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Roll No : 19

MCA [1st semester]

Advanced Data Structures

1)

Data structures are classified into two types. Pathitive and non-pathitive data structures. The linear and non-linear data structures are classifications of non-pathitive data structures.

Linear

Linear data structure

The data structure in which elements are arranged in a sequential order. These data structures are easy to implement because computer memory is arranged in a linear way. It involves a single level.
Eg:- array, stack, queue, linked list.

Non-Linear data structure

The data structure in which the elements are arranged in a non-sequential order is the non-linear data structure. These data-structures utilize the memory more efficiently than linear data structures. It involves different levels.

Eg :- tree, graph

(e) Stack is a linear data structure. It works as a LIFO fashion. The elements are deleted from last to and deleted from the same end. The process of inserting elements into the stack is known as push operation & the process of deleting elements from the stack is known as pop operation. 'top' is a pointer that points to the last inserted / top most element of the stack.

Stack Implementation using array



There are mainly 4 operations in a stack.

- (i) `push()`
- (ii) `push()`
- (iii) `pop()`
- (iv) `display()`

→ `void push()`

{

for (`x` ;

`scanf("%d", &x);`

`push(x);`

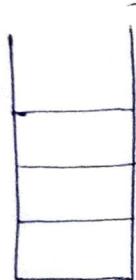
```

if (top == -1)
{
    cout ("stack overflow");
}
else
{
    top++;
    stack[top] = x;
}

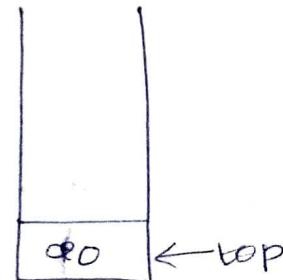
```

If we want to insert an element into a stack first check, the stack is empty or not. If $\text{top} = N-1$, which means stack is empty. Otherwise, the top is incremented to the next position & the element is inserted.

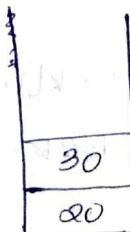
$\text{stack}[3]$



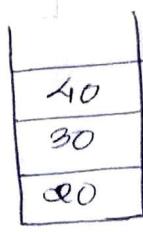
$\text{top} = N-1$



$\text{top}++$
 $\text{stack}[0] = 20$



$\text{top}++$
 $\text{stack}[1] = 30$



$\text{top}++$
 $\text{stack}[2] = 40$

→ void pop()

```

{
    for (prem;
        if (top == -1)
    {
        cout ("underflow");
    }
    else
    {
}

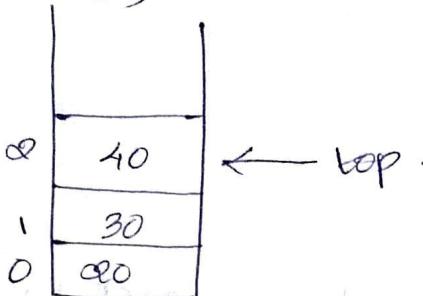
```

```

item = stack[top];
top--;
printf("%d", item)
}

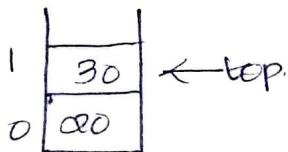
```

stack[3]



The element to be deleted is 40.

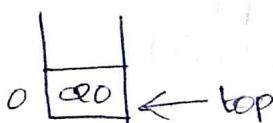
If delete stack[0]. Then top is decremented.



delete stack[top]

i.e., stack[1] = 30

top --



delete stack[top]

i.e., stack[0] = 00

top --



Stack is empty

```

→ void top()
{
    if (top == -1)
    {
        cout("stack empty");
    }
    else
    {
        cout("%d", stack[top]);
    }
}

```

Inorder to get the top most item just
`cout stack[top]`. Because top points to the
topmost element

Eg:-

2	40
1	30
0	20

← top . . . stack[top] = 40

stack[3]

```

→ void display()
{
    for i:
        for (p = top; p >= 0; p--)
        {
            cout("%d", stack[p]);
        }
}

```

Inorder to display the elements of a
stack, the value of p starts from 0. the
last inserted element is displayed first and

The first inserted element is displayed last

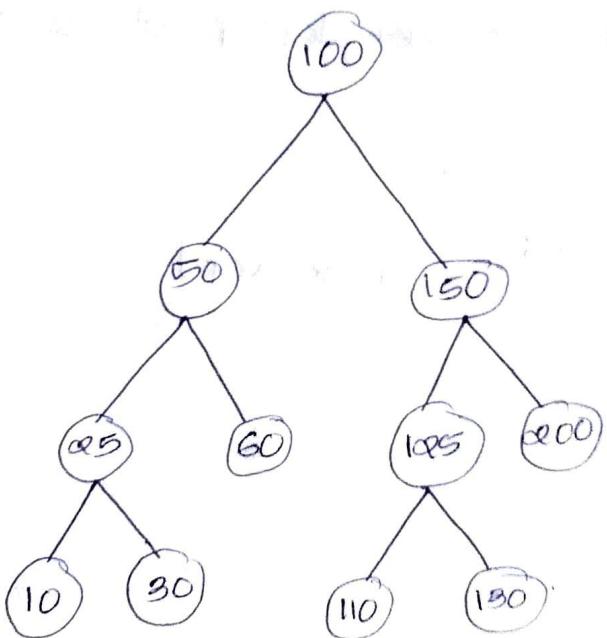
e.g. - from above fig :-

40

30

20.

