



## **MallaReddyEngineeringCollege**

An UGC Autonomous Institution, Approved by AICTE, New Delhi & Affiliated to JNTUH, Hyderabad, Accredited by NAAC with 'A++' Grade (3<sup>rd</sup> Cycle),  
Maisammaguda  
(H), Medchal-Malkajiri, Secunderabad Telangana-500100 [www.mrec.ac.in](http://www.mrec.ac.in)



## **Department of Information Technology**

### **II B.TECH I SEM (A.Y.2024-25)**

## **Lecture Notes**

**On**

## **C0510-Data Structures**

<b>2022-23 Onwards (MR22)</b>	<b>MALLAREDDY ENGINEERING COLLEGE (Autonomous)</b>	<b>B.Tech. III Semester</b>		
<b>Code: C0510</b>	<b>Data Structures</b>	<b>L</b>	<b>T</b>	<b>P</b>
<b>Credits:3</b>		<b>3</b>	<b>-</b>	<b>-</b>

**Prerequisites:** A course on “Programming for Problem Solving”

**Course Objectives:**

- Exploring basic data structures such as linked list, stacks and queues.
- Introduces a variety of data structures such as dictionaries and hash tables.
- To learn non-linear data structures i.e. Binary search trees and height balanced trees.
- To understand the graph traversal algorithms and heap sort.
- Introduce the pattern matching and tries algorithms.

**Module-I:**

[10 Periods]

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.

**Module-II:**

[09 Periods]

**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.

**Module-III:**

[10 Periods]

**Search Trees:** Binary Search Trees, Definition, Implementation, Operations - Searching, Insertion and Deletion, AVL Trees, Definition, Height of an AVL Tree, Operations - Insertion, Deletion and Searching, Definition and example of Red-Black, Splay Trees.

**Module-IV:**

[10 Periods]

**Graphs:** Graph Implementation Methods. Graph Traversal Methods.

**Sorting:** Max Heap, Min Heap, Heap Sort. External Sorting: Model for external sorting, Merge sort.

**Module-V:**

[09 Periods]

**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. Jean Paul Tremblay, Paul G Sorenson, “An Introduction to Data Structures with Applications”, Tata McGraw Hills, 2<sup>nd</sup> Edition, 1984.
2. Richard F. Gilberg, Behrouz A. Forouzan, “Data Structures: A Pseudocode approach with C”, Thomson (India), 2<sup>nd</sup> Edition, 2004.

**References:**

1. Horowitz, Ellis, Sahni, Sartaj, Anderson-Freed, Susan, “Fundamentals of Data Structure in C”, University Press (India), 2<sup>nd</sup> Edition, 2008.
2. A.K. Sharma, “Data structures using C”, Pearson, 2<sup>nd</sup> Edition, June, 2013.
3. R. Thareja, “Data Structures using C”, Oxford University Press, 2<sup>nd</sup> Edition, 2014.

**E-Resources:**

1. <http://gvpcse.azurewebsites.net/pdf/data.pdf>
2. <http://www.sncwgs.ac.in/wp-content/uploads/2015/11/Fundamental-Data-Structures.pdf>
3. <http://www.learnerstv.com/Free-Computer-Science-Video-lectures-ltv247-Page1.htm>
4. <http://ndl.iitkgp.ac.in/document/yVCWqd6u7wgye1qwH9xY7-3lcmoMApVUMmjIExpIb1zste4YXX1pSpX8a2mLgDzZ-E41CJ6PVmY4S0MqVbxsFQ>
5. <http://nptel.ac.in/courses/106102064/1>

**Course Outcomes:**

At the end of the course, students will be able to

COs	Course Outcome	Bloom's Taxonomy Level
CO1	Implement the linear data structures such as linked list, stacks and queues	Understand
CO2	Understand the Dictionaries and Hash table representation	Understand
CO3	Analyze the various non-linear data structures with its operations	Analyze
CO4	Develop the programs by using Graph Traversal and heap sort	Understand
CO5	Apply data structure concepts for the implementation of pattern matching and tries	Apply

CO-PO, PSO Mapping (3/2/1 indicates strength of correlation) 3-Strong, 2-Medium, 1-Weak															
COs	Programme Outcomes (POs)												PSOs		
	PO1	PO2	PO3	PO4	PO5	PO6	PO7	PO8	PO9	PO10	PO11	PO12	PSO1	PSO2	PSO3
O1	2	3	2										2	3	
CO2	2	2	3										3	2	
CO3		2	2											2	1
CO4		2	3										2	3	
CO5	2	3	3										2	3	

# MODULE-1 DATA STRUCTURES

## MODULE-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.

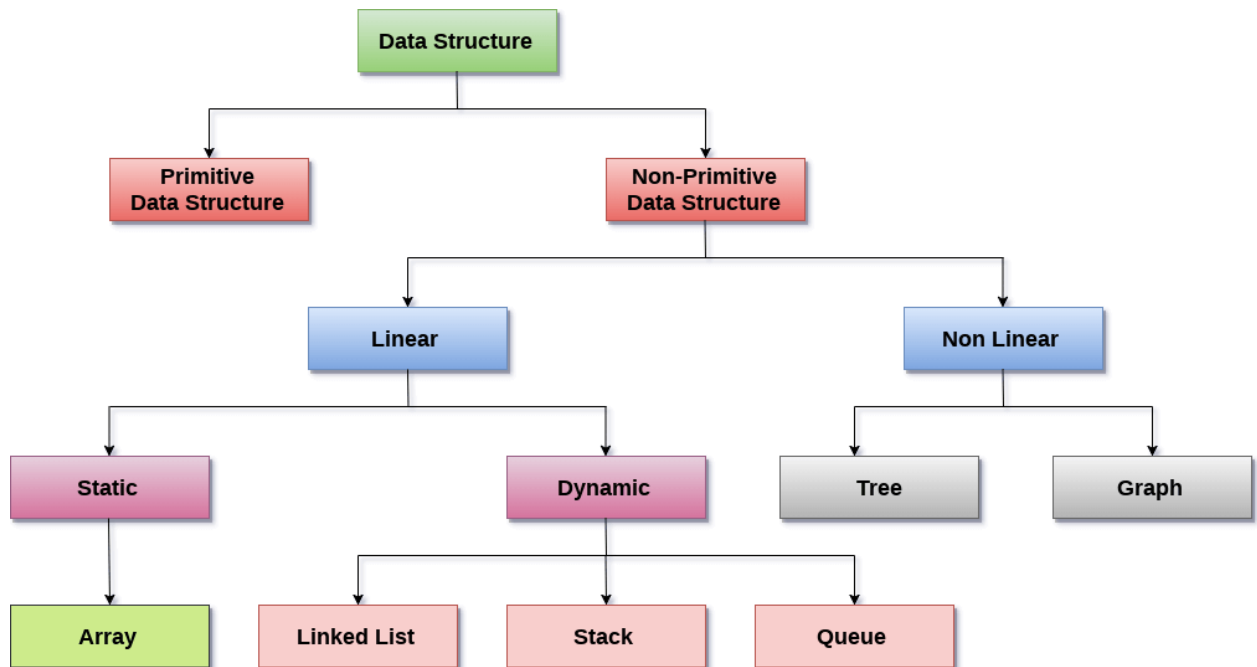
### Introduction:

.Data structure is a collection of organized data in the memory locations. Data structure can be classified as

.Linear Data structure: one element is connected to another element in linear form .

.In the linear data structure values are arranged in a linear fashion. An array, linked list, stacks and queues are Examples of linear data structure.

### Types of Data Structures:



There are two types of data structure available for the programming purpose:

- **Primitive data structure**
- **Non-primitive data structure**

## Primitive data structure

Primitive data structure is a data structure that can hold a single value in a specific location whereas the non-linear data structure can hold multiple values either in a contiguous location or random locations

The examples of primitive data structure are float, character, integer and pointer. The value to the primitive data structure is provided by the programmer. The following are the four primitive data structures:

- **Integer:** The integer data type contains the numeric values. It contains the whole numbers that can be either negative or positive. When the range of integer data type is not large enough then in that case, we can use long.
- **Float:** The float is a data type that can hold decimal values. When the precision of decimal value increases then the Double data type is used.
- **Boolean:** It is a data type that can hold either a True or a False value. It is mainly used for checking the condition.
- **Character:** It is a data type that can hold a single character value both uppercase and lowercase such as 'A' or 'a'.

## Non-primitive data structure

The non-primitive data structure is a kind of data structure that can hold multiple values either in a contiguous or random location. The non-primitive data types are defined by the programmer. The non-primitive data structure is further classified into two categories, i.e., linear and non-linear data structure.

### Linear Data Structures:

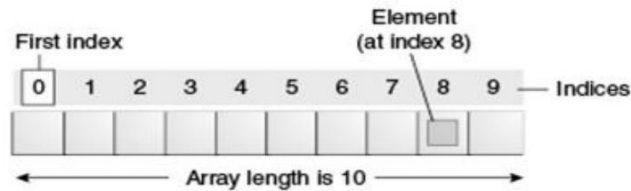
A data structure is called linear if all of its elements are arranged in the linear order. In linear data structures, the elements are stored in non-hierarchical way where each element has the successors and predecessors except the first and last element.

### Types of Linear Data Structures are given below:

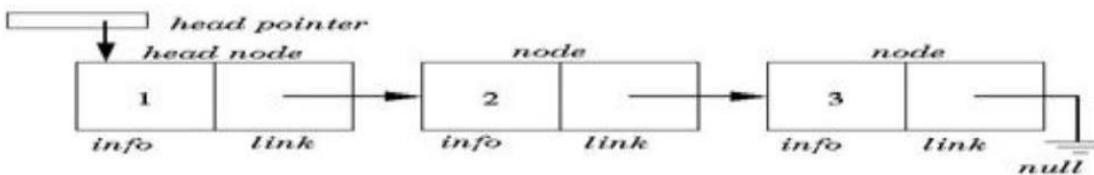
**Arrays:** An array is a collection of similar type of data items and each data item is called an element of the array. The data type of the element may be any valid data type like char, int,

float or double.

- The elements of an array share the same variable name but each one carries a different index number known as subscript. The array can be one dimensional, two dimensional or multidimensional.
- The individual elements of the array are:
- `age[0]`, `age[1]`, `age[2]`, `age[3]`, `age[98]`, `age[99]`.

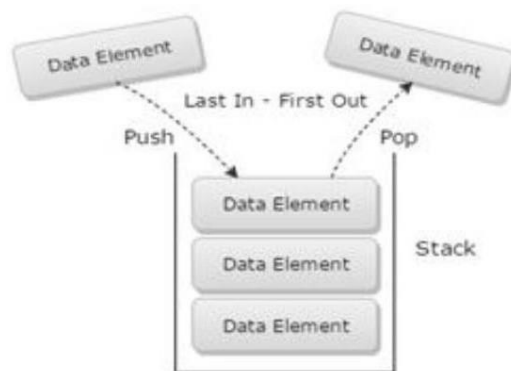


**Linked List:** Linked list is a linear data structure which is used to maintain a list in the memory. It can be seen as the collection of nodes stored at non-contiguous memory locations. Each node of the list contains a pointer to its adjacent node.



**Stack:** Stack is a linear list in which insertion and deletions are allowed only at one end, called **top**.

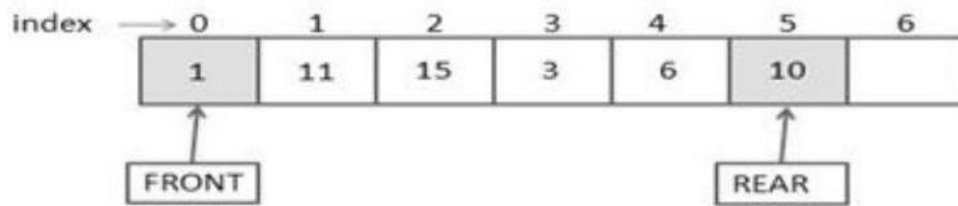
- A stack is an abstract data type (ADT), can be implemented in most of the programming languages. It is named as stack because it behaves like a real-world stack, for example: - piles of plates or deck of cards etc.



**Queue:** Queue is a linear list in which elements can be inserted only at one end called **rear** and deleted only at the other end called **front**.

- It is an abstract data structure, similar to stack. Queue is opened at both ends therefore it

follows First-In-First-Out (FIFO) methodology for storing the data items.

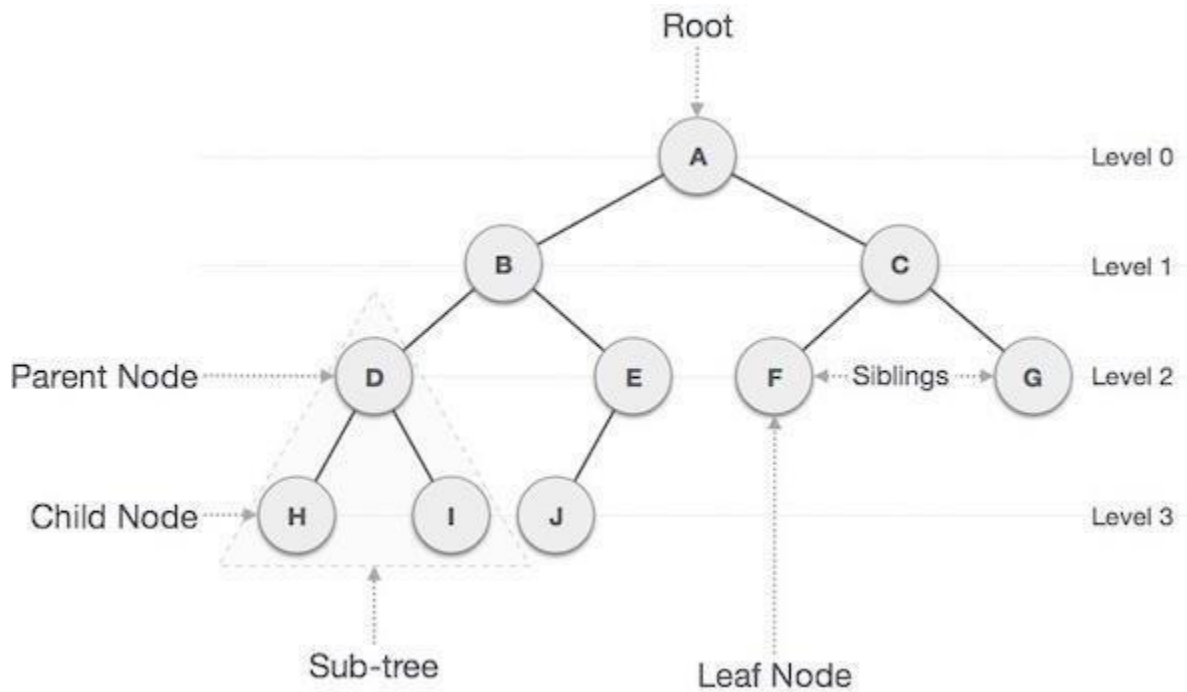


**Non Linear Data Structures:** A non-linear data structure is another important type in which data elements are not arranged sequentially. mainly data elements arranged in random order.

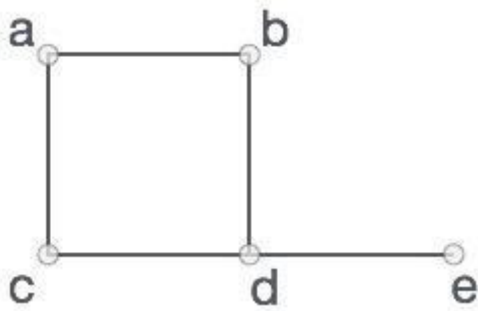
.non-linear data structures one element is connected multiple elements. Types

of Non Linear Data Structures are given below:

**Trees:** A tree is a non-linear abstract data type with a hierarchy-based structure. It consists of nodes that are connected via links. The tree data structure stems from a single node called a root node and has subtrees connected to the root.



**Graphs:** A graph is a non-linear kind of data structure made up of nodes or vertices and edges. The edges connect any two nodes in the graph, and the nodes are also known as vertices.



In the above graph,  $V$

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

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

.if there is no edge between two nodes the presence value 0

.if there is an edge between two nodes the presence value 1

### **.Abstract Data Types:**

An ADT is a theoretical construct that consists of data as well as the operations to be performed on data to implement it.

. data

.operations—insertion, deletion and list

. implementation

. Errors

ADT examples are sack, queues and linked list

.Abstract data types can be classified as

1. **List ADT:** Lists are linear data structures stored in a non-continuous manner. The list is made up of a series of connected nodes that are randomly stored in the memory.

.Here each node consists of two parts: the first part is the data and the second part contains the pointer to the address of the next node.

