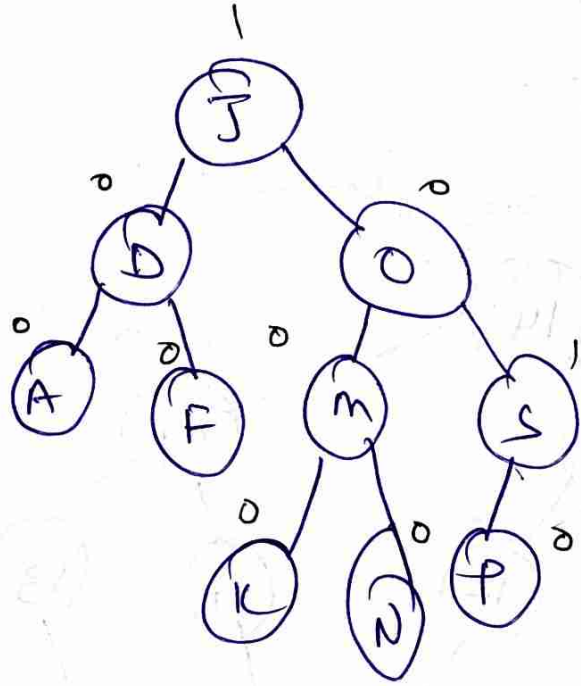
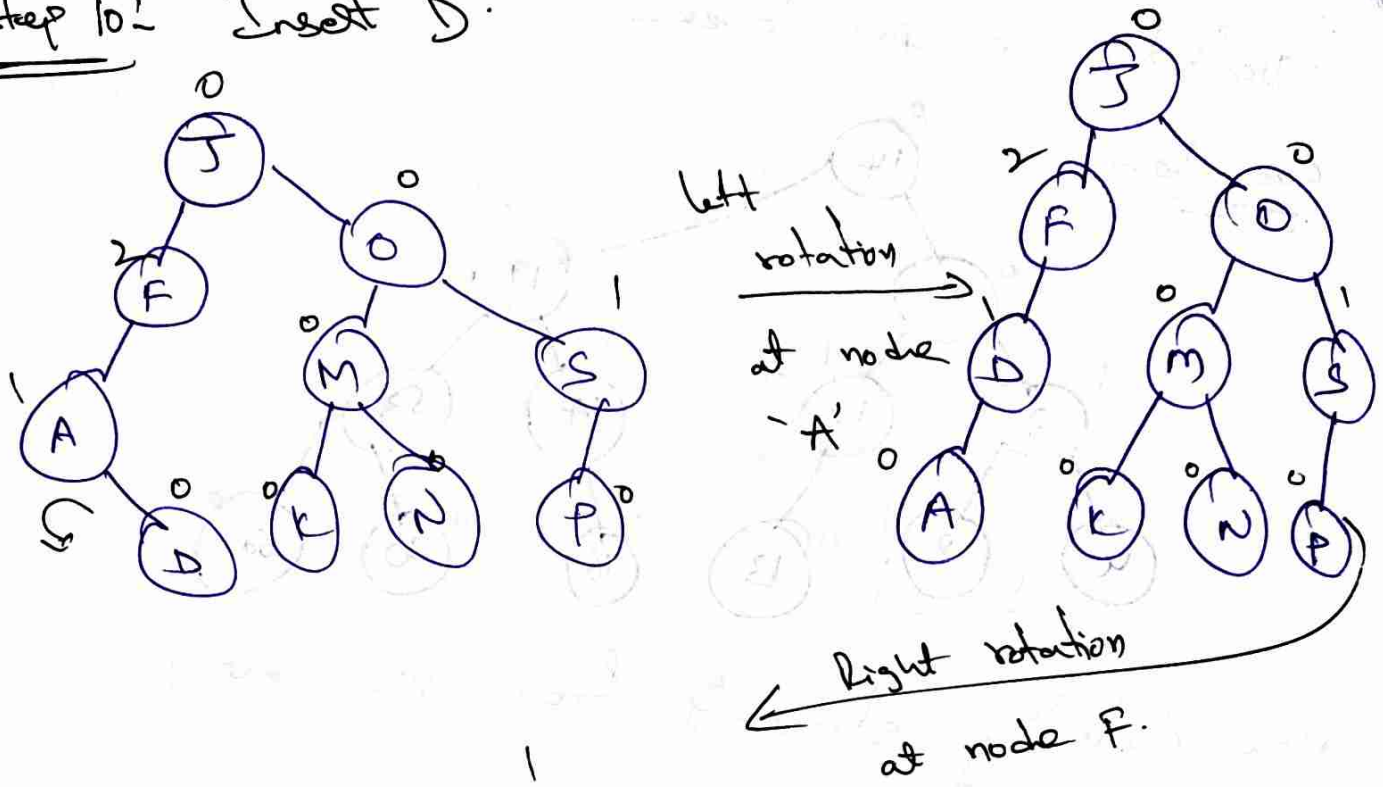


step 10:- Insert P





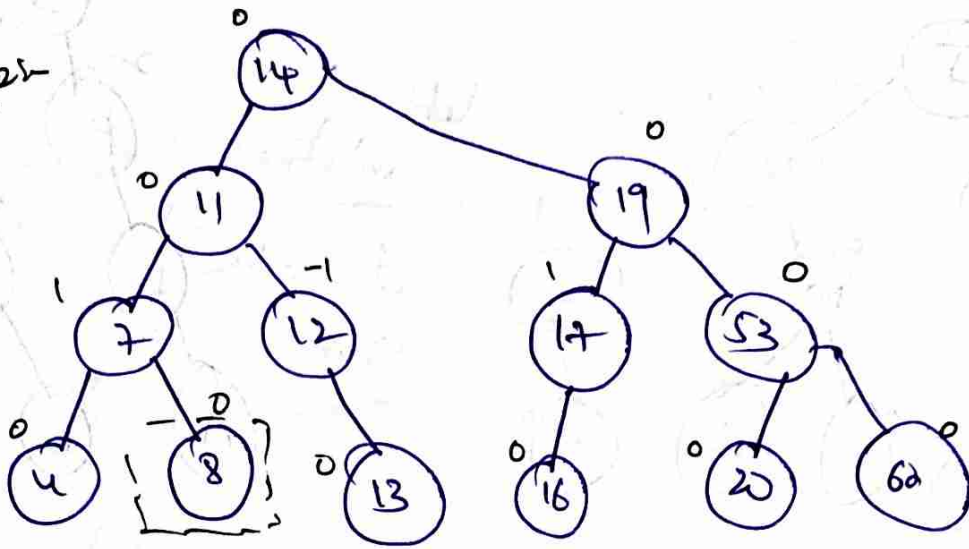
Step 10: Insert D.





# Deletion in AVL tree

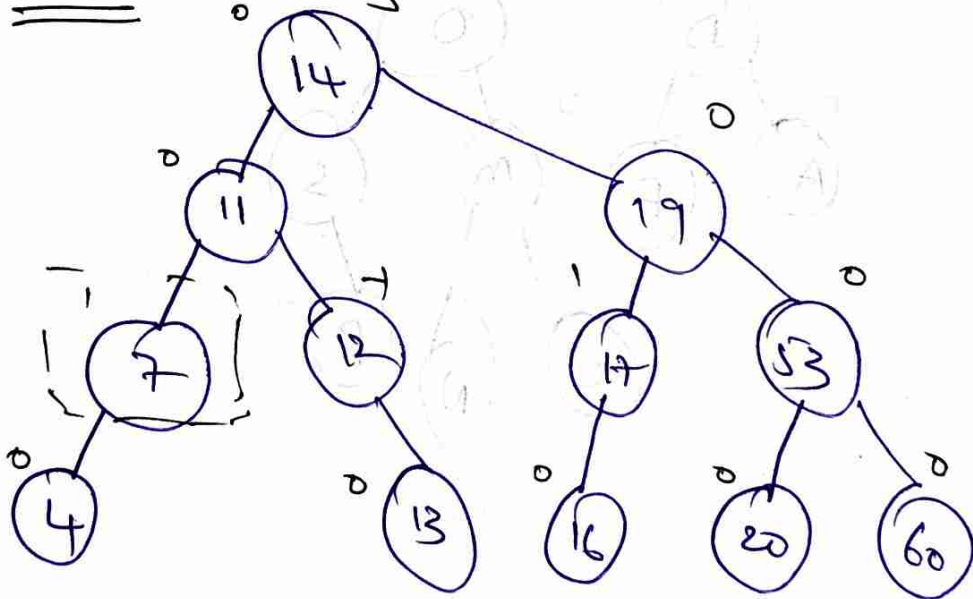
Example



Now deleting elements from AVL are:

8, 7, 11, 14, 17

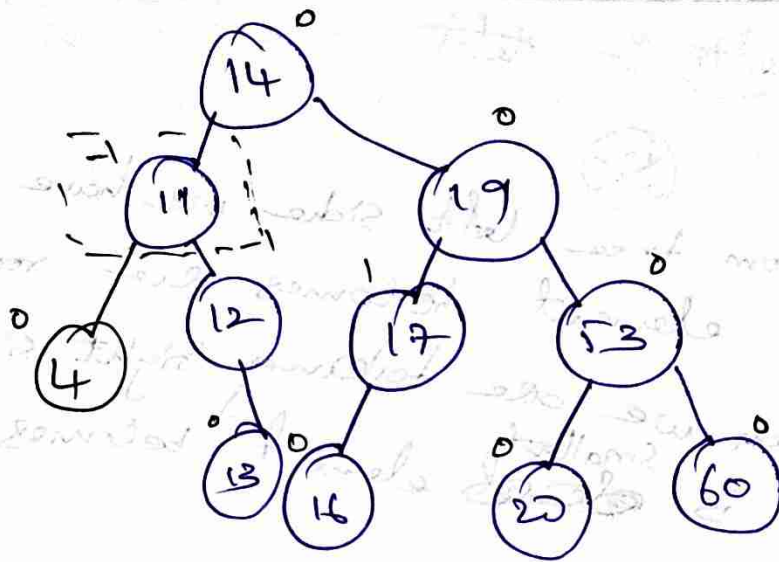
Now 8 is deleting elements.



Balanced AVL tree.

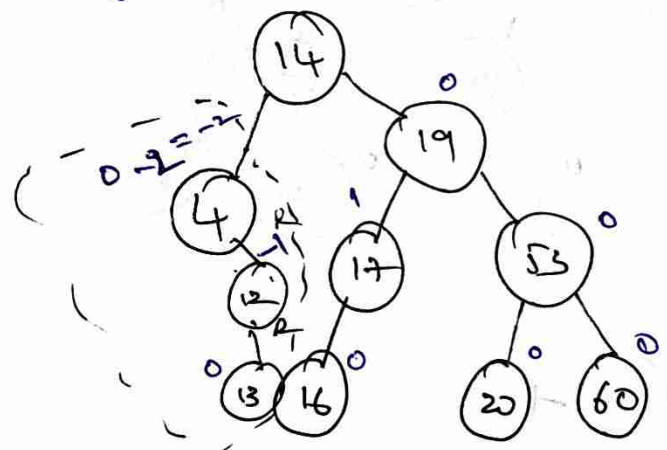
Now deleting 7!

When we are deleting '7'. In '7' place '4' is replaced in the place 7.

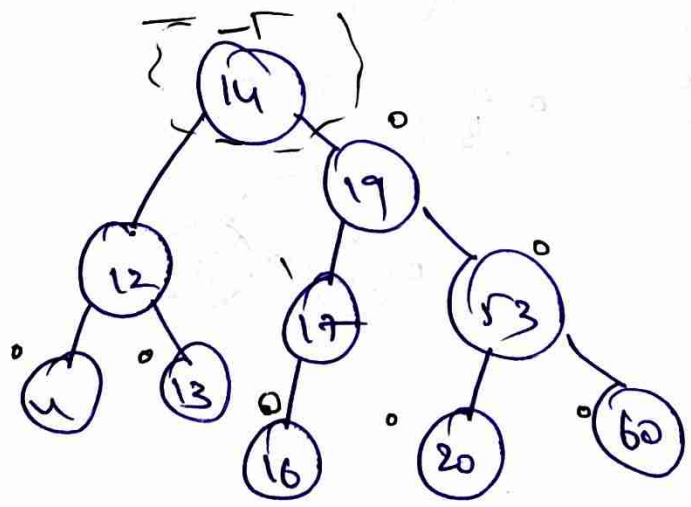


'11' deleting element:

For '11' two childrens are there it is replaced left or right.



unbalance AVL RR-Rotation

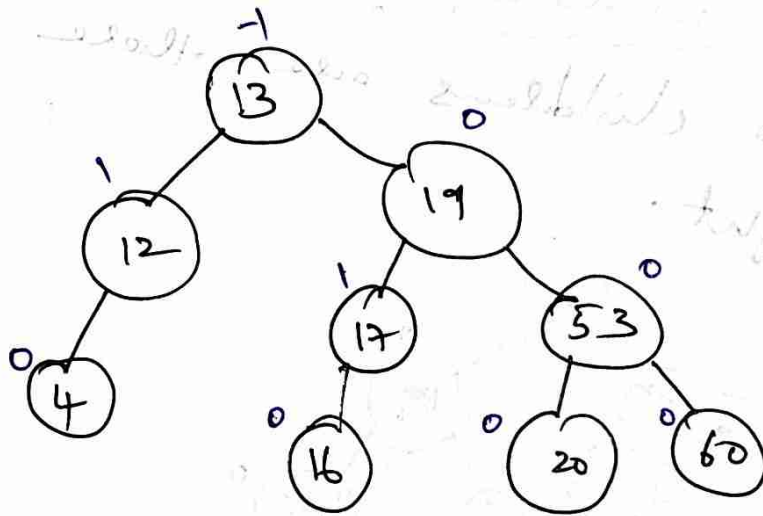


Now 14 - deleting :- ~~left~~

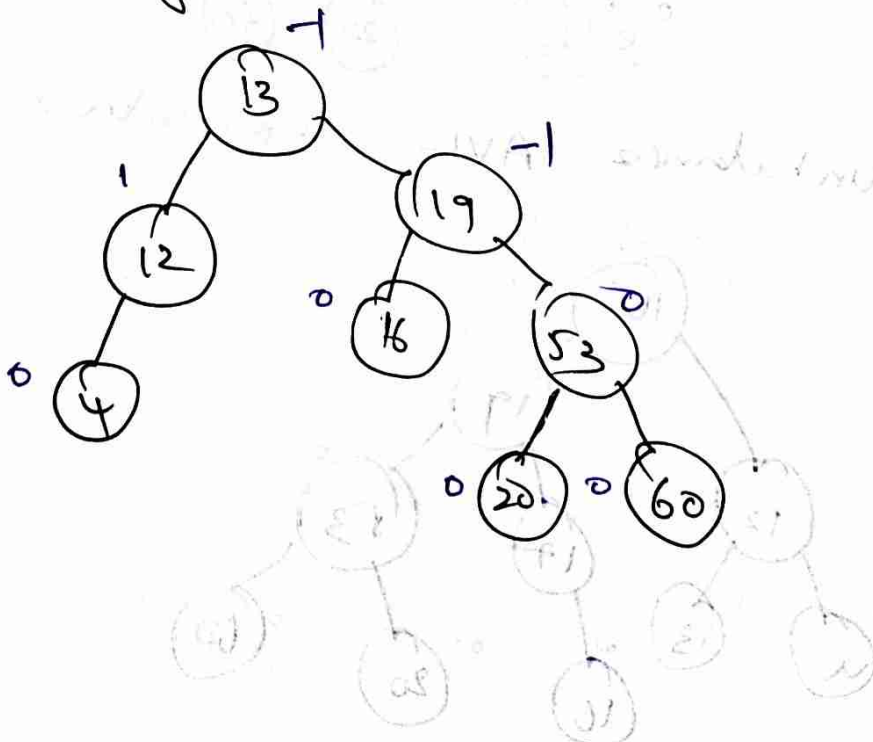
Case 1:- from tree ~~13~~ left side we have see which is largest element becomes the root.

Case 2:- when we are taking right side we have see which is ~~largest~~ <sup>smallest</sup> element becomes the root.

Now tree becomes



Now 17 - deleting :-



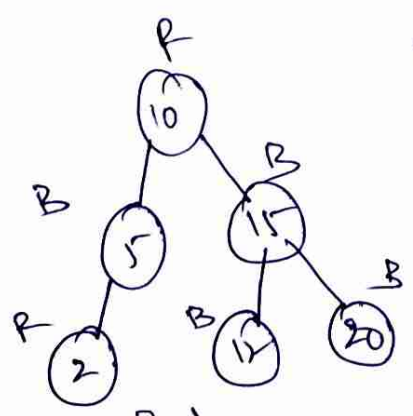
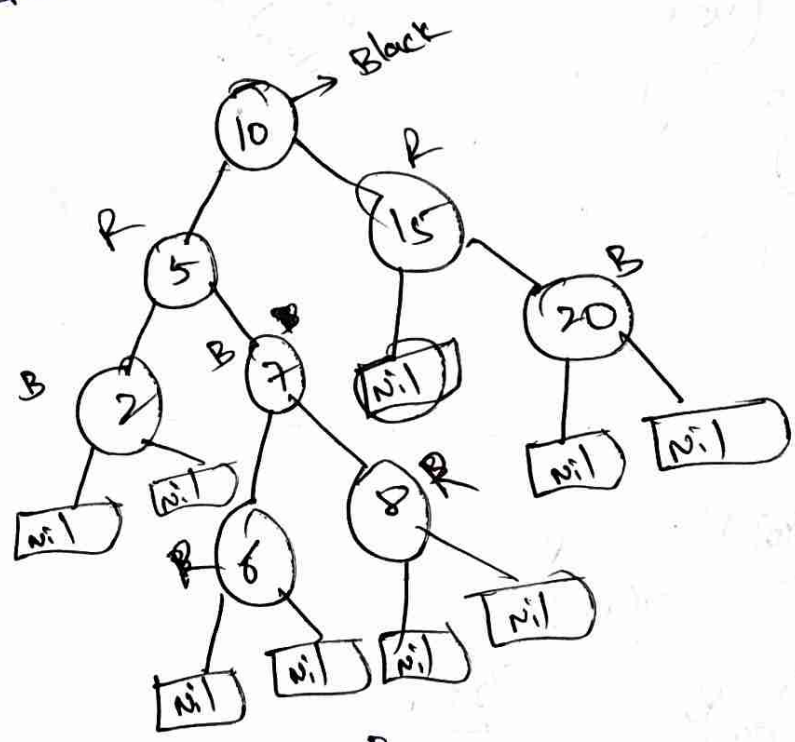


Searching in AVL :- search operation in an AVL tree is performed exactly same as in an unbalanced binary search tree and thus takes  $O(\log n)$  time, since an AVL tree is always kept balanced. No special provisions are required as the tree's structure is not modified by search operation.

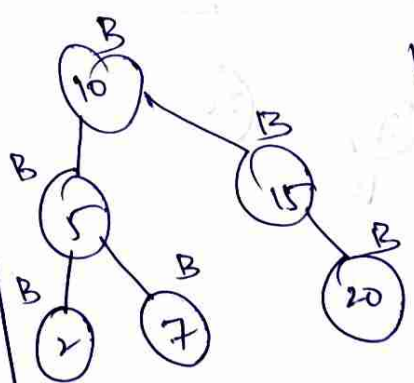
# Induction to Red-Black tree:

- \* It is a self balancing BST.
- \* Every node is either Black or Red
- \* Root is always Black
- \* Every leaf which is nil is Black
- \* If node is Red then its children are Black
- \* Every path from a node to any of its descendant nil node has same no of Black node

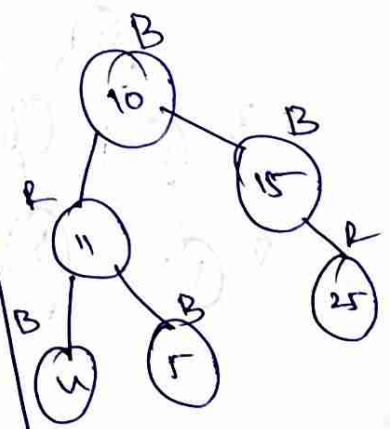
## Example



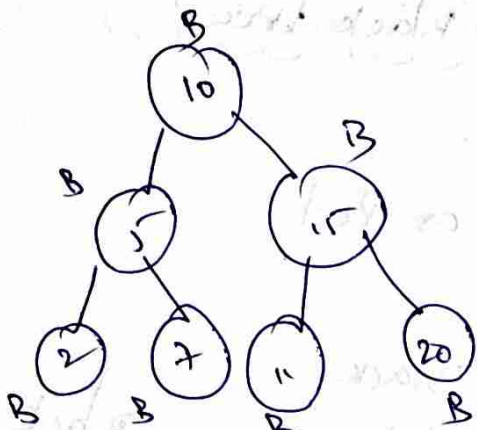
Root is in Red.  
then it is not red-Black tree



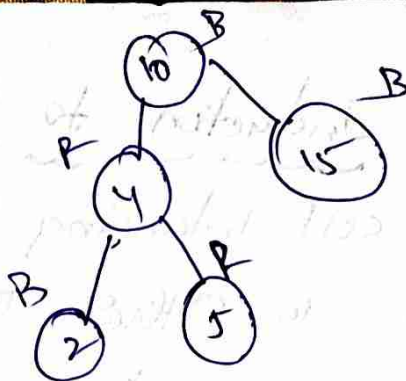
Black node path is not there



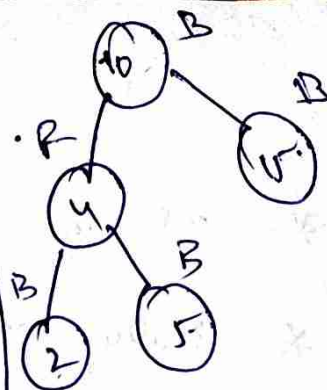
It is not BST tree's y it is not RBT



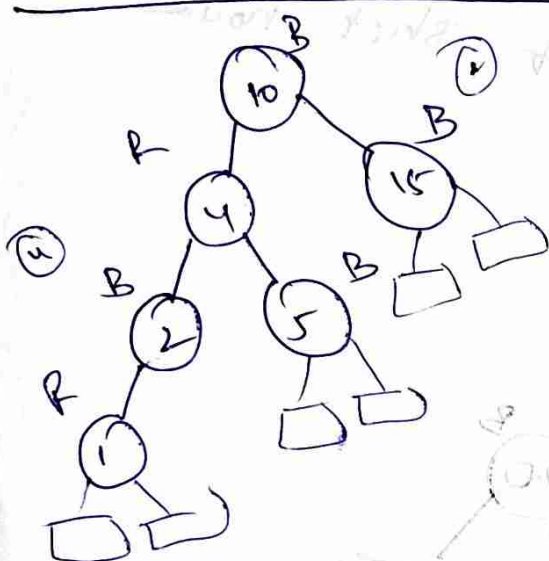
It is RBT



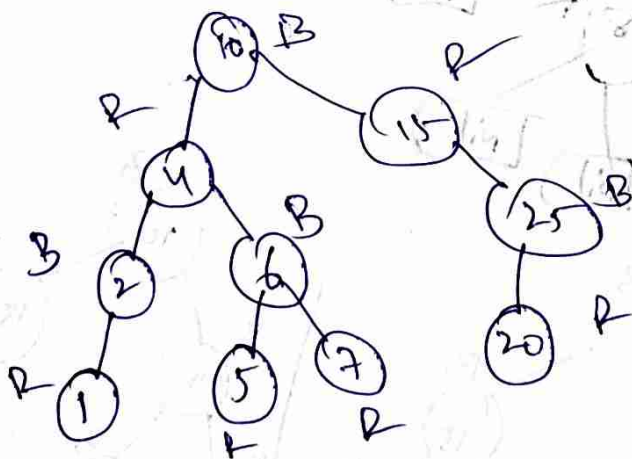
It is not RBT  
two Red nodes



It is RBT



2x2=4  
Then at  
more we cant  
extend the tree.



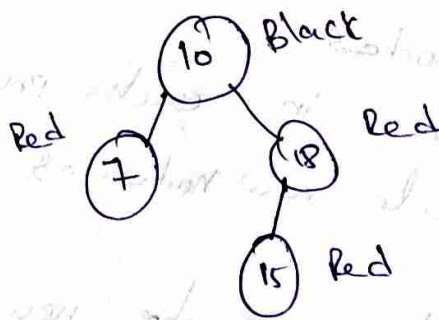


## Insertion in Red Black Tree:

- \* Root = Black
- \* No two adjacent red nodes in each path.
- \* Count no. of black nodes in each path.
- \* If tree is empty, create new node as root node with color black
- \* If tree is not empty, create new node as leaf node with color red
- \* If parent of new node is black then exit
- \* " " " " " red " check the color of parents sibling new node.
- \* If color is black or null then do suitable rotation & recolor.
- \* If color is red then recolor & also check if parent of new node is not root node then recolor it & recheck.