- 3) The binary search tree is a binary tree and are specially designed for the purpose of searching.



If N is the number of nodes, then an element in the BST can be searched in an average of order of $O(\log N)$ time.

Properties

A binary search tree can be empty and if it is not empty. It must satisfy the following properties.

- (i) All keys in the left subtree of the root are less than the key in the root.
- (ii) All the keys in the right subtree of the root are always greater than the key in the root.
- (iii) Left and right subtrees of root are ~~empty~~
~~the key in the root~~. always binary search trees

In the above figure, the key in the root is 100, all the keys in the left subtrees such as 50, 25, 60, 10, 30 are less than 100 and all the keys in the right subtrees such as 150, 125, 200, 110 and 130 are greater than 100 and left subtree and right subtree are always BST. so it satisfies all the properties of binary search tree.

- 5) A disjoint set data structure is a collection of disjoint sets and is represented as $S = \{S_1, S_2, \dots, S_k\}$ where S_1, S_2, \dots, S_k are disjoint disjoint sets.

All disjoint Disjoint sets are sets to

which no two sets have any common elements.

The operations in a disjoint set are

- (i) $\text{MAKE-SET}(x)$ - This operation creates a new set whose only element is populated by x .

e.g. - $\text{MAKE-SET}(x) \rightarrow \text{from } \emptyset \text{ to } \{x\}$

$$\{0\} \{1\} \{2\} \{3\} \{4\} \{5\} \{6\} \{7\}$$

- (ii) $\text{UNION}(x, y)$ - This operation unites or merges dynamic sets that contains x and y into a new set. e.g. - ~~Set~~ $\text{UNION}(S_x, S_y)$ of S_x and S_y is denoted by $S_x \cup S_y$.

e.g. - $S_x = \{1, 2, 3\}$ From above example,

$$S_y = \{4, 5, 6\} \quad \text{UNION}(1, 2)$$

$$S_x = \{0\} \{1, 2\} \{3\} \{4\} \{5\} \{6\} \{7\}$$

$$\text{UNION}(S_x, S_y)$$

$$\{0\} \{1, 2\} \{3\} \{4\} \{5\} \{6\}, \{7\}$$

- (iii) $\text{FINDSET}(x)$ - Returns a reference to the unique set containing x .

e.g. - $S_x = \{1, 2, 3\}$ $S_y = \{4, 5, 6\}$

$\text{find}(1) \rightarrow \text{belongs to } S_x$

$\text{find}(5) \rightarrow \text{belongs to } S_y$

→ e.g. Make-set(α) - from 1 to 5
{1} {2} {3} {4} {5}

union(α, β)

{1} {2,3} {4} {5}

Hence α & β are connected because both are in the same set.

i.e., find(α) == find(β).

1) We saved some amount over a period of time and after a long time, we can buy some expensive things using these saved rupees. These saved rupees are called credit. This is also done by ~~amortize~~ accounting method.

Stack

operation	push	pop	multi-pop
Actual cost	1	1	$mflo(n, k)$
Amortized cost	α	0	0

The credit of push operation is

$$\text{Amortized cost} - \text{Actual cost}$$

$$= \alpha - 1 = 1.$$

pop and multi-pop operations cannot be done

nonlocal push operation

so the amortized cost of push operation
is α .

The amortized cost of pop operation is 0

The amortized cost of multi-pop operation is 0.

c) The various rotations in height balanced tree are

→ Left - Left rotation

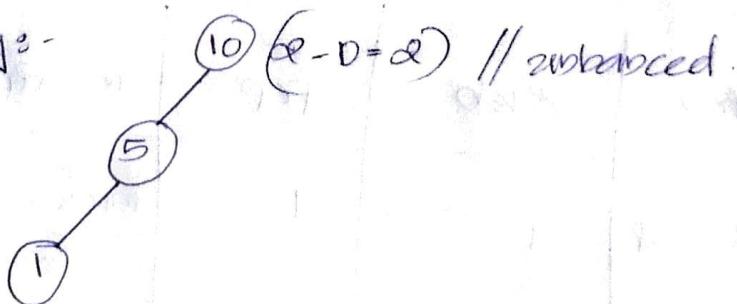
→ Right - Right rotation

→ Left - Right rotation

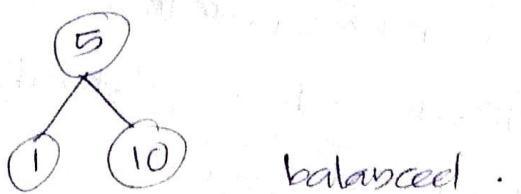
→ Right - Left rotation.

→ Left - Left insertion, performs right rotation.