The List ADT Functions are given below:

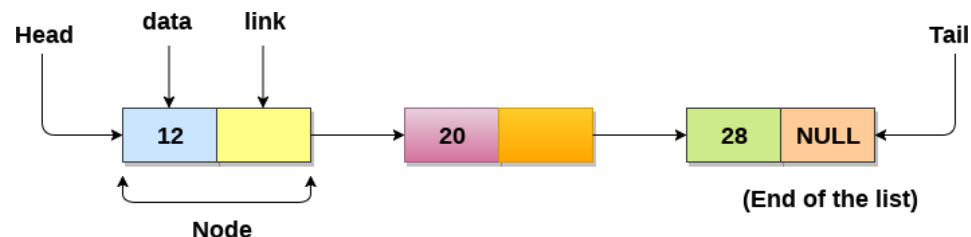
- `get()`—Return an element from the list at any given position.
- `insert()`—Insert an element at any position of the list.
- `remove()`—Remove the first occurrence of any element from a non-empty list.
- `removeAt()`—Remove the element at a specified location from a non-empty list.
- `replace()`—Replace an element at any position by another element.
- `size()`—Return the number of elements in the list.



- isEmpty()–Return true if the list is empty, otherwise return false.
  - isFull()–Return true if the list is full, otherwise return false.
2. Stack ADT: A stack is an ordered list and whose elements are inserted and deleted at only one end called TOP of the stack.
- .stack is a LIFO Technique
- .The stack ADT operations as follows
- push()–Insert an element at one end of the stack called top.
  - pop()–Remove and return the element at the top of the stack, if it is not empty.
  - peek() – Return the element at the top of the stack without removing it, if the stack is not empty.
  - size()–Return the number of elements in the stack.
  - isEmpty()–Return true if the stack is empty, otherwise return false.
  - isFull()–Return true if the stack is full, otherwise return false.
3. Queue ADT: A queue is an ordered list in which insertion is done at one end called REAR and deletion at another end called FRONT.
- . The first inserted element is available first for the operations to be performed and is the first one to be deleted.
- .Hence it is known as first in first out (FIFO) The queue ADT operations as follows
- enqueue()–Insert an element at the end of the queue.
  - dequeue()–Remove and return the first element of the queue, if the queue is not empty.
  - peek()–Return the element of the queue without removing it, if the queue is not empty.
  - size()–Return the number of elements in the queue.
  - isEmpty()–Return true if the queue is empty, otherwise return false.
  - isFull()–Return true if the queue is full, otherwise return false.

**Linked List:** An element in a linked list is a specially termed node. A node consists of two fields data and link (address).

.A linked list is an ordered collection of finite, homogeneous data elements called nodes. where the linear order is maintained by means of links or pointers.



. **singlelinkedlist**: in a single linked list each node contains only one link which points to the subsequent node in the list.

. one way chain or singly linked list can be traversed only one direction.

### Uses of LinkedList

- The list is not required to be contiguous present in the memory.
- list size is limited to the memory size and doesn't need to be declared in advance.
- Empty node cannot be present in the linked list.
- We can store values of primitive types or objects in the singly linked list.



### Node Creation:

```
struct node
{
    int data;
    struct node *next;
};
```

**Advantages:** They are dynamic in nature which allocates the memory when required.  
. insertion and deletion can be easily implemented.  
. stacks and queues can be easily executed.  
. it reduces the access time.

**Disadvantages:** The memory is wasted as pointers require extra memory for storage.  
. Each node has to be accessed sequentially.  
. Reverse traversal is difficult.

**Applications of linked list :** Linked lists are used to implement stack, queue, graph etc.  
. linked list let you insert element at the beginning and end of the list.  
. in linked list we do not need to know the size in advance.

### Singly Linked List operations:

There are various operations which can be performed on singly linked list. A list of all such operations is given below.

## Insertion

The insertion into a singly linked list can be performed at different positions. Based on the position of the new node being inserted, the insertion is categorized into the following categories

1. insertion at beginning
2. insertion at end of the list
3. insertion after specified node

**.insertion at beginning of the List:** To insert a new element at beginning position and ptr node connected to next node and last node it indicates NULL.

Algorithm:

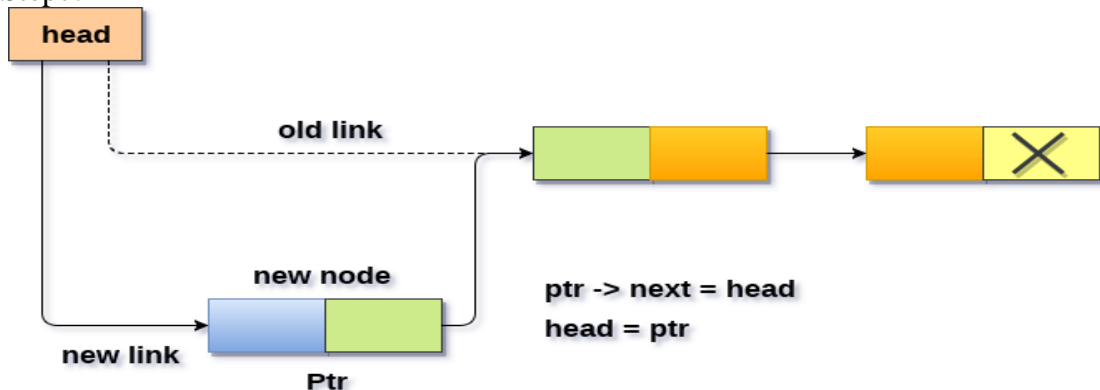
- Step1: IF PTR = NULL

Write OVERFLOW

Goto Step7 [END

OF IF]

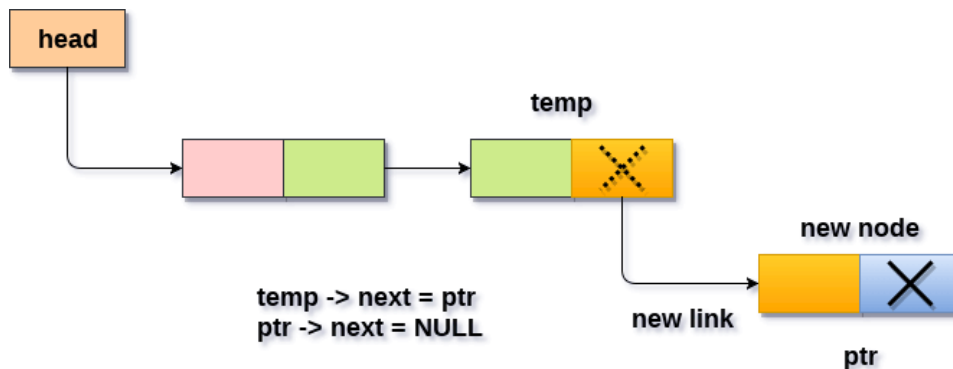
- Step2: SET NEW\_NODE = PTR
- Step3: SET PTR = PTR → NEXT
- Step4: SET NEW\_NODE → DATA = VAL
- Step5: SET NEW\_NODE → NEXT = HEAD
- Step6: SET HEAD = NEW\_NODE
- Step7: EXIT



**InsertingAtEndoftheList:** To insert element in last node of the list the head previous last nodes link field which was NULL.

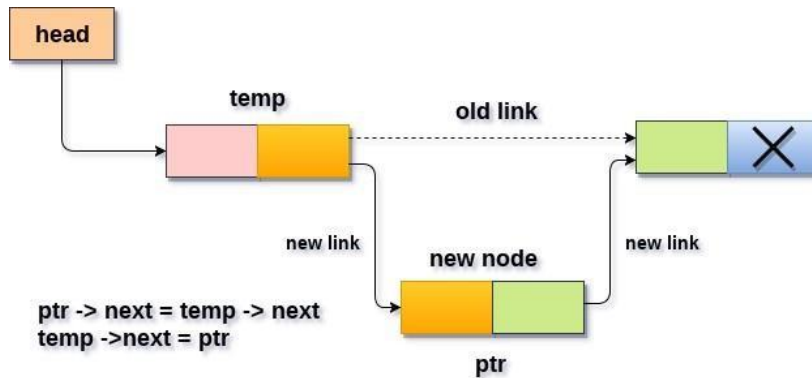
**Algorithm:**

- **Step1:**IF PTR=NULL  
 Write OVERFLOW  
 Wgoto Step10
- **Step2:**SET NEW\_NODE=PTR
- **Step 3:**SET PTR=PTR->NEXT
- **Step4:**SET NEW\_NODE->DATA=VAL
- **Step5:**SET NEW\_NODE->NEXT=NULL
- **Step6:**SET PTR=HEAD
- **Step 7:**Repeat Step 8 while PTR->NEXT !=NULL
- **Step8:**SET PTR=PTR->NEXT [END OF LOOP]
- **Step 9:**SET PTR->NEXT=NEW\_NODE
- **Step10:**EXIT



**Inserting node at the last into a non-empty list**

**InsertingAfterspecifiednode:** In order to insert an element after the specified number of nodes in to the linked list we need to skip the desired number of elements in the list to move the pointer at the position after which the node will be inserted .



### Algorithm:

- **STEP1:** IF PTR=NULL  
WRITEOVERFLO  
WGOTOSTEP12  
END OF IF
- **STEP2:** SETNEW\_NODE=PTR
- **STEP3:** NEW\_NODE → DATA=VAL
- **STEP4:** SETTEMP= HEAD
- **STEP5:** SETI=0
- **STEP6:** REPEAT STEP5AND6UNTIL I
- **STEP7:** TEMP=TEMP → NEXT
- **STEP8:** IFTEMP=NULL  
  
WRITE"DESIREDNODENOT  
PRESENT"GOTO STEP 12  
END OF IF  
ENDOF  
LOOP
- **STEP9:** PTR → NEXT=TEMP → NEXT
- **STEP10:** TEMP → NEXT=PTR
- **STEP11:** SETPTR=NEW\_NODE
- **STEP12:** EXIT

Deletion: The deletion operation is used to delete a node from the list and it can be performed at three different locations

- . deletion of the first node

- .deletion of the last node
- .deletion at the specified position

**.Deletion of the first node:** Deleting a node from the beginning of the list is the simplest operation of all. since the first node of the list is to be deleted therefore we just need to make the head ,point to the next of the head. Now free the pointer ptr which was pointing to the head node of the list.

Algorithm:

**Step1:** IF HEAD=NULL

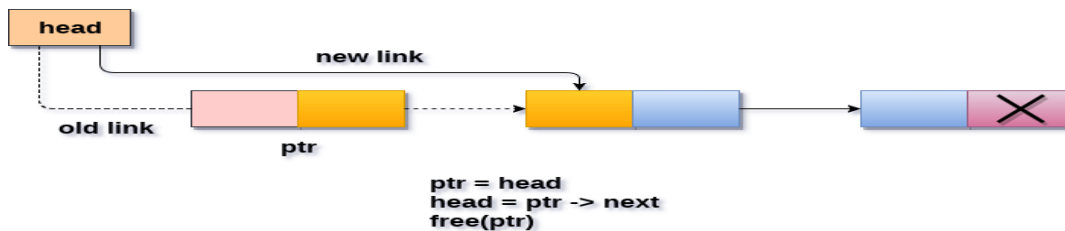
Write UNDERFLOW Goto Step  
[END OF IF]

**Step2:** SET PTR=HEAD

**Step3:** SET HEAD=HEAD->NEXT

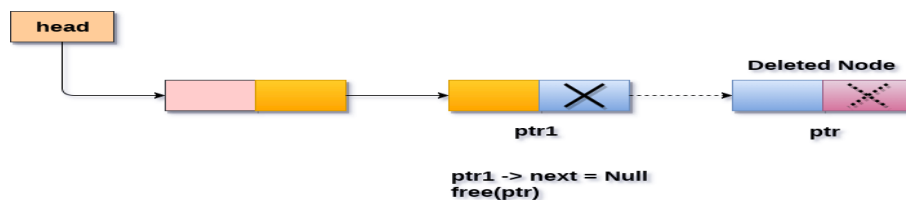
**Step4:** FREE PTR

**Step5:** EXIT



### Deleting a node from the beginning

2. Deletion of the Last node: There are two scenarios in which a node is deleted from the end of the linked list
  - .There is only one node in the list and that needs to be deleted.
  - .There are more than one node in the list and the last node of the list will be deleted.



### Deleting a node from the last

Algorithm:

- **Step1:** IF HEAD=NULL

```

WriteUNDERFLOW
  GotoStep8
[ENDOFIF]

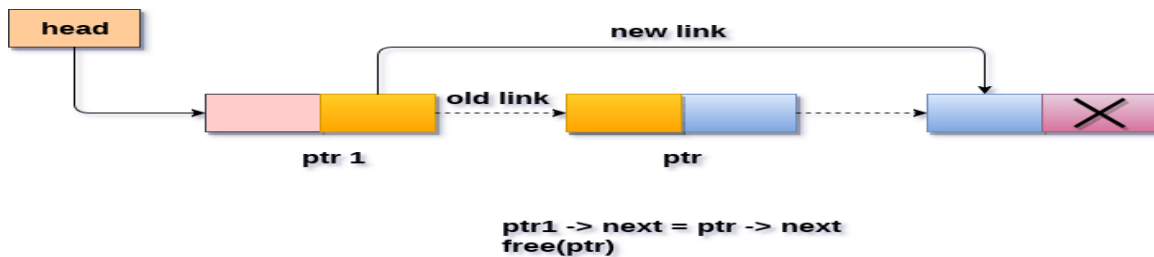
```

- **Step2:** SETPTR=HEAD
- **Step3:** RepeatSteps4and5whilePTR->NEXT!=NULL
- **Step4:** SETPREPTR=PTR
- **Step5:** SETPTR=PTR->

>NEXT[END OF LOOP]

- **Step6:** SETPREPTR->NEXT=NULL
- **Step7:** FREEPTR
- **Step8:** EXIT

**3. Deletion at the specified position:** To delete a node from the singly linked list before the specified position in a singly linked list.



**Deletion a node from specified position**

Algorithm:

**STEP1:** IF HEAD=NULL WRITE

```

UNDERFLOW
  GOTOSTEP10
END OF IF

```

**STEP2:** SETTEMP=HEAD

**STEP3:** SETI=0

**STEP4:** REPEATSTEP5TO8UNTILI<loc<li=""></loc<>

**STEP5:** TEMP1=TEMP

**STEP6:** TEMP=TEMP->NEXT

**STEP7:** IFTEMP=NULL

```

WRITE"DESIREDNODENOTPRESENT"
GOTOSTEP11
ENDOFIF

```

**STEP8:**

```
I=I+1ENDOFLO
```

```
OP
```

**STEP9:**TEMP1→NEXT=TEMP→NEXT

**STEP10:**FREETEMP

**STEP11:Exit**

**Searching in singly linked list :** Searching is performed in order to find the location of a particular element in the list .searching any element in the list needs traversing through the list and make the comparison of every element of the list with the specified element.

. if the element is matched with any of the list element then the location of the element is returned from the function.

Algorithm:

- **Step1:**SETPTR =HEAD
- **Step2:**Set I=0
- **STEP3:**IFPTR= NULL

```

WRITE"EMPTYLIST"
GOTOSTEP8
ENDOFIF

```

- **STEP4:**REPEATSTEP5TO7UNTIL PTR!= NULL
- **STEP5:**if ptr→ data = item

```

Writei+1
EndofIF

```

- **STEP 6:**I=I+1
- **STEP7:**PTR=PTR→NEXT

```
[END OF LOOP]
```

- **STEP8:**EXIT

**Traversing in singly linked list :** Traversing is the most common operation that is performed in almost every scenario of singly linked list .Traversing means visiting each node of the list once in order to perform some operation on that .



