

Advanced Programming Laboratory

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Lists

The ADT List:

A sequence of zero or more elements of a given *ElementType*:

$$a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots, a_n$$

$n \geq 0$ and a_i is of *ElementType*

n – is the length of the List

$n \geq 1$, first *element* is a_1 and last is a_n

Examples for Lists:

- A list of jobs
- A list grocery items
- Representation of sets
- Lists can be used to perform infinite precision arithmetic.

The ADT List I

ADT List { private Data:

a - list of ElementType

- insert(x, p) - insert element x at position p
- end() - got to the end of the list
- locate(x) - find the position of element x in List
- retrieve(p) - retrieve the element at position p
- delete(p) - delete the element at position p
- next(p) - get the position of element at the position next to p
- prev(p) - get the position of element at the position before p
- makeNull() - create an empty list
- first() - get the position of the first element
- print() - print all the elements in the list
- print(p) - print the element at position p

}

The ADT List II

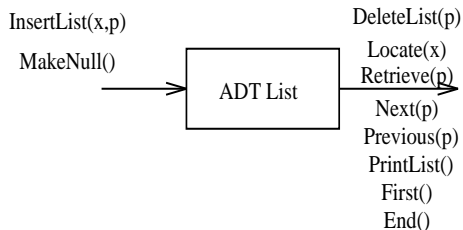


Figure: The List ADT

Lists I

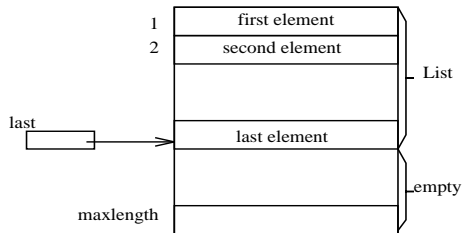


Figure: The List ADT - array implementation

Lists II

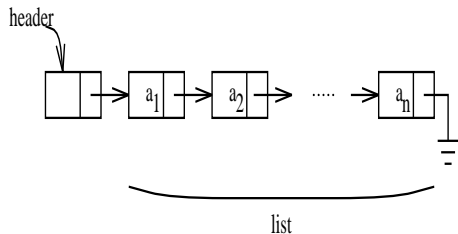


Figure: The List ADT - linked list implementation

Implementation of Lists I

```

/*****
 * Program                : LinkList.cxx
 * Function               : Defines a class List
 *****/

#include "iostream.h"
/* Definition of element of List */

typedef struct CellType* Position;
typedef int ElemType;
struct CellType {
    ElemType value;
    Position next;
};

```

Implementation of Lists II

```

/*Definiton of class List */
class List { /* begin {Definition of class List} */
private:
    Position listHead; //pointer to head
public:
    void makeNull(); // create a new
    void insertList(ElemType x, Position p); // insert x at Position p
    void deleteList(Position p); // delete element at Position p
    Position first(); // get Position of first element
    Position end(); // get Position of last element
    Position next(Position p); // get Position of next element
    void printList(); // print List
}; /* end {Definition of class List} */

```


Implementation of Lists III

```
/* begin {Implementation of class List} */
```

```
void List::makeNull() {  
    listHead = new CellType;  
    listHead->next = NULL;  
}
```

```
void List::insertList (ElemType x, Position p) {  
    Position temp;  
    temp = p->next;  
    p->next = new CellType;  
    p->next->next = temp;  
    p->next->value = x;  
}
```

Implementation of Lists IV

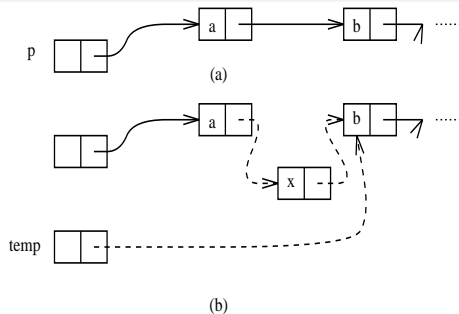


Figure: The List ADT - Insertion Operation

Implementation of Lists V

```
void List::DeleteList(Position p) {  
    p->next = p->next->next;  
}
```