Eg:-



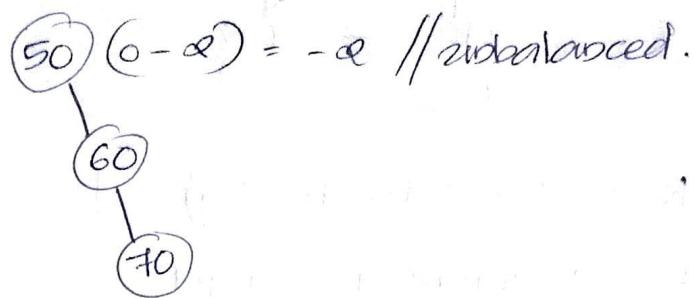
This is a left-skewed tree; this is an unbalanced tree. To make it balanced rotate right.



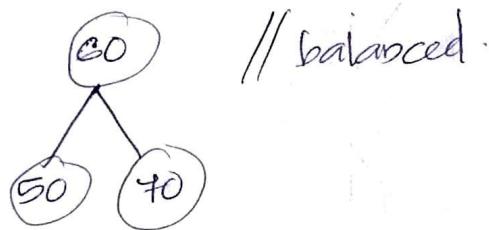
balanced.

5 becomes the root & previous root is rotated right & it becomes the right child.

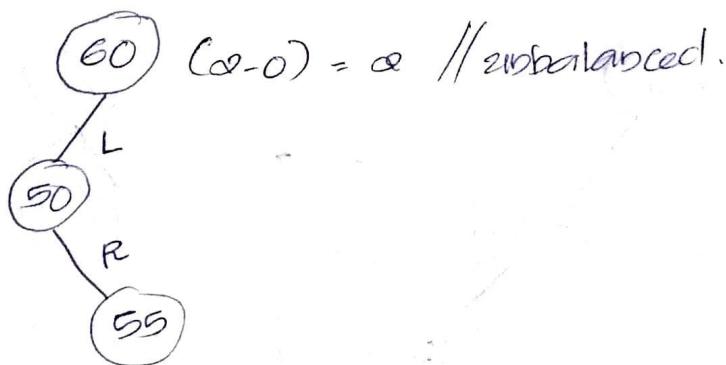
(ii) Right - Right Insertion, left rotation



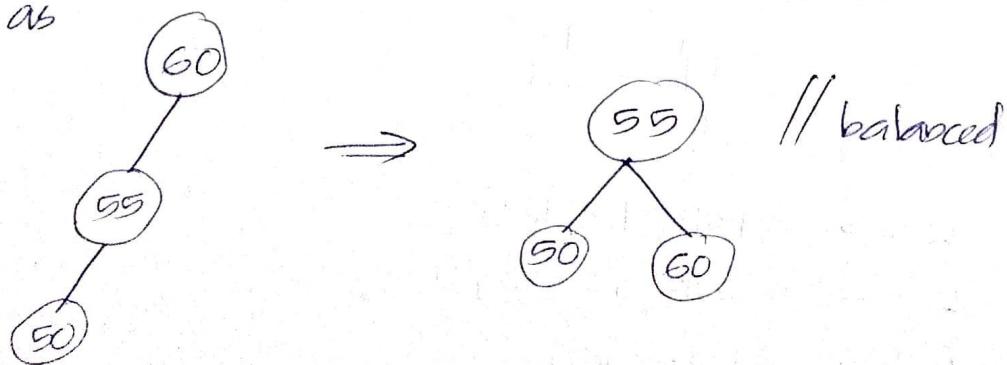
To make it balanced perform left rotation, the root 50 is rotated left & α becomes the left child of 60



(iii) Left - right insertion



To make it balanced, take the tree as



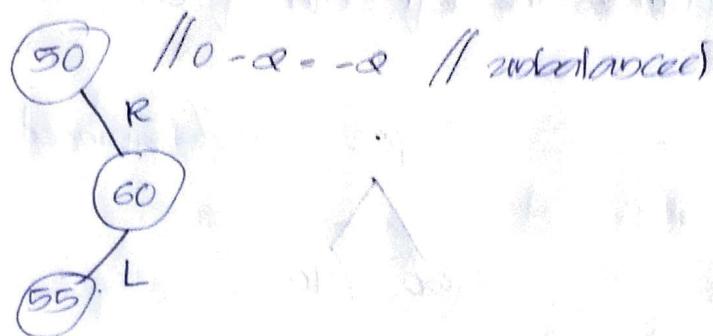
Here 2 rotations are performed



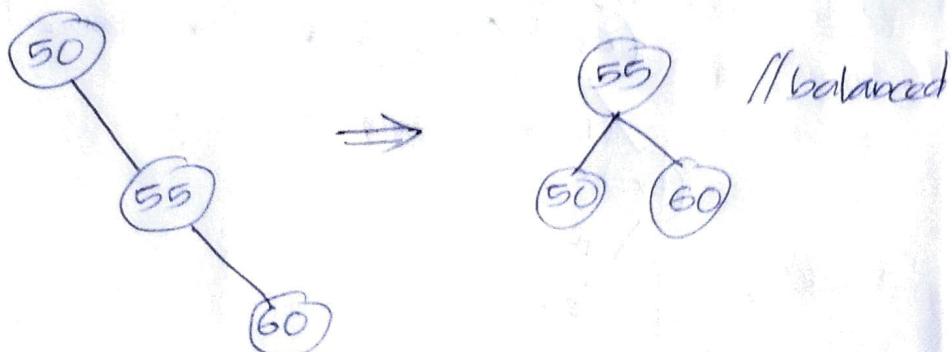
R → Rotate to left β

L → rotate to right

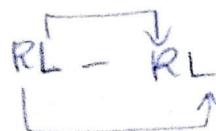
(iv) Right-left rotation



To make it balanced, make RL rotation.