Algorithm:

**STEP1:** SET PTR = HEAD

**STEP2:** IF PTR = NULL

WRITE "EMPTY LIST"

GOTO STEP 6

**STEP3:** REPEAT STEP 5 AND 6 UNTIL PTR != NULL

**STEP 4:** PRINT PTR →

DATA **STEP5:** PTR = PTR →

NEXT **STEP6:** EXIT

**Write a program to singly linked list implementation and operations**

**a) creation   b) insertion   c) deletion   d) Traversal**

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

```

#include<stdlib.h>

structnode{
int data;
structnode*next;
}*head=NULL;

intcount()
{
structnode*temp; int
i=1;
temp=head;
while(temp->next!=NULL)
{
temp=temp->next; i++;
}
return(i);
}

structnode*create(intvalue)
{
structnode*temp;
temp=(structnode*)malloc(sizeof(structnode));
temp->data=value;
temp->next=NULL;
}

```

```

{
structnode*newnode;
newnode=create(value);
if(head==NULL)
{
head=newnode;
}
else
{
newnode->next=head; head=newnode;
}
}

voidinsert_end(intvalue)
{
structnode*newnode,*temp;
newnode=create(value);
if(head==NULL)
{
head=newnode;
}
else
{
temp=head;
while(temp->next!=NULL)
{
temp=temp->next;
}
temp->next=newnode;
}
}

voidinsert_pos(intvalue, intpos)
{
structnode*newnode,*temp1,*temp2; int
i, c=1;
newnode=create(value);
i=count();
if(pos==1)
insert_begin(value);
elseif(pos>i+1)
{
printf("insertion is not posible"); return;
}
else
{
temp1=head;
while(c<=pos-1&&temp1!=NULL)

```

```
{
    temp2=temp1;
    temp1=temp1->next;
    c++;
}
newnode->next=temp2->next;
temp2->next=newnode;
```

```

}
}

void delete_begin()
{
structnode*temp;
if(head==NULL)
{
printf("deletion is not possible");
}
else
{
temp=head;
head=head->next;
free(temp);
}
}

void delete_end()
{
structnode*temp1,*temp2;
if(head==NULL)
{
printf("deletion is not possible");
}
else
{
temp1=head;
while(temp1->next!=NULL)
{
temp2=temp1;
temp1=temp1->next;
}
temp2->next=NULL;
free(temp1);
}
}

void delete_pos(int pos)
{
structnode*temp1,*temp2;
int i,c=1;
i=count();
if(pos==1)
delete_begin();
elseif(pos>i)
{
printf("Deletion is not possible"); return;
}
else
{

```

```
temp1=head;
while (c<=pos&&temp1->next!=NULL)
{
    temp2=temp1;
    temp1=temp1->next;
    c++;
}
```

```

        temp2->next=temp1->next;
    free(temp1);
}
}
void display()
{
    structnode*temp;
    if(head==NULL)
    {
        printf("list is empty");
    }
    else
    {
        temp=head;
        while(temp->next!=NULL)
        {
            printf("%d->", temp->data);
            temp=temp->next;
        }
        printf("%d", temp->data);
    }
}

void main()
{
    int ch, pos, value; do
    {
        printf("\n1. InsertBegin\n2. InsertEnd\n3. InsertPosition\n4. DeleteBegin\n5. DeleteEnd\n6
        . Delete Position\n7. Display\n8. Exit\n");
        printf("enter your choice:");
        scanf("%d", &ch);
        switch(ch)
        {
            case1:printf("enter the value:");
            scanf("%d", &value);
            insert_begin(value);
            break;
            case2:printf("enter value:");
            scanf("%d", &value);
            insert_end(value);
            break;
            case3:printf("enter value:");
            scanf("%d", &value);
            printf("enter position you want to insert: ");
            scanf("%d", &pos);
            insert_pos(value, pos);
            break;
            case4:delete_begin();
            break;

```

```
case5:delete_end();  
break;  
case6:printf("enter position you want to delete: ");  
scanf("%d", &pos);  
delete_pos(pos);  
break;  
case7:display();
```



```

break;
case 8: break;
default: printf("Your choice is wrong!..");
}
} while (ch != 8);
}

```

### Difference between Array and Linked List

S.No.	ARRAY	LINKED LIST
1.	An array is a grouping of data elements of equivalent data type.	A linked list is a group of entities called a node. The node includes two segments: data and address.
2.	It stores the data elements in a contiguous memory zone.	It stores elements randomly, or we can say anywhere in the memory zone.
3.	In the case of an array, memory size is fixed, and it is not possible to change it during the run time.	In the linked list, the placement of elements is allocated during the run time.
4.	The elements are not dependent on each other.	The data elements are dependent on each other.
5.	The memory is assigned at compile time.	The memory is assigned at run time.
6.	It is easier and faster to access the element in an array.	In a linked list, the process of accessing elements takes more time.
7.	In the case of an array, memory utilization is ineffective.	In the case of the linked list, memory utilization is effective.
8.	When it comes to executing any operation like insertion, deletion, array takes more time.	When it comes to executing any operation like insertion, deletion, the linked list takes less time.

**DOUBLY LINKED LIST:** A doubly linked list is a more complex data structure than a singly linked list. The main advantage of a doubly linked list is that it allows for efficient traversal of the list in both directions. This is because each node in the list contains a pointer to the previous node and a pointer to the next node.

. This allows for quick and easy insertion and deletion of nodes from the list as well as efficient traversal of the list in both directions,

. A doubly linked list is a data structure that consists of a set of nodes each of which contains a value and two pointers. One pointing to the previous node in the list and one pointing to the next node in the list.

Representation of doubly linked list in data structure: In a data structure a doubly linked list is represented using nodes that have three fields

1. Data
2. A pointer to the next node (next)
3. A pointer to the previous node (prev)



In C, the structure of a doubly linked list can be given as, struct  
node  
{  
struct node  
\*prev; int data;  
struct node \*next;  
};

**Doubly linked list operations:**

1. insertion
2. deletion
3. searching
4. Traversing

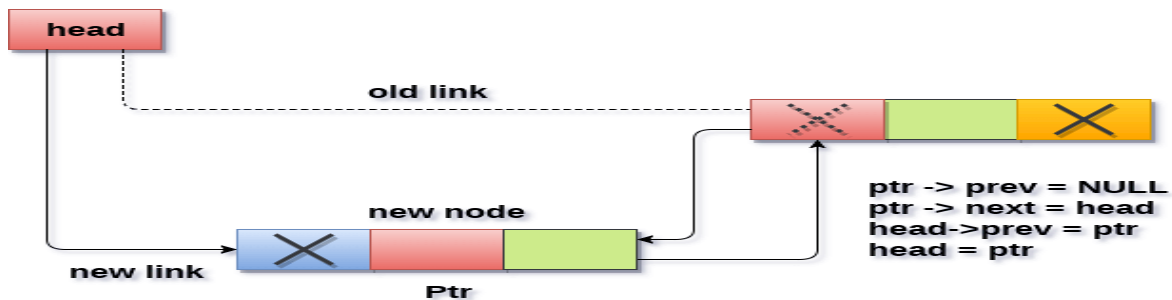
**Example:**



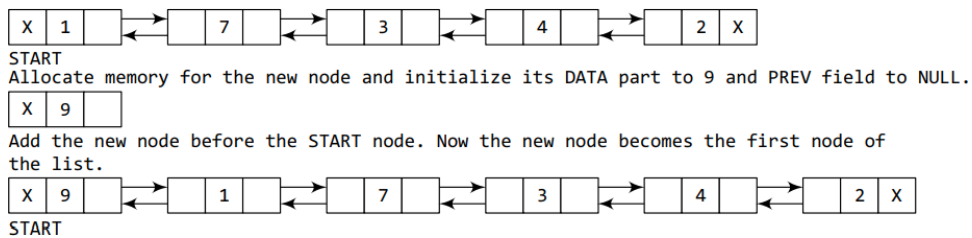
**Insertion:** To insert a new element in the list this operation can be performed in three ways

1. insertion at beginning of the list
2. insertion at end of the list
3. insertion after specified node

1. insertion at beginning of the list : The element is inserted at beginning the new node connected to next node. In doubly linked list first node and last node it indicates NULL value.



**Insertion into doubly linked list at beginning**



**Algorithm:**

**Step 1:** If ptr = NULL

```

WriteOVERFLOW
GotoStep9
[ENDOFIF]

```

**Step2:**SETNEW\_NODE=ptr

**Step3:**SET ptr=ptr->NEXT

**Step4:**SETNEW\_NODE->DATA=VAL

**Step5:**SETNEW\_NODE-

>PREV=NULL**Step6:**SETNEW\_NODE-

>NEXT=START**Step7:**SEThead-

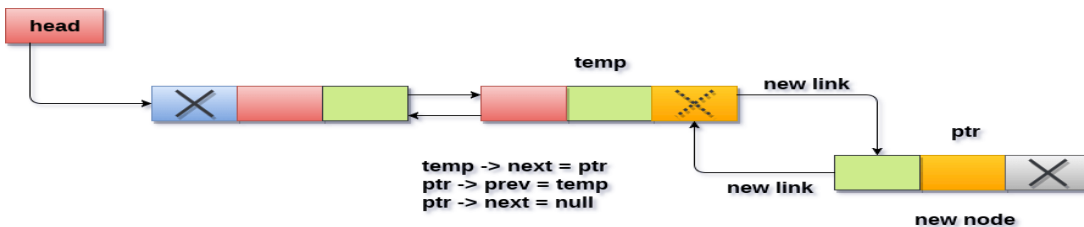
>PREV=NEW\_NODE

**Step8:**SEThead=NEW\_NODE

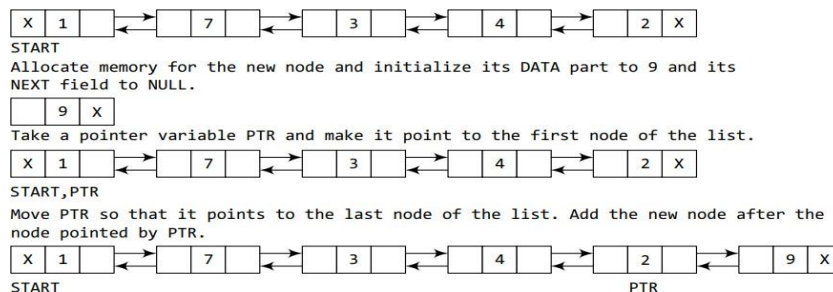
**Step9:**EXIT

2. insertion at end of the List :The element is inserted at end thenew node inserted into the list.

.Allocate the memory for the new node make the pointer ptr point to the newnode being inserted .



### Insertion into doubly linked list at the end



**Algorithm :**

**Step1:**IFPTR=NULL

WriteOVERFLOW  
GotoStep11  
[END OF IF]

**Step2:**SETNEW\_NODE=PTR

**Step3:**SETPTR=PTR->NEXT

**Step4:**SET NEW\_NODE-

>DATA=VAL**Step5:**SET NEW\_NODE ->

NEXT = NULL**Step6:**SETTEMP=START

**Step7:**RepeatStep8whileTEMP->NEXT!=NULL

**Step8:**SETTEMP=TEMP->NEXT[END

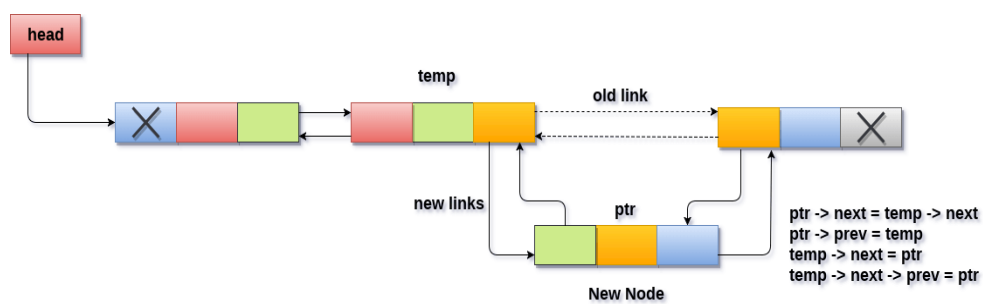
OF LOOP]

**Step9:**SETTEMP->NEXT=NEW\_NODE

**Step10C:**SETNEW\_NODE-

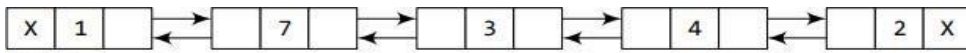
>PREV=TEMP**Step11:**EXIT

3. insertion after specified node: To insert a node after the specified position in the list.



Insertion into doubly linked list after specified node

Algorithm:



START

Allocate memory for the new node and initialize its DATA part to 9.



Take a pointer variable PTR and make it point to the first node of the list.



START, PTR

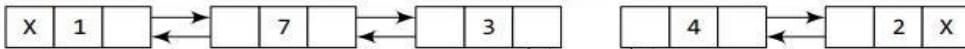
Move PTR further until the data part of PTR = value after which the node has to be inserted.



START

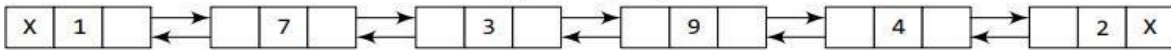
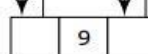
PTR

Insert the new node between PTR and the node succeeding it.



START

PTR



START

Step 1: IF PTR = NULL

Write OVERFLOWG  
otoStep15  
[ENDOFIF]

Step 2: SET NEW\_NODE = PTR

Step 3: SET PTR = PTR -> NEXT

Step 4: SET NEW\_NODE -> DATA = VAL

Step 5: SET TEMP = START

Step 6: SET I = 0

Step 7: REPEAT 8 to 10 until

Step 8: SET TEMP = TEMP -> NEXT

STEP 9: IF TEMP = NULL

STEP 10: WRITE "LESSTHANDESIREDDNO.OFELEMENTS"

GOTO STEP 15  
ENDOFIF][END  
OFLOOP]

Step 11: SET NEW\_NODE -> NEXT = TEMP -> NEXT

Step 12: SET NEW\_NODE -> PREV = TEMP

Step 13: SET TEMP -> NEXT = NEW\_NODE

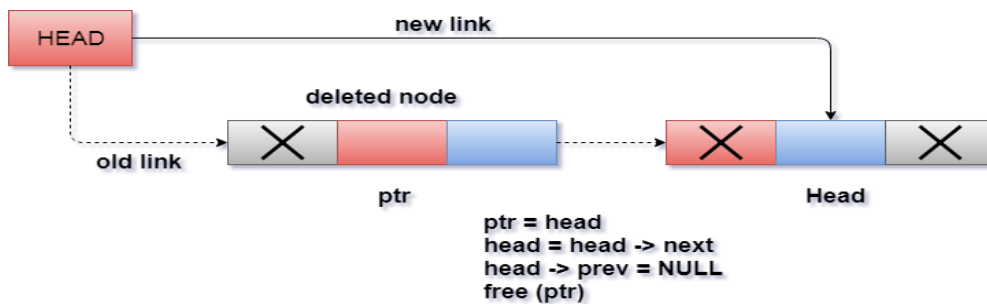
Step14:SETTEMP ->NEXT ->PREV=NEW\_NODE

Step15:EXIT

2. Deletion:Delete a node from the list the deletion of a node in a doubly linked list can be divided into three categories

1. Deletion at beginning of the list
2. Deletion at end of the list
3. deletion at a specified node

1. Deletion at beginning of the list : Deletion in doubly linked list at the beginning is the simplest operation to delete a node at first node and head pointing to next node of the list now free the pointer ptr by using free function.



### Deletion in doubly linked list from beginning

Algorithm:

STEP1:IF HEAD=NULL

WRITE UNDERFLOW  
GOTO STEP 6

STEP2:SET PTR=HEAD

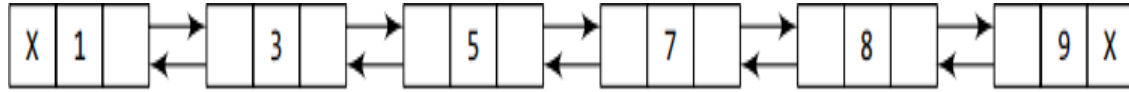
STEP3:SET HEAD=HEAD->NEXT

STEP 4:SET HEAD->PREV =NULL

STEP 5: FREE PTR

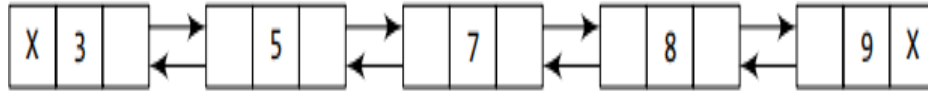
STEP6:EXIT





START

Free the memory occupied by the first node of the list and make the second node of the list as the START node.



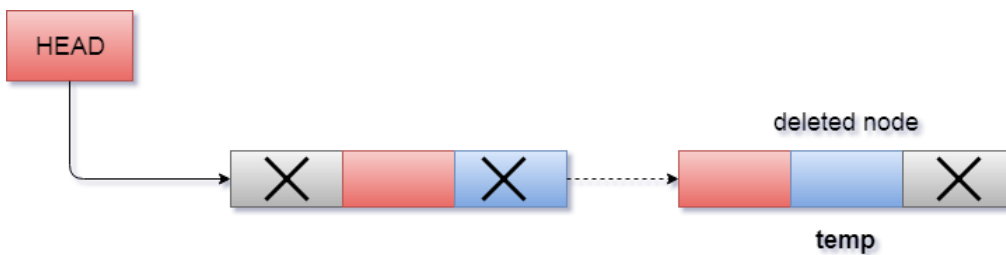
START

2. deletion at end of the list: Deletion of the last node in a doubly linked list needs traversing the list in order to reach the last node of the list and then make pointer.

1. if the list is already empty then the condition  $head == NULL$  will become true and therefore the operation cannot be carried on.

2. if there is only one node in the list then the condition  $head->next == NULL$  become true.

3. otherwise just traverse the list to reach the last of the list.