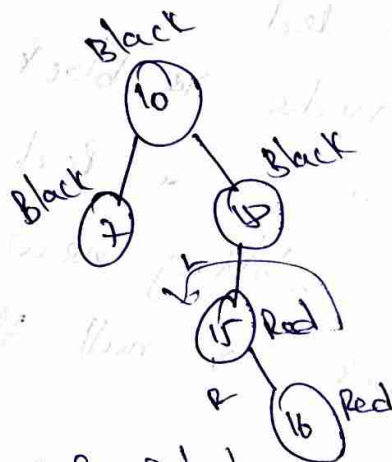
Example

10, 18, 7, 15, 16, 30, 25, 40, 60, 2, 1, 30

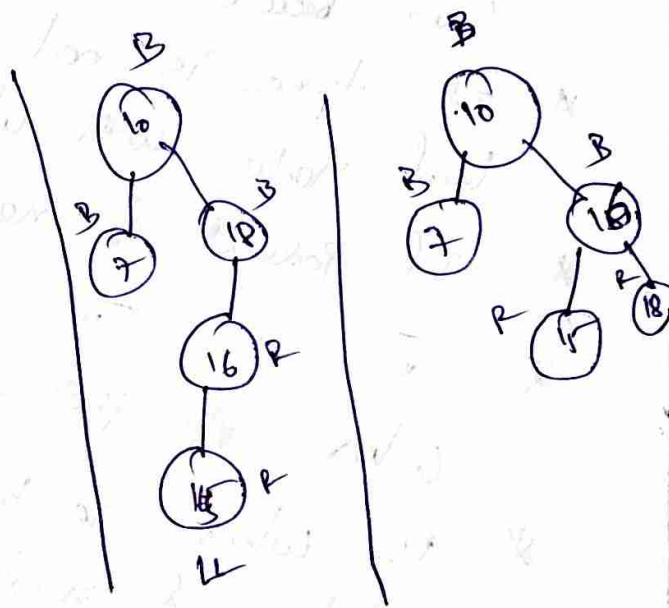


Red - Red violation

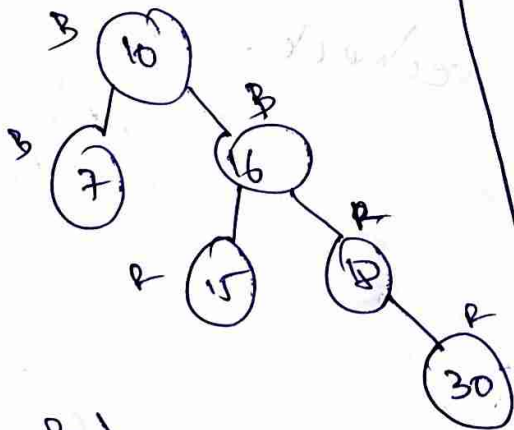
Now Recolor



LR - Rotation

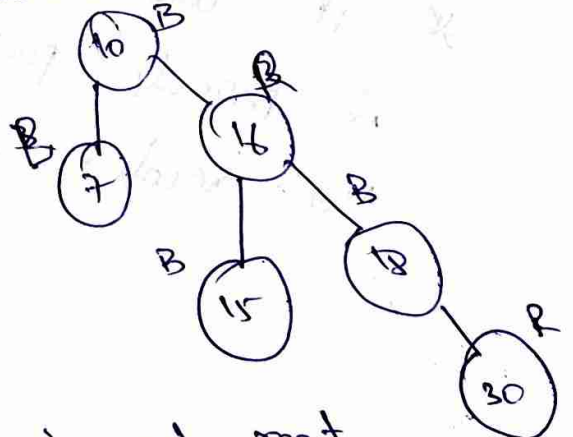


Insert :- 30



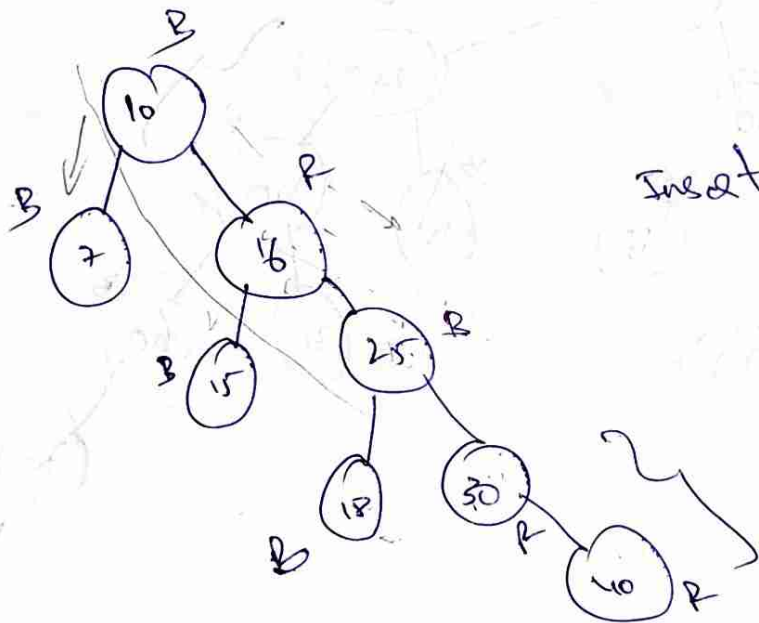
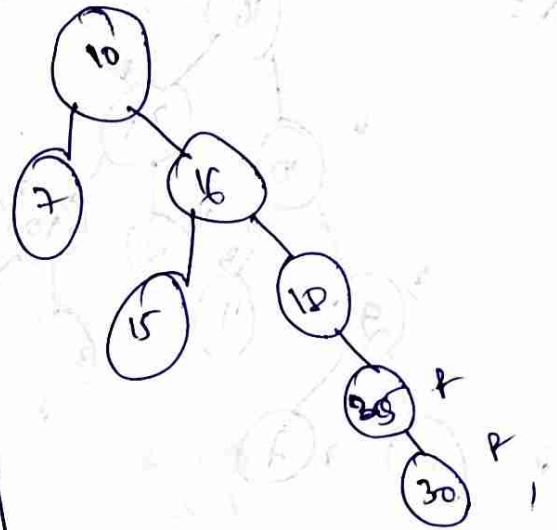
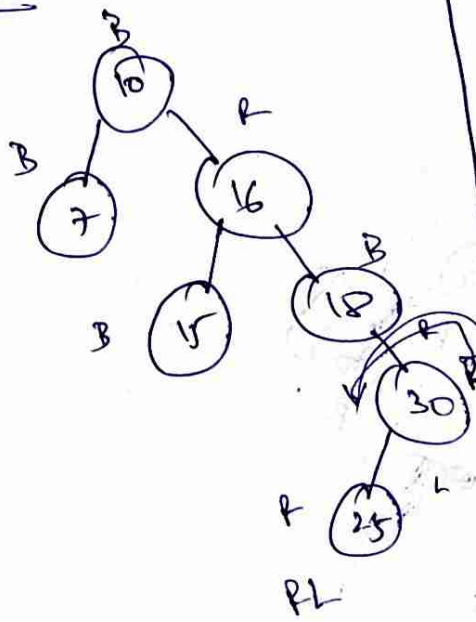
Red - Red

re-color

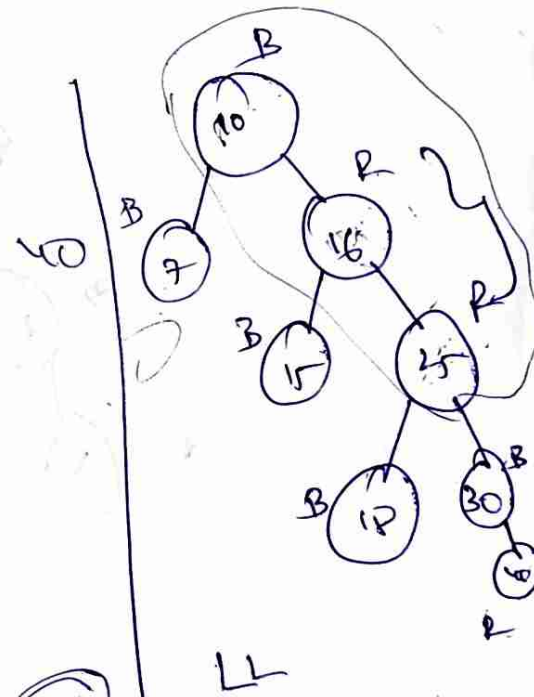


16 is not root  
we can change the color  
of 6 Now

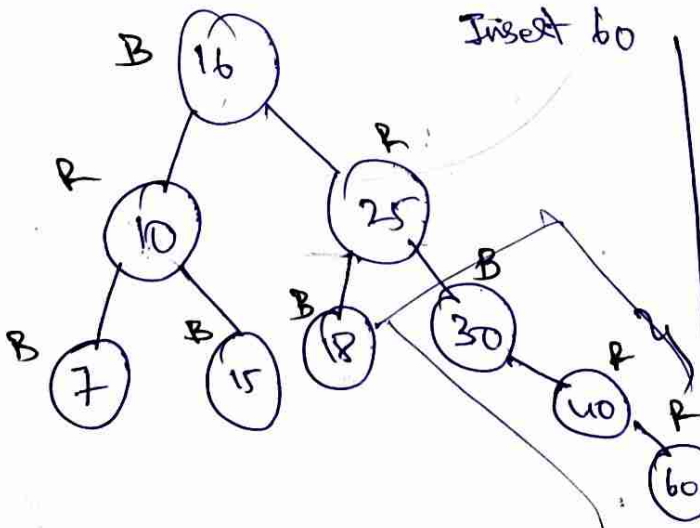
Insert: 25



Insert



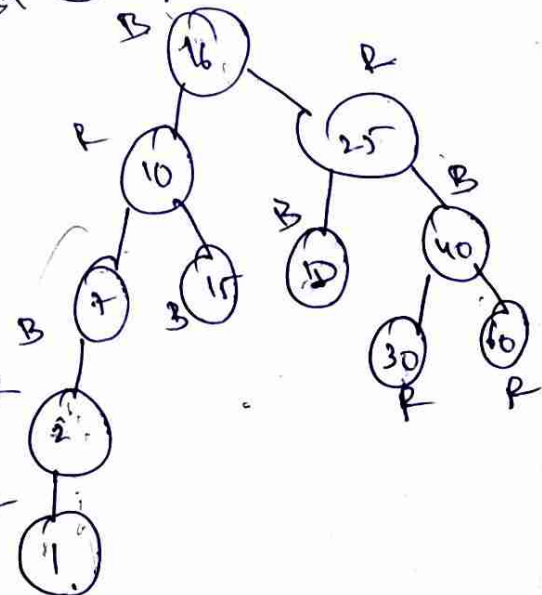
Recolor



Insert 60

Insert (25)

RL-Rotation



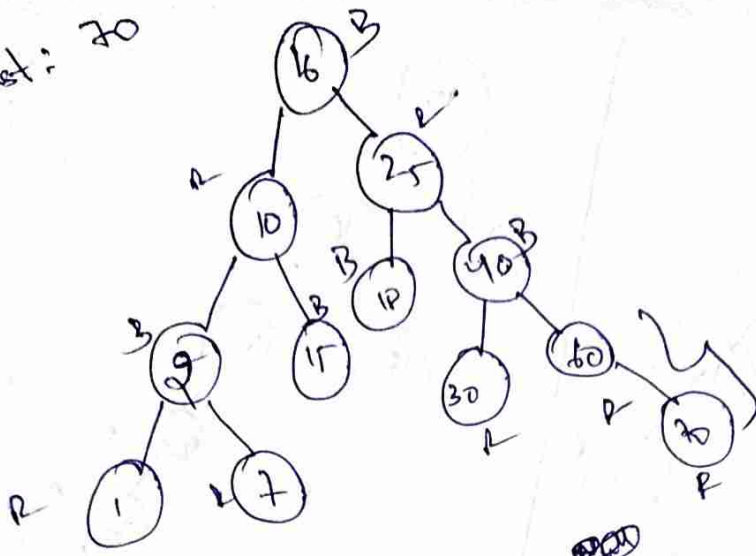
RL-Rotation



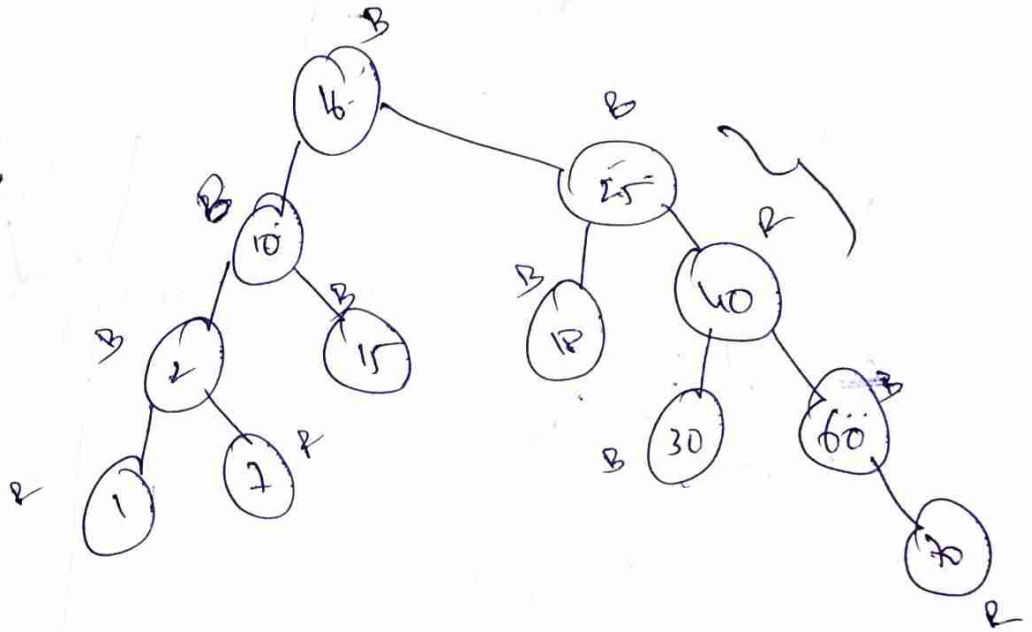
Dele

Just: 70

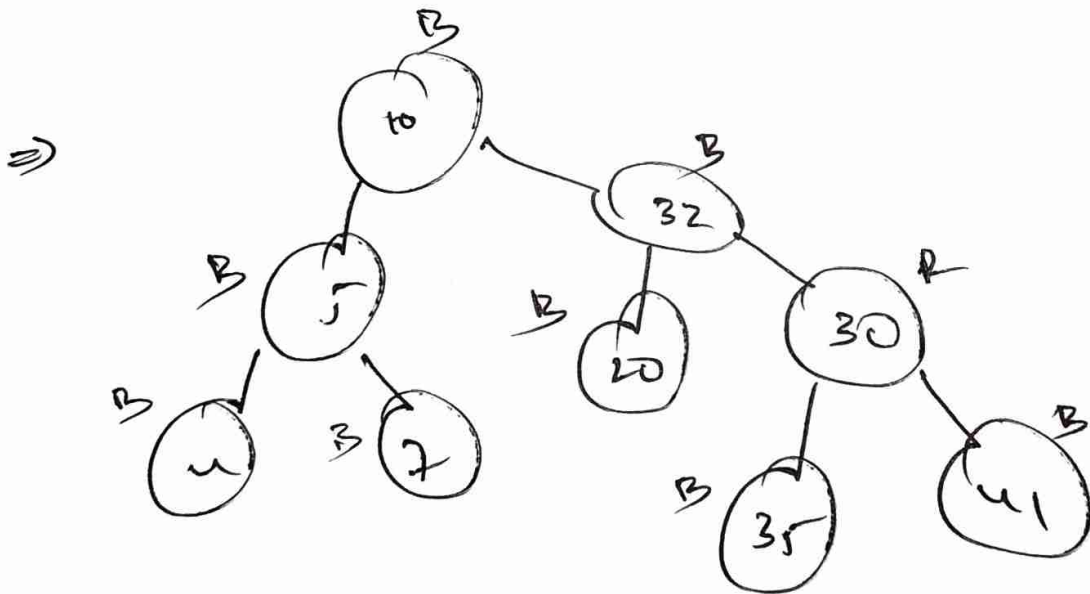
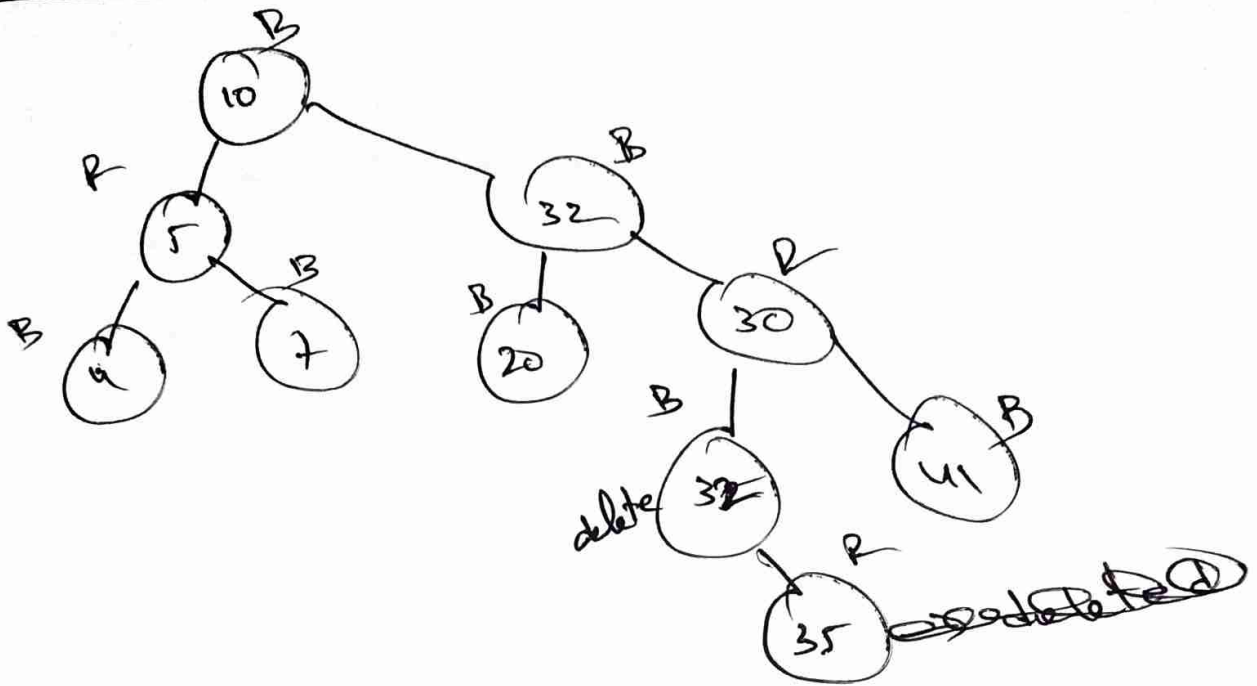
B



⇒



# Deletion:-



Red-Black tree A red black tree is a type of self-balancing binary search tree, typically used to implement associative arrays. It is complex but has good worst-case running time for its operation and is efficient in practice. It can search, insert or delete in  $O(\log n)$ , where  $n$  is the no. of elements in the tree.

Each node has a color attribute, the value of which is either red or black. In addition to the ordinary requirements imposed on binary search trees, we make the following additional requirements of a valid red-black tree.

- \* Every node is colored either red or black.
- \* The root node is colored black.
- \* Every leaf nil node, (known as external node) is colored black.
- \* Both children of every red node are black.
- \* All paths from any given node to its leaf nodes contain the same no. of black nodes.



Example :- RBT (Red-Black-Tree)

\* Root Node should be Black

Self balanced tree.   
 AVL tree   
 BST   
 RBT

Root  $\rightarrow$  Black

\* New node should be Red

New  $\rightarrow$  Red.

\* No. of Black in each path should be equal.

\*  $R \rightarrow R \times$ .

1, 2, 5, 8, 7, 4 elements.

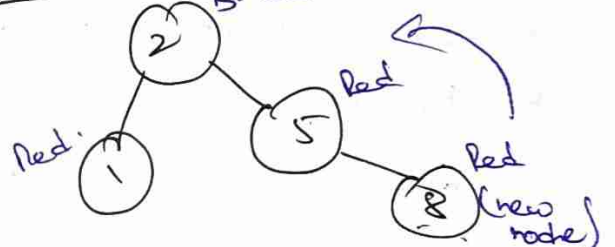
Step 1:-

New Node : Insert '1'  
 Red. It is also  
 black. root node  
 we have to  
 give black node



Step 4:-

Inserting 8  
 Black

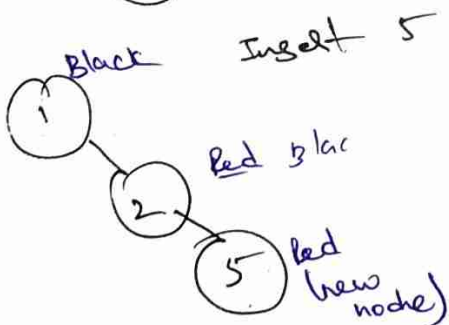


Step 2:-



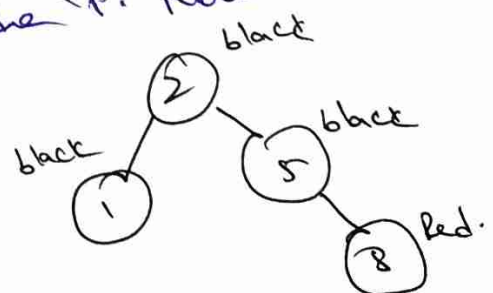
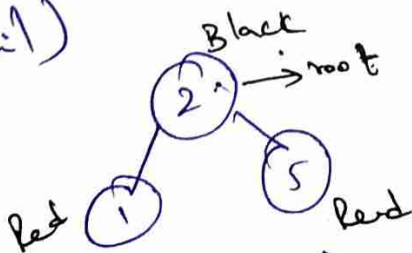
New R-R (Red-Red) we have to change the colour of 5 & 8 node because (Red-Red) should be there. Now when we are changing '5' node to black we must be change the colour of node '1'. Now.