Two rotations are performed here

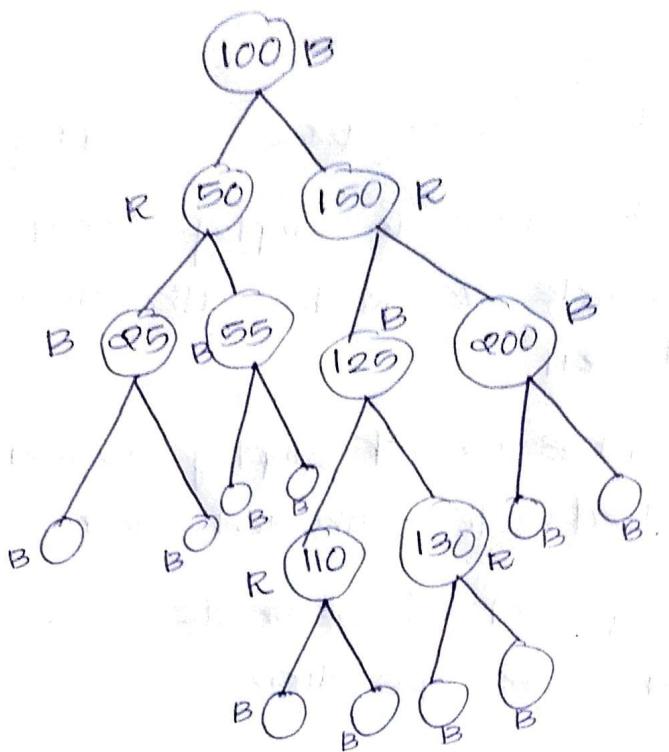


R → rotate to left

L → rotate to right

R → rotate left

7)



The properties of RB tree are:

- (i) Red Black Tree must be a binary search tree.
- (ii) Root must be colored black.
- (iii) The children of red node must be black.
(There should not be 2 consecutive red nodes)
- (iv) In all paths of the tree, there should be same number of black colored nodes.
- (v) Every new node is presented with red color.
- (vi) Every leaf must be colored black.

10) \Rightarrow

Step 1 : check whether tree is empty

Step 2 : If the tree is empty insert rootnode as root with color black and exit.

Step 3 : If tree is not empty insert rootnode as leafnode with red color.

Step 4 : If parent of rootnode is black then exit from operation.

Step 5 : If parent of rootnode is red , then check color of parent's sibling of rootnode .

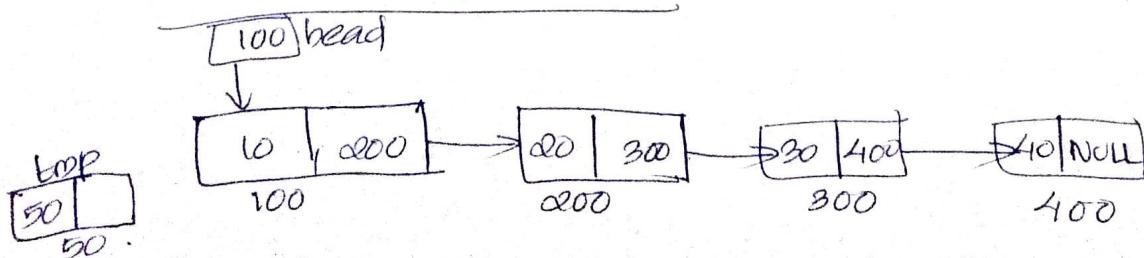
Step 6 : If it is colored black or null , then make suitable rotation and recolor it.

Step 7 : If it is colored red , then performs recolor (black) to root and tree becomes RB tree.

11) (a) The linked lists were introduced to overcome the drawbacks of arrays.

Singly linked list

Insertion at beginning

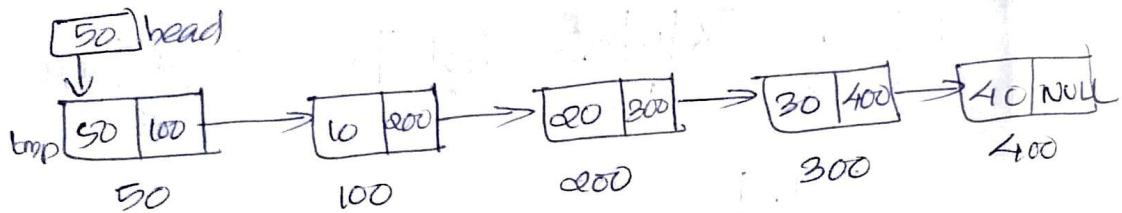


Here tmp is the pointer that points to the next node to be inserted. To insert the new node at the beginning, do the following steps