$temp->prev->next = NULL$   
 $free(temp)$

### Deletion in doubly linked list at the end

Algorithm:

**Step1:** IF HEAD = NULL

Write UNDERFLOW  
 Goto Step7  
 [END OF IF]

7

**Step2:** SET TEMP=HEAD

**Step3:** REPEAT STEP4 WHILE TEMP->NEXT != NULL

**Step4:** SET TEMP=TEMP->NEXT

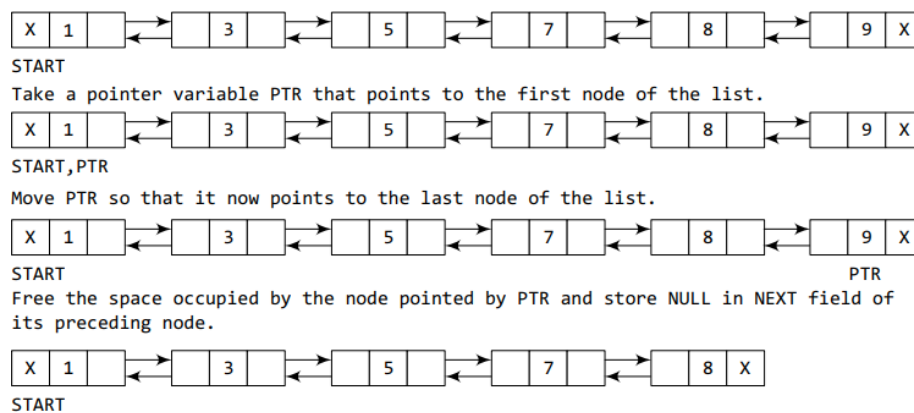
[END OF LOOP]

**Step5:** SET TEMP->PREV->NEXT=NULL

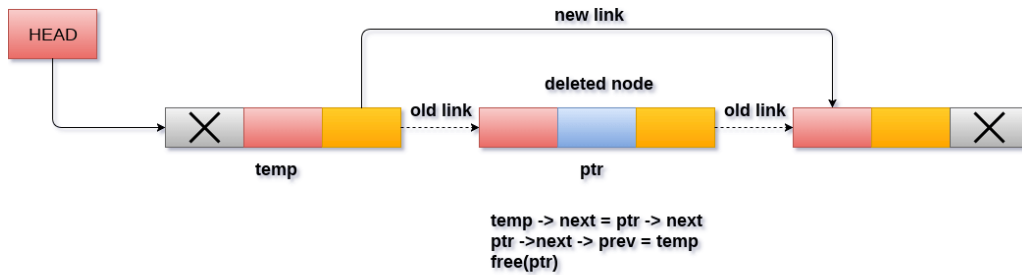
**Step6:** FREE TEMP

**Step7:** EXIT

### Deleting the Last Node from a Doubly Linked List:



3. Deletion at a specified node : in order to delete the node after the specified data we need to perform the following steps
  - .copy the head pointer into a temporary pointer temp.
  - .Traverse the list until we find the desired data value.
  - .check if this is the last node of the list.
  - .check if the node which is to be deleted is the last node of the list if it is then we have to make the next pointer of this node point to NULL so that it can be the new last node of the list.



**Deletion of a specified node in doubly linked list**

**Algorithm:**

**Step1:** IF HEAD = NULL

Write DERFLOW  
Goto Step9  
[END OF IF]

**Step2:** SET TEMP = HEAD

**3:** Repeat Step 4 while TEMP -> DATA != ITEM

**Step4:** SET TEMP = TEMP -> NEXT  
[END OF LOOP]

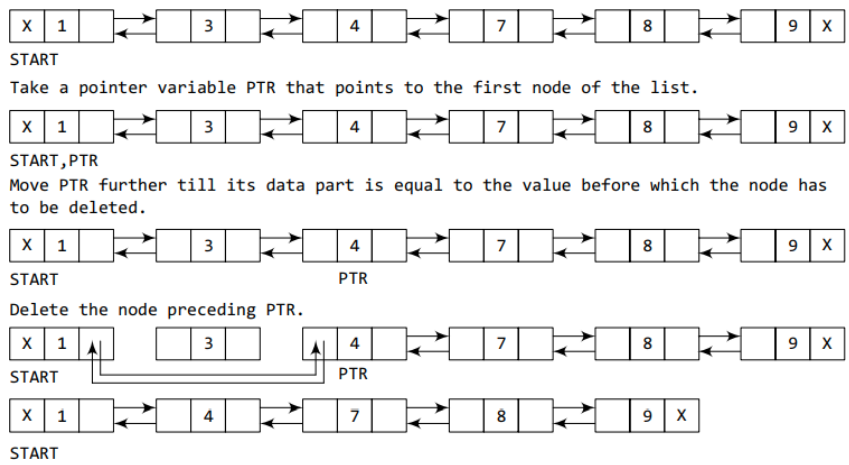
**Step5:** SET PTR = TEMP -> NEXT

**Step6:** SET TEMP -> NEXT = PTR -> NEXT

**Step7:** SET PTR -> NEXT -> PREV = TEMP

**Step 8:** FREE PTR

**Step9:** EXIT



**3. searching: we just need to traverse the list in order to search for a specific element in the list perform following operations in order to search a specific operation**

**1. copy head pointer into temporary pointer variable ptr.**

**2. declare a local variable I and assign it to 0.**

**3. Traverse the list until the pointer ptr becomes NULL keep shifting pointer to its next and increasing i by plus one.**

**4. compare each element of the list with the item which is to be searched.**

**5. if the item matched with any node value then the location of that value I will be returned from the function else NULL is returned.**

**Algorithm :**

**Step1:** IF HEAD == NULL

```
WRITE "UNDERFLOW" GOTO  
STEP8  
[END OF IF]
```

**Step 2:** Set PTR = HEAD

**Step 3:** Set i = 0

**Step4:** Repeat step 5 to 7 while PTR != NULL

**Step5:** IF PTR → data = item

```
return  
[END OF IF]
```

**Step6:** i = i + 1

**Step7:** PTR = PTR → next

**Step8:** Exit

**4. Traversing :** Although traversing means visiting each node of the list once to perform some specific operation. Here we are printing the data associated with each node of the list.

**Algorithm :**

**Step1:** IF HEAD == NULL

```
WRITE "UNDERFLOW"  
GOTO STEP6  
[END OF IF]
```

**Step2:** Set PTR = HEAD

**Step3:** Repeat step 4 and 5 while PTR != NULL

**Step4:** Write PTR → data

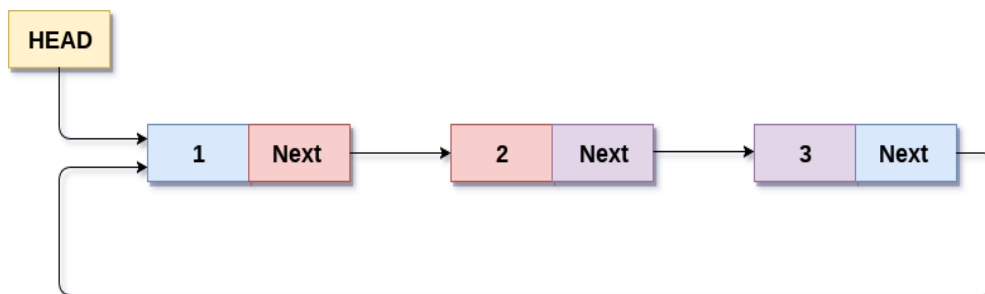
**Step5:** PTR = PTR → next

**Step6:** Exit

. **Circular linkedlist** : in a circular singly linked list the last node of the list contains a pointer to the first node of the list. we can have circular singly linked list as well as circular doubly linked list.

. we traverse a circular singly linked list until we reach the same node where we started .The circular singly linked list has no beginning and no ending there is no null value present in the next part of any of the nodes.

.circularlinkedlistaremostly usedin taskmaintenancein operating system.



**Circular Singly Linked List**

**Operations:**circularlinkedlistoperationsare

**1.insertition**

**2.deletion**

**3.Traversing**

**4.Searching**

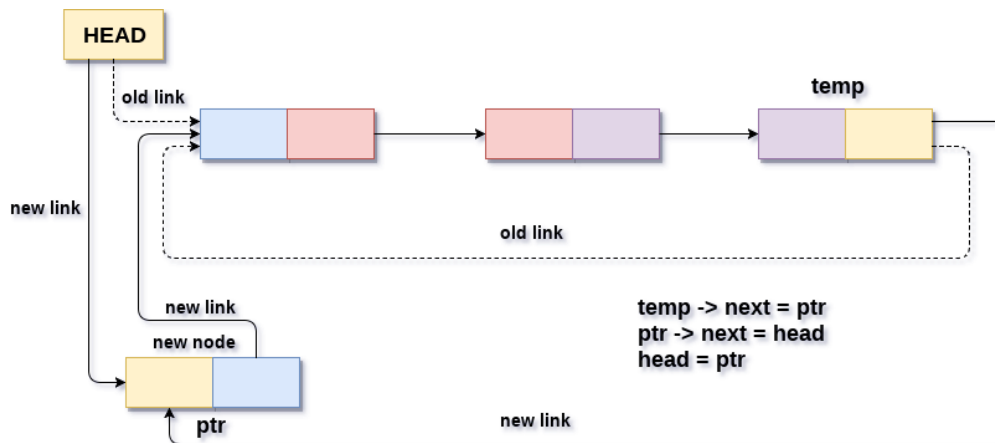
**1. insertion:**Toinsertanewnodein thelist.insertioncanbeclassified as

.insertionatbeginning:Therearetwoscenarioinwhichanodecanbeinsertedin circular singly linked list at beginning .

.Eitherthenodewillbeinsertedinanemptylistorthenodeistobeinsertedinanalready filled list.

. The condition  $head == NULL$  will be true since the list in which we are inserting the node is a circular singly linked list there fore the only node of the list.

. The condition `head==NULL` will become false which means that the list contains at least one node.



### Insertion into circular singly linked list at beginning

#### Algorithm :

Step 1: IF PTR = NULL

Write OVERFLOW  
to Step 11  
[END OF IF]

Step 2: SET NEW\_NODE = PTR

Step 3: SET PTR = PTR -> NEXT

Step 4: SET NEW\_NODE -> DATA = VAL

Step 5: SET TEMP = HEAD

Step 6: Repeat Step 8 while TEMP -> NEXT != HEAD

Step 7: SET TEMP = TEMP -> NEXT

[END OF LOOP]

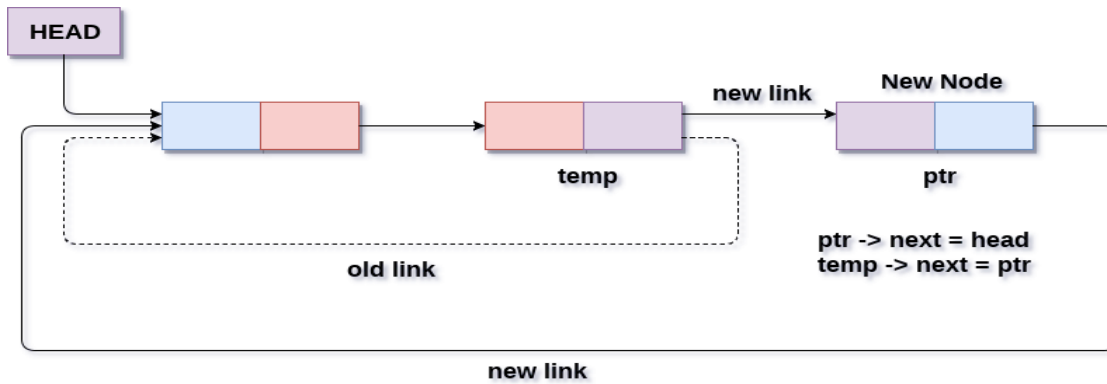
Step 8: SET NEW\_NODE -> NEXT = HEAD

Step 9: SET TEMP -> NEXT = NEW\_NODE

Step 10: SET HEAD = NEW\_NODE

Step 11: EXIT

#### 2. inserting node at end of the list: To insert a new node in end of the list



### Insertion into circular singly linked list at end

#### Algorithm :

**Step 1:** IF PTR = NULL

Write OVERFLOWG  
otoStep1

[ENDOFIF]

**Step 2:** SET NEW\_NODE = PTR

**Step 3:** SET PTR = PTR -> NEXT

**Step 4:** SET NEW\_NODE -> DATA = VAL

**Step 5:** SET NEW\_NODE -> NEXT = HEAD **Step**

**6:** SET TEMP = HEAD

**Step 7:** Repeat Step 8 while TEMP -> NEXT != HEAD

**Step 8:** SET TEMP = TEMP -> NEXT

[ENDOFLOOP]

**Step 9:** SET TEMP -> NEXT = NEW\_NODE

**Step 10:** EXIT

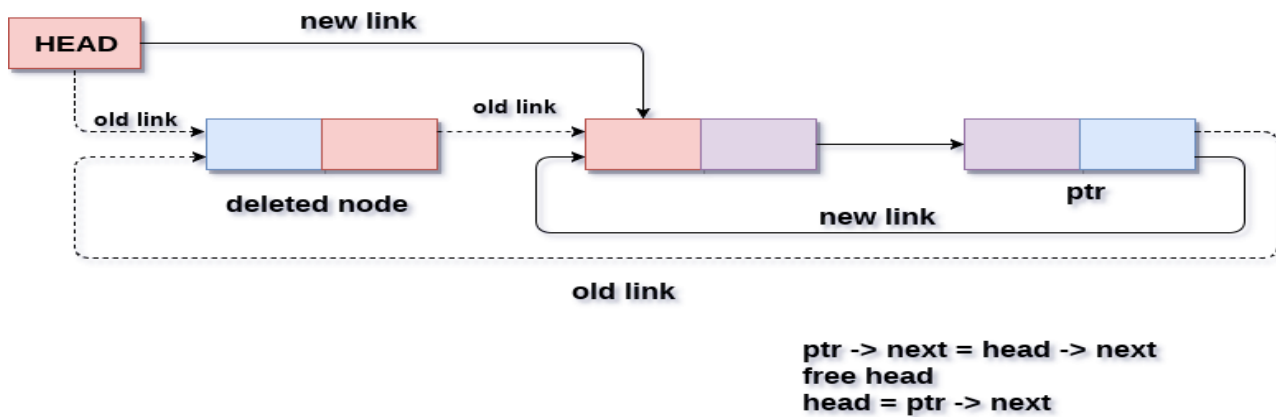
2. Deletion: To delete the element into the list it can be classified as

.Deletion at beginning: Remove the node from circular singly linked list at the beginning of the node in the list .

.There are three scenarios of deleting a node from circular singly linked list at beginning

1. The list is empty

2. The list contains a single node.
3. The list contains more than one node.



### Deletion in circular singly linked list at beginning

Algorithm:

```

Step1: IF HEAD = NULL
Write UNDERFLOW
Goto Step8
[END OF IF]

Step2: SET PTR = HEAD

Step3: Repeat Step4 while PTR -> NEXT != HEAD

Step4: SET PTR = PTR -> next
[END OF LOOP]

Step5: SET PTR -> NEXT = HEAD -> NEXT

Step6: FREE HEAD

Step7: SET HEAD = PTR -> NEXT

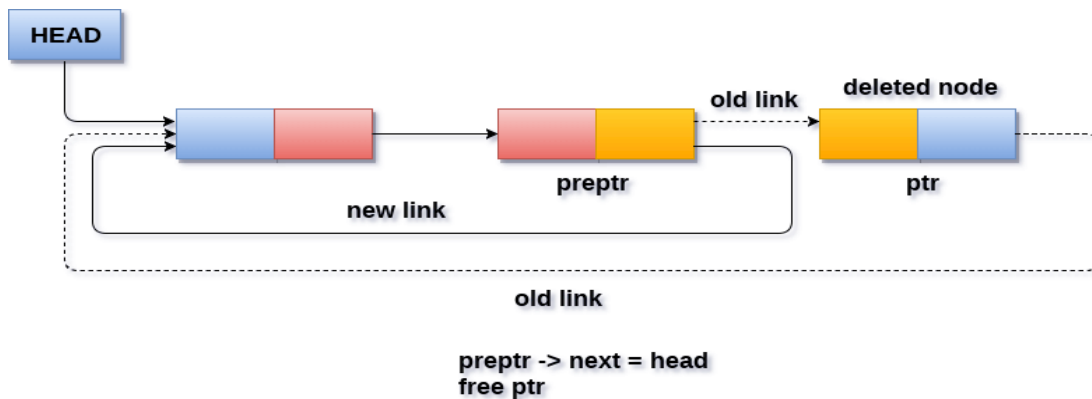
Step8: EXIT

```

**.Deletion at end of the List : There are three scenarios of deleting a node in circular singly linked list at the end**

- . The list is empty
- . The list contains a single element.
- . The list contains more than one element.





### Deletion in circular singly linked list at end

**Algorithm :**

**Step1:** IF HEAD=NULL

Write UNDERFLOW  
Goto Step8  
[END OF IF]

**Step2:** SET PTR = HEAD

**Step3:** Repeat Steps 4 and 5 while PTR->NEXT != HEAD

**Step4:** SET PREPTR = PTR

**Step5:** SET PTR = PTR->NEXT [END  
OF LOOP]

**Step6:** SET PREPTR -> NEXT = HEAD

**Step7:** FREE PTR

**Step8:** EXIT

**3. Traversing:** Although traversing means visiting each node of the list to perform some specific operation. Here we are printing the data associated with each node of the list.

**Algorithm:**

1. Set ptr = Head
2. If ptr = NULL write empty list goto step 7
3. Repeat step 4 and 5 until Ptr->next != head

4. **printptr->data=value**

5. **ptr=ptr->next**

6. **printptr->data**

7. **Exit**

4. **Searching** : searching in circular singly linked list needs traversing across the list the item which is to be searched in the list is matched with each node data of the list once and if the match found then the location of that item is returned other wise -1 returned.

