

Ques 1 Discuss between BFS and DFS differences.

Breadth-First-Search (BFS) :-

→ BFS is a vertex-based technique for finding the shortest path in the graph.

→ It uses a queue data structure that follows first in first out.

Depth First Search (DFS) :-

→ DFS is an edge-based technique.

→ It uses the stack data structure & performs two stages, first visited vertices are pushed into stack, & second if there are no vertices then visited vertices are popped.

BFS	DFS
* BFS stands for Breadth First Search.	DFS stands for Depth First Search.
* BFS uses Queue data structure for finding the shortest path.	DFS uses stack data structure.
* BFS builds the tree level by level.	DFS builds the tree sub-tree by sub-tree.

* BFS is a breadth approach in which we first walk through all nodes on the same level before moving on to next level.

* It works on the concept of FIFO

* BFS is more suitable for searching vertices closer to the given source.

* We don't need to backtrack in BFS

* The amount of memory required for BFS is more

* It is slower.

* Examples of BFS are - Bipartite graph, shortest path, etc.

DFS is also a breadth approach in which the browser begins at the root node and proceeds through the nodes as far as possible until we reach the node with no unvisited nearby nodes.

It works on the concept of LIFO

DFS is more suitable when there are solution away from source.

We need to follow a backtrack in DFS.

The amount of memory required for DFS is less than BFS

It is comparatively faster than BFS

Examples of DFS are - cyclic graph, finding strongly connected components, etc.

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Q 2 Explain Backtracking & solve 4 Queen's problem and 8 Queen's problem using backtracking method.

BACKTRACKING :-

Backtracking is a problem-solving algorithm technique that involves finding a solution incrementally by trying different options and undoing them if they lead to a dead end.

→ Backtracking can be defined as a general algorithm technique that considers searching every possible combination in order to solve a computational problem.

Applications of Backtracking -

- 1) N-Queen's problem
- 2) Graph Coloring
- 3) Hamiltonian Cycle

4 Queen's problem -

Place each queen one by one in different rows, starting from the topmost row. While placing a queen in a row.

Check for clashes with already placed queens.

For any column, if there is no clash then mark this row & column as part of the solⁿ by placing the queen.

The 4 Queens problem consist in placing four queens on a 4×4 chessboard so that no two queens attack each other.

step 1:- Initialize a 4×4 board

step 2:- Put first Queen (Q_1) in (0,0) cell

→ 'x' represent the cell which is not safe.

→ After this move to the next row $[0 \rightarrow 1]$.

4×4

	0	1	2	3
0	Q_1	x	x	x
1	x	x		
2	x		x	
3	x			x

step 3:- Put next Q_2 in the (1,2) cell.

After this move to the next row $[1 \rightarrow 2]$.

	0	1	2	3
0	Q_1	x	x	x
1	x	x	Q_2	x
2	x	x	x	x
3	x		x	x

step 4:- There is still a safe cell in the row 1 i.e. cell (1,3).

→ Put Q_2 at cell (1,3)

steps:- Put Q_3 at cell (2,1).

	0	1	2	3
0	Q_1	x	x	x
1	x	x	x	Q_2
2	x		x	x
3	x	x		x

Step 6 \Rightarrow There is no any cell to place Queen Q_4 at row 2
 \rightarrow Backtrack & remove Q_3 from row 2
 \rightarrow Again there is no other safe cell in row 2, so backtrack again & remove Q_2 from row 1
 \rightarrow Q_1 will be remove from cell (0,0) & move to move to next safe cell i.e. (0,1)

Step 7 \Rightarrow Place Queen Q_1 at cell (0,1) & move to next row

	0	1	2	3
0	Q_1	x	x	x
1	x	x	x	Q_2
2	x	Q_3	x	x
3	x	x	x	x

Step 8 \Rightarrow Place Queen Q_2 at cell (1,3) and move to next row.

	0	1	2	3
0	x	Q_1	x	x
1		x	x	
2		x		x
3		x		

Step 9 \Rightarrow Place Q_3 at cell (2,0), and move to next row.

	0	1	2	3
0	x	Q_1	x	x
1	x	x	x	Q_2
2		x	x	x
3		x		x

Step 10 \Rightarrow Place Q_4 at cell (3,2) & move to next row.

This is one possible configuration of solⁿ.

	0	1	2	3
0	x	Q_1	x	x
1	x	x	x	Q_2
2	Q_3	x	x	x
3	x	x	Q_4	x

8 Queen's Problem :-

The 8 queen's problem is a classic chess puzzle where you aim to place eight queens on an 8×8 chessboard in a way that no two queens threaten each other. This means no two queens share the same row, column or diagonal.