Step 3:-

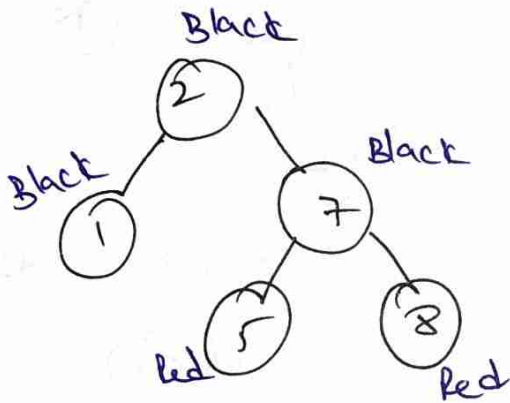
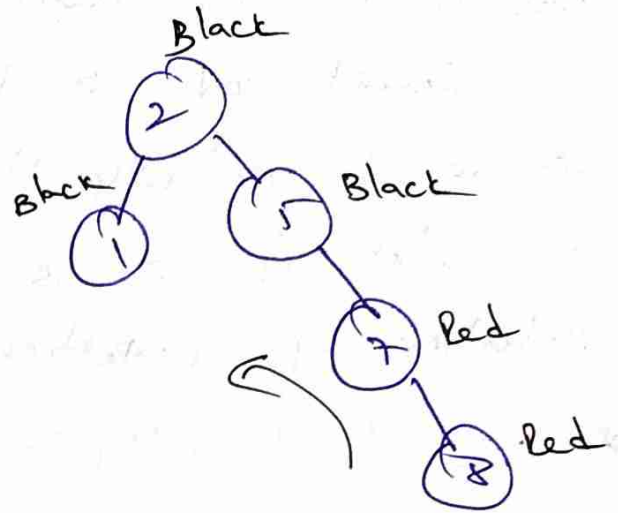
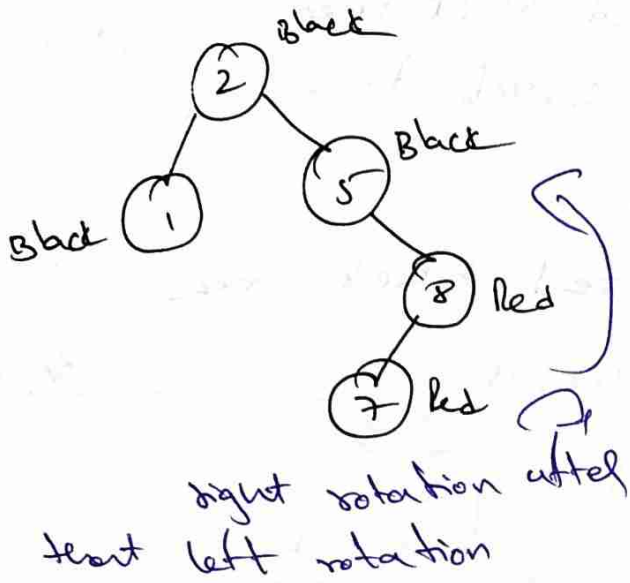


R-R relationship condition false (fail)

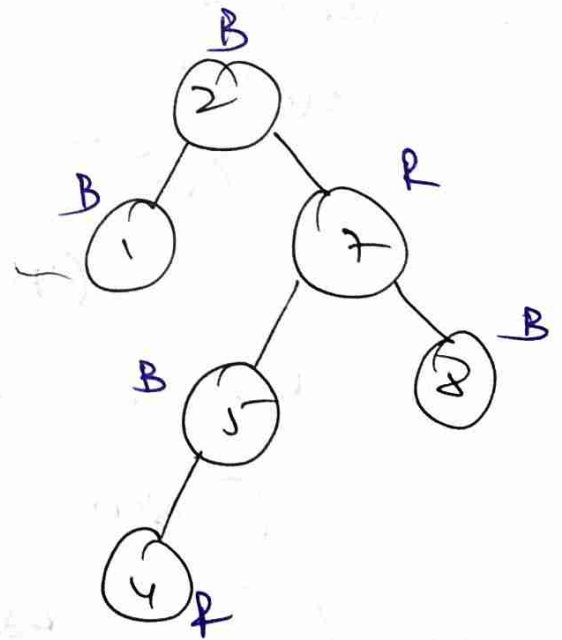
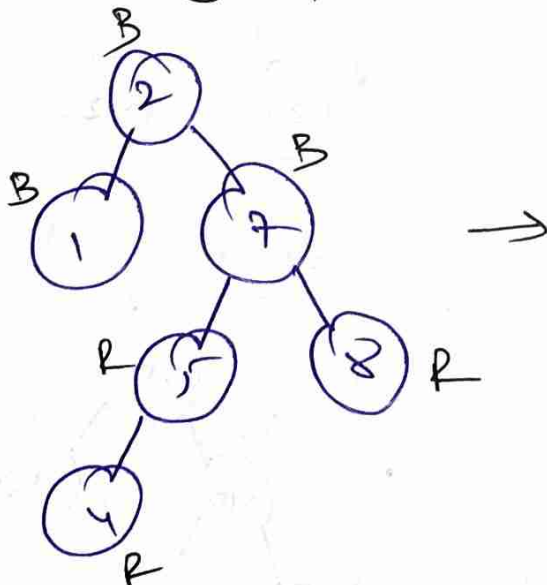
Now



Step 5:- Inserting 7



Step 6:- Inserting 4



# Insertion in Red black tree:-

Insert node  $z$  in red black tree.

→ as in ordinary binary search tree.

→ color of  $z$  is red.

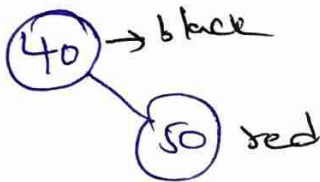
Violation of properties of red black tree

Examples 40, 50, 70, 30, 42, 15, 20, 25, 27, 26, 60, 55

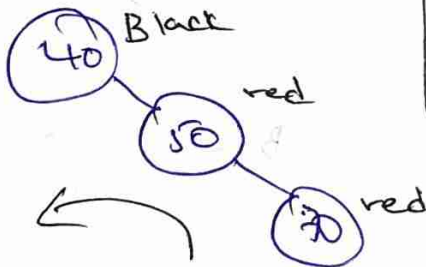
Step 1:- Insert 40



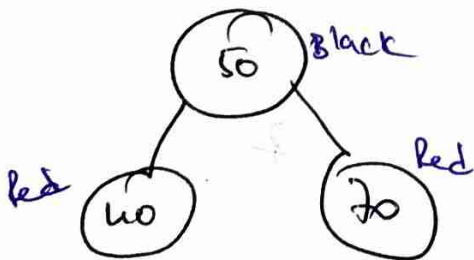
Step 2:- Insert 50



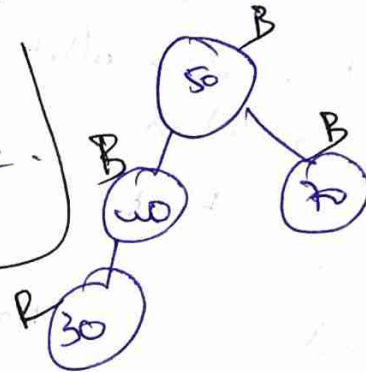
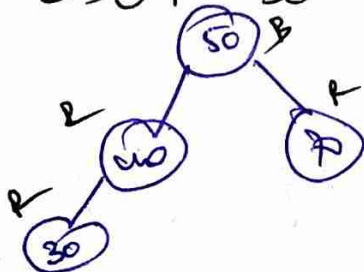
Step 3:- Insert 70



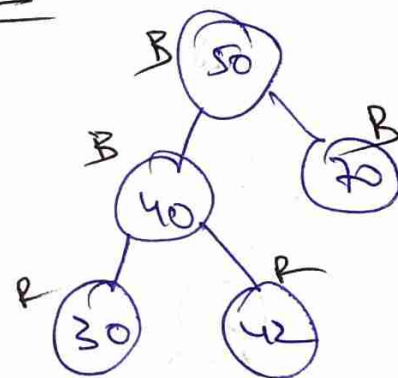
RR imbalancing Simple Rotation



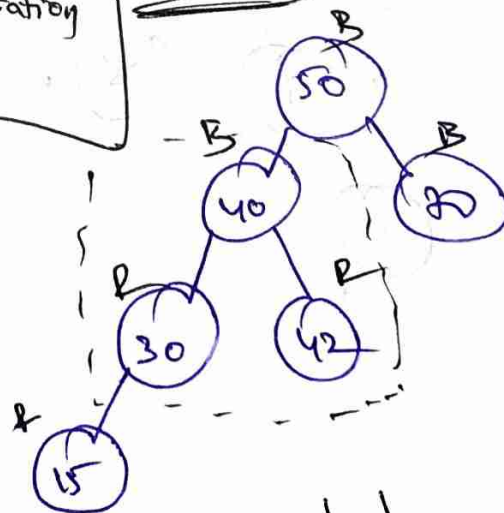
Step 4:- Insert 30



Step 5:- Insert 42

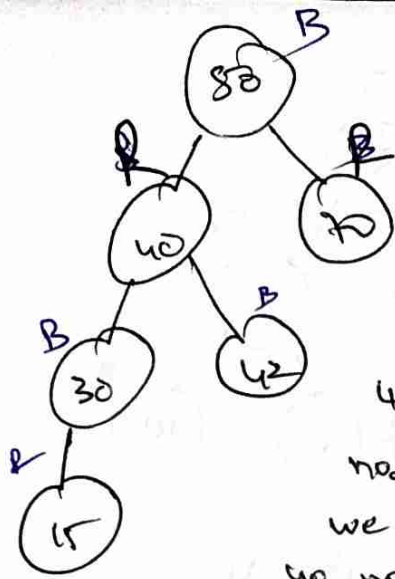


Step 6:- Insert 15



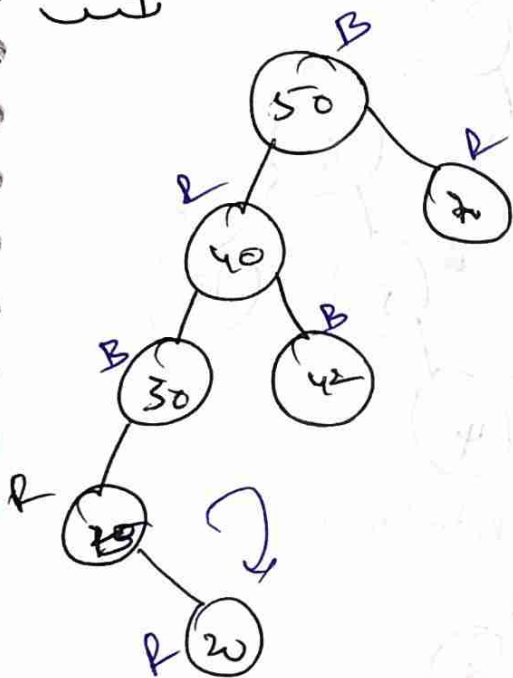
LL rotation.



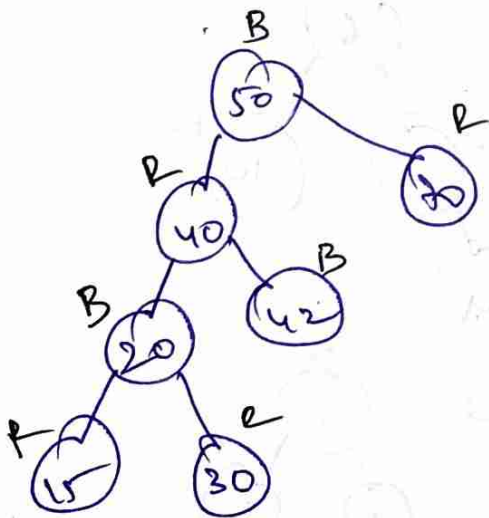


40 is not root  
node that's 7  
we can make  
40 node as red.

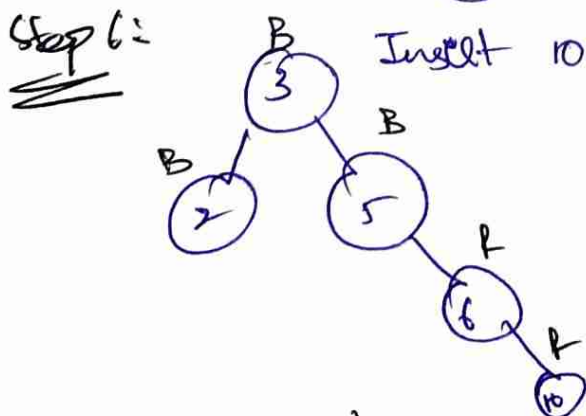
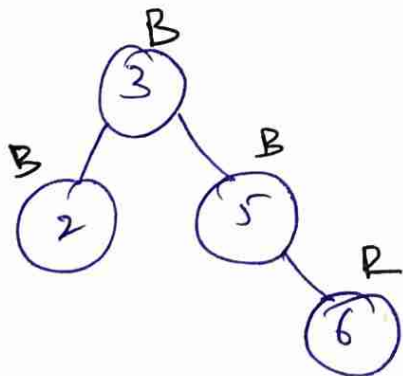
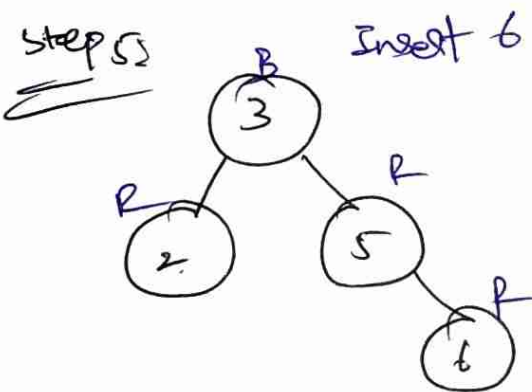
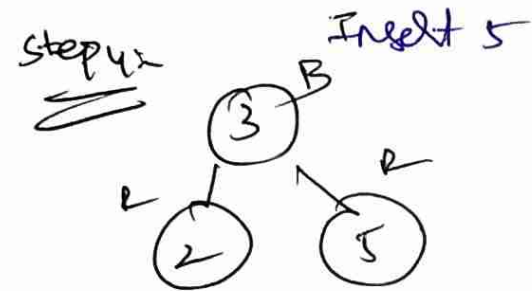
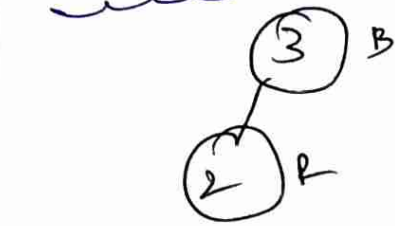
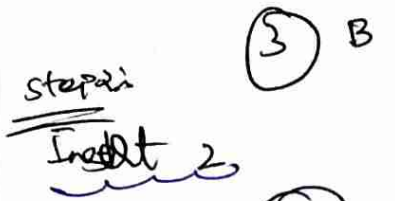
Step: Insert 20



LR Imbalanced

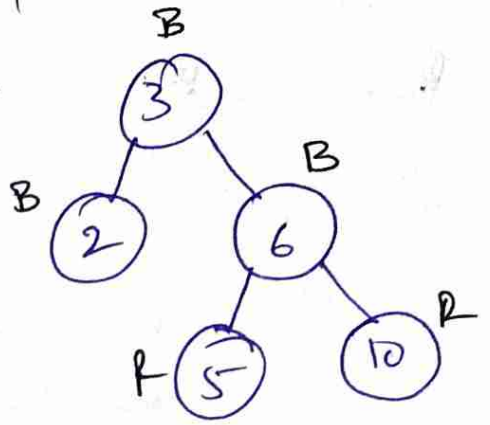


Example 3, 2, 5, 6, 10, 4, 8, 9

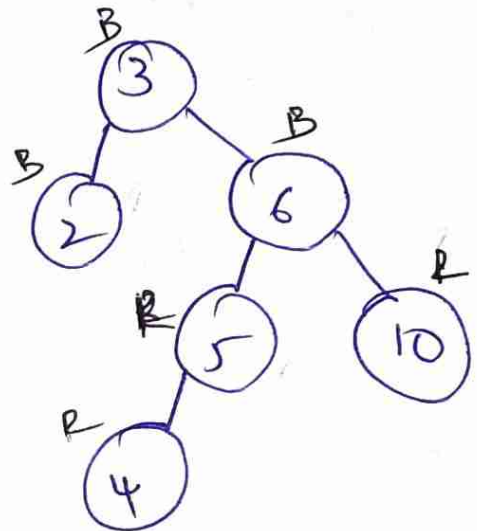


RR-rotation

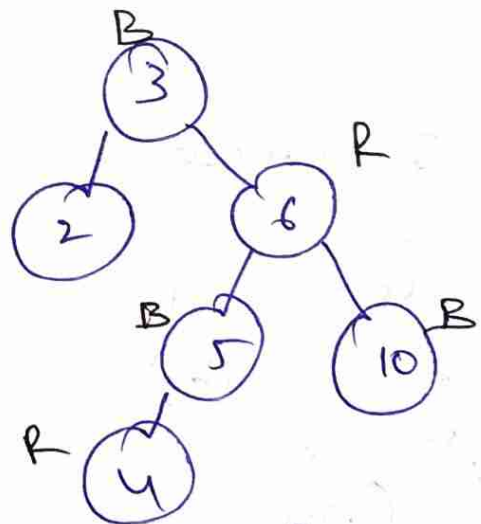
~~Step 6:~~



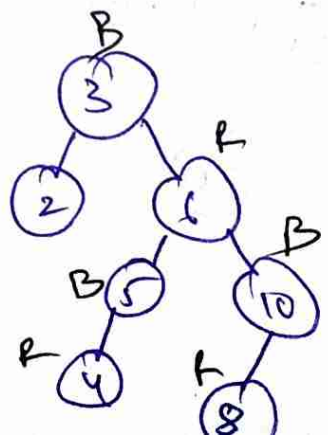
Step 7: Insert 4



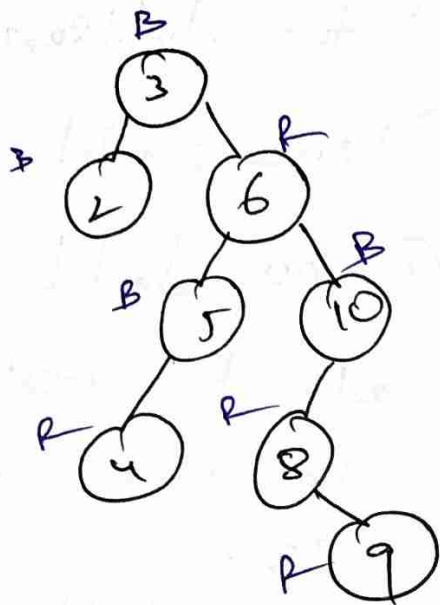
LL-rotation



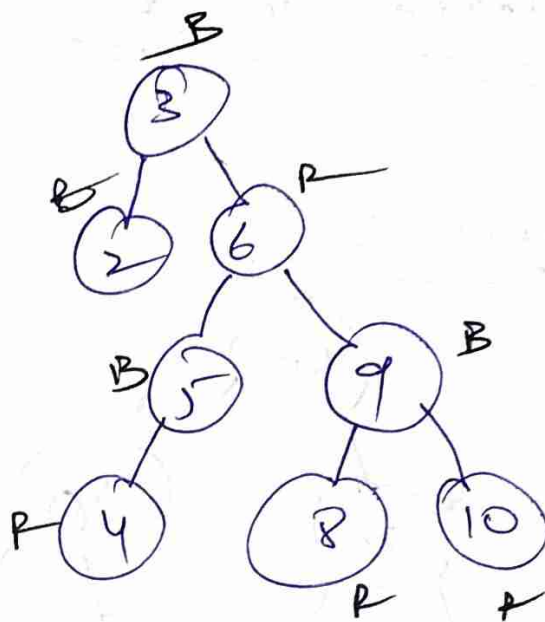
Step 8: Insert 8



Step 9: Insert 9



⇒

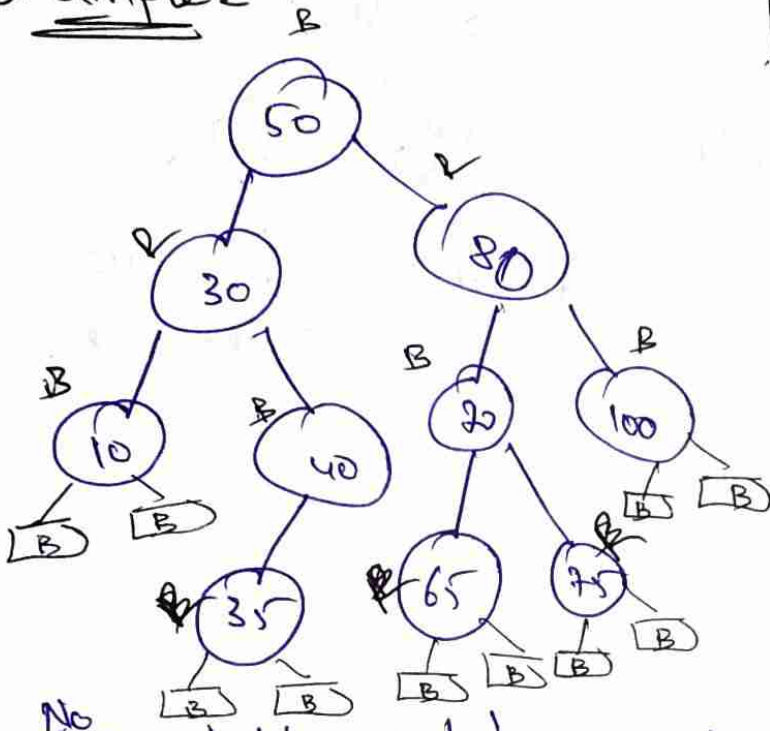


LR-rotation



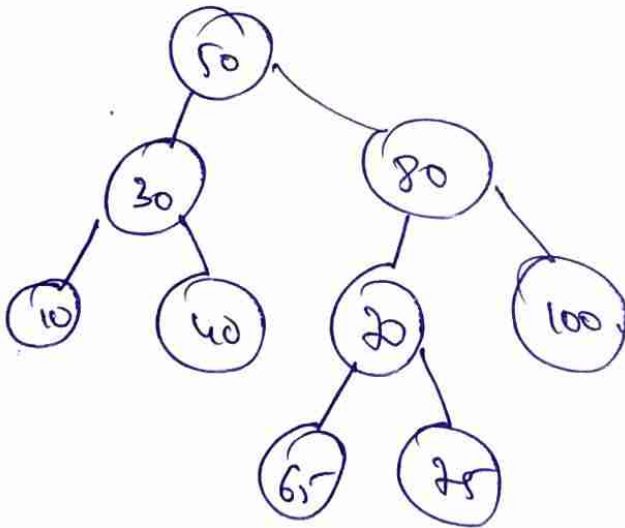
Deletion in RBT

Example:



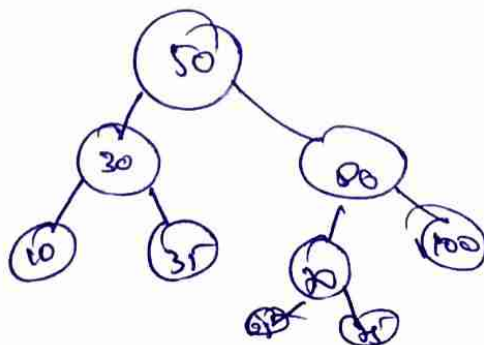
No one child deletion. 35 or 65, or 75

Now 35 we are going to delete.



one child

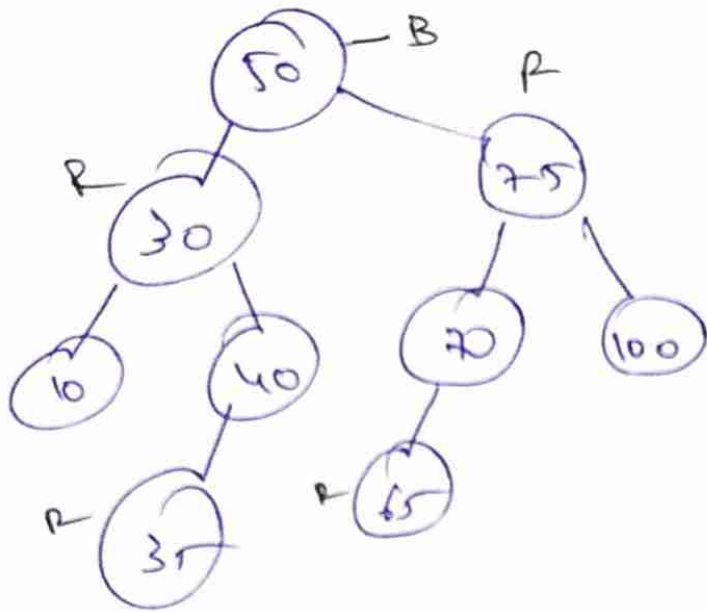
40 is one child Now.



- ① two children
- ② one child
- ③ no child

only two ~~cases~~ be there in RBT  
 → one child  
 → no child

two children  $\sim 80^1$



Splay tree: A splay tree can be defined as a self balancing tree with an extra unusual property using which recently accessed elements can be accessed quickly. The operations of splay tree like insertion, deletion and searching consumes  $O(\log n)$  time complexity. The performance of splay trees for a non-uniform sequence is good compared to other self balancing search trees like AVL or red-black tree.

Splaying is defined as the common basic operation that is used to perform all the operations on a binary search tree. The splaying operation on a tree for a specific element makes that element as root of the tree.

### Advantages:-

- \* It is easy to implement compared to other self-balancing binary search trees like AVL tree and red-black tree.
- \* It is not required to store any book keeping data which leads to less memory requirement.
- \* A persistent version of splay tree can be created to allow for old or latest versions even after the update which consumes  $O(\log n)$  space for each update.
- \* The working of splay trees with similar nodes is good compared to other self balancing tree.

### Disadvantages:-

- \* In case of uniform access, the performance of splay tree is worst compared to other type of balanced trees.
- \* The sequential access of element of a sorted tree makes the tree unbalanced.