**Algorithm :**

1. **setPtr=head**

2. **setI=0**

3. **ifptr=NULLwrite“emptylist”gotostep8**

4. **ifhead->data=item**

Write i+1

5. **Repeatstep5to7untilptr->next!=head**

6. **if ptr->data=item**

7. **i=i+1**

8. **ptr=ptr->next**

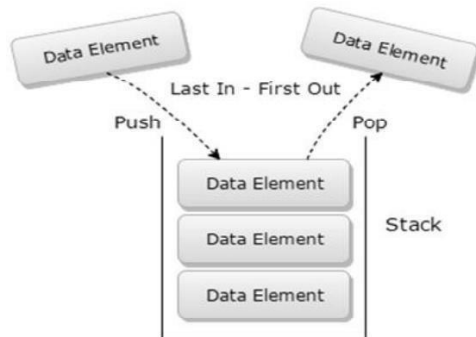
9. **Exit**

---

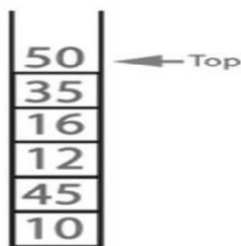
## **STACKS:**

Stack is a linear data structure in which the insertion and deletion operations are performed at only one end. In a stack adding and removing of elements are performed at single position which is known as "top". That means, new element is added at top of the stack and an element is removed from the top of the stack only. In stack, the insertion and deletion operations are performed based on LIFO (Last In First Out) principle. The first element which is inserted into stack is deleted last the last element which is inserted into stack is deleted first.

In a stack, the insertion operation is performed using a function called "push" and deletion operation is performed using a function called "pop". In the figure, PUSH and POP operations are performed at top position in the stack. That means, both the insertion and deletion operations are performed at one end i.e., at Top.



Example: If we want to create a stack by inserting 10,45,12,16,35 and 50. Then 10 becomes the bottom most element and 50 is the top most element. Top is at 50 as shown in the image below.



## OPERATIONS ON A STACK:

The following are some common operations implemented on the stack

**.push():** when we insert an element in a stack then the operation is known as a push. if the stack is full then the overflow condition occurs.

**.pop():** when we delete an element from the stack the operation is known as a pop. If the stack is empty means that no element exists in the stack this state is known as an underflow state.

**.isEmpty():** it determines whether the stack is empty or not.

**.isFull():** it determines whether the stack is full or not.

**.peek():** it returns the element at the given position.

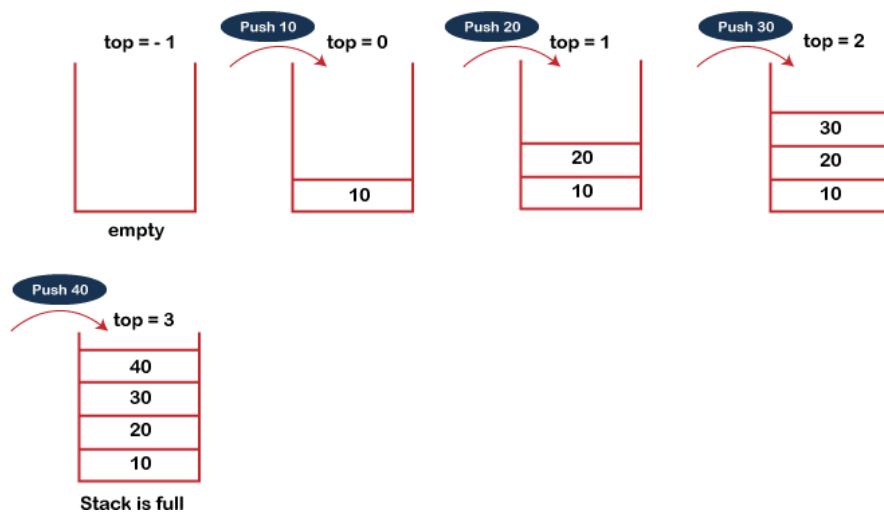
**.count():** it returns the total number of elements available in a stack.

**.display():** it prints all the elements available in the stack.

**.Push operation:** Before inserting an element in a stack we check whether the stack is full. if we try to insert the element in a stack and the stack is full then the overflow condition occurs.

when we initialize a stack we set the value of top as -1 to check that the stack is empty. when the new element is pushed in a stack first the value of the top gets incremented i.e  $top = top + 1$  And the element will be placed at the new position of the top.

.The elements will be inserted until we reach the max size of the stack.

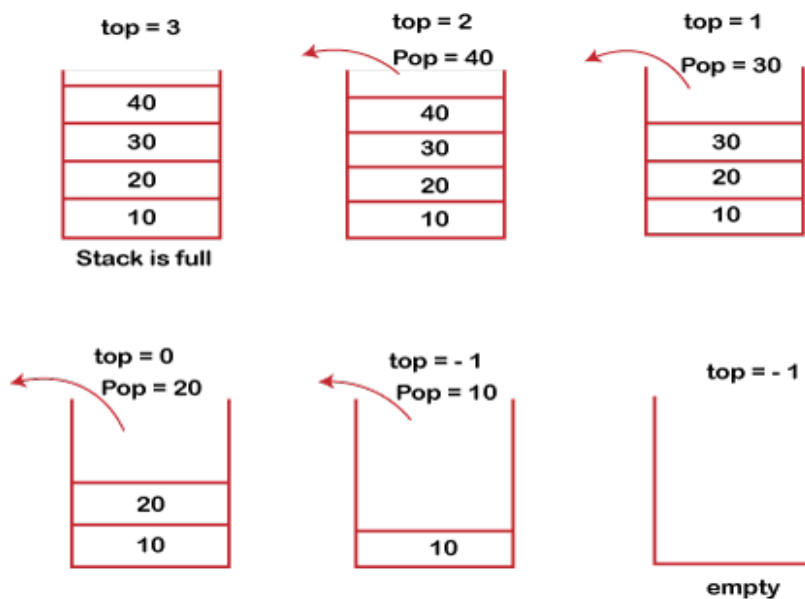


.POP operation: Before deleting the element from the stack, we check whether the stack is empty.

.If we try to delete the element from the empty stack, then the *underflow* condition occurs.

.If the stack is not empty, we first access the element which is pointed by the *top*

.Once the pop operation is performed, the *top* is decremented by 1, i.e.,  $top = top - 1$ .



Stack datastructure can be implemented in two ways.

They are as follows. 1. Stack Using Arrays

2. Stack Using LinkedList

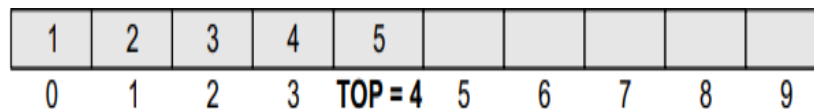
When stack is implemented using array, that stack can organize only limited number of elements.

When stack is implemented using linked list, that stack can organize unlimited number of elements.

### ARRAY REPRESENTATION OF STACKS:

In the computer's memory, stacks can be represented as a linear array. Every stack has a variable called TOP associated with it, which is used to store the address of the topmost element of the stack. It is this position where the element will be added to or deleted from. There is another variable called MAX, which is used to store the maximum number of elements that the stack can hold. If TOP = NULL, then it indicates that the stack is empty and if TOP = MAX-1, then the stack is full. (You must be wondering why we have written MAX-1. It is because array indices start from 0.).

The above stack shows that TOP=4, so insertions and deletions will be done at this



position. In the above stack, five more elements can still be stored.

### Stack implementation using array:

Before implementing actual operations, first follow the below steps to create an empty stack.

**Step 1:** Declare all the functions used in stack (push, pop, display) implementation.

**Step 2:** Create a one-dimensional array with fixed size.

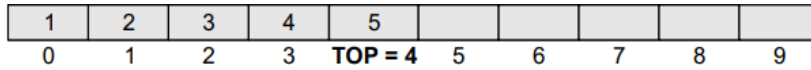
**Step 3:** Define an integer variable 'top' and initialize with '-1'. (int top = -1).

**Step 4:** In main method display a menu with list of operations and make suitable function calls to perform operation selected by the user on the stack.

### Push Operation:

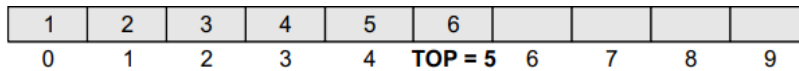
The push operation is used to insert an element into the stack. The new element is added at the topmost position of the stack. However, before inserting the value, we must first check if

TOP=MAX-1, because if that is the case, then the stack is full and no more insertions can be done. If an attempt is made to insert a value in a stack that is already full, an OVERFLOW message is printed.



Stack

To insert an element with value 6, we first check if TOP=MAX-1. If the condition is false, then we increment the value of TOP and store the new element at the position given by stack[TOP]. Thus, the updated stack becomes as shown



Stack after insertion

**Algorithm to Insert an Element in a Stack:**

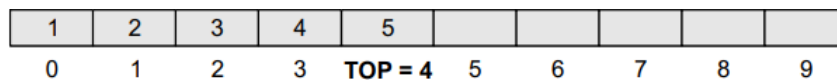
```

Step 1: IF TOP = MAX-1
        PRINT "OVERFLOW"
        Goto Step 4
    [END OF IF]
Step 2: SET TOP = TOP + 1
Step 3: SET STACK[TOP] = VALUE
Step 4: END
    
```

The algorithm to insert an element in a stack. In Step 1, we first check for the OVERFLOW condition. In Step 2, TOP is incremented so that it points to the next location in the array. In Step 3, the value is stored in the stack at the location pointed by TOP.

**Pop Operation:**

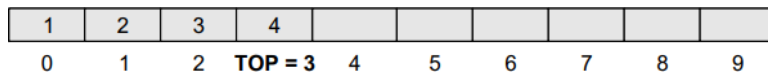
The pop operation is used to delete the topmost element from the stack. However, before deleting the value, we must first check if TOP=NULL because if that is the case, then it means the stack is empty and no more deletions can be done. If an attempt is made to delete a value from a stack that is already empty, an UNDERFLOW message is printed.



Stack

To delete the topmost element, we first check if TOP=NULL. If the condition is false, then

wedecrement thevaluepointedbyTOP.Thus,theupdatedstackbecomes as



Stack after deletion

### AlgorithmtoDeleteanElementfromStack:

```

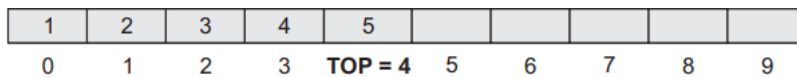
Step 1: IF TOP = NULL
        PRINT "UNDERFLOW"
        Goto Step 4
    [END OF IF]
Step 2: SET VAL = STACK[TOP]
Step 3: SET TOP = TOP - 1
Step 4: END
    
```

The algorithm to delete an element from a stack. In Step 1, we first check for the UNDERFLOW condition. In Step 2, the value of the location in the stack pointed by TOP is stored in VAL. In Step 3, TOP is decremented.

### PeekOperation:

Peek is an operation that returns the value of the topmost element of the stack without deleting it from the stack. However, the Peek operation first checks if the stack is empty, i.e., if TOP = NULL, then an appropriate message is printed, else the value is returned.

Here, the Peek operation will return 5, as it is the value of the topmost element of the stack.



Stack

### AlgorithmforPeekoperation:

```

Step 1: IF TOP = NULL
        PRINT "STACK IS EMPTY"
        Goto Step 3
Step 2: RETURN STACK[TOP]
Step 3: END
    
```

### Displayoperation:

Displays the elements of a Stack. We can use the following steps to display the elements of a stack.

**Step 1:** Check whether stack is EMPTY. (top == -1)

**Step 2:** If it is EMPTY, then display "Stack is EMPTY!!!" and terminate the function.

**Step3:** If it is NOT EMPTY, then define a variable 'i' and initialize with top. Display stack[i] value and decrement i value by one (i--).

**Step 4:** Repeat above step until value becomes '0'.

### Stack using Linked List:

The major problem with the stack implemented using array is, it works only for fixed number of data values. That means the amount of data must be specified at the beginning of the implementation itself (size of the stack). Stack implemented using array is not suitable, when we don't know the size of data which we are going to use. A stack data structure can be implemented by using linked list data structure. The stack implemented using linked list can work for unlimited number of values. That means, stack implemented using linked list works for variable size of data.

So, there is no need to fix the size at the beginning of the implementation. The Stack implemented using linked list can organize as many data values as we want.

In a linked stack, every node has two parts—one that stores data and another that stores the address of the next node. The START pointer of the linked list is used as TOP. All insertions and deletions are done at the node pointed by TOP. If TOP = NULL, then it indicates that the stack is empty.

### Example:



In above example, the last inserted node is 9 and the first inserted node is 5. The order of elements inserted is 5, 6, 2, 4, 3, 7, 1 and 9.

### Stack implementation using Linked list:

To implement stack using linked list, we need to set the following things before implementing actual operations.

Step1: Declare all the functions used in stack (push, pop, display) implementation

Step 2: Define a 'Node' structure with two fields data and link.

Step3: Define a Node pointer 'top' and set it to NULL.

Step4: Implement the main method by displaying Menu with list of operations and make suitable function calls in the main method.

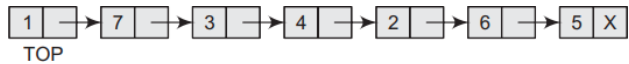


## OPERATIONSON ALINKED STACK:

A linked stack supports all the three stack operations, that is, push, pop, and peek.

### Push Operation:

The push operation is used to insert an element into the stack. The new element is added at the topmost position of the stack.



Linked stack

To insert an element with value 9, we first check if  $TOP = NULL$ . If this is the case, then we allocate memory for a new node, store the value in its DATA part and NULL in its NEXT part. The new node will then be called TOP. However, if  $TOP \neq NULL$ , then we insert the new node at the beginning of the linked stack and name this new node as TOP.

Thus, the updated stack becomes as shown below:



Linked stack after inserting a new node

### Algorithm to push an element into a linked stack:

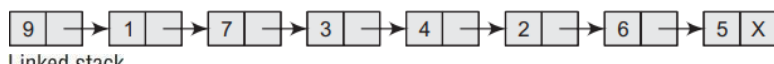
```

Step 1: Allocate memory for the new
        node and name it as NEW_NODE
Step 2: SET NEW_NODE -> DATA = VAL
Step 3: IF TOP = NULL
        SET NEW_NODE -> NEXT = NULL
        SET TOP = NEW_NODE
      ELSE
        SET NEW_NODE -> NEXT = TOP
        SET TOP = NEW_NODE
      [END OF IF]
Step 4: END
  
```

In Step 1, memory is allocated for the new node. In Step 2, the DATA part of the new node is initialized with the value to be stored in the node. In Step 3, we check if the new node is the first node of the linked list. This is done by checking if  $TOP = NULL$ . In case the IF statement evaluates to true, then NULL is stored in the NEXT part of the node and the new node is called TOP. However, if the new node is not the first node in the list, then it is added before the first node of the list (that is, the TOP node) and termed as TOP.

### Pop Operation:

The pop operation is used to delete the topmost element from a stack. However, before deleting the value, we must first check if  $TOP = NULL$ , because if this is the case, then it means



Linked stack

that the stack is empty and no more deletions can be done. If an attempt is made to delete a value from a stack that is already empty, an UNDERFLOW message is printed.

In case  $TOP \neq NULL$ , then we will delete the node pointed by TOP, and make TOP point to the second element of the linked stack. Thus, the updated stack becomes as shown below



Linked stack after deletion of the topmost element

### Algorithm to delete an element from a stack:

```

Step 1: IF TOP = NULL
        PRINT "UNDERFLOW"
        Goto Step 5
      [END OF IF]
Step 2: SET PTR = TOP
Step 3: SET TOP = TOP -> NEXT
Step 4: FREE PTR
Step 5: END
  
```

In Step 1, we first check for the UNDERFLOW condition. In Step 2, we use a pointer PTR that points to TOP. In Step 3, TOP is made to point to the next node in sequence. In Step 4, the memory occupied by PTR is given back to the free pool.

### Display operation:

Displaying stack of elements We can use the following steps to display the elements (nodes) of a stack.

Step 1: Check whether stack is empty ( $top == NULL$ ).

Step 2: If it is empty, then display 'Stack is Empty!!!' and terminate the function.

Step 3: If it is not empty, then define a node pointer 'temp' and initialize with top.

Step 4: Display 'temp->data->' and move it to the next node. Repeat the same until temp reaches to the first node in the stack ( $temp->link \neq NULL$ ).

Step 5: Finally! Display 'temp->data->NULL'.