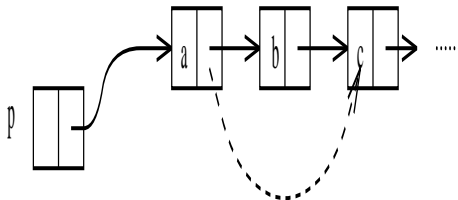


Figure: The List ADT - Deletion Operation

Implementation of Lists VI

```
Position List::First() {  
    return(listHead);  
}
```

```
Position List::end() {  
    Position p;  
    p = listHead;  
    while (p->next != NULL)  
        p = p->next;  
    return(p);  
}
```

```
Position List::next(Position p) {  
    return (p->next);  
}
```

Implementation of Lists VII

```
void List::printList () {  
    Position p;  
    p = listHead->next;  
    while (p != NULL) {  
        cout << p->value << " ";  
        p = p->next;  
    }  
    cout << endl;  
}
```

Implementation of Lists VIII

List Problems

- Storing Sets, performing operations on Sets (union, intersection, set A - set B)
- Infinite precision arithmetic – the entire number is represented in a list, perform operations of $+$, $-$, $*$, $/$.

Assignment:

- 1 Write a function to remove duplicates in a give List using only List operations. The function takes argument a list and returns the purged list.
- 2 Write a function convert a given unordered list into an ordered list.

Stacks I

Definition: A special ADT to which addition and deletions are made only at one end, LIFO (last-in-first-out).

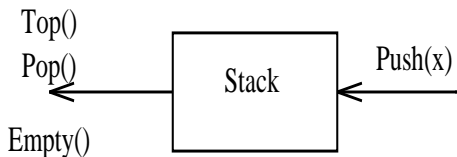


Figure: The Stack ADT

Stacks II

Application of Stacks: Conversion of infix expressions to postfix.

- While (not end of input) do
 - When an operand is read place it immediately in the output.
 - When an operator is read,
 - If (TopOfStack has precedence \geq operator) then Pop operators off the stack until TopOfStack has lower precedence
 - Stack current Operator.
 - When a left bracket is read place in on the stack.
 - When a right bracket is read pop all elements until left bracket. Pop left bracket.
- endwhile
- Pop all elements off the stack.

Stacks III

Expression = $a + b * c + (d + e / f)$

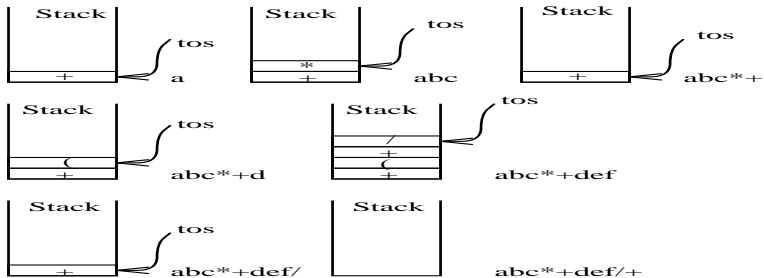


Figure: Conversion from infix to postfix

Implementation of Stacks I

```

/* begin {Definition of class stack} */
#define STACK_SIZE 256
class Stack {
    char string[STACK_SIZE];           // A Stack of characters
    int tos;                           // A pointer to the top of the stack
public:
    void makeNull();                   // creates an Empty Stack
    void push(char x);                 // pushes an element on to the stack
    char top();                        // returns the element on top of the stack
    char pop();                        // Pops an element from the stack
    int empty();                       // returns 1 if Stack is empty
};
/* end{Definition of class Stack} */

```

Implementation of Stacks II

```
/* begin{Implementation of the class Stack} */
void Stack::makeNull() {
    tos = STACK_SIZE;
}
void Stack::push(char x) {
    tos--;
    string[tos] = x;
}

char Stack::top() {
    if (tos < STACK_SIZE)
        return string[tos];
    else
        return(0);
}
char Stack::pop() {
    char tmp;
    if (tos >= STACK_SIZE) return 0; else {
```

Implementation of Stacks III

```
    tmp = string[tos];  
    tos++;  
    return tmp;  
}  
}  
int Stack::empty() {  
    if (tos >= STACK_SIZE)  
        return 1;  
    else  
        return 0;  
}  
/*end {Implementation of class Stack} */
```

Time complexity of Stack operations using arrays - $O(1)$.

Assignment:

- ❶ Modify the infix to postfix converter to work for right associative operators.
- ❷ Write a function that uses a stack, to determine whether the parentheses are balanced in C program. The parentheses to be considered are $\{, [, (,),], \}$.
- ❸ Write a function that uses a stack, to evaluate a postfix expression.