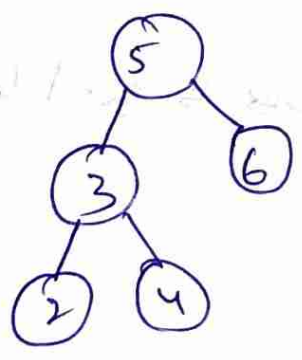


Rotations:

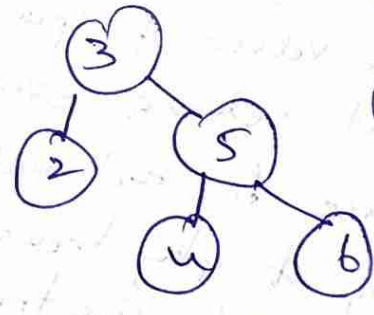
- ① zig rotation - single right rotation
- ② zag rotation - single left "
- ③ zig-zig rotation - double right "
- ④ zag-zag " - double left "
- ⑤ zig-zag " - right followed by left
- ⑥ zag-zig " - left followed by right.

Examples

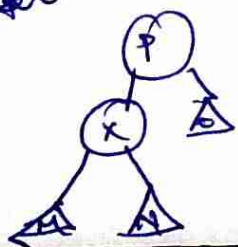
zig rotation - single right rotation.



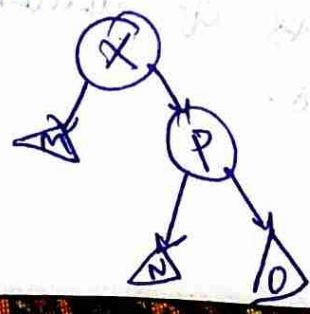
⇒ splay(3)



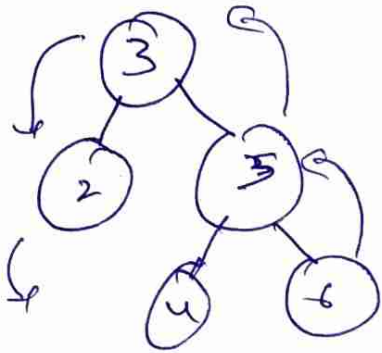
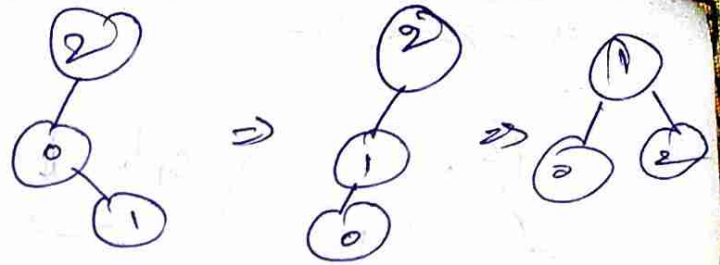
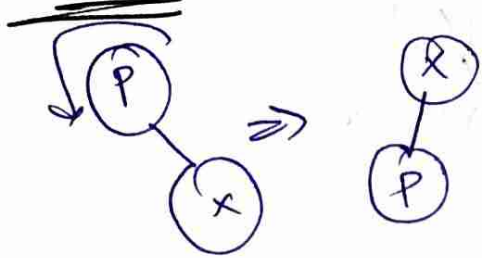
The splay operation performed this step when P is a root node. In this step, the tree is rotated on the edge b/w X and P. This step faces some issues which can be solved at the end of splay operation.



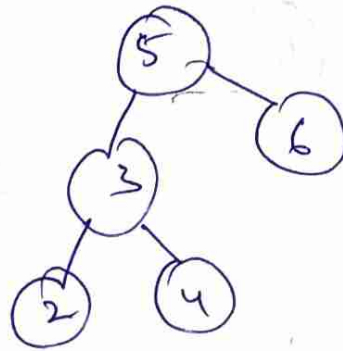
⇒



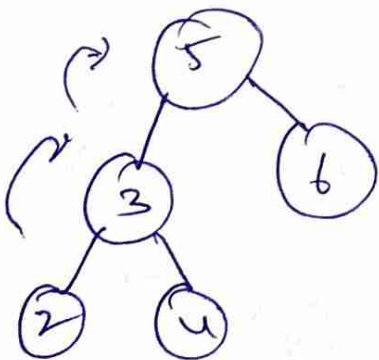
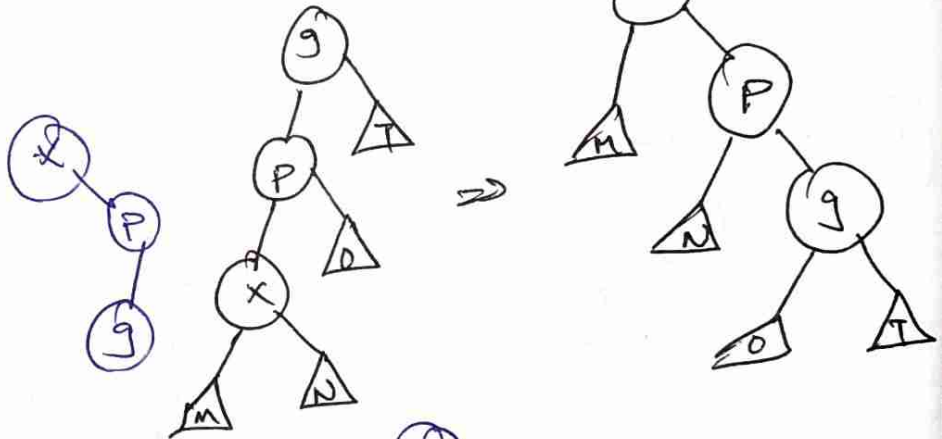
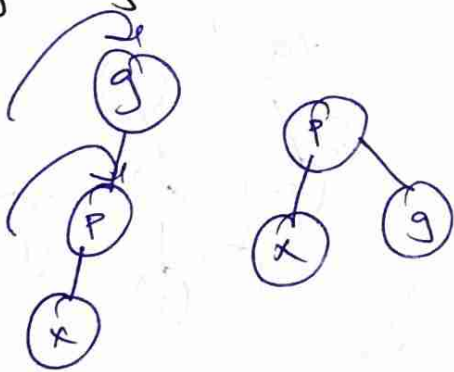
Zig rotation



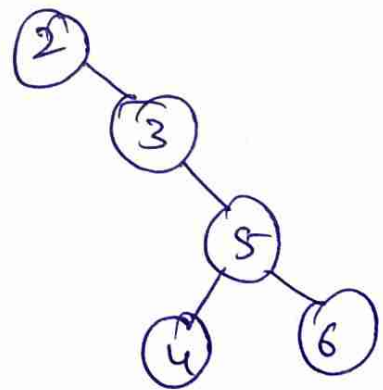
splay (5)



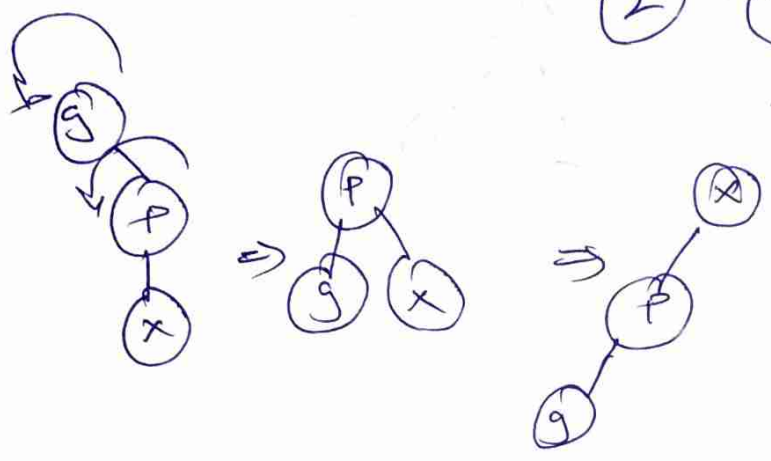
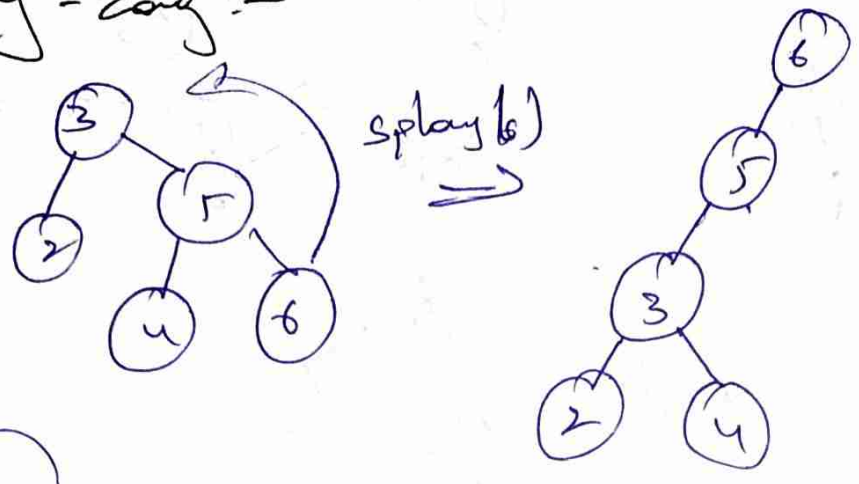
Zig-zig rotation



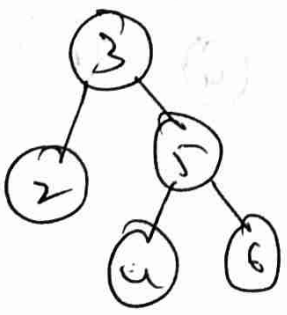
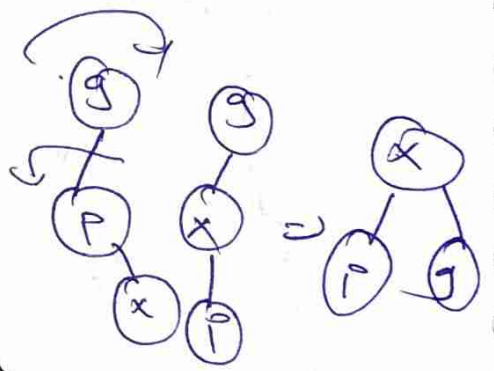
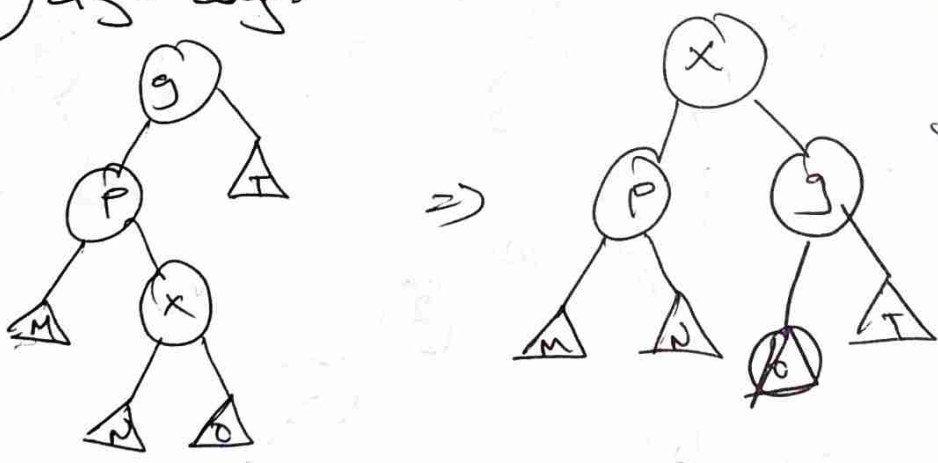
splay (2)



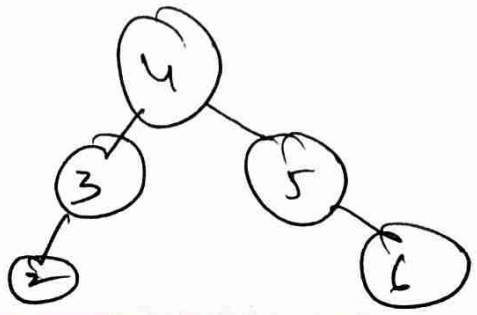
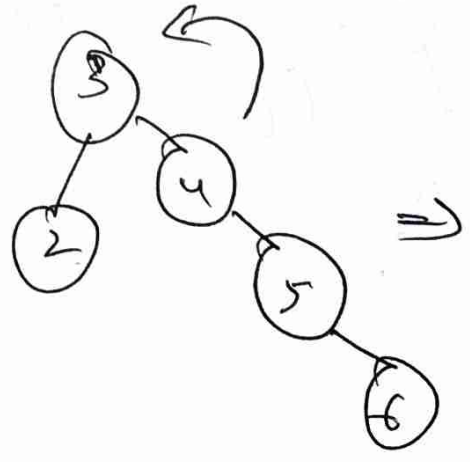
4 Zig-zag:-



5 Zig-zag:-

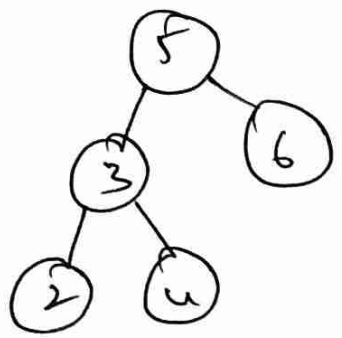


splay(4)

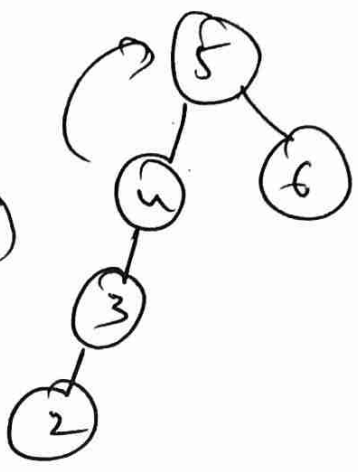




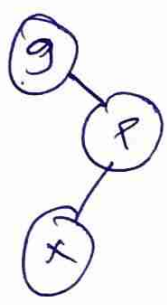
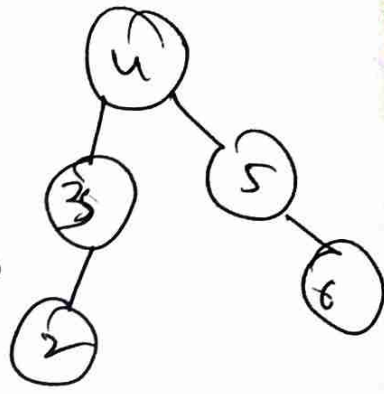
6) Zug - Zug



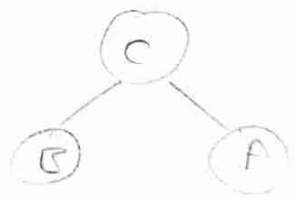
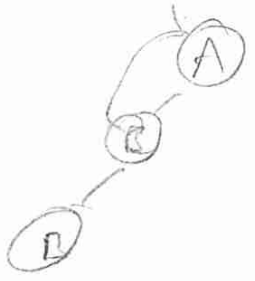
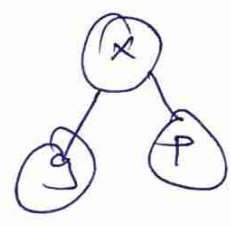
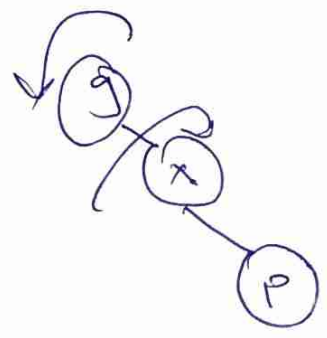
splay (u)



⇒



⇒



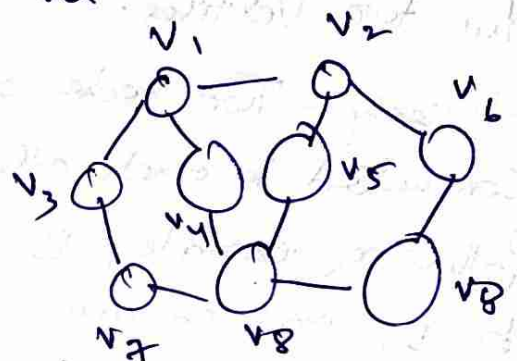
# Graphs

## UNIT - 4

Graphs - A graph is defined as  $G = (V, E)$  where  
i)  $V$  is the set of elements called nodes or vertices or points  
ii)  $E$  is the set of edges of the graph identified with a unique pair  $(u, v)$  of nodes.  
Here  $(u, v)$  pair denotes that there is an edge from node  $u$  to node  $v$ .

In graphs no rules in connections. A graph  $G$  is an ordered pair of a set  $V$  of vertices and a set  $E$  of edges

$$G = (V, E)$$



ordered pair:

$$(a, b) \neq (b, a) \text{ if } a \neq b$$

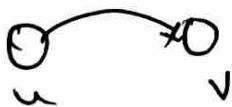
unordered pair:

$$\{a, b\}$$

$$V = \{v_1, v_2, v_3, v_4, v_5, v_6, v_7, v_8\}$$

A graph consists of a finite set of vertices or set of edges which connect a pair of nodes  
How do represent an edge?

directed edge



undirected edges



The links that connect the vertices are called ~~edges~~ edges

The interconnected objects are represented by points termed as vertices



$$V = \{a, b, c, d, e\}$$

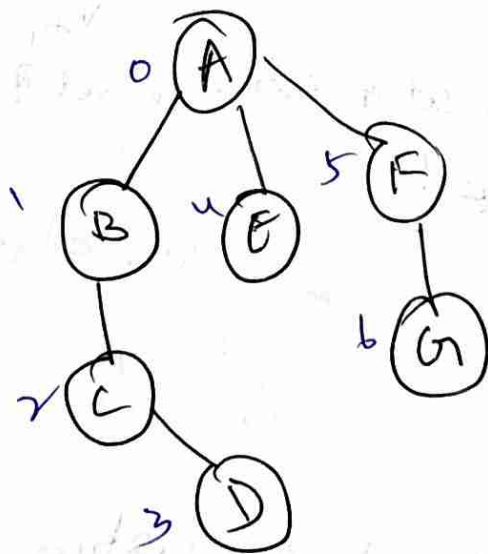
$$E = \{ab, ac, bd, cd, de\}$$

Vertex: Each node of the graph is represented as a vertex.  
In the following example, the labeled circle represents vertices.

Edge: Edge represents a path b/w two vertices or a link b/w two vertices.

Adjacency: Two nodes or vertices are adjacent if they are connected to each other through an edge. In the following example, B is adjacent to A, C is adjacent to B, and so on.

Path: Path represents a sequence of edges b/w the two vertices. In the following example, ABCD represents a path from A to D.

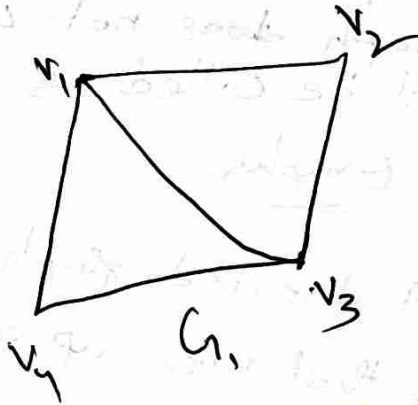
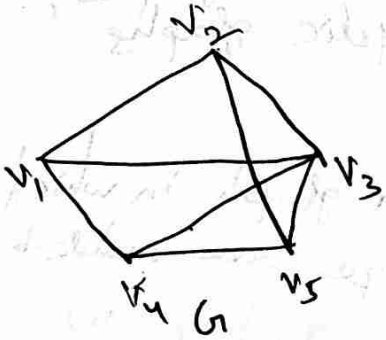


Complete Graph: If a vertex contains edges to all the vertices from it, then the graph is called complete graph.



Subgraphs - Consider two graphs  $G$  and  $G_1$ , say  $G_1$  is a subgraph of  $G$  if,

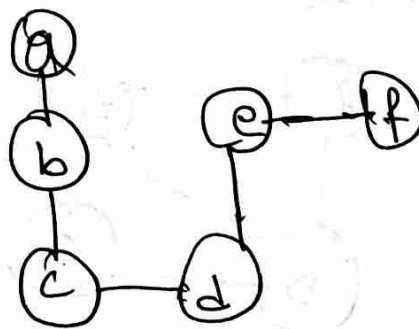
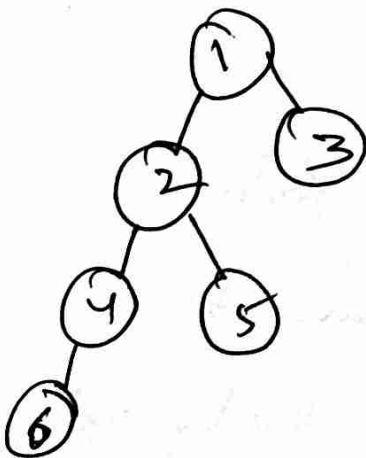
- (i) All the vertices and all the edges of  $G_1$  are in  $G$ .
- (ii) Each edge of  $G_1$  has the same end vertices in  $G$  as in  $G_1$ . A subgraph is a graph which is a part of another graph.



It can be observed that all the vertices and edges of graph  $G_1$  are in graph  $G$  and also that every edge in  $G_1$  has the same end vertices in  $G$  as in  $G_1$ , so it can be concluded that  $G_1$  is a subgraph of  $G$ .

Tree:- A tree is defined as a finite set of one or more elements with one element designated as root and the other elements are divided into trees are called subtrees.

Fig below illustrates some of the examples of trees.



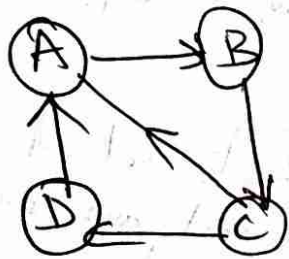
Cycle:- If a ~~path~~ be defined as a circuit in which the terminal vertex doesn't appear as an internal vertex and no internal vertex is repeated. A circuit is a closed walk where no edge appears more than once.

Parallel edges - If a pair of vertices contains more than one edge then the edges are called as parallel edges. The graph will be called as multigraph in such cases.

Acyclic Graph - If there is path contains edges starting from a vertex and ending at the same vertex, then this path is called as cycle. The graph will be called as cyclic graph. If a graph does not contain any graphs, then such graph will be called as a cyclic graphs.

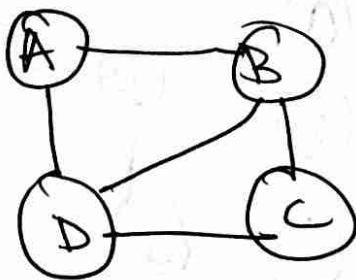
### Different Types of Graphs:-

(a) Directed Graph:- A directed graph is a graph in which the pair of vertices that make up an edge are ordered. In such graph, the order of vertices representing an edge is important.



Directed graph.

(b) Undirected Graph:- In an undirected graph, the order of pair of vertices is not important.

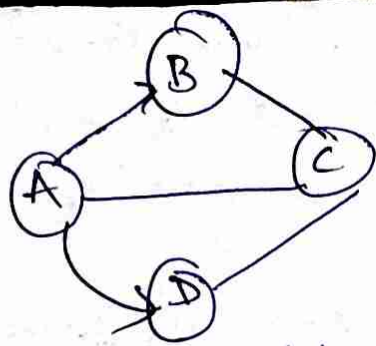


undirected graph.

Here (A, B) and (B, A) represent the same edge.

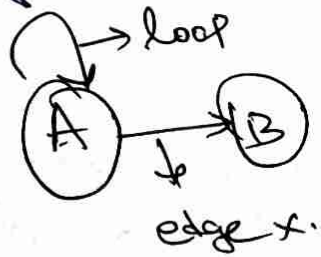
(c) Mixed Graph:- A graph in which some edges are directed and some edges are undirected is known as a mixed graph.





Let  $(V, E)$  be a graph and let  $x \in E$  be a directed edge associated with the pair of nodes  $(u, v)$ . The edge  $x$  is said to be initiating or originating in node  $u$  and terminating or ending in node  $v$ . The node  $u$  and  $v$  are also called initial node and terminal nodes of edge  $x$ .

An edge of a graph which connects to itself is called a loop.



In the above graph, for the edge  $x$ ,  $A$  is the initial node and  $B$  is the terminating node.



**Graph ADT** - A graph is a data structure that consists of a set of nodes (vertices) and set of arcs (edges). Every edge present in the graph is indicated by a pair of vertices.

The various graph ADT operations are as follows.