### APPLICATIONS OF STACKS:

Stacks can be easily applied for a simple and efficient solution. Different Application of Stacks:

- Reversing a list

- Arithmetic Expression
  - a) infix notation
  - b) prefix notation
  - c) postfix notation
  - d) Evaluation postfix expression
- Conversion of an infix expression into a postfix expression
- Conversion of an infix expression into a prefix expression
- Evaluation of a prefix expression
- Recursion
  - Tower of Hanoi
- Balancing symbols

### **1. Reversing a List:** To reverse a string or elements in reverse order.

.It is a efficient

.write a program to implement stack operations using a reversing list of elements.

```
#include<stdio.h>
#include<conio.h>
#define maxsize 10
int stack[maxsize], top = -1;
void push(int);
int pop();
int isEmpty();
void main()
{
  int a[maxsize], i;
  clrscr();
  printf("enter array elements\n");
  for(i=0; i<maxsize; i++)
    scanf("%d", &a[i]);
```

```

    for(i=0;i<size;i++)
        push(a[i]);
    printf("Listisreverseorder\n");
    for(i=0;!isempty();i++)
    {
        int ele;ele=pop();
        printf("%d",ele);
    }
    getch();
}
Voidpush(intele)
{
if(top==size-1)
{
    Printf("stackisoverflow");
else
top=top+1;
stack[top]=ele;
}
}
intpop()
{
int ele;
if(top==-1)
printf("stackisunderflow");
else
{
    ele=stack[top];
    top=top-1;
}
returnele;
}

```

```

}
intisempty()
{
if(top==1)
return 1;
else
return 0;
}

```

**2. Expressions:** it is a set of operands in between the operator is called as expression

**Example : A+B**

a) **Infix:** when the operator is written in between the operands then it is known as infix notation.

**Example:** a+b, a/b, a\*b

b) **Prefix:** The operator comes first followed by the operands.

**Example:** ++a, +ab, --ab

c) **Postfix:** The operands comes first followed by the operator.

**Example:** ab+, ab\*, ab/

**d. Evaluation of postfix Expression:** it is a operand stack

.only one stack is used .

.if the character is an operand then push into stack.

.if the character is an operator then pop top, two operands from the stack and push the result back into stack.

.After reading all the characters from the postfix expression stack will be having only the which is result.

**Example:** 562\*+

character	stack
5	5
5	56
2	5 6 2
*	Pop2, pop6 6*2=12 5 12

+	Pop12,pop5 5+12=17
---	-----------------------

562\*+=17

### 3. Conversion of infix to postfix expression:

- 1) If the character is left parenthesis push to the stack.
- 2) If the character is operand, add to the postfix expression
- 3) If the character is operator, check whether stack is empty
  - 1) If the stack is empty, push operator into stack
  - 2) If the stack is not empty, check the priority of the operator
    - i) if the priority operator > operator present at top of stack then push operator into stack.
    - ii) if the priority of the operator is <= operator present at top of the stack, then pop the operator from stack and ADD to postfix expression and goto step (i).
- 4) if the character is right parenthesis then pop all the operations from the stack until it matches left parenthesis and ADD to postfix expression.
- 5) After reading all the characters, if stack is not empty then pop and ADD to postfix expression.

**Example :** Infix expression:  $K + L - M * N + (O \wedge P) * W / U / V * T + Q$

Input Expression	Stack	Postfix Expression
K		K
+	+	
L	+	KL
-	-	KL+
M	-	KL+M
*	.*	KL+M

N	-*	KL+MN
+	+	K L+M N* KL+MN*-
(	+(	KL+MN*-
O	+(	KL+MN*-O
^	+( ^	KL+MN*-O
P	+( ^	KL+MN*-OP
)	+	KL+MN*-OP^
*	+*	KL+MN*-OP^
W	+*	KL+MN*-OP^W
/	+/	KL+MN*-OP^W*
U	+/	KL+MN*-OP^W*U
/	+/	KL+MN*-OP^W*U/
V	+/	KL+MN*-OP^W*U/V
*	+*	KL+MN*-OP^W*U/V/
T	+*	KL+MN*-OP^W*U/V/T
+	+	KL+MN*-OP^W*U/V/T* KL+MN*-OP^W*U/V/T*+
Q	+	KL+MN*-OP^W*U/V/T*Q
		KL+MN*- OP^W*U/V/T*+Q+

The final postfix expression of infix expression  $(K+L-M*N+(O^P)^*W/U/V*T+Q)$  is  $KL+MN*-OP^W*U/V/T*+Q+$

OP^W\*U/V/T\*+Q+.

4. Conversion of infix to prefix expression:

.reverse the expression

.Apply the postfix notation

.left parenthesis ( to )

.right parenthesis ) to (

.reverse the postfix expression

Example : (A+B)\*C-D+F

Reverse the expression F+D-C\*(B+A)

character	stack	postfix
F		F
+	+	F
D	+	FD
-	+- (POP +)	FD+
C	-	FD+
*	-*	FD+C
(	- * (	FD+C
B	- * (	FD+CB
+	- *(+ POP(*)	FD+CB FD+CB*
A	-(+	FD+CB*A
)	-(+ POP(+) POP(-)	FD+CB*A+-

Reverse the Expression = -+A\*BC+FD

5. Evaluation of a Prefix Expression: start right to left

-+3\*45/16^23=21



symbol	stack
3	3
2	32
^	8
16	816
/	2
5	25
4	254
*	220
3	2203
+	223
-	21

6. Recursion: Recursion is a function that calls itself, called as recursion

Recursion example Towers of Hanoi problem

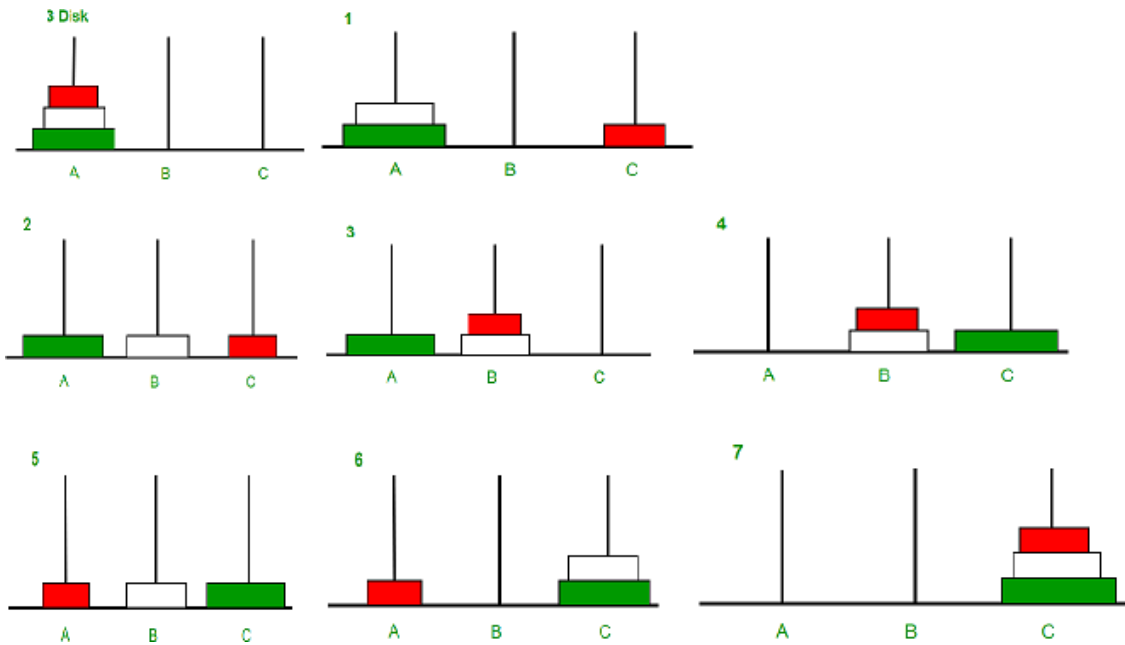
Towers of Hanoi problem: It is a puzzle game

Here three pegs or disks that data is moved to one disk to another disk. Disks

are A, B, C                      DISK=3      N=3

1. Tower(N-1, Begin, End, Aux)
2. Tower(1, Begin, Aux, End)
3. Tower(N-1, Aux, Begin, End)

S.NO	disk
1	A->C
2	A->B
3	C->B
4	A->C
5	B->A
6	B->C
7	A->C



### Algorithm for Tower of Hanoi:

Step 1: Start

Step 2: Let the three towers be the source, dest, aux.

Step 3: Read the number of disks, n from the user. Step 4: Move n-1 disks from source to aux.

Step 5: Move the disk from source to dest.

Step 6: Move n-1 disks from aux to dest.

Step 7: Repeat Steps 3 to 5, by decrementing n by 1.

Step 8: Stop

### 7. Balancing Symbols: symbol stack is used

(	Expressions
[	Expressions
}	Block of statements
)	Balanced symbols
[ ]	Balanced symbols

.countingopensymbolsandcountingclosedsymbols.

**Algorithm : read character from Expression**

.ifcharacterisopensymbol('(','[','{'pushsymbolintothestack.

.ifcharacterisclosedsymbol(')',']','}')'

a) checkifstackisemptyifthusexpressionisunbalanced.

b) ifthestackisnotemptythenpopthesymbolfromthestackandcomparewiththesymbol whichisread,ifdoesn'tmatchexpressionisunbalanced.elserepeat the process.

. After Reading all character of expression still stack is not empty that implies unbalanced expression.

Ex: [(a+b)(a-b)]it is a balanced

expression . [(a+b)(a-

b)]itisaunbalancedexpression

**QUEUES:**Queue isa linear datastructurewhich elementsareinserted at one endcalledrearand whichelementsaredeleted otherendcalledfront.frontisfrontsideandrearisbackside.Queue is a FIFOtechniquewhich element is insertedfirst thatelement isdeletedfirst.

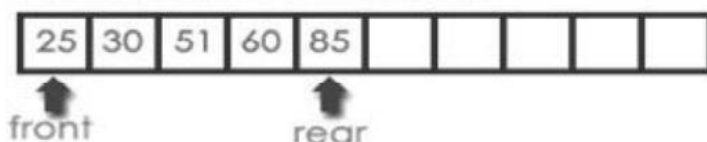
Inaqueuedatastructure,theinsertionoperationisperformedusingafuncioncalled "enQueue()" and deletion operation is performed using a function called "deQueue()".

.Queueusestwopointersfrontandrear

The front pointer accesses the datafrom the front end.while the rear pointer accesses datafrom the rear end.

Example:Queueafterinserting 25,30,51,60and 85.

After Inserting five elements...



## Operations on a Queue:

The following operations are performed on a queue data structure.

- a. enqueue(value) - (To insert an element into the queue)
- b. dequeue() - (To delete an element from the queue)
- c. display() - (To display the elements of the queue)

1. Enqueue(): Enqueue is a function used to insert a new element into the queue. In a queue, the new element is always inserted at the rear position. The enqueue() function takes one integer value as a parameter and inserts that value into the queue.

Ex: consider the list of elements 12, 9, 7, 18, 14, 36, 45

Initially front = 0 and rear = -1 then rear = rear + 1 = -1 + 1 = 0

front = 0 and rear = 0 12 is inserted at the 1st position

front = 0 and rear = 1 9 is inserted at the 2nd position

front = 0 and rear = 2 7 is inserted at the 3rd position

front = 0 and rear = 3 18 is inserted at the 4th position

front = 0 and rear = 4 14 is inserted at the 5th position

front = 0 and rear = 5 36 is inserted at the 6th position

front = 0 and rear = 6 45 is inserted at the 7th position

The elements are 12 9 7 18 14 36 45 Algorithm

:

Step 1: if rear = Max - 1 write overflow and go to step 4

Step 2: if front = -1 and rear = -1

Set front = rear = 0

Else

Set rear = rear + 1

Step3:SetQueue[Rear]=num Step

4:Exit

2. Dequeue operation: Deleting a value from the queue. In a queue data structure dequeue() is a function used to delete an element from the queue. In a queue the element is always deleted from front position. The dequeue() function does not take any values as parameter.

Initially front=-1 and rear=6 then front=front+1 and front=0

Front=0 and rear=6 12 is deleted

Front=1 and rear=6 9 is deleted from the queue.

Front=2 rear=6 7 is deleted from the queue

Front=3 rear=6 18 is deleted from the queue

Front=4 rear=6 14 is deleted from the queue

Front=5 rear=6 36 is deleted from the queue

Front=6 rear=6 45 is deleted from the queue then the queue is empty.

Algorithm:

Step1: if front=-1 or front>Rear

Write under flow

Else

Set val=queue[front]

Set front=front+1

Step2:Exit

## **Display():**

Display the elements of a Queue: We can use the following steps to display the elements of a queue.

**Step1:** Check whether queue is EMPTY. ( $front == rear$ )

**Step2:** If it is EMPTY, then display "Queue is EMPTY!!!" and terminate the function.

**Step3:** If it is NOT EMPTY, then define an integer variable 'i' and set 'i = front + 1'.

**Step4:** Display 'queue[i]' value and increment 'i' value by one ( $i++$ ). Repeat the same until 'i' value is equal to rear ( $i \leq rear$ )

## **Queue data structure can be implemented in two ways.**

They are as follows...

1. Using Array
2. Using LinkedList

When a queue is implemented using array, that queue can organize only limited number of elements.

When a queue is implemented using linked list, that queue can organize unlimited number of elements.

## **Queue implementation by Using Array:**

A queue data structure can be implemented using one dimensional array. But, queue implemented using array can store only fixed number of data values. The implementation of queue data structure using array is very simple, just define a one dimensional array of specific size and insert or delete the values into that array by using FIFO (First In First Out) principle with the help of variables 'front' and 'rear'. Initially both 'front' and 'rear' are set to -1. Whenever, we want to insert a new value into the queue, increment 'rear' value by one and then insert at that position.

.Two conditions

Overflow – insertion into queue which is full

Underflow – deletion from empty queue

.Two Ends

Front – it's point to starting element

Rear—it's point to last element .

**Step1:** Declare all the user defined functions which are used in queue implementation.

**Step2:** Create a one dimensional array with above defined SIZE (int queue[SIZE])

**Step3:** Define two integer variables 'front' and 'rear' and initialize both with '-1'. (int front=-1, rear=-1)

**Step 4:** Then implement main method by displaying menu of operations list and make suitable function calls to perform operation selected by the user on queue.

### **EnQueue Operation:**

Inserting value into the queue:

In a queue data structure, enQueue() is a function used to insert a new element into the queue. In a queue, the new element is always inserted at rear position. The enQueue() function takes one integer value as parameter and inserts that value into the queue. We can use the following steps to insert an element into the queue.

12	9	7	18	14	36				
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

New element=45

Queue

12	9	7	18	14	36	45			
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

Queue after insertion of a new element

### **DeQueue Operation:**

Deleting a value from the Queue In a queue data structure, deQueue() is a function used to delete an element from the queue. In a queue, the element is always deleted from front position. The deQueue() function does not take any value as parameter. We can use the following steps to delete an element from the queue.

12	9	7	18	14	36				
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

Deletedelement=12

Queue

	9	7	18	14	36	45			
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

Queue after deletion of an element

## LINKED REPRESENTATION OF QUEUES:

The major problem with the queue implemented using array is, It will work for only fixed number of data. That means, the amount of data must be specified in the beginning itself. Queue using array is not suitable when we don't know the size of data which we are going to use. A queue data structure can be implemented using linked list data structure. The queue which is implemented using linked list can work for unlimited number of values. That means, queue using linked list can work for variable size of data (No need to fix the size at beginning of the implementation). The Queue implemented using linked list can organize as many data values as we want.

In linked list implementation of a queue, the last inserted node is always pointed by 'rear' and the first node is always pointed by 'front'.

### Example:



In above example, the last inserted node is 50 and it is pointed by 'rear' and the first inserted node is 10 and it is pointed by 'front'. The order of elements inserted is 10, 15, 22 and 50.

To implement queue using linked list, we need to set the following things before implementing actual operations.

**Step1:** Include all the header files which are used in the program. And declare all the user defined functions.

**Step2:** Define a 'Node' structure with two members data and next.

**Step3:** Define two Node pointers 'front' and 'rear' and set both to NULL.

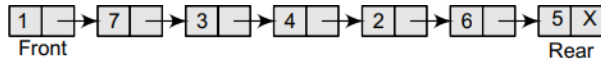
**Step4:** Implement the main method by displaying Menu of list of operations and makes suitable



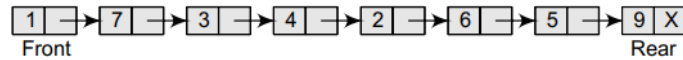
function calls in the main method to perform user selected operation.

**EnQueue(value):**

Inserting an element into the Queue We can use the following steps to insert a new node into the queue.



Linked queue



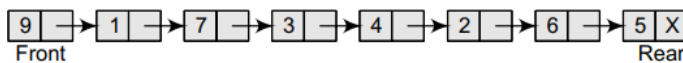
Linked queue after inserting a new node

**Algorithm to Insert an Element into Queue using Linked List:**

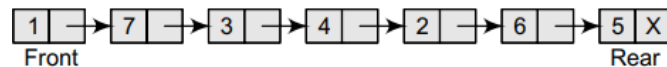
- Step 1: Allocate memory for the new node and name it as PTR
- Step 2: SET PTR -> DATA = VAL
- Step 3: IF FRONT = NULL
  - SET FRONT = REAR = PTR
  - SET FRONT -> NEXT = REAR -> NEXT = NULL
- ELSE
  - SET REAR -> NEXT = PTR
  - SET REAR = PTR
  - SET REAR -> NEXT = NULL
- [END OF IF]
- Step 4: END

**DeQueue():**

Deleting an Element from Queue We can use the following steps to delete an element from the queue.