Queues I

Definition: A special kind of ADT, where items are inserted at one end (called the *rear*) and deleted at the other end (called the *front*) - first-in-first-out (FIFO).

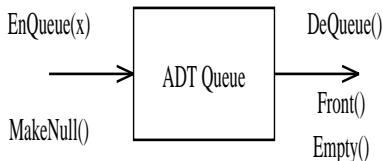


Figure: The ADT Queue

Queues II

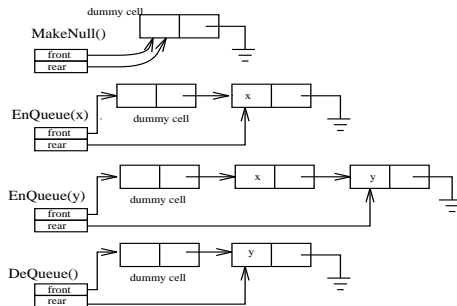


Figure: A sequence of Queue Operations

Implementation of Queues I

```
/* Definition of an element of the Queue */
```

```
typedef struct CellType* Position;
struct CellType {
    char subString[10];
    Position next;
};
```

```
/*Definiton of class Queue */
```

```
class Queue { /* begin {Definition of class Queue} */
private:
```

```
    Position front, rear;
```

```
public:
```

```
    void makeNull();
```

```
    void enqueue(char* x);
```

```
    char* front();
```

```
    char* dequeue();
```

```
// create a new
// insert x into Qu
// get element at th
//delete element .
```


Implementation of Queues II

```

    int empty(); // check whether
}; /* end {Definition of class Queue} */

/* begin {Implementation of class Queue} */

void Queue::enqueue(char* x) {
    rear->next = new CellType;
    rear = rear->next;
    strcpy(rear->subString, x);
    cout << rear->subString;
    rear->next = NULL;
}

char* Queue::deQueue() {
char* temp;
    if (empty())
        cout << "Queue is empty\n";
    else {

```

Implementation of Queues III

```
temp = front->next->subString;  
front = front->next;  
return(temp);  
}  
}
```

Time complexity of queue operations using Linked list - $O(1)$.

Continued.

Issues in implementation of Queues using arrays:

- ❶ Linear Queue exhausts array size.
- ❷ Implement as a circular queue.
 - ❶ Difficult to distinguish between empty and full queue.
 - ❷ Needs an additional variable.

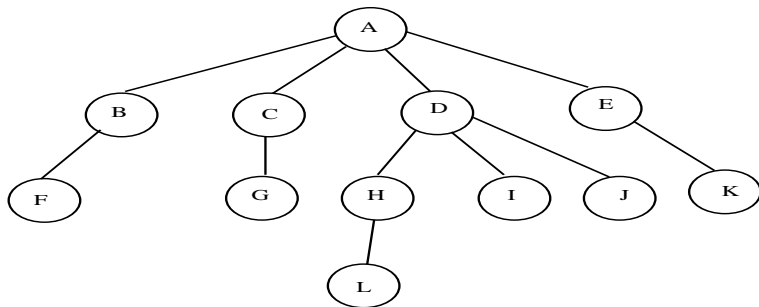
Assignment:

- ➊ Using the Queue ADT simulate a petrol pump.
- ➋ Write a function to store infinitely long strings in a queue.
- ➌ Implement a Queue ADT using a circularly linked list such that all operations on the Queue are performed in $O(1)$ time.

Trees I

Definition: A tree is a hierarchical data structure with a finite set of one or more nodes such that:

- There is a specially designated node called the *root*
- The remaining nodes are partitioned into $n \geq 0$ disjoint sets T_1, T_2, \dots, T_n , where each set is a tree. T_1, T_2, \dots, T_n are called subtrees of the root.



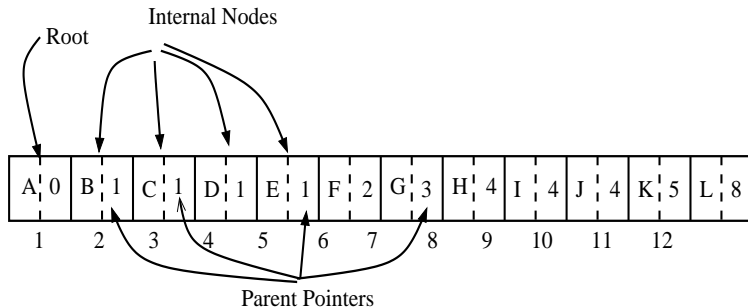
Some terminology with respect trees

Trees II

- ❶ Every tree has a designated node called the root.
- ❷ Access to any element in the tree is via the root.
- ❸ There are two types of nodes in a tree:
 - ❶ Internal nodes – root and all other nodes that have subtrees
 - ❷ Leaves – are the nodes at the bottom of a tree – they have no subtrees.
- ❹ Height of tree: The length of the longest path from the root to a leaf node is called the height of a tree.
- ❺ Level of a node in a tree: number of levels from root to a given node. Root node is at level 1.