- (1) create()
- (2) insertVertex()
- (3) deleteVertex()
- (4) insertEdge()
- (5) deleteEdge()
- (6) boolean isEmpty()
- (7) list Adjacent()

(1) **create()** :- This method is used to create an empty graph. The created graph does not contain any vertices and edges.

(2) **insertVertex(graph, vel)** :- This method is used to insert a new vertex vel into the graph. The inserted vertex does not contain any adjacent edges.

(3) **deleteVertex(graph, vel)** :- This method is used to delete an existing vertex vel from the graph. All the adjacent edges that are connected with vertex vel are also being deleted.

(4) **insertEdge(graph, vel<sub>1</sub>, vel<sub>2</sub>)**  
This method inserts an edge e<sub>1</sub> b/w the vertices vel<sub>1</sub> & vel<sub>2</sub>.

(5) **deleteEdge(graph, vel<sub>1</sub>, vel<sub>2</sub>)** :-  
This method deletes an edge e<sub>1</sub> existing b/w the vertices vel<sub>1</sub> & vel<sub>2</sub>.

(6) **Boolean isEmpty(graph)** :- This method checks whether the graph is empty or not. If empty, return true, otherwise returns false.

Adj List Adjacent (graph, vel): This method returns all the respective edges that are adjacent to the vertex vel.

The program for implementing graph ADT is as follows,

Class GraphADT

{  
Public:

Virtual ~GraphADT ();

bool isEmpty () const { return vertices == 0; };

int Number of vertices () const { return vertices; };

int Number of Edges () const { return edge; };

Virtual int Degree (int p) const = 0;

Virtual bool existEdge (int p, int q) const = 0;

Virtual void insertVertex (int v) = 0;

Virtual void insertEdge (int p, int q) = 0;

Virtual void ~~delete~~ deleteVertex (int v) = 0;

Virtual void deleteEdge (int p, int q) = 0;

Private:

int vertices;

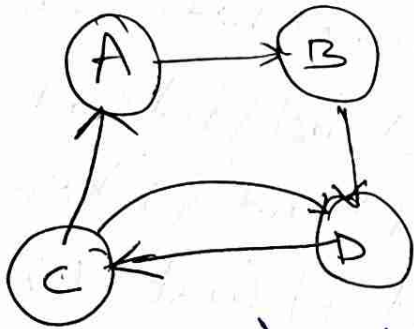
int edges;

};



Connected and Non Connected graph :- In a graph if there exist a path b/w every pair of vertices then the graph is known as connected graph. In a connected graph, it is possible to travel from one node to another node. on the other hand if no path exist b/w any pair of vertices then the graph is known as non-connected graph.

Example:-



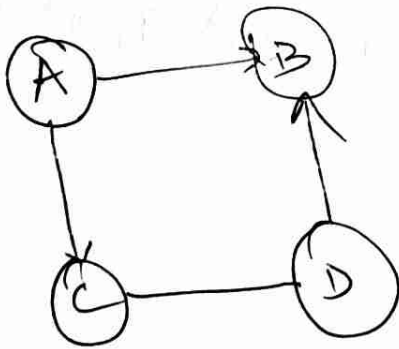
Connected Graph.

The graph is connected because there is path from each vertex to every other vertex.

Path A to B :  $A \rightarrow B$

A to C :  $A \rightarrow B \rightarrow D \rightarrow C$

A to D :  $A \rightarrow B \rightarrow D$



The graph is non-connected because there is no path from A to D, there is path from D to any other node.

Difference b/w Connected and Non Connected Graph:

A directed graph is said to be strongly connected if there exist a path from every vertex to every other vertex. on the other hand, a directed graph



is said to be weakly connected if two or more vertices in the graph are not connected.

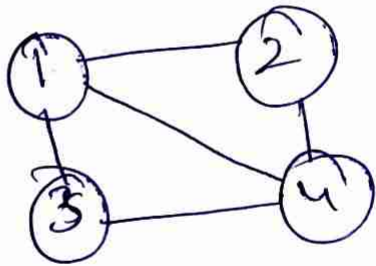
An undirected graph is called a connected graph, if every node in the graph can be reached from any other node. Graphically, a connected undirected graph consists of a single connected component which is a connected sub graph.

Adjacency matrix:— An adjacency matrix  $A = (a_{ij})$  of graph  $G$  is defined as,

$$a_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } v_i \text{ is adjacent to } v_j \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

In case of directed graph " $v_i$  is adjacent to  $v_j$ " means that there is a directed edge from  $v_i$  to  $v_j$ .

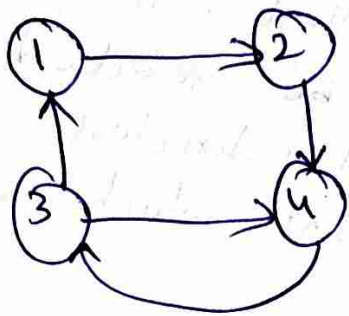
Example:— Consider the undirected graph given below.



Adjacency matrix is

	1	2	3	4
1	0	1	1	1
2	1	0	0	1
3	1	0	0	1
4	1	1	1	0

Example: Consider the directed graph shown below,



Here  $a_{ij}$  has 1 when there is an edge from  $v_i$  to  $v_j$ .

The adjacency matrix  $A$  shows the no. of paths of length 1 b/w any pair of vertices  $(v_i, v_j)$ . The adjacency matrix  $A^2$  shows the no. of paths of length 2 b/w any pair of vertices.

Example: Consider the adjacency matrix for the graph given in example.

	1	2	3	4
1	0	1	0	0
2	0	0	0	1
3	1	0	0	1
4	0	0	1	0



Graph traversal methods: The following types of graph traversal methods are as follows

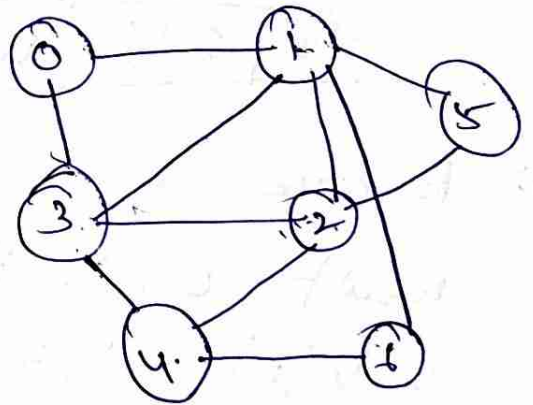
Two types :-

BFS (Level-order) : Breadth First Traversal

DFS : Depth First Traversal

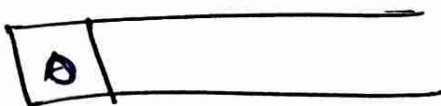
**Breadth First Traversal:** In this method traversal is started from given vertex  $v$  and all the nodes adjacent to  $v$  from left to right are visited. Data structure queue is used to keep track of all the adjacent nodes. The first node visited is the first node whose successors are visited.

Example:-



1.  $state[0] = 1$

Push it into queue



2. while queue is not empty.

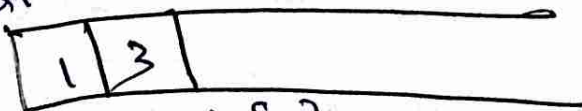
i) remove 0.

$state[0] = 2$  (0 is visited)

Result : 0

Now '0' is deleted from queue then '0' is visiting 2 nodes that two nodes going to insert into the queue. Now queue becomes.

ii) next nodes adjacent to 0 i.e. 1 & 3 -> queue



$state[1] = 1$   
 $state[3] = 2$

$set[1]$  0, 3, 2, 5 & 6  
unvisited vertices.



3: Remove 1

Result: 0 1 (deleted elements from queue)

state[1] = 0, 3, 2, 5 & 6

But 0, 3 are visited nodes only unvisited are 2, 5 & 6.

3	2	5	6
---	---	---	---

(ii) Remove 3

Result: 0, 1, 3

state[3] = ~~0, 1, 2, 3, 4~~ 0, 1, 4, 2

state[3] = 4

state[3] = 4.

But 0, 1, 2 are visited nodes

2	5	6	4
---	---	---	---

4: Remove 2

Result 0, 1, 3, 2

state[2] = 1, 3, 4, 5

visited = 1, 3, 4, 5 ~~1, 2~~

No need to insert into the queue.

5: Remove 5

Result 0, 1, 3, 2, 5

state[5] = 1, 2

No need to insert into the queue.

6: Remove 6 Result 0, 1, 3, 2, 6

state[6] = 2 (1 & 4)

No need to insert

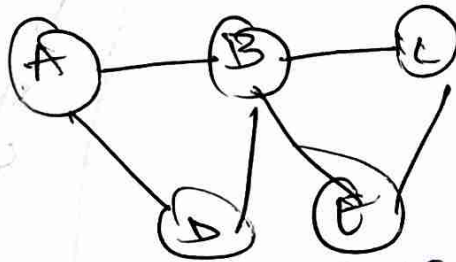
7. Remove u

Result: 0, 1, 3, 2, 5, 6, 4

state[4] = 3, 6, 2, visited.

no need to insert.

Example 2:



1. state[A] = 1

Push it into queue 

A
---

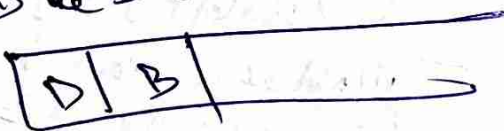
2. while queue is not empty,

(i) Remove A

state[A] = 3 [A is visited]

(ii) Insert nodes adjacent to A i.e

D & B to queue

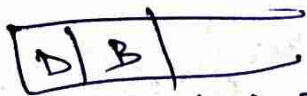


state[B] = 2

state[D] = 2

3. (i) Remove D

state[D] = 3 [D is visited]



(ii) No node adjacent to D are in ready state

state

4. (i) Remove B state[B] = 3 [B is visited]

(ii) Insert E, C which are adjacent to B and are in ready state 

E	C
---	---

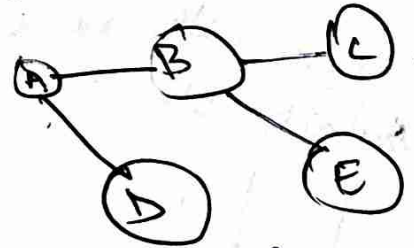
5. (i) Remove E, state[E] = 3 [E is visited]

(ii) Remove C, state[C] = 3 [C is visited]

stop (∵ Queue is empty)

The order in which nodes are visited is,

A, D, B, E, C



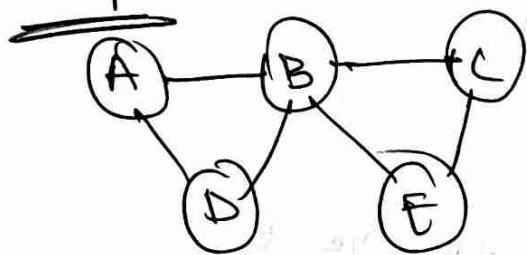
The main difference in BFS traversal from DFS the use of queue instead of a stack.

Hence in the example D is removed before B ∵ its adjacent nodes are inserted.



Depth First Traversal :- In this method, traversal is started from a given vertex  $v$  in the graph. This vertex is marked as visited and any of the unvisited vertex adjacent to  $v$  is visited. Then neighbours of  $v$  is visited. This process is continued until no new node can be visited. Now this is backtracked to visit unvisited vertices if any left. stack is used to keep track of all nodes adjacent to a vertex.

Example considers the graph:



Let node A be the starting node

1.  $state(A) = 1$
  - $state(B) = 1$
  - $state(C) = 1$
  - $state(D) = 1$
  - $state(E) = 1$
- (initializing all the nodes to ready)

2) Begin with node A. Push it onto ~~stack~~ stack.



3) while stack  $\neq$  empty

- i) POP A  $state(A) = 3$  (A is visited)
- ii) Push nodes adjacent to A onto stack & make their state waiting.



- iii) POP B  $state(B) = 3$  (B is visited)
- iv) Push nodes adjacent to B in stack  $state(C) = 2$   $state(E) = 2$

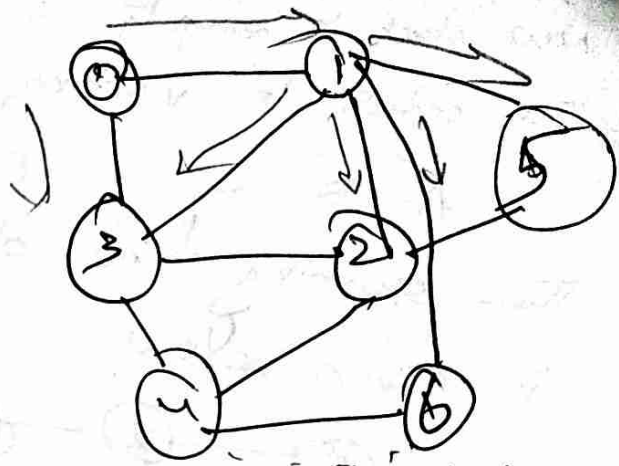
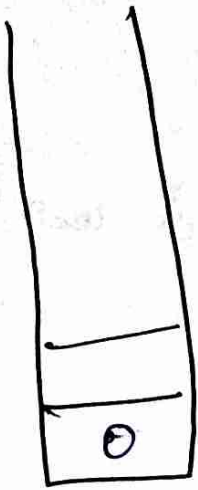


- 5) i) POP C  $state(C) = 3$  (C is visited)
- ii) nodes adjacent to C are B and E but they are not in ready state. so they are not pushed onto stack.

- 6) i) POP E  $state(E) = 3$  (E is visited)
- ii) nodes adjacent to E are B and C. They are not in ready state so they are not pushed onto stack.

- iii) POP D  $state(D) = 3$  (D is visited)
- No nodes adjacent to D are in ready state. so they are not pushed onto stack.

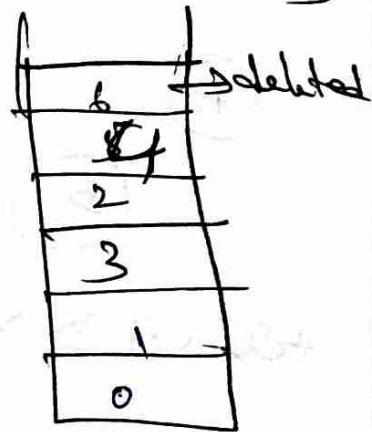




Result: 0

any one adjacent should be inserted in to stack.  
depth first traversal. (depth first search).

for '0' 1 2 3 all adjacent vertex any one we have to take.



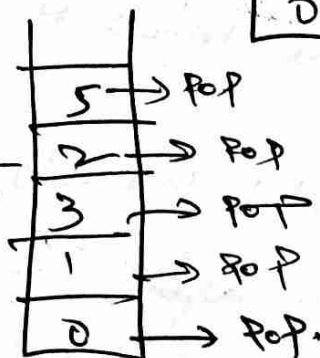
Result 1 0 1 3 2 4 6

for '0' all adjacent vertex back track.



for '4' unvisited vertices, deleted 4

Results 0 1, 3, 2, 4, 6, 5



now stack is empty.

The order 0, 1, 3, 2, 4, 6, 5

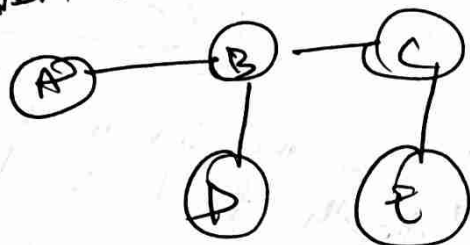
New stack is empty

The order of visiting the nodes is

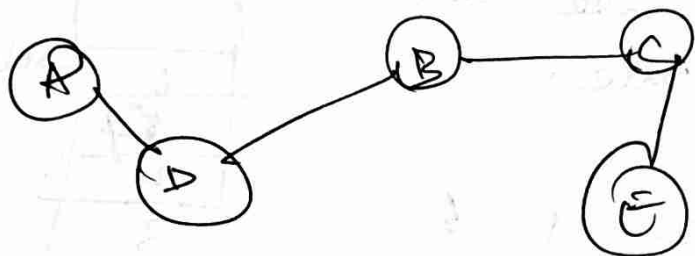
A B C E D

The spanning tree obtained using depth first search

is given below



some other possible depth first traversal is



Here (i) D is first successor of A (ii) B is next successor,

(iii) C is first successor.

### Algorithm DFT

(1) Initialize all the nodes to ready state and stack to empty.

$state[v] = 1$  [∵ 1 indicates ready state]

(2) [Begin with any arbitrary node 's' in graph, push it onto stack and change its state to waiting.]

$state[s] = 2$  [∵ 2 indicates waiting state]

(3) Repeat through step 5 while stack is not empty

(4) [Pop node 'n' of stack and mark the status of node to be visited]  $state[n] = 3$  [∵ 3 indicates visited]

5. [push all nodes w adjacent to N into stack and mark their status as waiting]

state[w] = 2

6. If the graph still contains nodes which are in ready state go to step 2.

7. Return

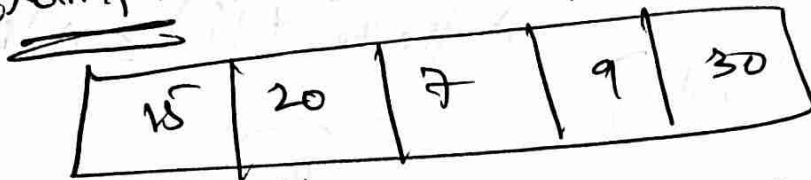


## Algorithm: Breadth-First [v]

- ① Initialize all nodes to ready state  
 $state[v] = 1$  [Here  $v$  represents all nodes of graph]
- ② Place starting node 's' in queue and change its state to waiting]  $state[s] = 2$
- ③ Repeat through step 5 until queue is not empty.
- ④ Remove a node  $n$  from queue and change its status to visited]  
 $state[w] = 3$
- ⑤ Add to queue all neighbours  $w$  of ' $n$ ' which are in ready state and change their status to waiting state].  
 $state[w] = 2$
- ⑥ Return.

Heap Sort :- Heap Sort is a comparison based sorting technique based on Binary Heap data structure. It is similar to selection sort where we first find the maximum element and place the maximum element at the end. we repeat the same process for remaining element.

Example :- max Heap



Heap sort steps :-

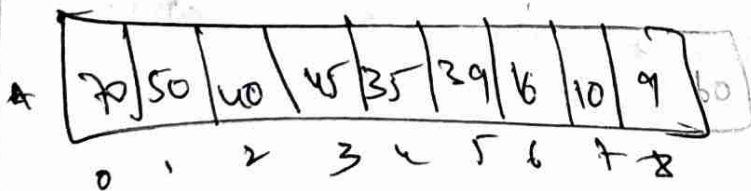
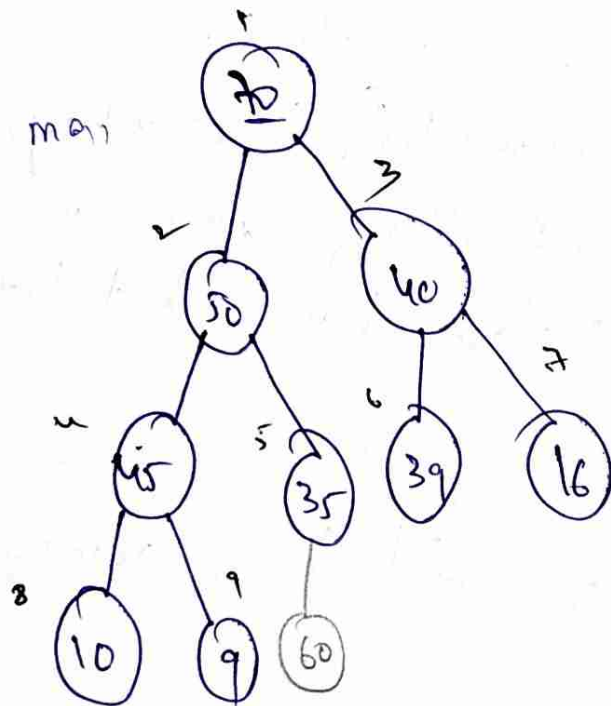
- Heap is tree based data structure.
- \* Const. Heap tree
  - Descending - max heap
  - Ascending min "
- \* Delete root node we replace it with last leaf node of tree
- \* Heapify tree
- \* Repeat step 2 or 3 until heap remains with single element.
- Heap is Complete Binary tree or almost complete Binary tree

## max heap

\* for every node  $i$ , the value of node is less than or equal to its parent value

$$A[\text{parent}(i)] \geq A[i]$$

{except root node}



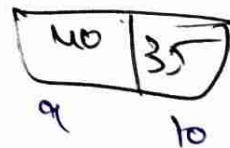
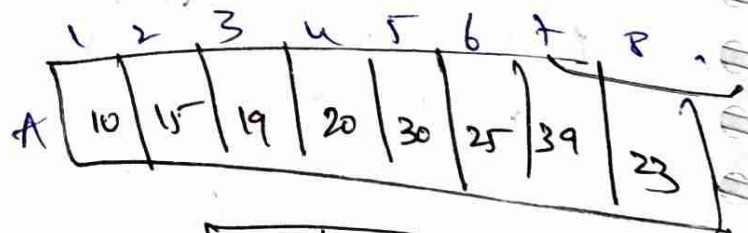
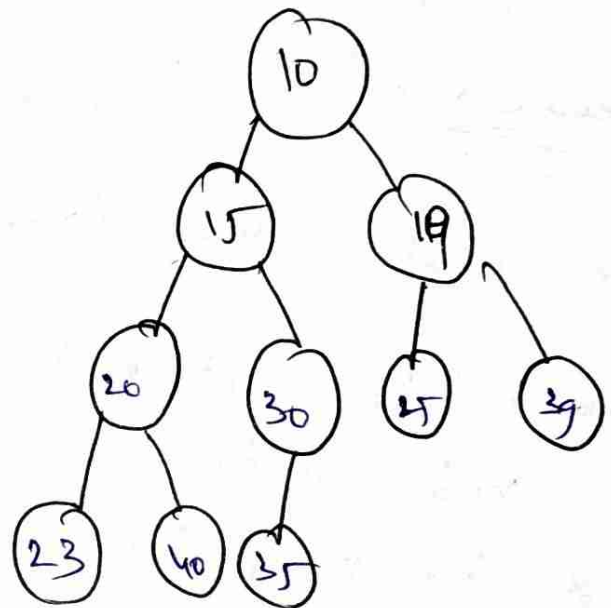
## Insert 60

It should be in an complete binary tree. always we should insert the data from leaf node. we should not insert

data from root.

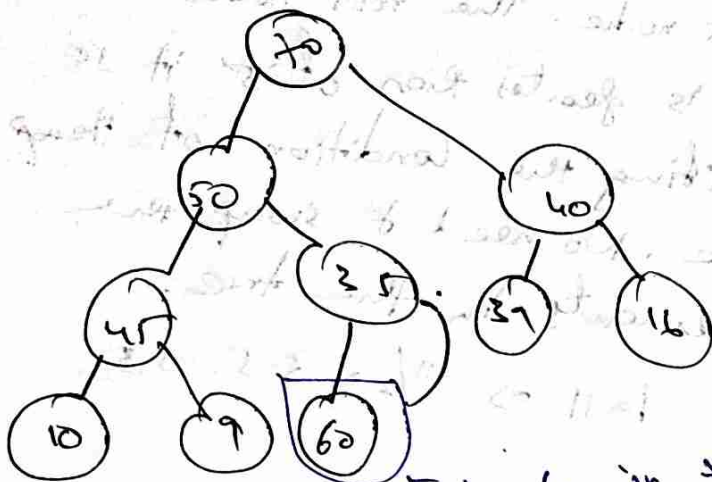
## min heap

for every node  $i$ , the value of node is greater than or equal to its parent value

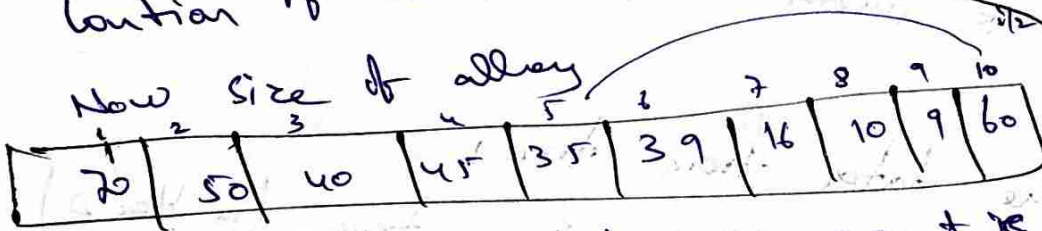
$$A[\text{parent}(i)] \leq A[i]$$




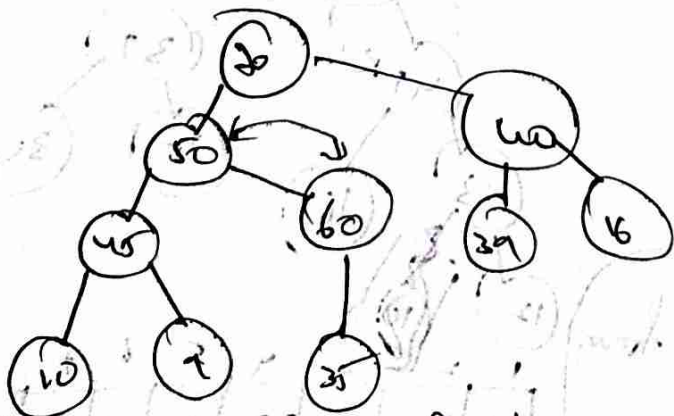
Now tree becoming



Here we inserted 60 in the left position but not right because it should satisfy the condition of complete binary tree



In Heap the condition is parent should be greater than child but now in our tree 60 is child of 35 but 35 is less than 60 that's why we should swap 35 with 60. 60 is the root of 35 when we swap



Now code for finding language

Now 60 is in 10th index  
 $i = 10$

To find out parent of 60 formula:  $i/2 = 10/2 = 5$

Now check in index 5. In index 5, '35' is data then for 60, '35' is the parent.