Linked queue



Linked queue after deletion of an element

### **Algorithm to Delete an Element from Queue using Linked List:**

```
Step 1: IF FRONT = NULL
        Write "Underflow"
        Go to Step 5
    [END OF IF]
Step 2: SET PTR = FRONT
Step 3: SET FRONT = FRONT -> NEXT
Step 4: FREE PTR
Step 5: END
```

### **Display():**

Displaying the elements of Queue We can use the following steps to display the elements (nodes) of a queue...

**Step 1:** Check whether queue is Empty (front == NULL).

**Step 2:** If it is Empty then, display 'Queue is Empty!!!' and terminate the function.

**Step 3:** If it is Not Empty then, define a Node pointer 'temp' and initialize with front.

**Step 4:** Display 'temp data ->' and move it to the next node. Repeat the same until 'temp' reaches to 'rear' (temp -> next != NULL).

**Step 5:** Finally Display 'temp->data->NULL'.

### **TYPES OF QUEUES:**

A queue data structure can be classified into the following types:

1. Circular Queue
2. Deque
3. Priority Queue

Applications of Queues:

.Printing job management

.client server model

.CPU scheduling-in which process is executed first

.Batch processing-manage incoming jobs and process them in order.

.Resource Allocation

.Simulation-line of customers waiting for bank

.In process communication-process and multithread system



## Moudle-2

### DICTIONARIES:

Dictionary is a collection of pairs of key and value where every value is associated with the corresponding key.

Basic operation that can be performed on dictionary are:

1. Insertion of value in the dictionary
2. Deletion of particular value from dictionary
3. Searching of a specific value with the help of key

### Linear List Representation

The dictionary can be represented as a linear list. The linear list is a collection of pair and value. There are two methods of representing linear list.

1. Sorted Array - An array data structure is used to implement the dictionary.
2. Sorted Chain - A linked list data structure is used to implement the dictionary

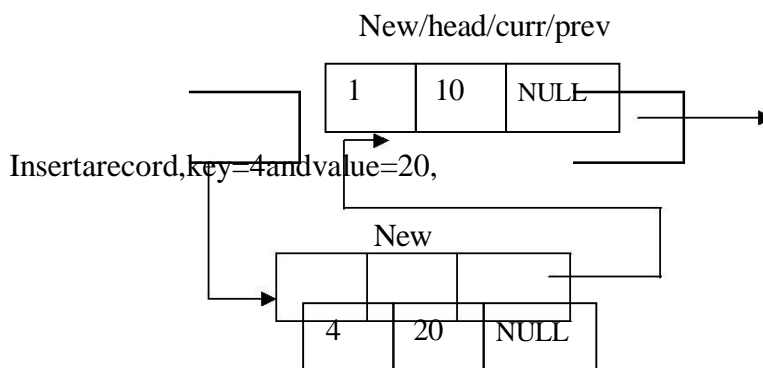
### Insertion of new node in the dictionary: →

Consider that initially dictionary is empty then head = NULL

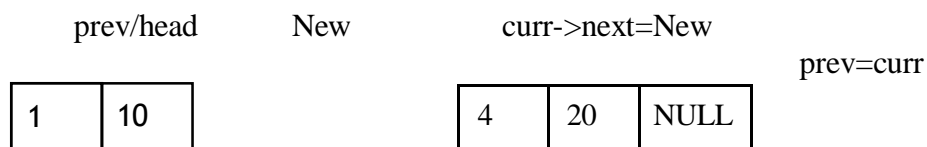
We will create a new node with some key and value contained in it.



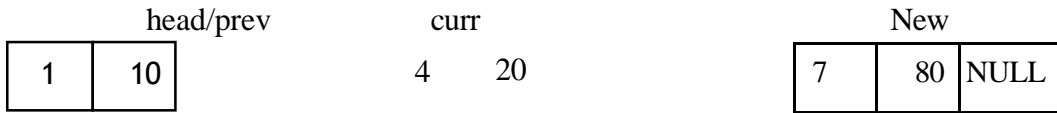
Now as head is NULL, this new node becomes head. Hence the dictionary contains only one record. this node will be `_curr` and `_prev` as well. The `_curr` node will always point to current visiting node and `_prev` will always point to the node previous to `_curr` node. As now there is only one node in the list mark as `_curr` node as `_prev` node.



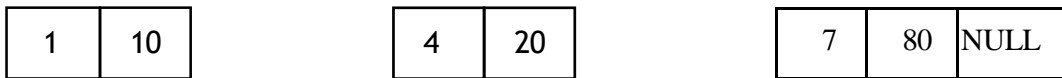
Compare the key value of `_curr` and `_New` node. If `New->key > Curr->key` then attach New node to `_curr` node.



Add a new node `<7,80>` then



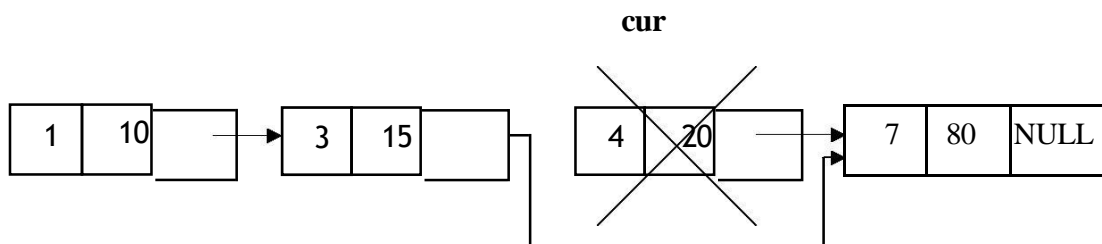
If we insert  $\langle 3, 15 \rangle$  then we have to search for its proper position by comparing key value.  $(curr \rightarrow key < New \rightarrow key)$  is false. Hence else part will get executed.



3    15

### The delete operation:

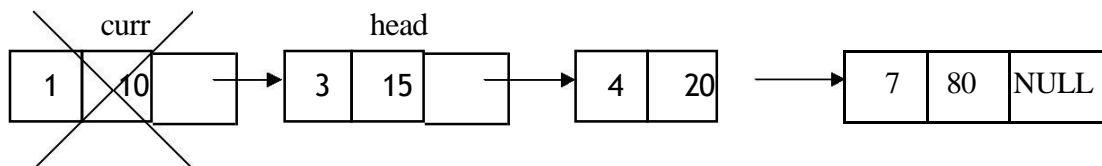
Case 1: Initially assign `__head` node as `__curr` node. Then ask for a key value of the node which is to be deleted. Then starting from head node key value of each node is checked and compared with the desired node's key value. We will get node which is to be deleted in variable `__curr`. The node given by variable `__prev` keeps track of previous node of `__curr` node. For eg, delete node with key value 4 then



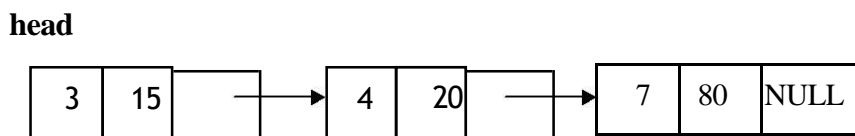
se2:

If the node to be deleted is head node i.e. `if(curr==head)`

Then, simply make `__head` node as next node and delete `__curr`

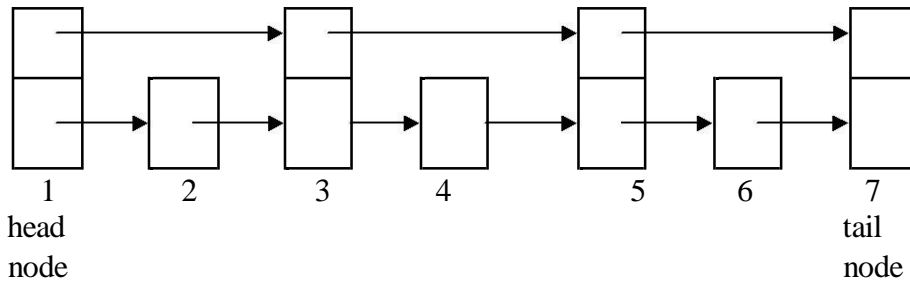


Hence the list becomes



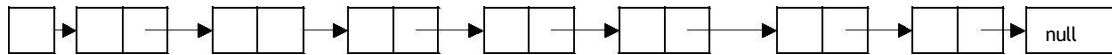
### SKIPLIST REPRESENTATION

Skiplist is a variant list for the linked list. Skiplists are made up of a series of nodes connected one after the other. Each node contains a key and value pair as well as one or more references, or pointers, to nodes further along in the list. The number of references each node contains is determined randomly. This gives skip lists their probabilistic nature, and the number of references a node contains is called its node level. There are two special nodes in the skip list one is head node which is the starting node of the list and tail node is the last node of the list

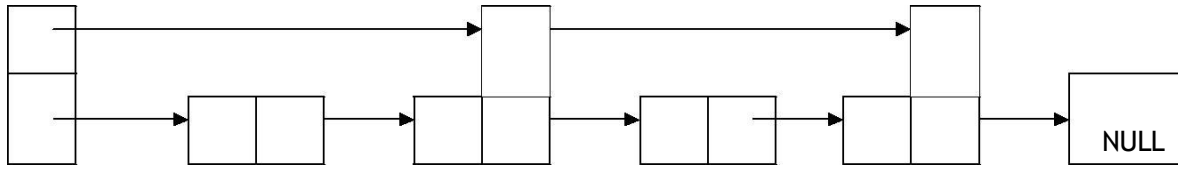


The skip list is an efficient implementation of dictionary using sorted chain. This is because in skip list each node consists of forward references of more than one node data time.

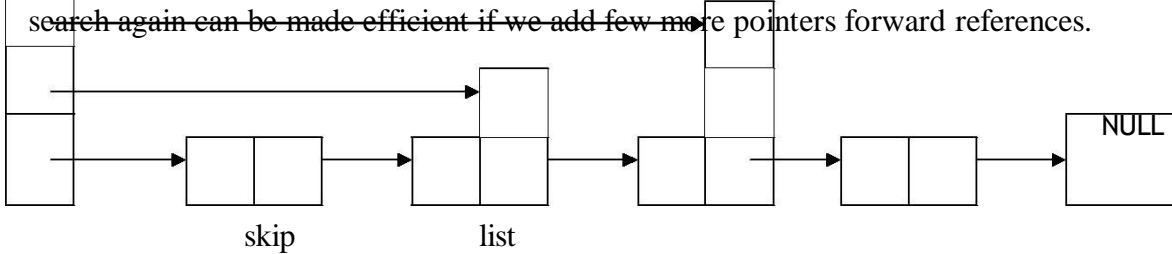
Eg:



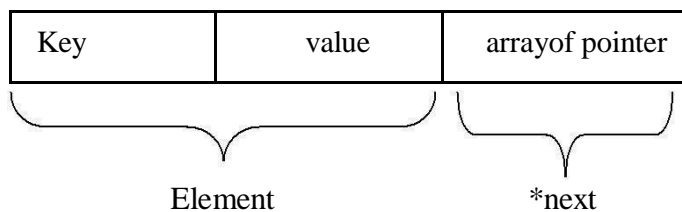
Now to search any node from above given sorted chain we have to search the sorted chain from head node by visiting each node. But this searching time can be reduced if we add one level in every alternate node. This extra level contains the forward pointer of some node. That means in sorted chain some nodes can hold pointers to more than one node.



If we want to search node 40 from above chain then we will require comparatively less time. This search again can be made efficient if we add few more pointers forward references.



The individual node looks like this:



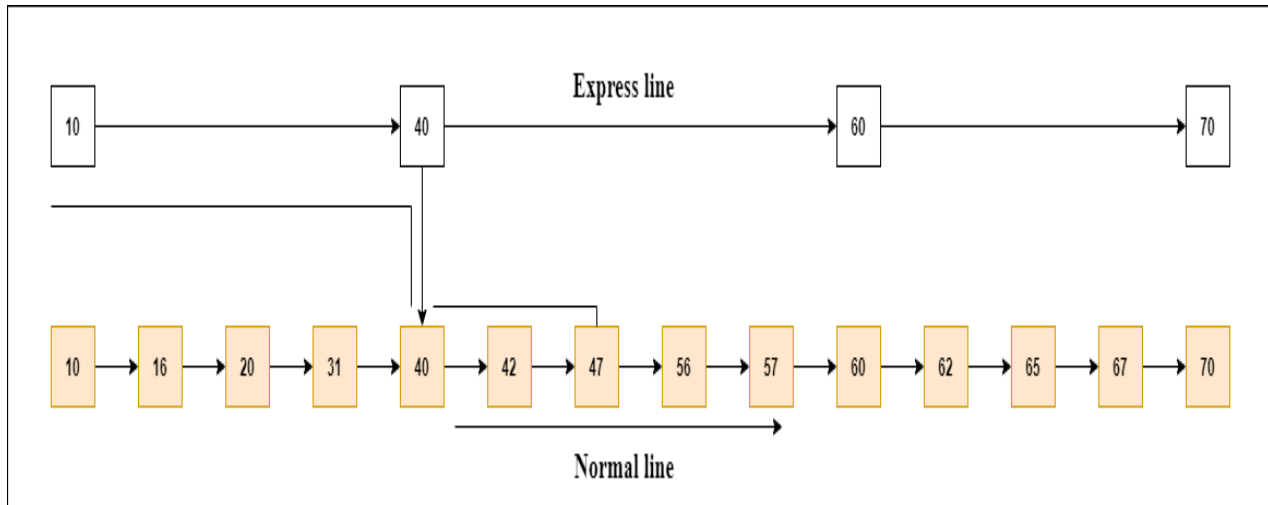
## Working of the Skiplist

Let's take an example to understand the working of the skip list. In this example, we have 14 nodes, such that these nodes are divided into two layers, as shown in the diagram.

The lower layer is a common line that links all nodes, and the top layer is an express line that links only the main nodes, as you can see in the diagram.

Suppose you want to find 47 in this example. You will start the search from the first node of the express line and continue running on the express line until you find a node that is equal to 47 or more than 47.

You can see in the example that 47 does not exist in the express line, so you search for a node of less than 47, which is 40. Now, you go to the normal line with the help of 40, and search for the 47, as shown in the diagram.



Note: Once you find a node like this on the "express line", you go from this node to a "normal line" using a pointer, and when you search for the node in the normal line.

## Skiplist Basic Operations

There are the following types of operations in the skip list.

- **Insertion operation:** It is used to add a new node to a particular location in a specific situation.
- **Deletion operation:** It is used to delete a node in a specific situation.
- **Search operation:** This search operation is used to search a particular node in a skip list.

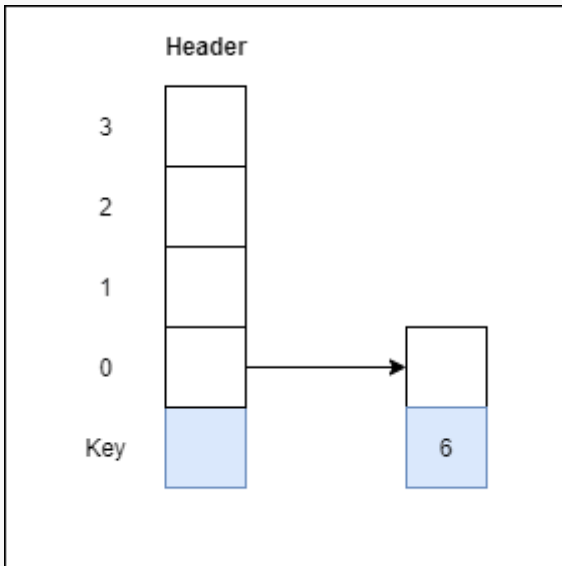
**Example 1:** Create a skip list, we want to insert these following keys in the empty skip list.

1. 6 with level 1.
2. 29 with level 1.
3. 22 with level 4.
4. 9 with level 3.
5. 17 with level 1.
6. 4 with level 2.