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
0	X	X	X	X	X	Q ₀	X	X
1					X	X	X	
2				X		X		X
3			X			X		
4		X				X		
5	X					X		
6						X		
7						X		

Step 1 Initialize a 8×8 board

Step 2 Put first Queen (Q₀) in (0,5) cell.

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
0	X	X	X	X	X	Q ₀	X	X
1	X		X	X	Q ₂	X	X	
2			X	X	X	X		X
3		X	X	X	X	X		
4	X	X	X	X		X	X	
5				X		X		X
6				X		X		
7				X		X		

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
0	X	X	X	X	X	Q ₀	X	X
1	X	X	X	Q ₂	X	X	X	X
2			X	X	X	X	Q ₃	X
3		X	X	X		X		
4	X	X		X		X	X	
5	X			X		X		X
6				X		X		
7				X		X		

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
0	X	X	X	X	X	Q ₁	X	X
1	X		X	Q ₂	X	X	X	X
2	X							
3	Q ₄	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
4	X							
5	X							
6	X							
7	X							

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Que 3. Explain Branch and bound technique for solving Travelling Salesman problem.

The branch & bound technique is a method used to solve combinatorial optimization problems like the Travelling Salesman Problem (TSP).

Here's how it works.

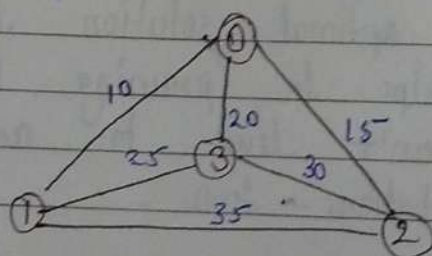
- 1) Branching :- The problem space is divided into smaller subproblem, creating a tree-like structure. Each node represent a partial solⁿ.
- 2) Bounding :- At each node, a lower bound on the optimal solution is computed. This bound helps in pruning branches of the tree that can't lead to an optimal solⁿ, saving computation time.
- 3) Searching :- The algorithm explores promising nodes with promising lower bounds. It may use various strategies to decide which nodes to explore first, such as depth-first or best-first search.
- 4) Backtracking :- If a node cannot lead to a better solution than the current best solution found so far, it is discarded. The algo backtracks to the previous node & explore other branches.

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(5) Termination:- The process continues until all branches have been explored or until a predefined termination condition is met, such as reaching a certain depth in the tree or exhaustively searching a certain number of nodes.

Travelling Salesman Problem using Branch And Bound

Given a set of cities and distance between every pair of cities, the problem is to find the shortest possible tour that visits every city exactly once & returns to the starting point.



Example:-

The graph shown in fig. on right side.
A TSP tour in the graph is 0-1-3-2-0.

The cost of the tour is $10 + 25 + 30 + 15$
which is 80.

Q4. What is graph coloring problem? Explain in detail with the help of an example.

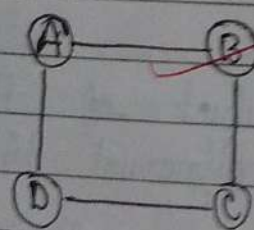
Ans GRAPH COLORING :-

→ Let G be a graph and m be a given positive integer.

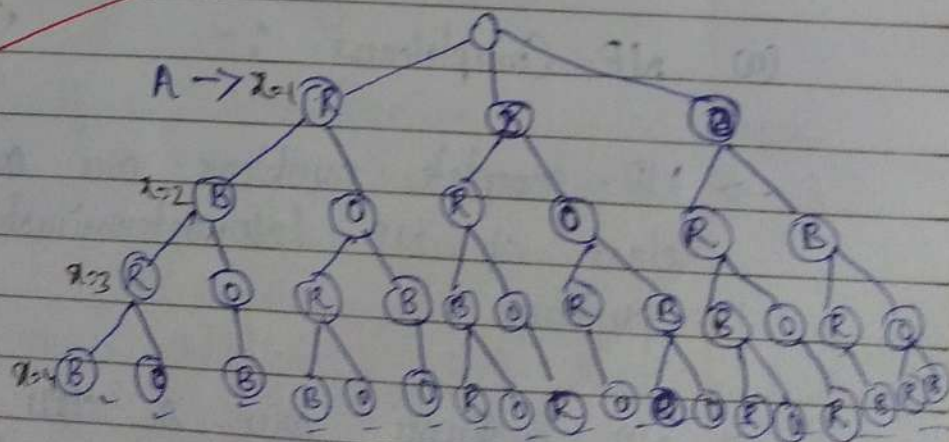
→ We want to discover whether the nodes of G can be colored in such a way that no two neighbouring vertices are of same color, yet only m colors are used. This is termed as m -colorability decision problem.