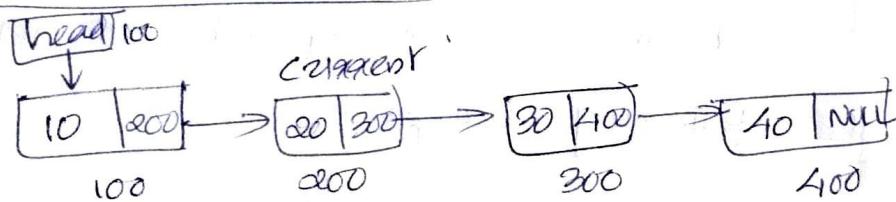
$\text{tmp} \rightarrow \text{data} = x;$

$\text{tmp} \rightarrow \text{lLink} = \text{head};$

~~$\text{tmp} \rightarrow \text{rLink} = \text{tmp};$~~



Insertion at middle

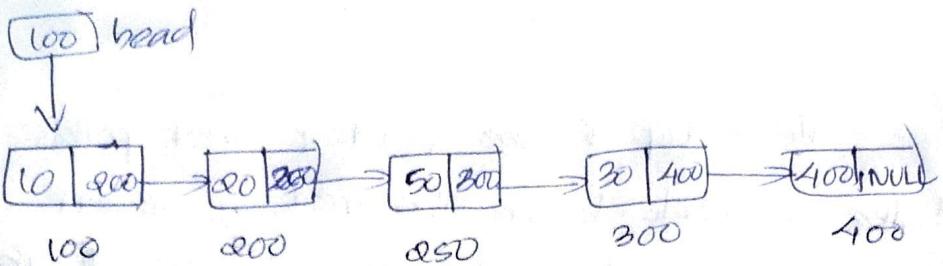


tmp is node to be inserted at middle. First we have to traverse to obtain the node after which the new node is to be inserted. Then make the following changes.

$\text{tmp} \rightarrow \text{data} = x;$

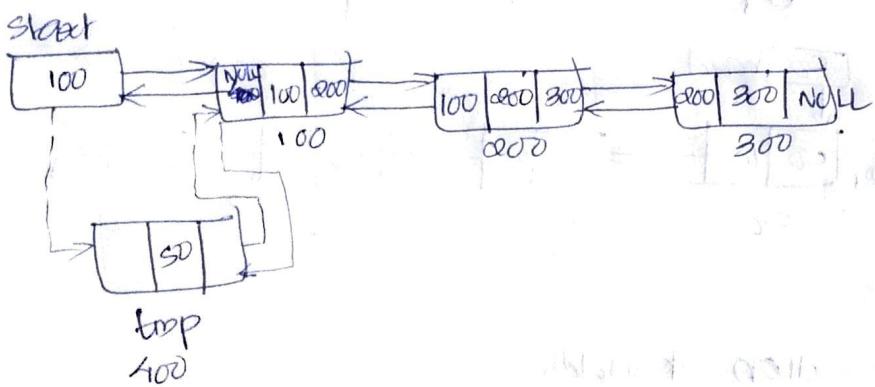
$\text{tmp} \rightarrow \text{lLink} = \text{current} \rightarrow \text{rLink};$

$\text{current} \rightarrow \text{lLink} = \text{tmp};$



Doubly Linked List

Insertion at beginning



To insert the new node `tmp` into the linked list
make the following changes:

`tmp->prev = NULL;`

`tmp->prev = NULL;`

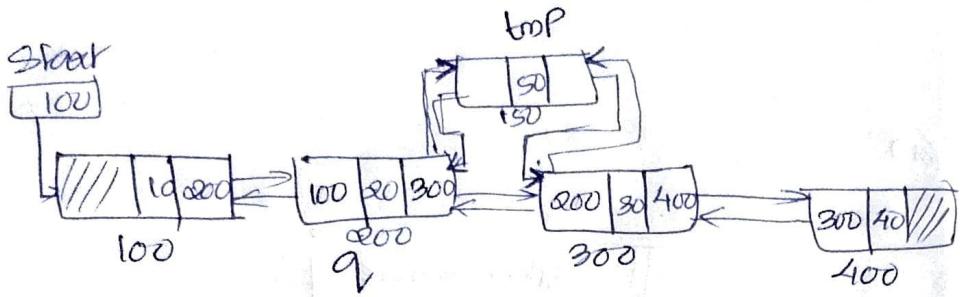
`tmp->next = start;`

`start->next = tmp;`

`start = tmp`

`start` points to the 1st node of the
linked list

Insertion at middle



To insert tmp into the linkedlist, make the following changes.

$\text{tmp} = 1^{\text{st}}$ we have to traverse to reach the node after which tmp is to be inserted. Traversal starts from $\text{start} \rightarrow \text{next}$, which points to the 1st node.