Representation of trees: Arrays I

Array Representation



Every node has a pointer to its parent. This representation is useful for representing sets, memberships. This also useful for languages that donot support recursive data structures.

Representation of trees: Linked lists I

Any general tree can have a variable number of subtrees. A general tree is represented by a set of nodes, each node has two pointers

- A pointer to its left most child
- A pointer to its right sibling

The root has not right sibling

Representation of trees: Linked lists II

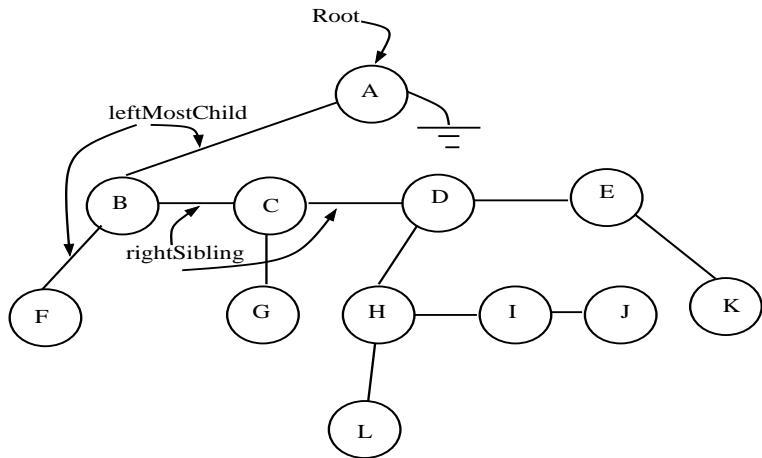


Figure: Representation of trees using leftMostChild, rightSibling representation

Binary Trees I

Definition: A binary tree is a finite set of nodes that is either empty or consists of a root and two disjoint binary trees called the left and right subtrees.

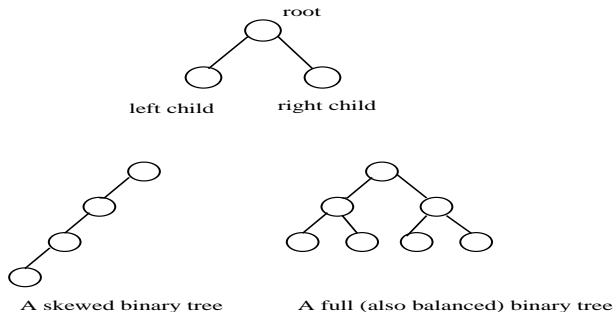


Figure: Binary trees

Operations on binary trees: I

- `CreateBinTree(v,lChild,rChild)` - Create a binary tree with `lChild` and `rChild` as children and `v` as root.
- `makeNull()` - Create an empty tree.
- `Parent(n)` - returns the parent of a node `n`.
- `leftChild(n)` - returns the leftChild a node `n`.
- `rightChild(n)` - returns the rightChild of a node `n`.
- `root` - returns the root of tree

Applications of Binary Trees: I

- Representation of Sets
- **Huffmann coding**
- Heaps
- Dictionaries

Huffmann coding: Encodes a message consisting of a sequence of characters. In each message, the **characters** are **independent** and appear with a known **probability** of occurrence in any **position**, the probability being the **same** for **all positions**. The encoding should be such that no code for a character is a **prefix** for any other character. Also, the **shortest average code length** must be obtained.