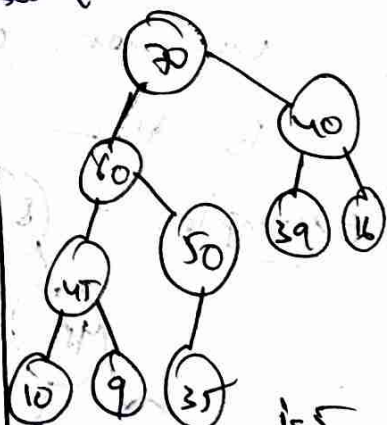
In array



Compare 60 with

parent.

For 60, parent element is 35 again check heap condition false again swap is required



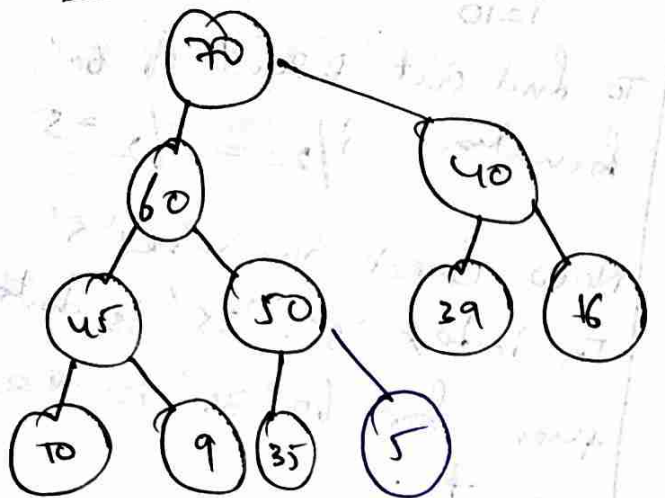
$i = 5$   
 $i/2 = 5/2 = 2.5$



$i = 2 \Rightarrow 2/2 = 1$   
 70 is compared with 60. it is true



Insert: 5



1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
70	60	40	45	50	35	16	10	9	35	5

Now 5 is compared with the root node. The root node is '50'. '50' is greater than '5' it is satisfying the condition of heap tree. No need to swap the elements in the tree.

$$i=11 \Rightarrow \frac{11}{2} = 5.5 \Rightarrow 5$$

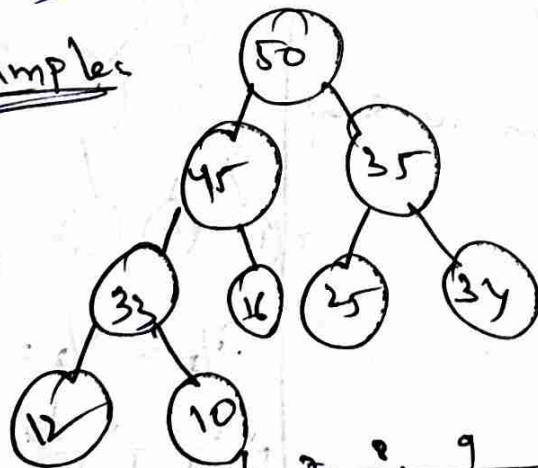
Complexity may be depended on the height of the tree. The height of complete binary tree is always  $\log_2(n)$ . The time taken to insert any element in max heap

$O(\log n)$

~~Deleting~~ deleting the data from tree

\* we can not delete any data from tree (in Heap). we can only delete the root node that is the condition

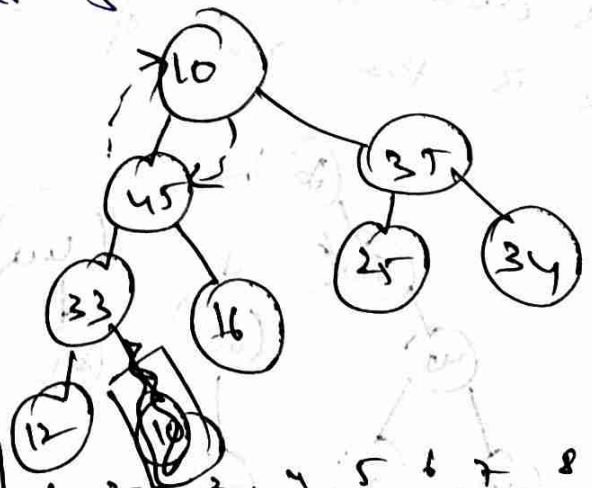
Example



1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
50	45	35	33	16	25	34	12	10

only 50 can be delete from tree because 50 is root node

when we are deleting 50 from tree then the root becomes '10'. In Heap the last element in the index of array is '10'. Then '10' becomes '10'.



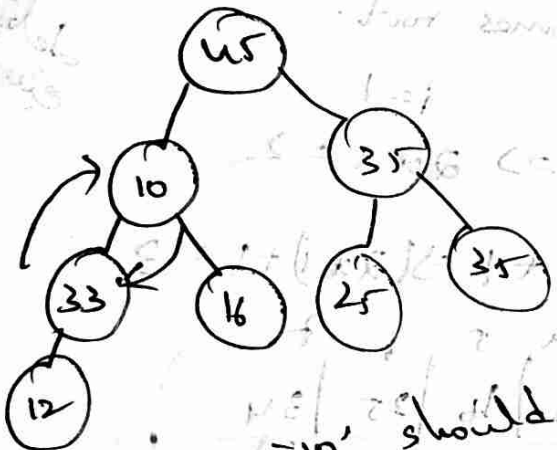
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
10	45	35	33	16	25	34	12



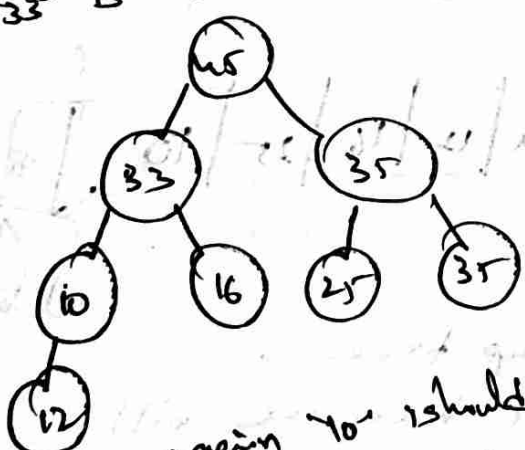
Now we should check the tree whether it is satisfying the condition Heap tree or not.

Our Heap tree condition is parent element should be greater than child element.

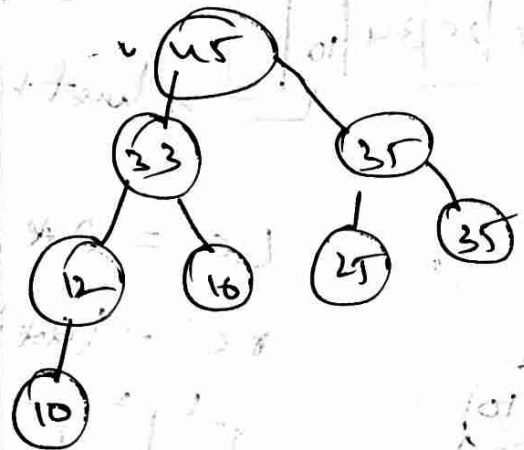
Now we should compare '10' with the child nodes '10' has two child one is 45 and 35. from both child '45' is greater than 35 or 10. 45 should become root swap is required. Now tree becomes



Now again '10' should compare with child now same again swapping is req. 33 is root Now

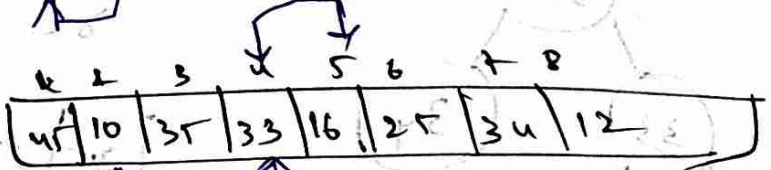
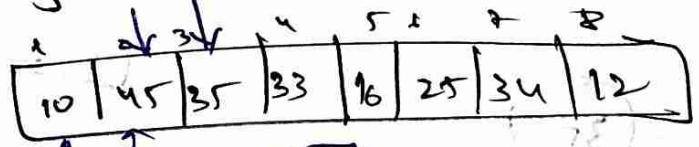


Now again '10' should compare with the child now again swapping is req. 12 is the root. replacing 10 with 12 and 12 with 10



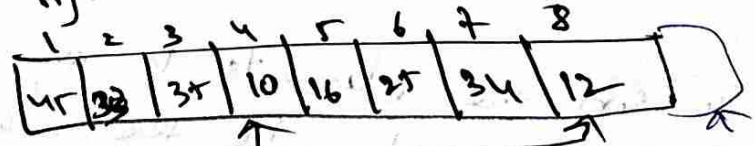
left child =  $2 * i = 2 * 1 = 2$

right child =  $(2 * i) + 1 = 2 * 1 + 1 = 3$



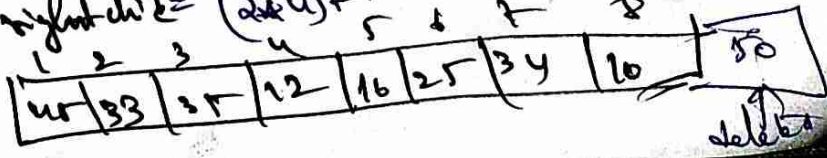
left child =  $2 * i \Rightarrow 2 * 2 = 4$

right child =  $(2 * i) + 1 \Rightarrow 2 * 2 + 1 = 5$



$i = 4$   
left child =  $2 * i \Rightarrow 8$

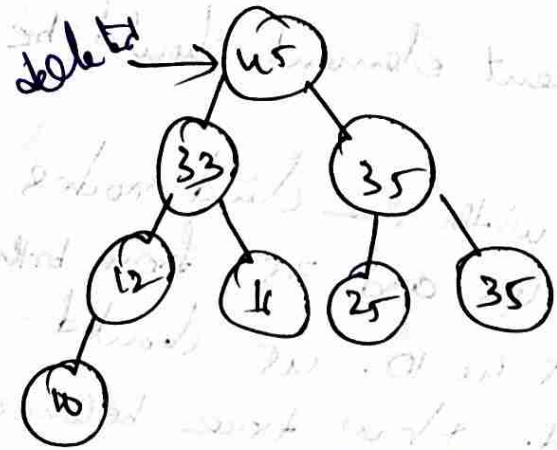
right child =  $(2 * i) + 1 \Rightarrow 2 * 4 + 1 = 9$



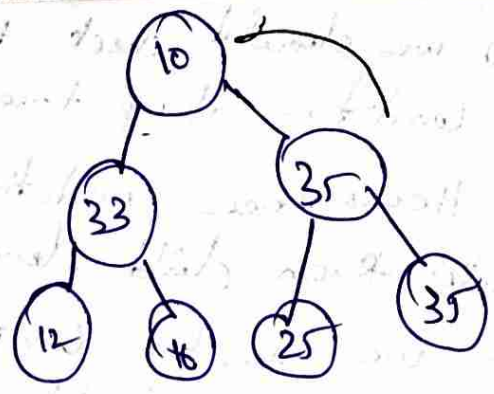
deleted



deleted element 45



1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
45	33	35	12	16	25	34	10



1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10	33	35	12	16	25	34

last becomes root.

$$i = 1$$

$$LC = 2 * i \Rightarrow 2 * 1 = 2$$

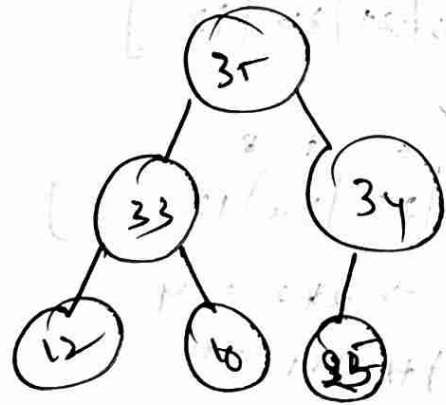
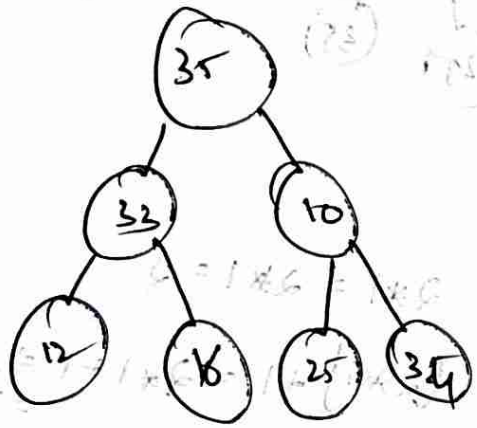
$$RC = (2 * i) + 1 \Rightarrow (2 * 1) + 1 = 3$$

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
35	33	10	12	16	25	34

$$i = 3$$

$$LC = 2 * 3 = 6$$

$$RC = (2 * 3) + 1 \Rightarrow 6 + 1 = 7$$



1	2	3	4	5	6	7
35	33	34	12	16	25	10

deleted

To sort the elements in the Heap tree, we should delete all the element then, we will get sorted data in above example, use so we deleted both in sorted order.

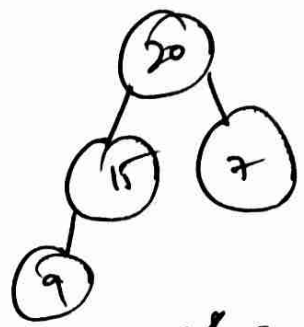
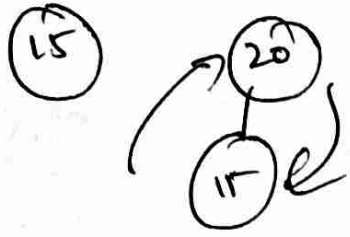
Examples

15	20	7	9	30
----	----	---	---	----

15	20	7	9	30
----	----	---	---	----

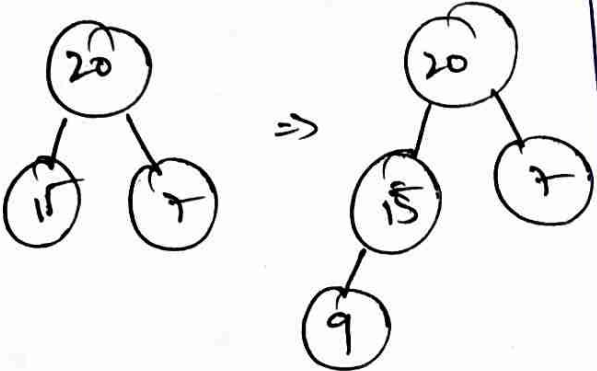
free space

Next  $\Rightarrow$  condition of Heap (max)



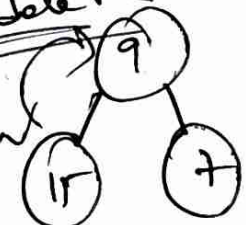
swapping

$i=1 \Rightarrow$   $LE = 2 * 1 \Rightarrow 2$   
 $RC = (2 * 1) + 1 \Rightarrow 3$



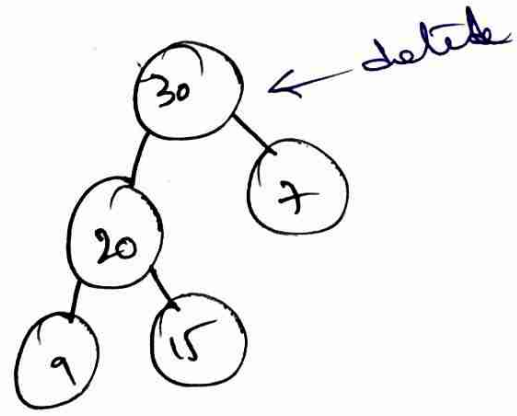
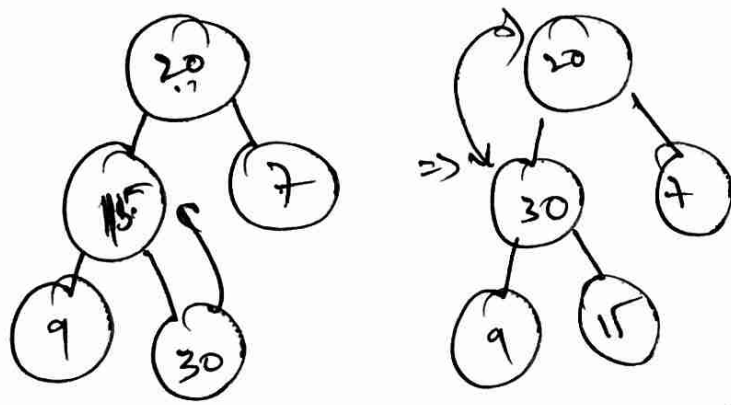
20	15	7	9	30
----	----	---	---	----

20 deleted



9	15	7	20	30
---	----	---	----	----

sorted list



deleted



15	9	7
----	---	---

15 deleted

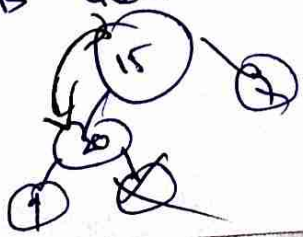
9	7
---	---

A =

30	20	7	9	15
----	----	---	---	----

delete the data then we get sorted data.

30 is deleted.



7	9	15	20	30
---	---	----	----	----

sorted

7 deleted

7	9	15	20	30
---	---	----	----	----

data



# Merge Sort - Merge sort is an

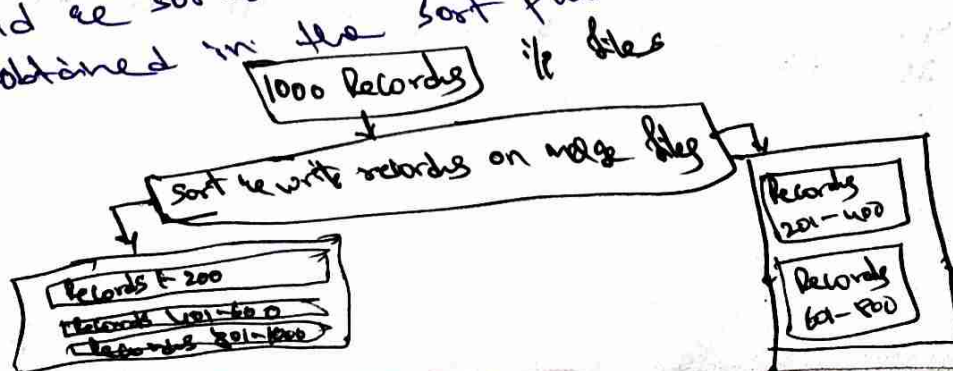
External sorting process - External sorting process is used when the no. of elements (or records) to be sorted are in large number, such that all of them cannot be accommodated in the internal memory of computer. ~~where~~, these files containing ~~large~~ huge records to be sorted are stored on external storage devices & external sorting process is applied.

The external sorting process performs the following steps,

- (\*) Bring few records (from external storage) into the main memory.
- \* Apply internal sort algorithm on those records to generate "runs"
- \* write "runs" onto the external storage devices.
- \* Merge the "runs" generated in the steps above.
- \* Repeat steps (ii), (iii) & (iv) until all runs are merged to a single "run" which is a sorted file of records left out.

Example: Consider a file containing 1000 records. But main memory can accommodate only 200 records at a time. Therefore external sorting technique is applied as follows,

- \* Read the first 200 records from the i/p file, sort them & write them to an output merge file (say merge A).
- \* Read another 200 records, sort them, & write them to an alternate merge file (say merge B).
- \* Again another 200 records are read from i/p file, sorted & written to merge file merge A. This process is repeated until all records are read & sorted. The figure below shows the situation that is obtained in the sort phase.

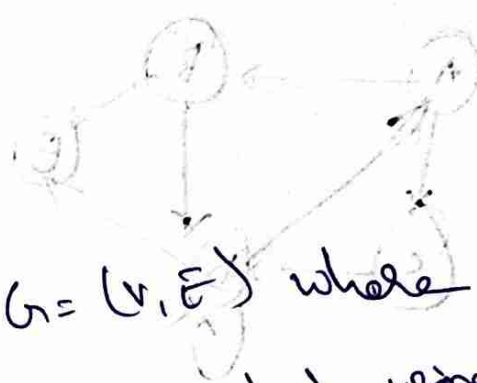






# Graph Representation:-

- \* Adjacency matrix
- \* Incidence matrix
- \* Adjacency list.



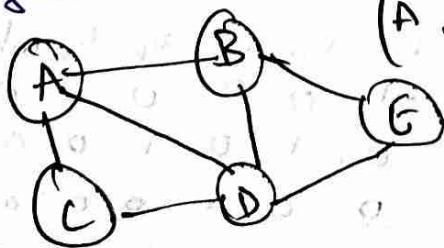
Adjacency matrix:- A Graph  $G = (V, E)$  where  $V = \{0, 1, \dots, n-1\}$  can be represented using two dimensional array of size  $n \times n$ .

int  $adj[20][20]$  can be used to store a graph with 20 vertices

$\Rightarrow adj[i][j] = 1$ , indicates presence of edge b/w vertices  $i$  &  $j$   
 $adj[i][j] = 0$  absence of edge b/w two vertices  $i$  &  $j$

$\Rightarrow$  A graph is represented using square matrix  
 $\rightarrow$  Adjacency matrix of an undirected graph is always Symmetric matrix i.e. an  $edge(i, j)$  implies  $edge(j, i)$

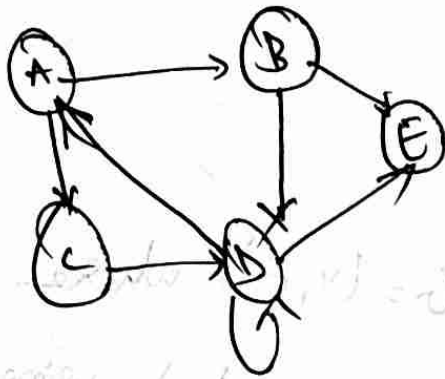
$\rightarrow$  Adjacency matrix of a directed graph is never symmetric matrix  $adj[i][j] = 1$  indicates a directed edge from vertex  $i$  to  $j$ .



vertex $\rightarrow$	A	B	C	D	E
A	0	1	1	1	0
B	1	0	0	1	1
C	1	0	0	1	0
D	1	1	1	1	1
E	0	1	0	1	0
$\uparrow$ vertex					

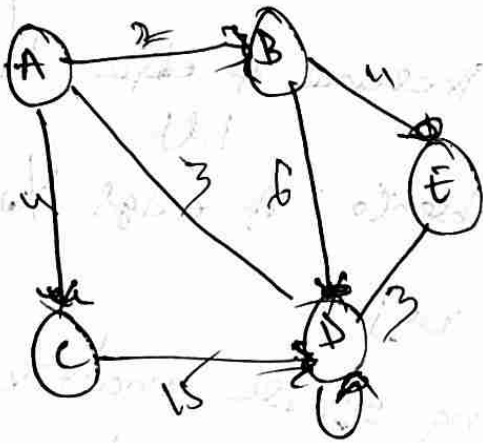


# Directed graph representations



	A	B	C	D	E
A	0	1	1	0	0
B	0	0	0	1	1
C	0	0	0	1	0
D	1	0	0	1	1
E	0	0	0	0	0

# weighted graph representation: undirected graphs



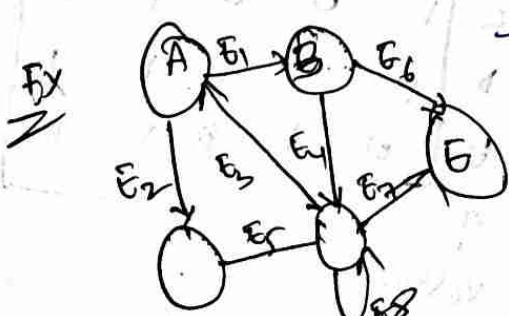
	A	B	C	D	E
A	0	2	4	3	0
B	2	0	0	6	4
C	4	0	0	15	0
D	3	6	15	3	0
E	0	4	0	0	0

Incidence matrix: In this matrix, rows represent vertices and columns represent edges.