~~$\text{tmp} = \text{start}$~~

~~$\text{start} = \text{start} \rightarrow \text{next}$~~

~~$\text{start} \rightarrow$~~

~~$\text{tmp} = q \rightarrow \text{next};$~~

~~$q \rightarrow \text{next} = \text{tmp} \rightarrow \text{next};$~~

~~$\text{tmp} \rightarrow \text{next} \Rightarrow \text{prevNode} = q$~~

~~B~~

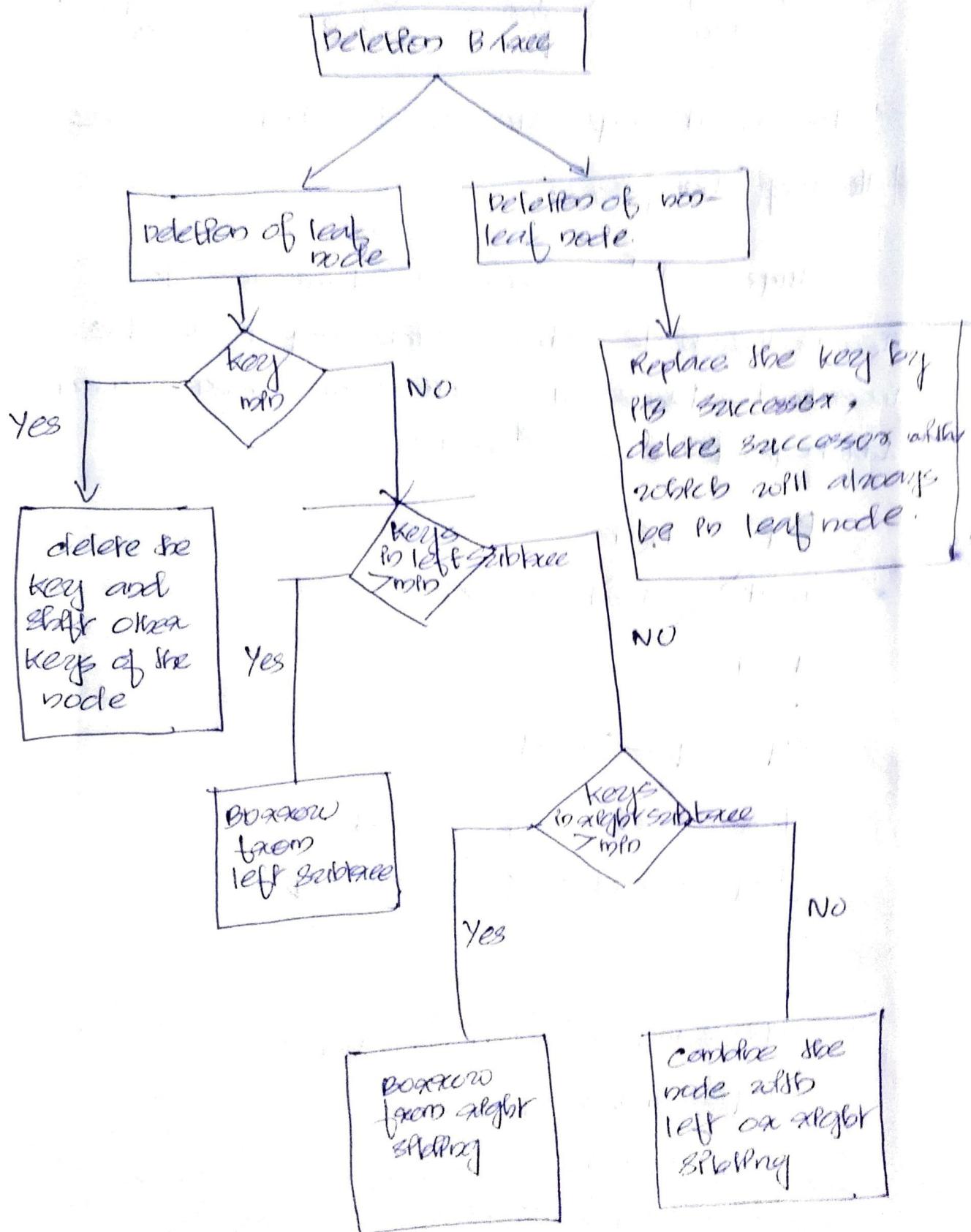
$q \rightarrow \text{block} \rightarrow \text{prevNode} = \text{tmp}$

$\text{tmp} \rightarrow \text{block} = q \rightarrow \text{block}$

$\text{tmp} \rightarrow \text{prevNode} = q$

$q \rightarrow \text{block} = \text{tmp}$

14) (a)



a) If a node is full, then the insertion of a new key will cause overflow.

Inorder to overcome this situation splitting

B. done

First find the middle / median value of the node.

Then create a new leaf node and copy both PR all the keys that appear after the median.

Move up the median at appropriate position to the parent of this node. Add an additional child pointer from the parent to the new node. Then Add the new key at the right location to the child nodes of the parent.

13)(a)

To delete a node in the RB tree, we perform normal BST deletion.

If the node to be deleted is red, just delete the node.

But if the node to be deleted is black there is an issue called double black.

(i) If root is DB, then remove root

(ii) If DB's sibling is black & both of its children are black

Process :-

1. Delete one black from DB & S (black to red)

2. Add black to the parent

(2.a) If parent is red, it becomes black

(2.b) If parent is black, it becomes DB.