→ The m -colorability optimization problem asks for the smallest integer m for which the graph G can be colored.

Chromatic Number :- The minimum no. of colors needed to color a graph is called its chromatic number.



R, B, O



State Space Tree

→ Function $mColoring$ is begun by first assigning the graph to its adjacency matrix, setting the array $x[i]$ to zero, & then invoking the statement $mColoring[1]$;

Analysis :-

An upper bound on the computing time of $mColoring$ can be arrived at by noticing that the no. of internal nodes in the state space tree is $\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} m^i$.

At each internal node, $O(mn)$ time is spent by $NextValue$ to determine the children corresponding to legal colourings.

Hence the total time is bounded by

$$\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} m^{i+1}n = \sum_{i=1}^n m^i n = n(m^{n+1} - 2) / (m - 1) = O(nm^n).$$

Ques. Write a short note on :-

(a) NP-Completeness :-

→ NP-complete problems are a subset of the larger class of NP [Nondeterministic polynomial time] problem.

→ NP problems are a class of computational problems that can be solved in polynomial time by a non-deterministic machine & can be verified in

polynomial time by a deterministic Machine.

→ A problem L in NP is NP-complete if all other problems in NP can be reduced to L in polynomial time.

→ A decision problem L is NP-complete if it follows the below two properties :-

- L is in NP (Any solⁿ to NP-complete problems can be checked quickly but no efficient solⁿ is known)
- Every problem in NP is reducible to L in polynomial time (Reduction is defined below)

(b) Hamiltonian Cycle :-

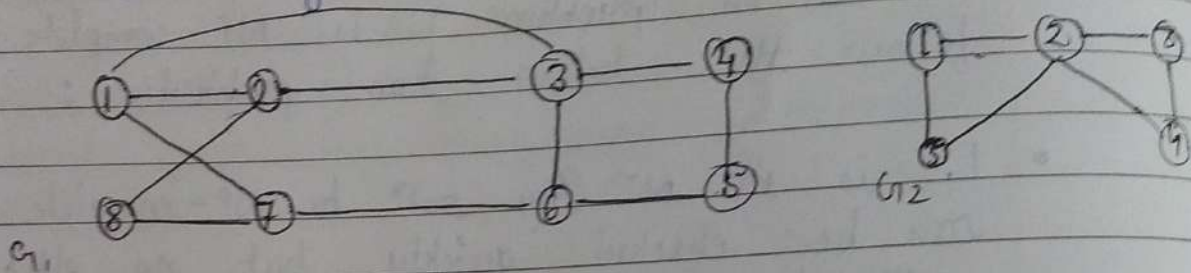
Let $G = (V, E)$ be a connected graph with n vertices. A Hamiltonian cycle is a round-trip along n edges of G that visits every vertex once & returns to its starting position.

In other words, if a Hamiltonian cycle begins at some vertex $v_1 \in G$ & the vertices of G are visited in the order v_1, v_2, \dots, v_{n+1} , then the edge (v_i, v_{i+1}) are in E , $1 \leq i \leq n$, and the v_i are distinct except for $v_1 \neq v_{n+1}$, which are equal.

The graph G_1 of fig contains the Hamiltonian cycle 1, 2, 8, 7, 6, 5, 4, 3, 1.

The graph G_2 contains no Hamiltonian cycle.

There is no known easy way to determine whether a given graph contains a Hamiltonian cycle.



→ The backtracking solⁿ vector (x_1, \dots, x_n) is defined x_i i^{th} visited vertex of proposed cycle.

→ By using backtracking we need to determine how to compute the set of possible vertices for x_k if $x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots, x_{k-1}$ have already been chosen.

→ If $k=1$ then x_1 can be any of the n vertices.

By using "NextValue" algorithm the recursive backtracking scheme to find all Hamiltonian cycles.

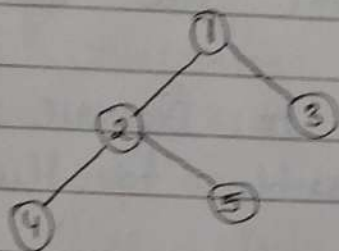
→ The time complexity is given by

$$T(N) = N * (T(N-1) + O(1))$$

$$T(N) = N * (N-1) * (N-2) \dots = O(N!)$$

(c) Tree Traversal Technique :-

Tree traversal is a form of graph traversal & refers to the process of visiting each node in a tree data structure, exactly once. Such traversals are classified by the order in which the nodes are visited.