This matrix is filled with either 0 or 1 or -1

Here 0 represented row edge is not connected to column vertex

1 " " " " " " " " outgoing edge to column vertex  
 -1 " " " " " " " " incoming edge to column vertex



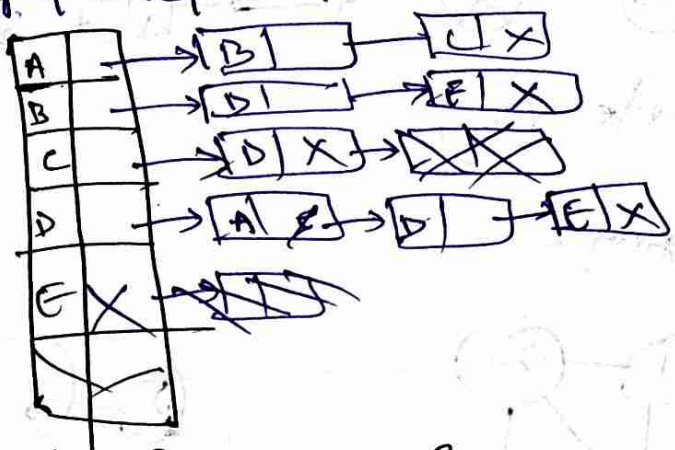
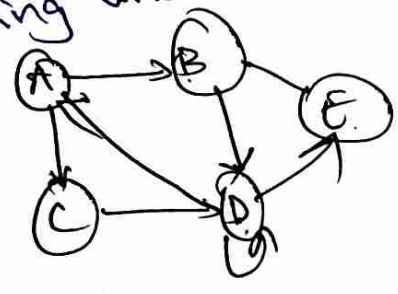
	E <sub>1</sub>	E <sub>2</sub>	E <sub>3</sub>	E <sub>4</sub>	E <sub>5</sub>	E <sub>6</sub>	E <sub>7</sub>	E <sub>8</sub>
A	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0
B	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	0
C	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0
D	0	0	1	1	1	0	1	1
E	0	0	0	0	0	-1	-1	0

↑ vertices

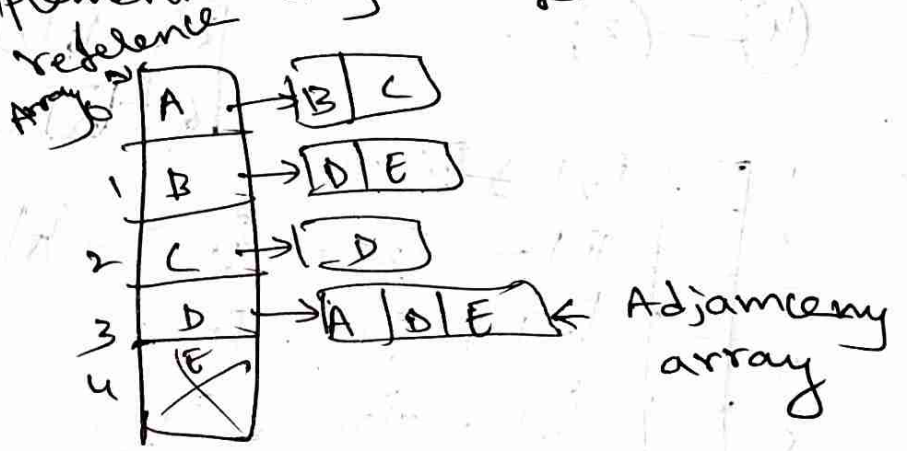
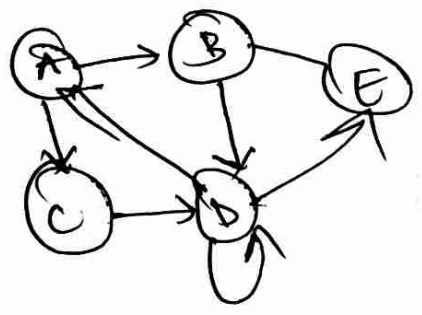


Adjacency list - In this representation, every vertex of graph contains list of its adjacent vertices.

Example consider directed graph representation implemented using linked list



\* It can also be implemented using arrays.

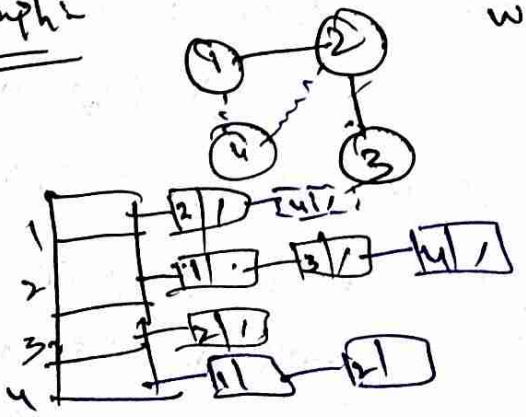


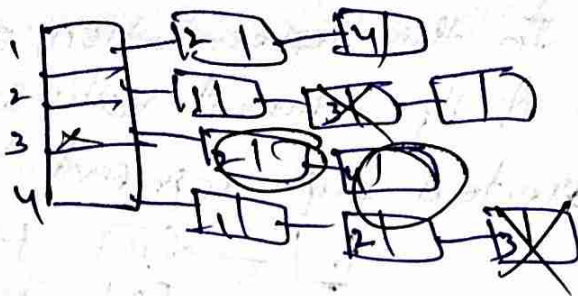
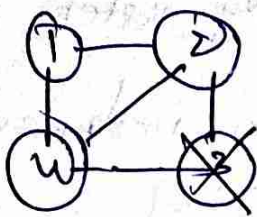
operation on graphs

- \* Insertion (Adding vertices/edges)
- \* Deletion (Removing " " )
- \* merging (merging the graph)
- \* Traversal (to touch all the vertices)

graphs

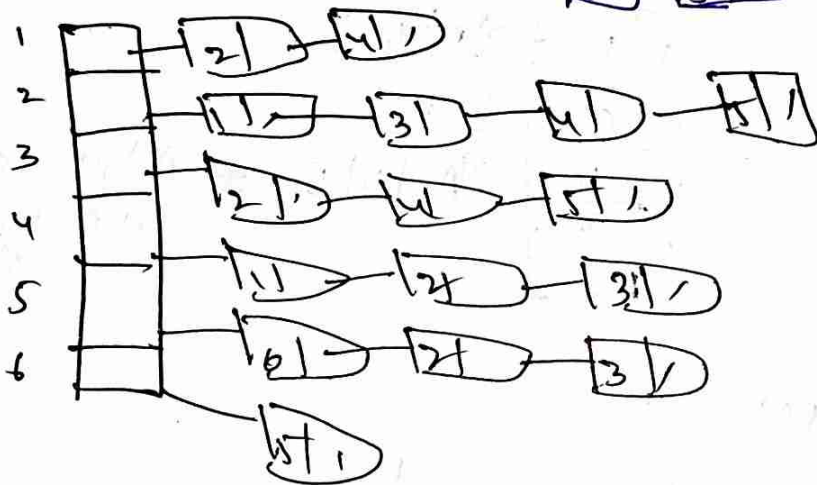
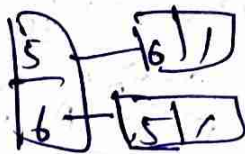
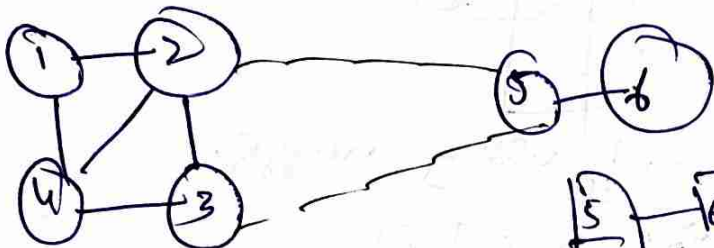
we want to add (4)





Delete (3)

Merging



Traversal - BFS or DFS.



UNIT - 11

## Pattern matching Alg:

In this we try to check whether the given pattern is present in the existing string or not.

For this we learn regarding 3 Alg.

1. Brute force
2. Knuth-morris-pratt
3. Boyer-moore Alg.

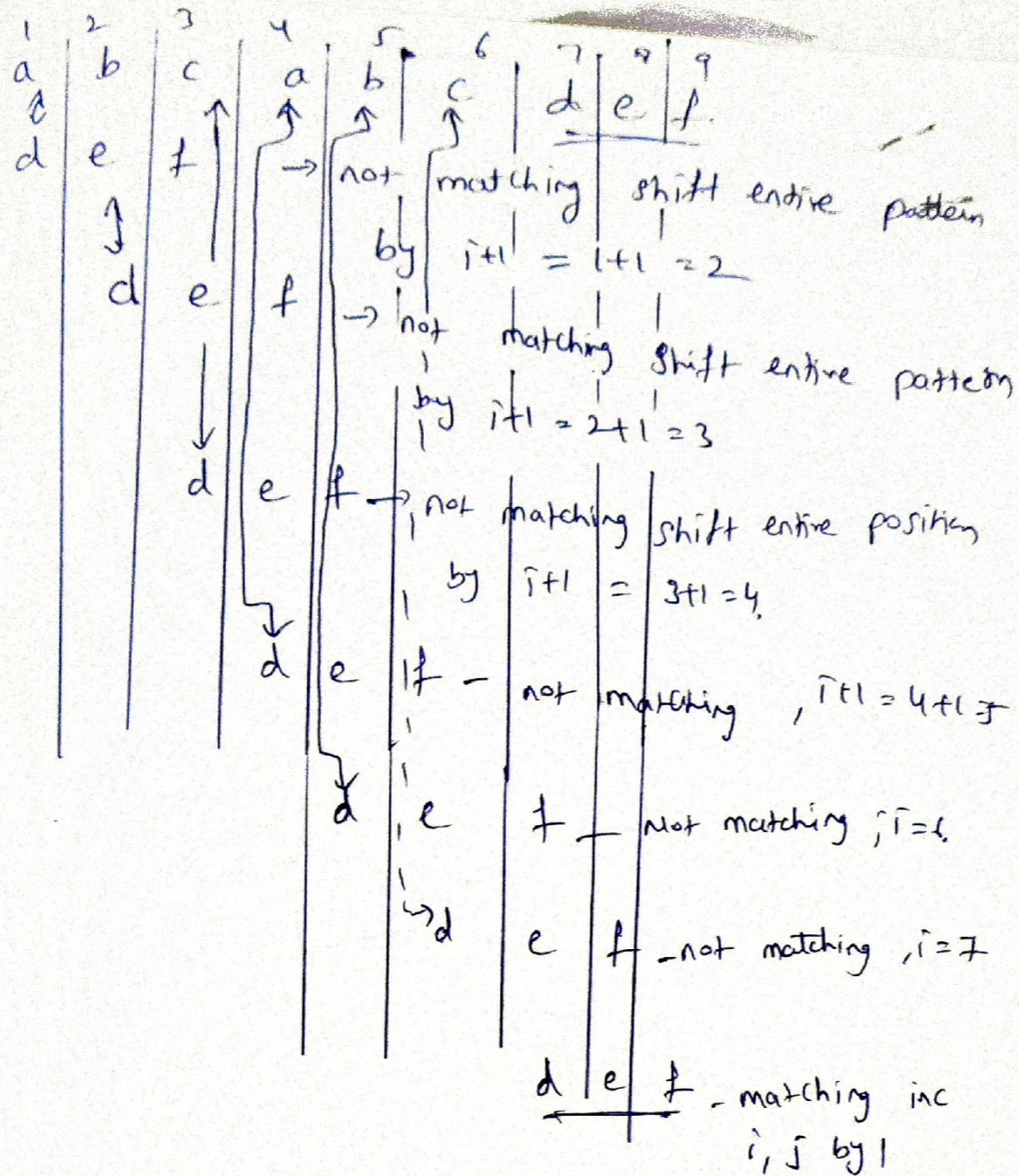
## Brute force - Alg:

It is simplest of all the algorithms.

- 1) ~~It~~ compare the string (i) with pattern (j)
- 2) If i is not matching with j, then shift entire pattern by  $|i|$  and  $j=0$ .
- 3) If i matching with j, then increment  $i$  &  $j$ .

let us see with an example.





- matching, in  $i, j$  by 1
- matching,  $i$  by 1,  $j$  by 1

Pattern found,



## Brute force pattern matching

①

LS - length of original string = 10

LP - " " " " pattern = 4

Max =  $(LS - LP + 1)$  =  $10 - 4 + 1$   
=  $6 + 1 = 7$ . time we can match the  
pattern.

```
void brute(s, p)
```

```
{
```

```
    LS = length(s);
```

```
    LP = length(p);
```

```
    max = (LS - LP + 1);
```

```
    for(i=1; i <= max; i++)
```

```
    {
```

```
        flag = true;
```

```
        for(j=1; j <= LP && flag == true; j++)
```

```
        {
```

```
            if(p[j] != s[i+j-1]) if(p[j] != s[i+j-1])
```

```
            {
```

```
                flag = false;
```

```
            }  
        }  
    }  
    if(flag == true)
```

```
    {
```

```
        return i;
```

```
    }  
}
```

```
return 0;
```











To avoid backtracking of  $i$ , and to get less comparisons, we go for Knuth-Morris Pratt algorithm. Write the

1. We have to create a  $\pi$  table for pattern.  
let us learn with the examples.

$P_1$ : a b c d a b e a b f

Steps 1 Write the index of every alphabet, if the alphabet is repeating elsewhere in the string just put the index of the alphabet, remaining all 0's.

$P_1$ :

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
	a	b	c	d	a	b	e	a	b	f
	0	0	0	0	1	2	0	1	2	0

$P_2$ :

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
	a	b	c	d	e	a	b	f	a	b	c
	0	0	0	0	0	1	2	0	1	2	3

$P_3$ :

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
	a	a	b	c	a	d	a	a	b	e
	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	2	3	0

$P_4$ :

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
	a	a	a	a	b	a	a	c	d
	0	1	2	3	0	1	2	0	0



Write the pattern with pi table in a proper form and start comparing from  $i = 1$  and  $j = i + 1$ , by taking  $j$  as '0'.

Step 3:

if  $i \neq j$  are matching, increment  $i$ , increment  $j$ .

Step 4:

if  $i \neq j$  are matching, move back  $j$  to the index based on pi table. compare  $i$  with  $j$ .

Step 5:

if  $j$  at starting position and cannot be moved back further then increment 'i' by 1.

Step 6:

Repeat step 3, 4, 5 until the process on string reaches the end.

let us see with an example

→ String: a b a b c a b c a b a b a b a b d

String:

a b a b c a b c a b a b a b a b d  
 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15

Pattern

1 2 3 4 5  
 a b a b d  
 0 0 1 2 0



Now let's start tracing

$i$  a b a b c a b c      a b a b a b d  
 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8      9 10 11 12 13 14 15

		a	b	a	b	d
$j$	$i$	0	0	1	2	0
		1	2	3	4	5

$\Rightarrow$  Compare  $i$  with  $j+1$ , a & a matching move  $i \leftarrow j$

$\Rightarrow$

$i$

a b a b c

		a	b	a	b	d
$j$	$i$	0	0	1	2	0

$\Rightarrow$  compare  $i$  with  $j+1$ , matching, inc  $i \leftarrow j$

$i$

a b a b c

$j$

a b a b d

$i$  with  $j+1$   
 matching, inc  $i \leftarrow j$

$\Rightarrow$

$i$

a b a b c

$j$

a b a b d

matching, inc  $i \leftarrow j$

$i$

a b a b c

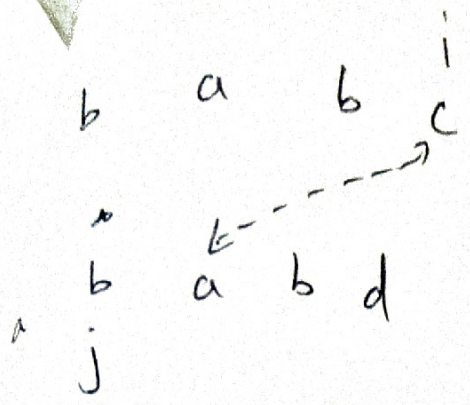
$j$

a b a b d

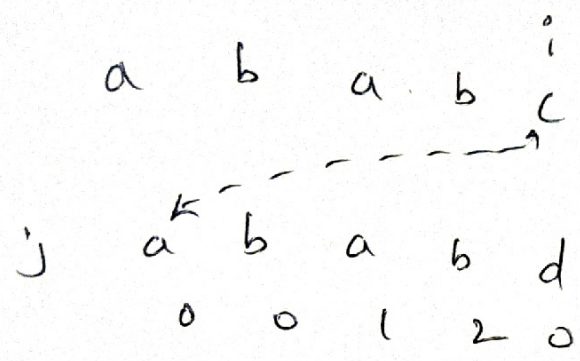
0 0 1 2 0

$\Rightarrow$  Not matching, move  $j$  back to index.

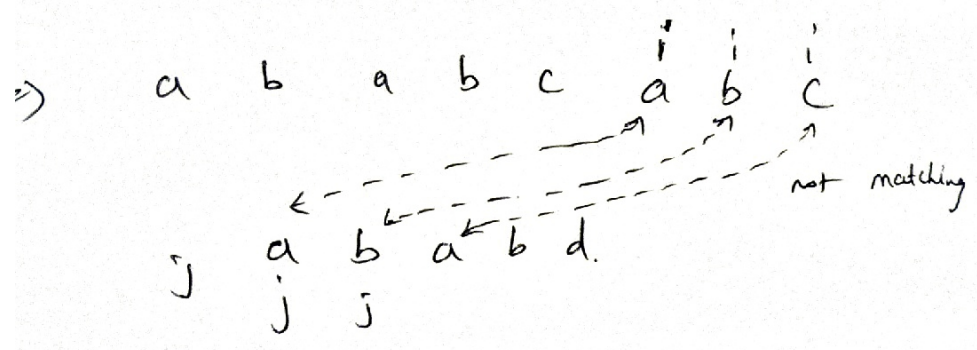




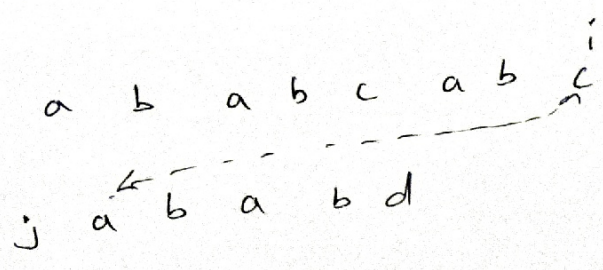
Compare  $i$  with  $j+1$ ,  
 not matching, move  $j$  back to  
 index position.



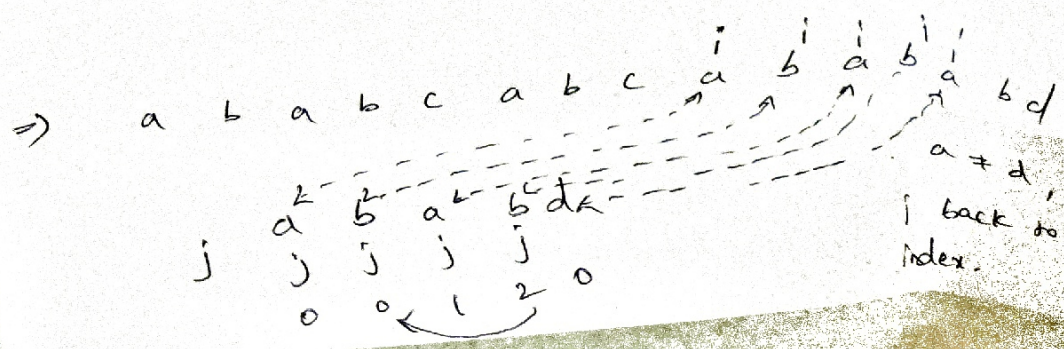
compare  $i$  with  $j+1$ ,  
 not matching &  $j$  cannot  
 be move further then  
 increment  $i$



⇒ Not matching move  $j$  back to index position.



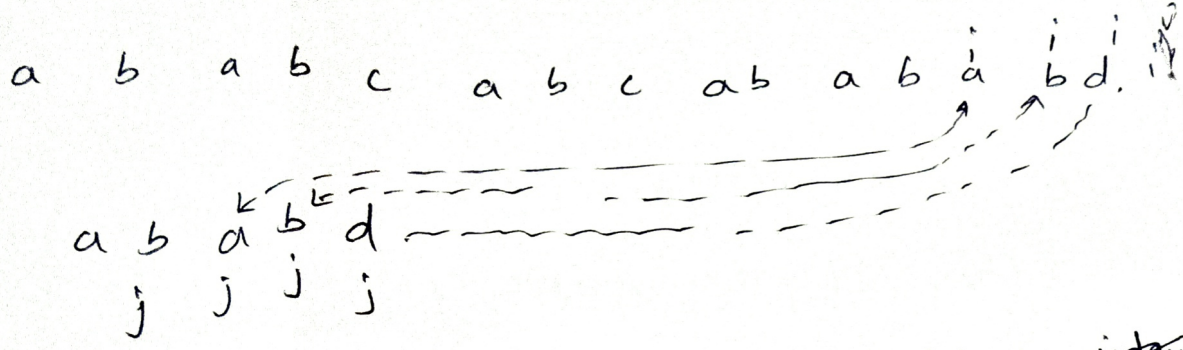
not matching,  $i$   
 cannot be moved  
 back further, increment



$a \neq d$ , move  
 $j$  back to  
 index position.



S: a |  
P: d | Back



⇒ End of pattern, pattern found, print the index position of pattern found.

---

Boyer-moore Pattern matching Algo



Right-More Algorithm

It is the most efficient algorithm among all the remaining Alg.

→ In this we try to compare from Right to left

→ We calculate ~~Bad~~ Bad-match table for pattern.

1- ~~Identify~~ Identify all the distinguished alphabets.

2. Draw them in a table.

3. Calculate shift of all the alphabets.

4. If we get shift of 2 common alphabets, take the minimum value.

5. Always the shift of last alphabet is total no of alphabets (count of alphabets).

The formula for shift is

$$\boxed{\text{Shift} = \text{length} - \text{index} - 1.}$$

Now let us calculate the bad-match table for the given pattern.



Note: should also consider spaces.

AT - THAT

1. Identify all the distinguished alphabets.

↓

who are repeating write them

only once.

→ 0 1 2 3 4 5 6.  
A T - T H A T

→ total length = 7.

→ distinguished alphabets.

Pattern	A	T	-	H	*
Shift	1	3	4	2	7.