(2.c) If DB's sibling is black & one of its (DB) next child is red, and the other is black

Processes

1. exchange the color of sibling & its red child, then S becomes red & its child becomes black

2. perform rotation with respect to S in opposite direction of DB.

Since

(2.d) If DB's sibling S is black and one of its child is red or both its children are red

process

1. Swap the color of parent of DB & S

2. perform rotation with respect to parent of DB in direction of DB.

3. Remove one black from DB.

4. color the red child of S as black

(2.e) If DB's sibling is red

1. Swap the color of parent of DB & sibling

2. Rotate with respect to parent in direction of DB.

3. reapply the case (2.e).

12(a)

The process of converting keys into address is known as hashing. The hash function generates address from a given key. The hash function takes a key as input and returns the hash value of that key and this hash value is used as the address for storing the key. An array in which the insertion and searching is performed through hashing is the hash table.

key → Hash function → Address

There are different methods for generating the hash value.

- Truncation method
- Folding method
- Division method
- mid-square method.

Truncation method

A part of the key is taken as the address i.e., takes the rightmost or leftmost digits from the key.

For e.g.: Keys are 1257339, 1357390, 1538950

The addresses are 39, 90 and 50. This is an easy method to compute addresses. But the addresses generated through this method is same for many different keys.

Folding method

In JDBS method, the keys are broken into parts. Then these parts are shifted and added.

Eg:- The key is 1398573591438

$$\begin{array}{r}
 13 \\
 139 \\
 857 \\
 359 \\
 1438 \\
 \hline
 1793
 \end{array}$$

Here we ignore the carry 1 and 793 is taken as the address for JDBS key.

Another type of folding is boundary folding.
Here, even parts are reversed before addition.

$$\begin{array}{r}
 13 \\
 139 \\
 768 \text{ (reversed)} \\
 359 \\
 834 \text{ (reversed)} \\
 \hline
 2090
 \end{array}$$

Ignore the carry 2 & the address is 090

Mid-square method

Here we find the square of the given key and some digits from the middle of the square is taken as the address of the key.

Eg: 1527 → key?

Square → 2331729

Address → 317

$$\begin{array}{r}
 1113 \\
 2314 \\
 1527 \\
 \hline
 111527 \\
 \hline
 10689 \\
 \begin{array}{r}
 13054 \\
 14635 \\
 1527 \\
 \hline
 2331729
 \end{array}
 \end{array}$$

Division method

Please, the given key is divided by the table size & the remainder obtained is taken as the address.

$$H(K) = K \bmod m$$

Eg:- Table size = 11

Key $\rightarrow 100$

$$\text{Address} = 100 \% 11 = 1$$

If the hash function generates same address for different keys, a situation called collision. To resolve collision, there are several collision resolution techniques.

collision resolution techniques

open addressing
[closed hashing]

separate chaining
[open hashing]

Hence, a given key is compared with many different keys & each comparison is known as a probe.

(i) open addressing

Hence, if a key causes collision, that key is placed in a location other than its hash address in the hash table.

3 methods

- Linear probing
- Quadratic probing
- Double hashing

→ Linear probing

If the address generated for a key is i^{th} and that location is not empty. Then that key is presented to the next location i.e., $(i+1)^{\text{th}}$. & if that location is also not empty, then repeat that key is $(i+2)^{\text{th}}$ location & so on.

e.g. Keys $\rightarrow 10, 16, 13, 42, 38, 28$, table size = 11.

$$h(\text{key}) = \text{key \% } 11 \quad // \text{division method}$$

$$h(10) = 10 \% 11 = 10$$

$$h(16) = 16 \% 11 = 5$$

$$h(13) = 13 \% 11 = 2$$

$$h(42) = 42 \% 11 = 9$$

$$h(38) = 38 \% 11 = 5$$

$$h(28) = 28 \% 11 = 6$$

#	
10	10
9	42
8	
7	
6	
5	16
4	
3	
2	13
1	
0	

here keys 10, 42, 16 & 13 are presented.
The next key to be presented is 38.
~~But that location except if causes~~
collision. Location 5 is not empty.
So next location is $5+1=6$. 6 is empty so 38 presented there.

10	10
9	42
8	
7	28
6	38
5	16
4	
3	
2	13
1	
0	

The next key to be inserted is 28. But the location of this key is not empty. So it is inserted in next location. i.e., $6+1=7$

→ quadratic padding

In quadratic padding, the colliding keys are placed away from the initial colliding point.

$$n(k,i) = b(k) + i^2 \bmod ksize$$

Eg:- 56, 49, 32, 40, 16, 39 \rightarrow Keys

Table size = 11

$$b(56) = 56 \% 11 = 1$$

$$b(40) = 40 \% 11 = 7$$

$$b(49) = 49 \% 11 = 5$$

$$b(16) = 16 \% 11 = 5$$

$$b(32) = 32 \% 11 = 10$$

$$b(39) = 39 \% 11 = 6$$

10	32
9	
8	
7	40
6	
5	49
4	
3	
2	
1	56
0	

Keys 32, 40, 49 & 56 are presented. Now, key 16 is to be inserted. But location 5 is not empty. So next location is $(5+1)^2 \% 11 = 6$. 6 is empty so 16 is inserted there. Next, 39 is to be inserted. But location 6 is not empty. So next location is $(6+1)^2 \% 11 = 7$. 7 is also not empty. So next location

$b(6+2^8) \% II = 10 \% II = 10$. and location 10
 is also not empty. so, next location is $(6+3^8) \% II$
 $(6+9) \% II = 15 \% II = 1$. Location 1 is empty.
 so 3a is possessed disease.