Depth First Traversal :-

(a) Inorder (Left, Root, Right) : 4 2 5 1 3

(b) Preorder (Root, Left, Right) : 1 2 4 5 3

(c) Postorder (Left, Right, Root) : 4 5 2 3 1

Breadth First Traversal :- 1 2 3 4 5

DFS :- The aim of DFS also is to traverse the graph in such a way that it tries to go far from the root node.

→ Stack is used in the implementation of the depth first search.

- step 1:- Push the root node in the stack.
- step 2:- Loop until stack is empty.
- step 3:- Peek the node of the stack.
- step 4:- If the node has unvisited child node, get the unvisited child node, mark it as traversed and push it on stack.
- steps:- If the node does not have any unvisited child nodes, the node from the stack.

BFS :- This aims to traverse the graph as close as possible to the root node.

→ Queue is used in the implementation of BFS

- step 1:- Push the root node in the Queue.
- 2:- Loop until the queue is empty.
- 3:- Remove the node from the Queue.
- 4:- If the removed node has unvisited child nodes, mark them as visited & insert the unvisited children in the queue.

(d) B-Tree :-

- B-tree is a self-balancing search tree.
- The main idea of using B-Trees is to reduce the no. of disk access.
- Most of the tree operation (search, insert, delete, max, min... etc) require $O(h)$ disk accesses where h is height of the tree.
- Height of B-Trees is kept low by putting max. possible keys in a B-Tree node.

Properties of B-Tree

- (1) All leaves are at same level.
- (2) A B-Tree is defined by the term minimum degree t .
- (3) Every node except root must contain at least $t-1$ keys. Root may contain min 1 key.
- (4) All nodes may contain at most $2t-1$ keys.
- (5) No. of children of a node is equal to the no. of keys in it plus 1.
- (6) All keys of a node are sorted in increasing order. The child b/w two keys k_1 & k_2 contains all keys in range from k_1 & k_2 .
- (7) B-tree grows & shrinks from root which is unlike Binary Search tree.
- (8) Time complexity to search, insert and delete is $O(\log n)$.

(c) Height Balanced Tree :-

AVL tree is a self-balancing Binary Search Tree (BST) where the difference b/w height of left & right subtrees cannot be more than one for all nodes.

→ The height of an AVL tree is always $O(\log n)$.

→ Most of the BST operation take $O(h)$ time where h is height of the BST.

→ An AVL tree is a balanced binary search tree.

→ In an AVL tree, balance factor of every node is either -1, 0 or +1.

Balance factor = height of Left subtree - Height of Right subtree

AVL Tree Rotation :- Rotation is the process of moving the nodes to either left or right to make tree balanced.

There are four rotation & they are classified into 2 types

① Single Rotation

- Left rotation
- Right rotation

② Double Rotation

- Left-Right rotation
- Right-Left rotation

Ques 6 What are 2-3 trees used for? Why are 2-3 trees better than BST? Limitation.

→ A 2-3 tree is a specific form of a B-tree

→ A 2-3 tree is a search tree.

Properties :-

- Each node has either one value or two values
- A node with one value is either a leaf node or has exactly two children.

- a node with two values is either a leaf node or has exactly three children.

Insertion algorithm :-

Into a two - three tree is quite different from the insertion algorithm into a binary search tree.

- If the tree is empty, create a node & put value into the node.
- Otherwise find the leaf node where the value belong.
- If the leaf node has only one value, put the new value into the node.
- If the leaf node has more than two values, split the node & promote the median of the three values to parent.
- If the parent then has three values, continue to split & promote, forming a new root node if necessary.

Delete Operation :-

Deleting key k is similar to inserting, there is a special case when T is just a single node containing k , otherwise the parent of the node to be deleted is found, then the tree is fixed up if necessary so that it is still a 2-3 tree.

Complexity Analysis :-

- Keys are stored only at leaves, ordered left-to-right.
- non-leaf nodes have 2 or 3 children.
- non-leaf nodes also have leftMax & MiddleMax values.
- All leaves are at the same depth.
- the height of the tree is $O(\log N)$.
- at least half the nodes are leaves, so the height of the tree is also $O(\log M)$ for $M = \#$ values stored in tree.
- the lookup, insert & delete methods can all be implemented to run in time $O(\log N)$.

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