Applications of Binary Trees: II

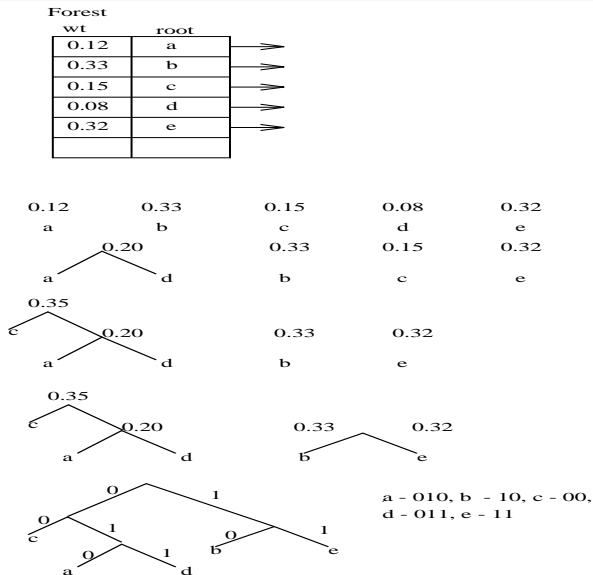


Figure: Huffmann tree Construction

Huffman tree construction:

Initialisation: Assume that every character is in a binary tree by itself.

We therefore have as many binary trees as there are letters in alphabet.

While there is more than one tree in the forest do

- get the tree with the smallest weight in the forest, say lC.
- get the tree with the next smallest weight in the forest, say rC.
- create a new node with leftChild as lC and rightChild as rC.
- replace the lC tree in the forest by the tree whose root is the new node, with weight equal to the sum of weights of lC and rC.
- delete tree rC from the forest.

endwhile

Implementation of Binary Trees I

```
/* Definition of a node for a Huffman tree */
typedef struct tnode *treePtr;
typedef struct tnode {
    treePtr left;
    float probability ;
    treePtr right;
} Treenode;

/* begin {class Huffman Tree} */
class HuffTree {
    treePtr root;
public:
    /*Create a tree with a single node */
    void createTree(float prob){
        root = new Treenode;
        root->probability = prob;
        root->left = NULL;
```

Implementation of Binary Trees II

```
    root->right = NULL;
}
/* Make a single tree from two trees */
void makeBinTree(HuffTree ltree, HuffTree rtree) {
    float value;
    treePtr lsubtree, rsubtree;
    value = ltree.prob() + rtree.prob();
    root = new Treenode;
    root->probability = value;
    lsubtree = ltree.getRoot();
    rsubtree = rtree.getRoot();
    root->left = lsubtree;
    root->right = rsubtree;
}

/* Get the root of the tree */
treePtr getRoot() {
    return(root);
}
```


Implementation of Binary Trees III

```
}  
/* Return the probability of the root */  
float prob () {  
    return(root->probability);  
}  
/* Print the tree */  
void printTree (treePtr temp) {  
    if (temp != NULL) {  
        cout << temp->probability << "└";  
        printTree(temp->left);  
        printTree(temp->right);  
    }  
}
```

Traversal of Trees I

- Preorder
- Inorder
- Postorder

Preorder Traversal:

- Visit root
- Visit left child in Preorder recursively
- Visit right child in Preorder recursively

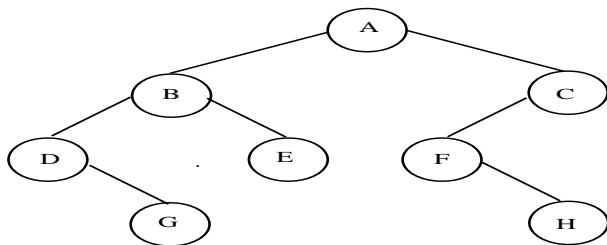
Inorder Traversal:

- Visit left child in Inorder recursively
- Visit root
- Visit right child in Inorder recursively

Postorder Traversal:

- Visit left child in Postorder recursively
- Visit right child in Postorder recursively
- Visit root

Construction of Unique Binary tree from results of traversal



Preorder traversal: ABDGECFH

Inorder traversal: DGBEAFHC

Figure: Binary tree construction from traversals

Binary Tree construction

Preorder Traversal: A B D G E C F H

Inorder Traversal: D G B E A F H C

LST RST

Preorder Traversal of LST: B D G E

Inorder Traversal of LST: D G B E

LST RST

Figure: Binary tree construction from traversals

Binary Search Trees

Definition: A binary search tree is a binary tree. It may be empty. If it is not empty, it satisfies the following properties:

- Every element has a **key** and no two elements have the same key, that is, the **keys are unique**.
- The keys in a nonempty left subtree must be **smaller** than the key on the **root**.
- The keys in a nonempty right subtree must be **larger** than the key at the **root**.
- The **left** and **right** subtrees are also **binary search trees**.