2. calculate shift of every alphabet

$$\text{shift} = \text{total length} - \text{index} - 1$$

$$\text{shift}(A) = 7 - 0 - 1 = 6$$

$$\text{shift}(T) = 7 - 1 - 1 = 5$$

$$\text{shift}(-) = 7 - 2 - 1 = 4$$

$$\text{shift}(T) = 7 - 3 - 1 = 3$$

$$\text{shift}(H) = 7 - 4 - 1 = 2$$



$$\text{shift}(A) - 7 - 5 - 1 = 1.$$

$$\text{shift}(T) - \text{Total length} = 7.$$

→ For shift(A) we have 6, 1 ⇒ As 1 is minimum, we take  $\text{shift}(A) = 1$

$$\text{shift}(T) = 5, 3, \text{ minimum} = 3.$$

→  $\text{shift}(-)$  - only one - take one

→  $\text{shift}(H)$  - only one - take one

→  $\text{shift}(*)$  - Another alphabet - Total length = 7

### Steps for Boyer-More Alg

1. Calculate the Bad-match table.

2. Compare starting from right to left

3. Calculate  $d = \max(\text{shift}(C) - K, 1)$   
↓                          ↘  
bad character                 $\frac{\text{No. of}}{\text{characters}} \text{ matched}$

If the first character is not matched

4. Shift the entire pattern, to d value



4. If pattern ~~pat~~ matching dec j and dec i until matched.

Let us see with an example

W  
H  
I  
C  
H  
-  
F  
-  
N  
A  
L  
L  
Y  
-  
H  
A  
L  
T  
S  
-  
A  
T  
-  
T

$$\textcircled{1} \quad d = \max(\text{shift}(C) - k, 1)$$

$$= \max(\text{shift}(F) - 0, 1)$$

shift(P)  
Character not present in pattern so, take 1 value

$$= \max(7 - 0, 1) = \max(7, 1) = 7.$$

so shift entire pattern to 7<sup>th</sup> position.

$$\textcircled{2} \quad d = \max(\text{shift}(-) - 0, 1)$$

$$= \max(4 - 0, 1)$$

$$= \max(4, 1) = 4.$$

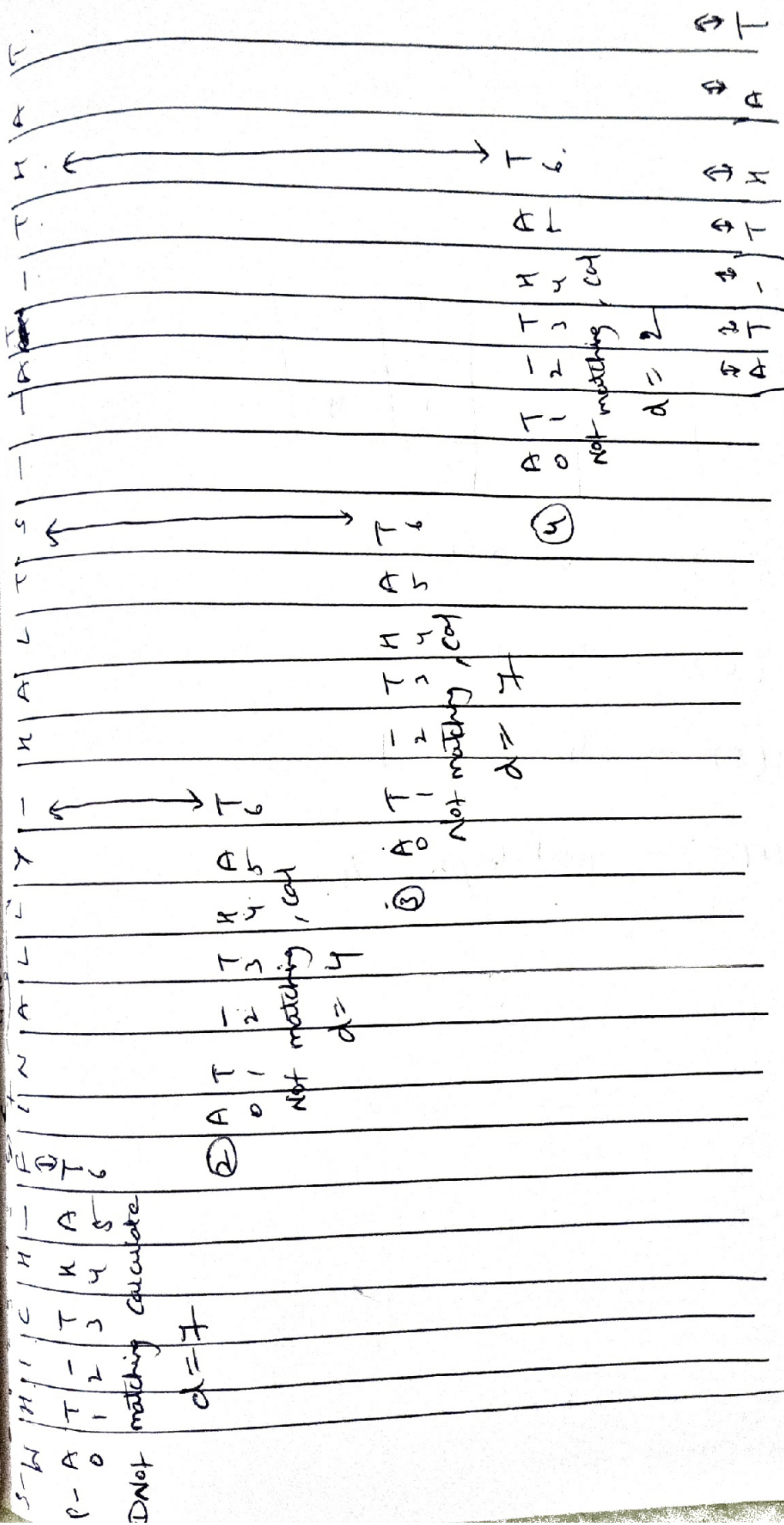
shift 4 locations again.

$$\textcircled{3} \quad d = \max(\text{shift}(S) - k, 1)$$

$$\max(7 - 0, 1) = \max(7, 1) = 7$$

$$\textcircled{4} \quad d = \max(\text{shift}(H) - k, 1)$$

$$= \max(2 - 0, 1) = \max(2, 1) = 2$$



Note: Starting counting after 1 index of insertion.

matching



THIS - IS - A - TEST - S  
TEST - pattern.

→ calculate bad match table.

0 1 2 3  
T E S T

→

P	T	E	S	*
shift	3	2	1	4

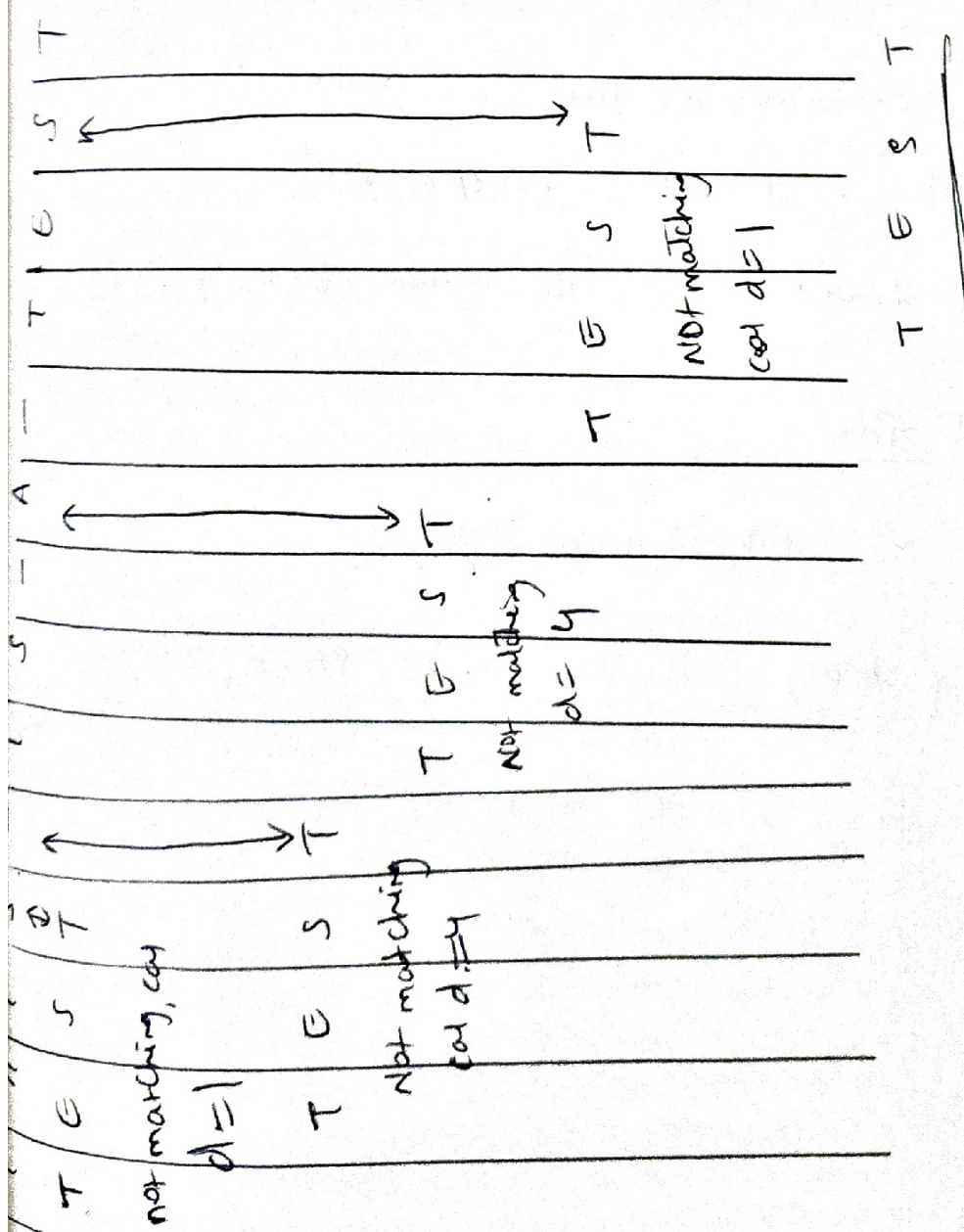
$$\text{shift}(T) = 4 - 0 - 1 = 3$$

$$\text{shift}(E) = 4 - 1 - 1 = 2$$

$$\text{shift}(S) = 4 - 2 - 1 = 1$$

$$\text{shift}(T) = \text{total length} = 4.$$





$$\begin{aligned} \textcircled{1} \quad d &= \max(\text{shift}(s, -k), 1) \\ &= \max(\text{shift}(s) - 0, 1) \\ &= \max(1, 1) = 1 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \textcircled{2} \quad d &= \max(\text{shift}(-) - k, 1) \\ &= \max(9 - 0, 1) = 9 \end{aligned}$$

Shift 7 locations ahead.

$$\begin{aligned} \textcircled{3} \quad d &= \max(\text{shift}(A) - k, 1) \\ &= \max(4 - 0, 1) = 4 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \textcircled{4} \quad d &= \max(\text{shift}(S) - k, 1) \\ &= \max(1 - 0, 1) = 1 \end{aligned}$$

matching



Standard Trie, Compressed Trie, Suffix Trie.

Trie: Trying to store a string in the form of tree.

→ It stores set of strings.

→ For storing string we make ~~make~~ use of

1) Standard Trie

2) Compressed Trie

3) Suffix Trie.

→ For constructing a tree, we take by storing a letter in a node, except root.

→ letter should be in the given list of strings.

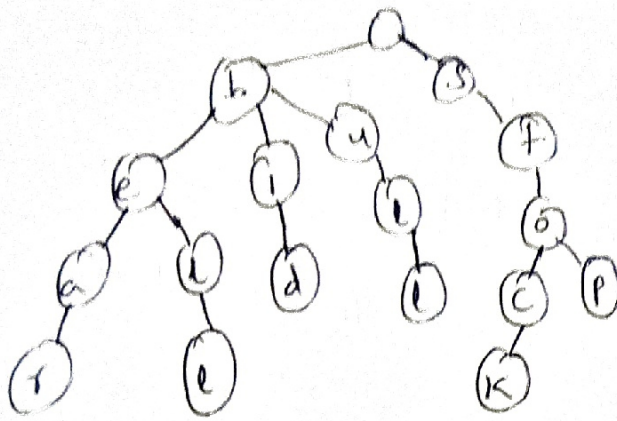
Standard Trie

→ let us take an example.

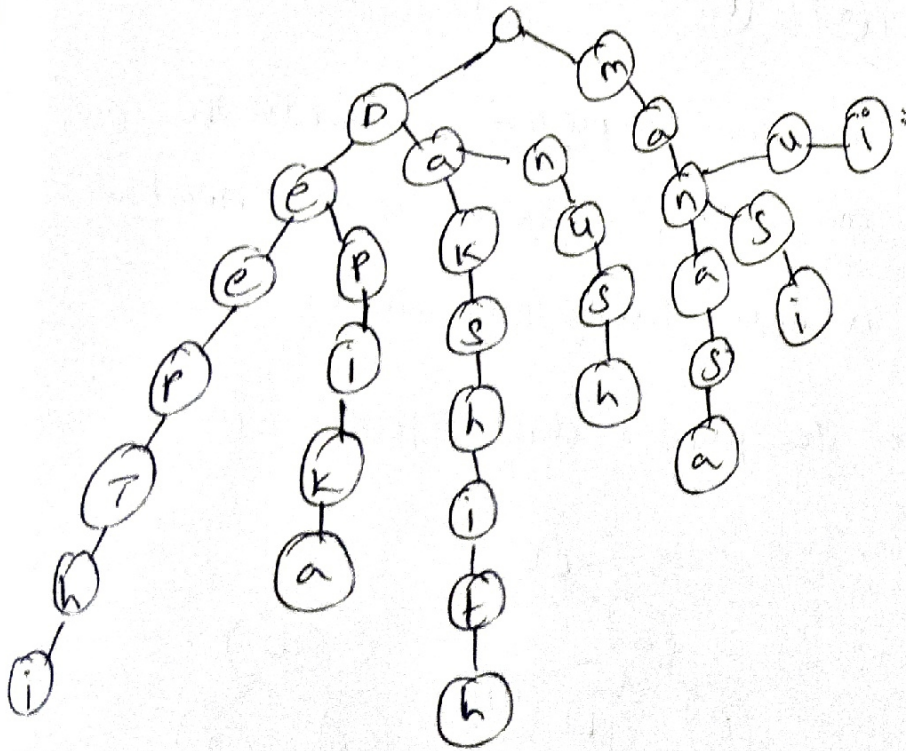
$S = \{ \text{bear, bell, bid, bull, stock, soap} \}$

As we have already node for b, e, so we add l, l node to same b





{ Deepthi, Depika, Dakshith,  
 Danush, Manasa, mansi, manvi }



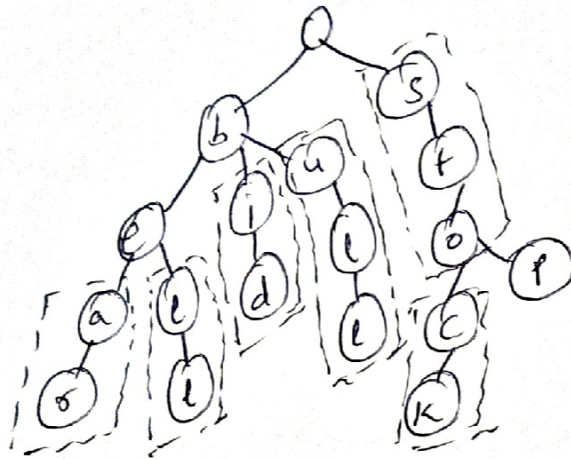
→ rep set of words from root to leaf, rep  
 the set of words in a set.



Compressed Trie: Rep a standard trie in a more compact (or) more portable fashion.

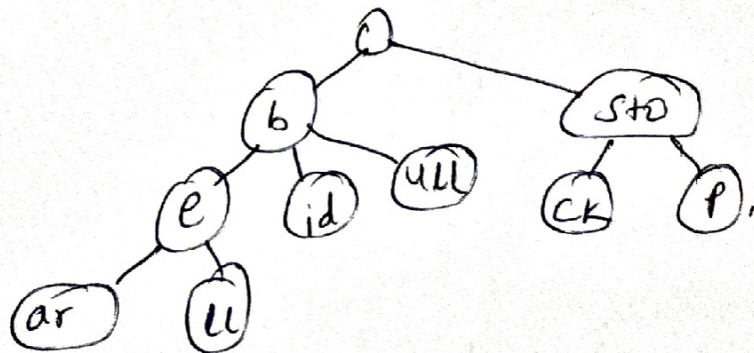
Ex: { bear, bell, bid, bull, stock, stoply.

→ let's again construct the standard Trie.



→ Where we can compress - compress the node having one child (as there is no need to create a node having only child).

⇒ Write the parent & child together in a larger node.



→ The above is the compressed Trie.



Representation of Compressed Trie

$s[0] = b e a r$   
 $s[1] = b e l l$   
 $s[2] = b i d$   
 $s[3] = b u l l$   
 $s[4] = s t o c k$   
 $s[5] = s t o p$

$0, 0, 0$   
 $\downarrow$   
 States that  
 in string  $s[0]$ ,  
 in location  $[0]$ , starts  
 in location  $[0]$ , ends.

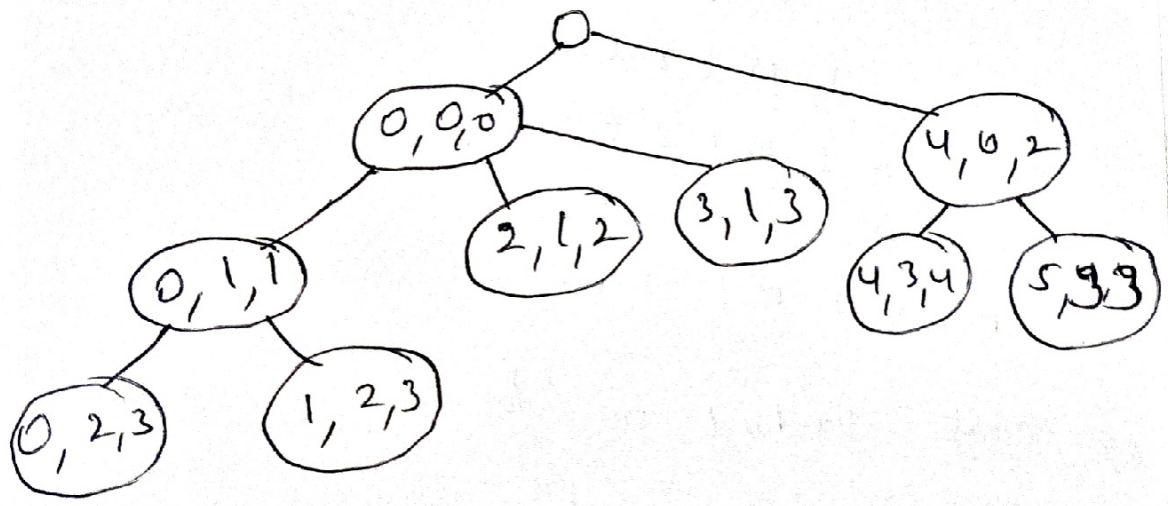
We take, 3 variables.

$i, j, k$ .

$i$  - In which string the alphabet is

$j$  - Where does the ~~the~~ prefix starts

$k$  - Where does the ~~the~~ end of prefix





Suffix Trie : For a given set of strings,

we first 1) write all possible suffixes

2) construct its standard tree

3) construct its compressed tree.

4) Represent the suffix trie.

~~let us take the same example~~

let us take an example.

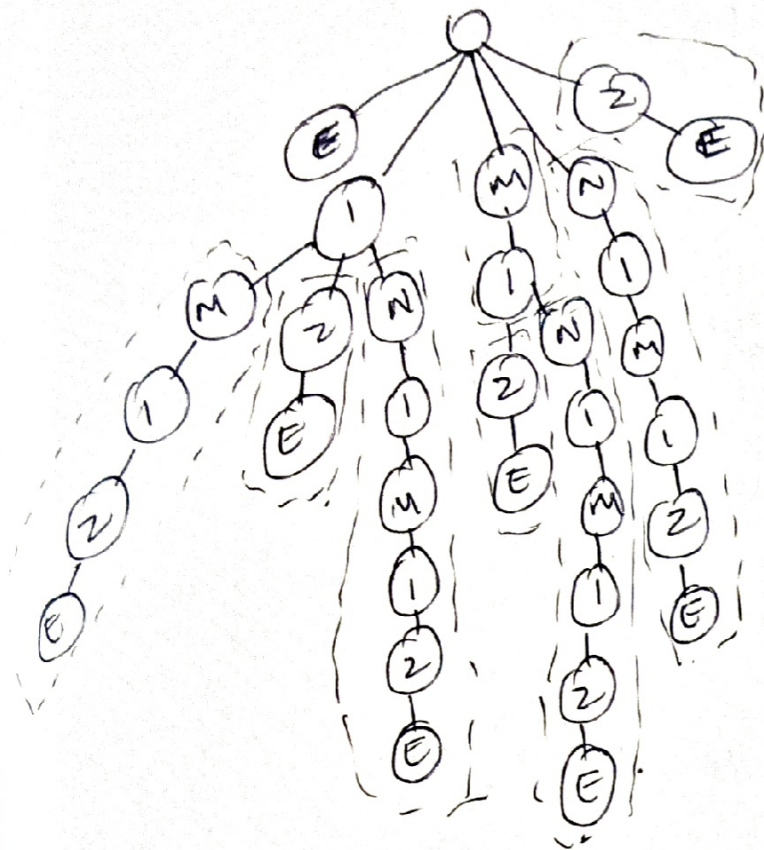
→ MINIMIZE.

1) Write its suffix

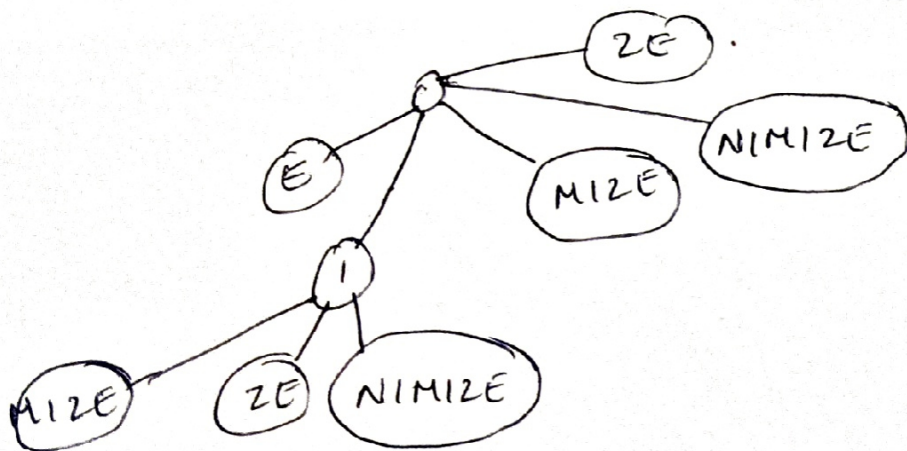
E  
ZE  
IZE  
MIZE  
LMIZE  
NLMIZE  
INLMIZE  
MINLMIZE.

2) create standard tree for all above suffix.





3) Construct its compressed trie.



4) Representation of suffix tree

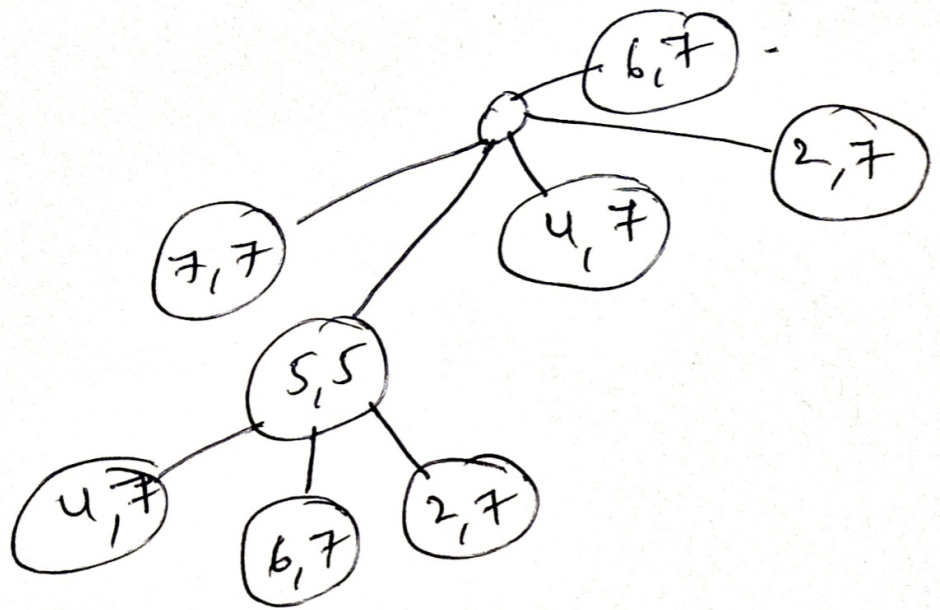
$j, k$

$j$  - starting of suffix.

$k$  - end of suffix.



MINIMIZE  
0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7



The above is the suffix tree.