10	32
9	
8	
7	40
6	16
5	19
4	30
3	
2	
1	56
0	

→ Double hashing

In double hashing, increment factor is not constant. It is another hash function. So named double hashing.

$$h(k, p) = (b(k) + ib'(k)) \text{ mod } 1 \text{ size}$$

Eg:- 56 49 32 30 12 34

$$b(56) = 56 \% II = 1$$

$$b(49) = 49 \% II = 5$$

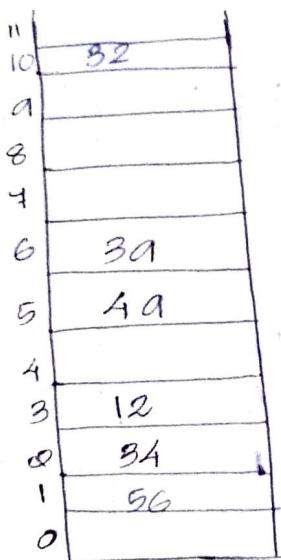
$$b(32) = 32 \% II = 10$$

$$b(30) = 30 \% II = 5$$

$$b(12) = 12 \% II = 1$$

$$b(34) = 34 \% II = 1$$

We can insert 56, 49, 32, 34 without any collision. But when we insert 12 carries collection because location 1 is not empty so next location is $1 + 4 - (12 \% 4) = 1 + 7 - 5 = 1 + 2 - \underline{3}$. Location 3 is empty so 12 is inserted there instead of 34 carries collection so next location is 3. location is also not empty. So next location is $1 + 4 - (34 \% 4) = 1 + 7 - 6 = 1 + 1 = 2 + 2$ is not empty. So next location is $1 + 7 - 34 = 34$ is inserted there.



Separate chaining

In this method, a linked list is maintained for elements with same hash address. These linked-lists are referred to as chains. Hence this method is known as separate chaining.

eg:- 1235, 2148, 3249, 1368, 2348, 1945,
4263 → keys

Table size = 5

$$h(1235) = 1235 \% 5 = 0$$

$$h(2148) = 2148 \% 5 = 3$$

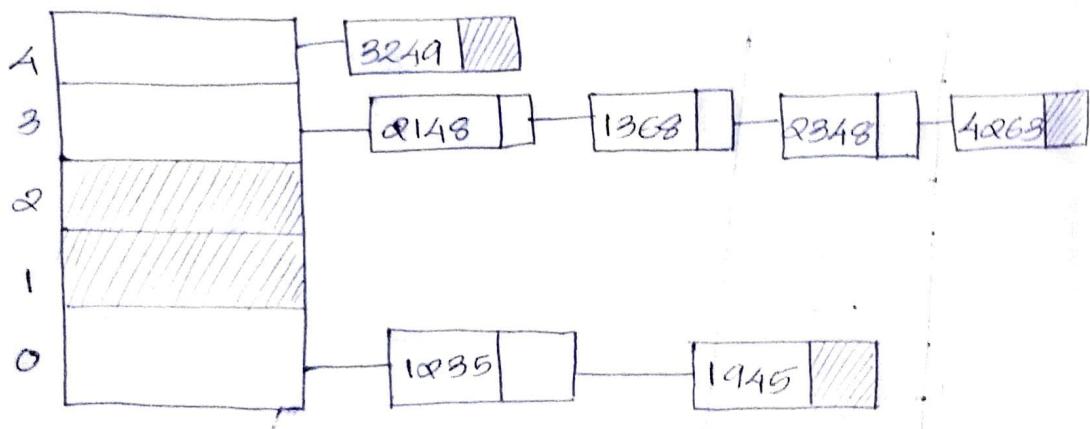
$$h(3249) = 3249 \% 5 = 4$$

$$h(1368) = 1368 \% 5 = 3$$

$$h(2348) = 2348 \% 5 = 3$$

$$h(1945) = 1945 \% 5 = 0$$

$$h(4263) = 4263 \% 5 = 3$$



In separate chaining, load factor (α) > 1

Bucket Hashing

In HBS method, the hash table is made of buckets. Each bucket holds a number of records. This method does not resolve the collision completely.

eg:- 1235, 2148, 3249, 1368, 2348, 1945, 4263

Table size = 5

$$B(1235) = 1235 \% 5 = 0$$

$$B(2148) = 2148 \% 5 = 3$$

$$B(3249) = 3249 \% 5 = 4$$

$$B(1368) = 1368 \% 5 = 3.$$

$$B(2348) = 2348 \% 5 = 3$$

$$B(1945) = 1945 \% 5 = 0$$

$$B(4263) = 4263 \% 5 = 3.$$