Binary Search Trees are used for Searching (recursively) - similar to binary search on an array of n elements.

Time Complexity of Searching: $O(h + 1)$ where h is the height of the tree.

Continued.

Binary Search Trees are identical to Binary Trees except that the property at every node must be maintained.

Both Insertion and Deletion into a Binary Search Tree can cause the tree to become skewed.

Insertion:

Insertion is always done at a leaf node.

Deletion:

When a node is deleted, it is replaced by the **rightmost** child of its **left child**, or the **leftmost** child of **right child**.

Insertion into a Binary Search Tree

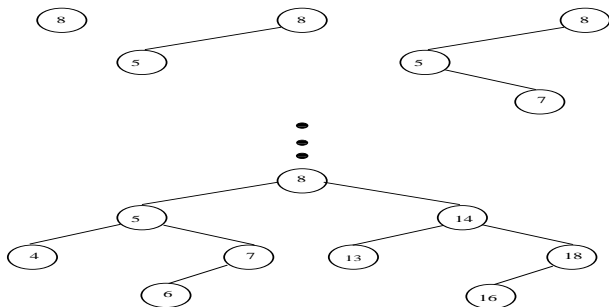


Figure: Insertion into a Binary Search Tree

Deletion from a Binary Search Tree

Suppose we want to delete the node that is marked as 14.

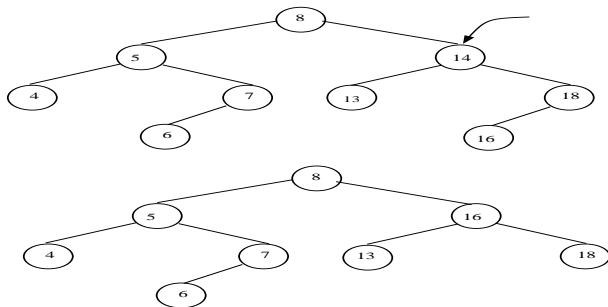


Figure: Deletion from a Binary Search Tree

Other problems on binary trees I

- Maximum number of nodes in a binary tree of height h $2^{h+1} - 1$. Prove using induction.
- Relation between the number of leaf nodes and internal nodes of degree 2 (n_2) in a binary tree: $n_0 = n_2 + 1$. n_0 is the number of nodes of degree 0.
 - Let n be the number of nodes in a binary tree.
 - $n = n_0 + n_1 + n_2$, where n_0 , n_1 and n_2 correspond to nodes with degree 0, 1, 2, respectively.
 - If B is the number of branches in a tree, then $n = B + 1$, since every node except the root have a branch leading into it.
 - But $B = n_1 + 2n_2$.
 - Therefore $n_0 = n_2 + 1$.
- How many different binary trees can be formed with 3 unlabeled nodes?
- How many different binary search trees can be formed with 3 labeled nodes?
- Write a simple function to create a mirror image of a binary search tree.

Balanced Binary Trees

To ensure that the height of the tree is of the order $\log_2 n$, a BST has to be balanced.

Balanced Binary Trees

- AVL trees - uses special rotations after every insertion and deletion
- Splay trees - uses the move to root heuristic when an element is accessed.

Implementation of Insertion in a Binary Search Tree

```
treeptr *insert(treeptr tree, int number) {  
    if (tree == NULL) {  
        tree = new tree;  
        tree->symbol = number;  
        tree->lChild = NULL;  
        tree->rChild = NULL;  
    } else if (number < tree->symbol)  
        tree->lChild = (treeptr) insert(tree->lChild, number)  
    else if (number > tree->symbol)  
        tree->rChild = (treeptr) insert(tree->rChild, number)  
    return(tree);  
}
```

Priority Queues - Heaps I

Definition: A max tree is a tree in which the key value in each node is no smaller than the key values in its children, if any. A **max heap** is a complete binary tree that is also a **max tree**. Operations on Heaps:

- Creation of an empty Heap
- Insertion of a new element into a Heap
- Deletion of the largest element from the Heap

Priority Queues are implemented using Heaps.

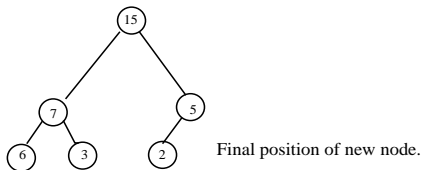
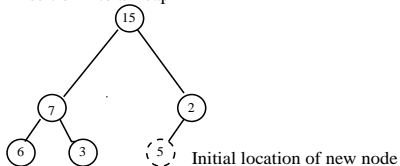
Time Complexity: $O(\log_2 n)$ for both insertion and deletion

Representation of Priority Queues using either linear linked list or linear array is not efficient: Either deletion or insertion takes $O(n)$ time.

Priority Queues are implemented as Complete Binary trees using Arrays.

Continued.

Insertion into a Heap



For Deletion move last element to Root and Heapify again.

Figure: Heaps - Insertion

Implementation of Heaps I

```

/* The class Heap defines an ADT Heap. */
/* begin {Definition of class Heap} */
#define HEAP_SIZE 256
typedef int ElemType;
typedef int Position;
class Heap {
    ElemType priority[HEAP_SIZE];           // A Heap of integers
    Position last;
public:
    void insertHeap(ElemType x);             // Inserts an element
    ElemType deleteRoot();                  // DeleteRoot of the heap
    int empty();                             // returns 1 if Heap is empty
    void createHeap();                       // creates an empty heap
    void printHeap();                        // Prints the heap
};
/* end{Definition of class Heap} */

```

Implementation of Heaps II

```

/* begin{Implementation of the class Heap} */
void Heap::insertHeap(ElemType x) {
    int i;

    last = last + 1;
    i = last;
    while (( i != 1) && (x > priority[i/2])) {
        priority[i] = priority[i/2];
        i = i/2;
    }
    priority[i] = x;
}

ElemType Heap::deleteRoot() {
    ElemType item, temp;
    Position parent, child;
    int flag;
    item = priority[1];
    parent = 1;

```

Implementation of Heaps III

```
child = 2;
temp = priority[last];
last = last - 1;
flag = 0;
while ((child <= last) && (!flag)){
    if ((child < last) && (priority[child] < priority[child
        child = child+1;
    if (temp >= priority[child])
        flag = 1;
    else {
        priority[parent] = priority[child];
        parent = child;
        child = parent*2;
    }
}
priority[parent] = temp;
return(item);
}
```


Implementation of Heaps IV

```
void Heap::createHeap() {  
    last = 0;  
    /* end {Implementation of Heaps} */
```

The Symbol Table ADT I

- Determine if a particular name is in a table
- Retrieve the attributes of that particular name
- Modify the attributes of that name
- Insert a new name and its attributes
- Delete a name and its attributes

The Symbol Table ADT II

Can we use any of the following data structures?

- Use Lists?
- Use Queues?
- Use Stacks?
- Use Trees?

Issues: When these data structures are used, the search times can be large depending upon the location of the item that is being searched/modified.

Can we do better?

Hash Table I

Key Idea: Use of a *hash function* to access an element.

- Static Hashing
- Dynamic Hashing

Static Hashing:

- Identifiers are stored in a fixed-size table called the **hash table**.
- The address or location of an identifier, x , is obtained by computing some arithmetic function, h , of x .
- $h(x)$ gives the address of x in the table.
- The **hash table**, say ht is partitioned into b buckets, $ht[0], ht[1], \dots, ht[b-1]$.
- Each bucket is capable of holding s records.
- $h(x)$ maps the set of possible into the integers 0 through $b-1$.

Hash Table II

Why is hashing effective?

Example: An identifier 6 characters long \implies , that there are

$$T = \sum_{0 \leq i \leq 5} 26 * 36^i$$

distinct possible values for x , but any application only uses a small fraction of these.

Hash Table III

Definitions:

- Identifier Density: n/T , where n is the number of identifiers and T is total number of possible identifiers.
- Loading factor: $\alpha = n/(sb)$.
- Synonyms: $h(I_1) = h(I_2)$.
- Overflow: A new identifier I is hashed into a full bucket.
- collision: When two nonidentical identifiers hash to the same bucket.

An Example

0	A	A2
1		
2		
3	D	
4		
5		
6	GA	G
7		

25		
----	--	--

Hash Table with 26 buckets and two slots per bucket

Figure: Hashing based on the letters of the alphabet

Hash Functions

A *hash function*, h , transforms an identifier, x , into its bucket address.

- Mid-Square - Square the identifier and then use an appropriate number of bits from the middle to obtain the bucket address.
- Division - Divide identifier, i.e. compute the remainder when x is divided by M , $x \% M$, and use this as the hash address.
- Folding - Partition identifier into different parts, add partitions and use this as the address.