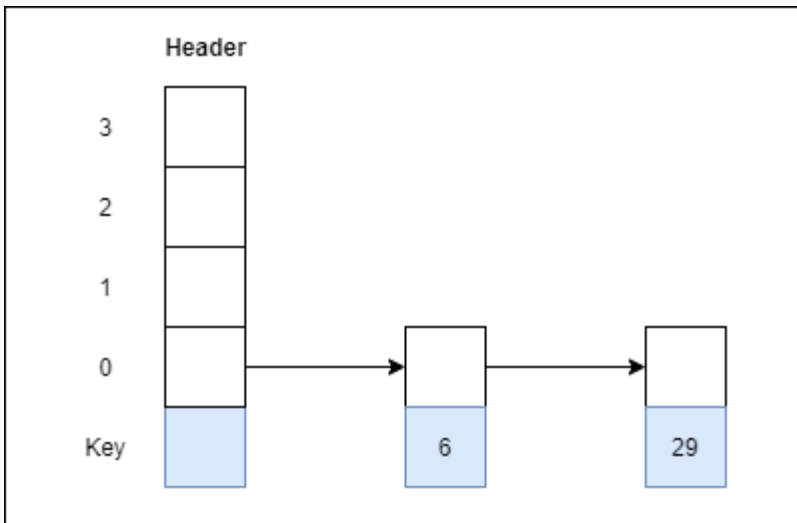
**Ans:**



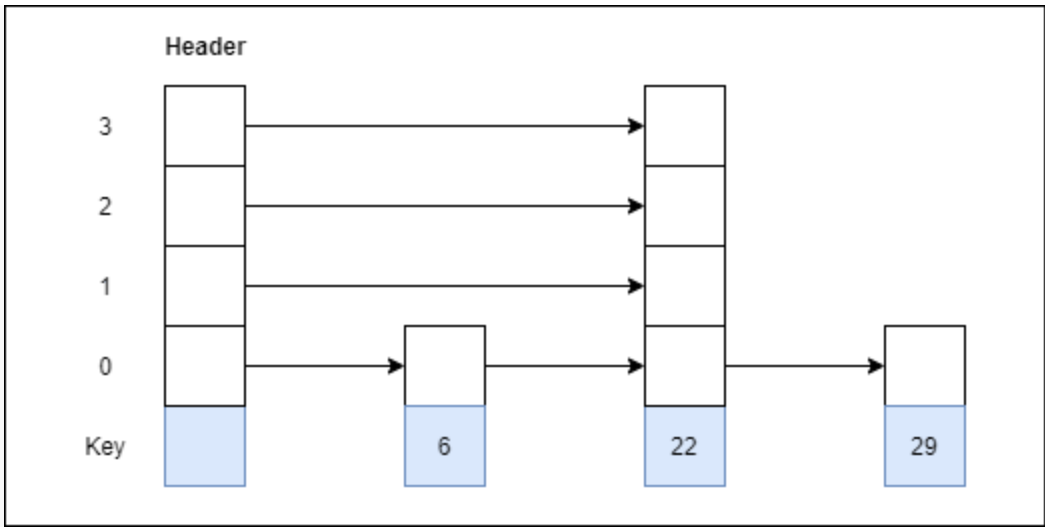
**Step1:** Insert 6 with level 1



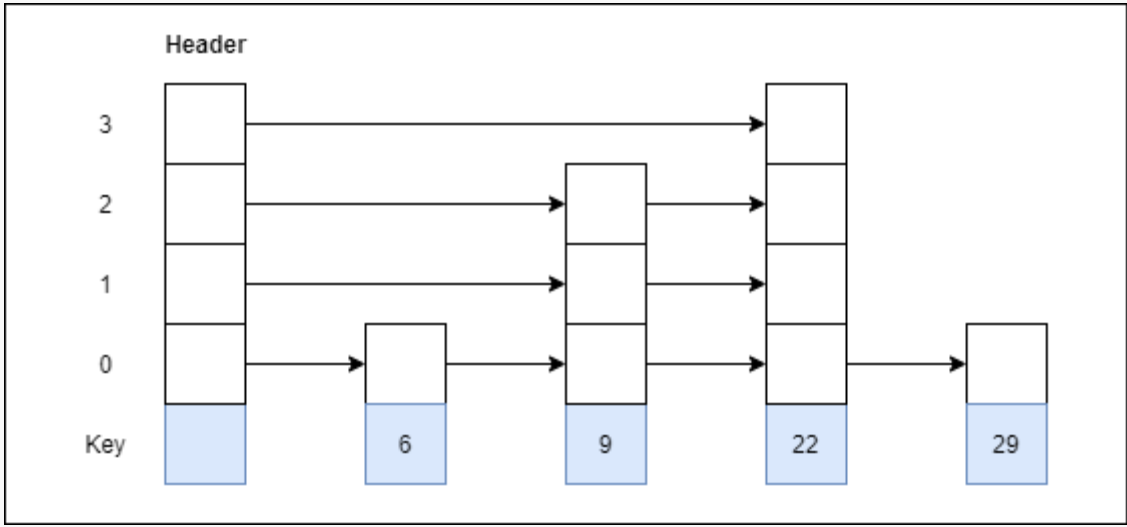
**Step2:** Insert 29 with level 1



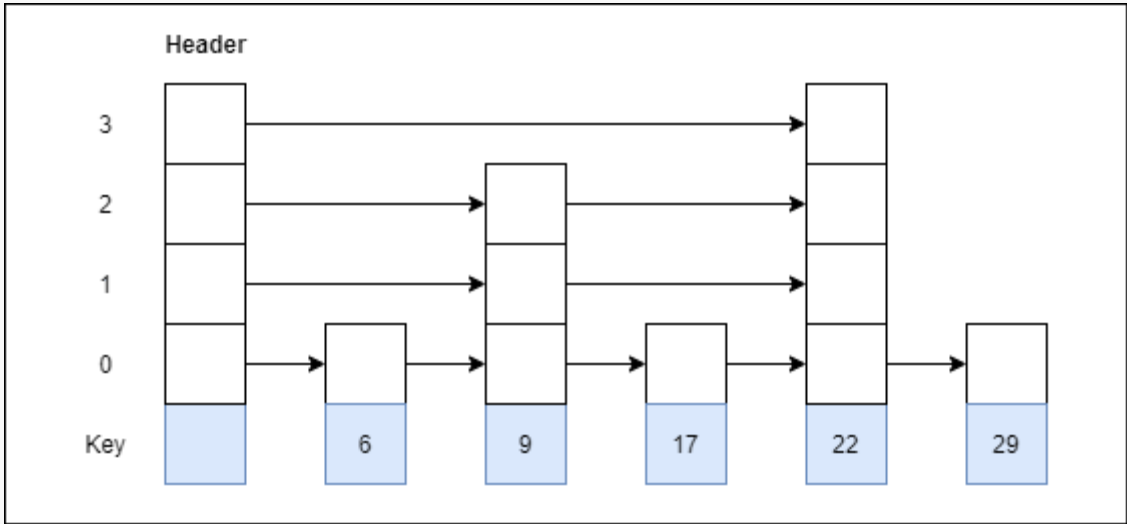
**Step3:** Insert 22 with level 4



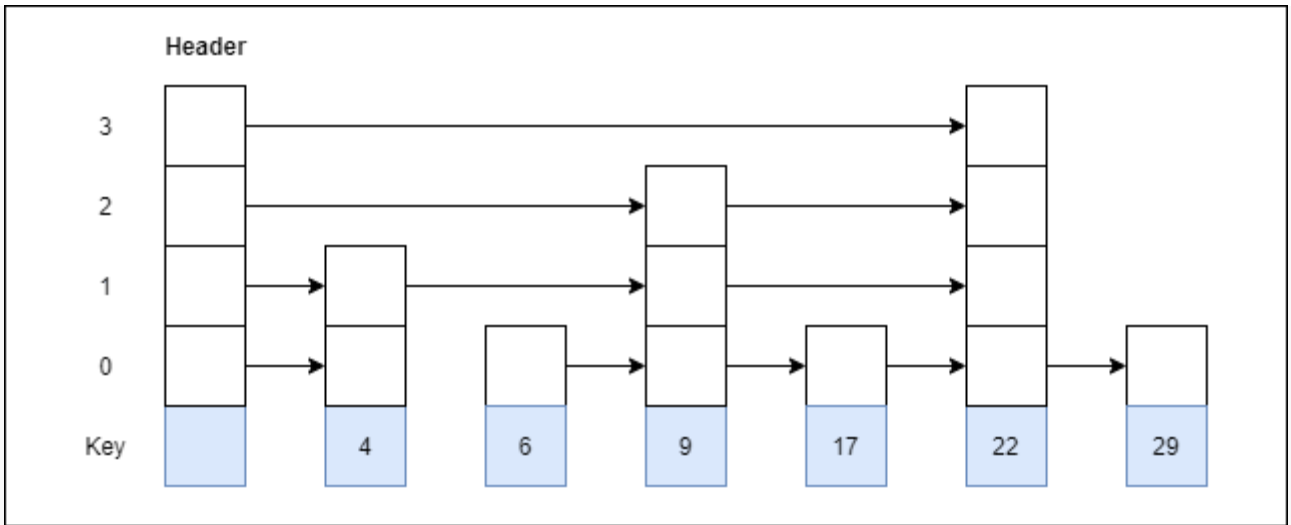
**Step4:** Insert 9 with level 3



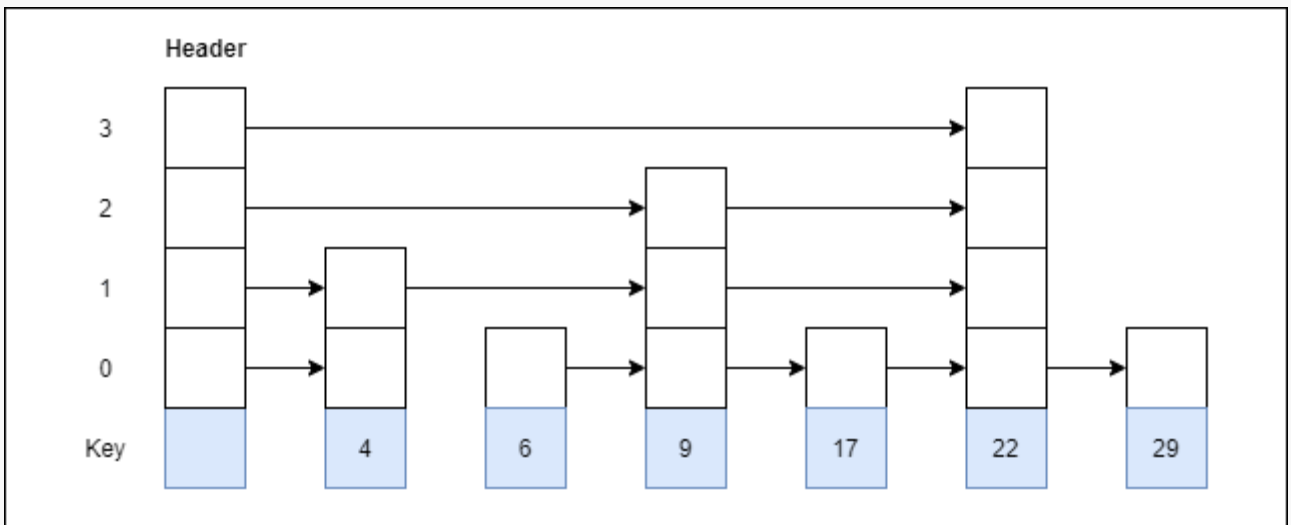
**Step5:** Insert 17 with level 1



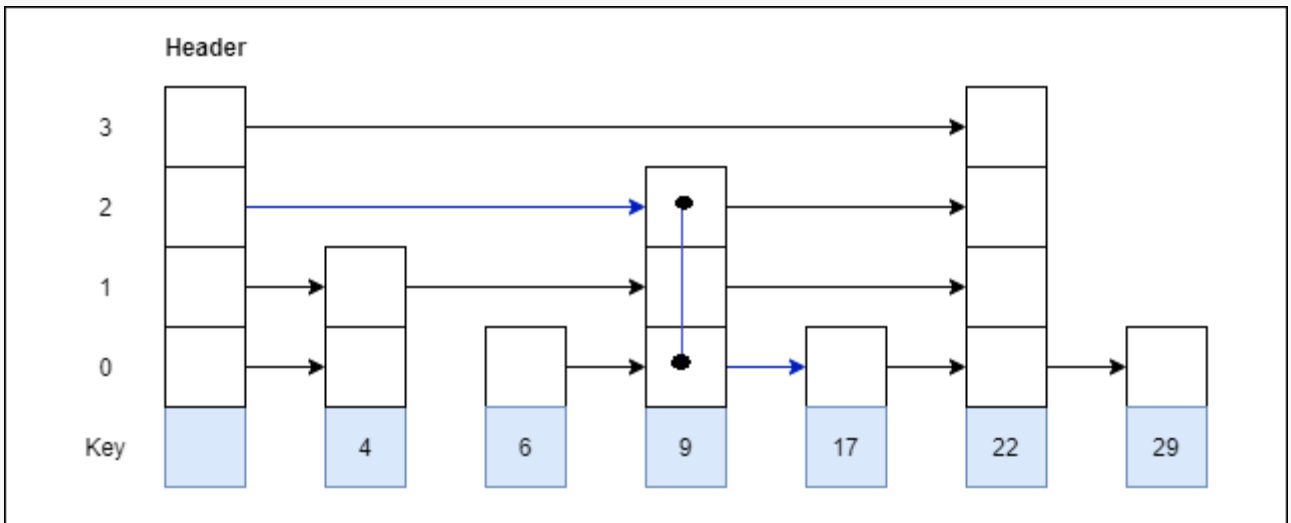
**Step6:** Insert 4 with level 2



**Example2:** Consider this example where we want to search for key 17.



**Ans:**



## *Advantages of the Skiplist*

1. If you want to insert a new node in the skiplist, then it will insert the node very fast because there are no rotations in the skiplist.
2. The skiplist is simple to implement as compared to the hashtable and the binary search tree.
3. It is very simple to find a node in the list because it stores the nodes in sorted form.
4. The skiplist algorithm can be modified very easily in a more specific structure, such as indexable skiplists, trees, or priority queues.
5. The skiplist is a robust and reliable list.

## *Disadvantages of the Skiplist*

1. It requires more memory than the balanced tree.
2. Reverse searching is not allowed.
3. The skiplist searches the node much slower than the linked list.

### ***Searching:***

Searching for a key within a skip list begins with starting at header at the overall list level and moving forward in the list comparing node keys to the key\_val. If the node key is less than the key\_val, the search continues moving forward at the same level. If on the other hand, the node key is equal to or greater than the key\_val, the search drops one level and continues forward. This process continues until the desired key\_val has been found if it is present in the skip list. If it is not, the search will either continue at the end of the list or until the first key with a value greater than the search key is found.

### ***Insertion:***

There are two tasks that should be done before insertion operation:

1. Before insertion of any node the place for this new node in the skip list is searched. Hence before any insertion to take place the search routine executes. The last[] array in the search routine is used to keep track of the references to the nodes where the search, drops down one level.
2. The level for the new node is retrieved by the routine randomLevel()

## **HASHTABLE REPRESENTATION:**

- Hash table is a data structure used for storing and retrieving data very quickly. Insertion of data in the hash table is based on the key value. Hence every entry in the hash table is associated with some key.
- Using the hash key the required piece of data can be searched in the hash table by few or more key comparisons. The searching time is then dependent upon the size of the hashtable.
- The effective representation of dictionary can be done using hash table. We can place the dictionary entries in the hash table using hash function.

Hashing is the process of generating a value from a text or a list of numbers using a mathematical function known as a hash function.

## HASH FUNCTION:

A **Hash Function** is a function that converts a given numeric or alphanumeric key to a small practical integer value. The mapped integer value is used as an index in the hash table. In simple terms, a hash function **maps** a significant number or string to a small integer that can be used as the **index** in the hash table.

The pair is of the form **(key, value)**, where for a given key, one can find a value using some kind of a “function” that maps keys to values. The key for a given object can be calculated using a function called a hash function. For example, given an array A, if i is the key, then we can find the value by simply looking up A[i].

### Types of Hash functions:

There are many hash functions that use numeric or alphanumeric keys. This article focuses on discussing different hash functions:

1. **Division Method.**
2. **MidSquare Method.**
3. **Folding Method.**
4. **Multiplication Method.**

#### 1. Division Method:

This is the most simple and easiest method to generate a hash value. The hash function divides the value k by M and then uses the remainder obtained.

#### Formula:

$$h(K) = k \bmod M$$

Here,

*k* is the key value, and

*M* is the size of the hash table.

It is best suited that **M** is a prime number as that can make sure the keys are more uniformly distributed. The hash function is dependent upon the remainder of a division.

#### Example:

If the record 54, 72, 89, 37 is placed in the hash table and if the table size is 10 then

$$h(\text{key}) = \text{record} \% \text{table size}$$

54 % 10 = 4	
-------------	--

72% 10=2	0	
	1	
	2	72
89% 10=9	3	
	4	54
	5	
37% 10=7	6	
	7	37
	8	
	9	89

## 2. MidSquareMethod:

The mid-square method is a very good hashing method. It involves two steps to compute the hash value-

1. Square the value of the key  $k$  i.e.  $k^2$
2. Extract the middle  $r$  digits as the hash value.

**Formula:**

$$h(K) = h(kxk)$$

Here,

$k$  is the key value.

The value of  $r$  can be decided based on the size of the table.

**Example:**

Consider that if we want to place a record 3111  
then  $3111^2 = 9678321$  for the hash table of size 1000  
 $H(3111) = 783$  (the middle 3 digits)

## 3. DigitFoldingMethod:

This method involves two steps:

1. Divide the key-value  $k$  into a number of parts i.e.  $k_1, k_2, k_3, \dots, k_n$ , where each part has the same number of digits except for the last part that can have lesser digits than the other parts.
2. Add the individual parts. The hash value is obtained by ignoring the last carry if any.

**Formula:**

$$k = k_1, k_2, k_3, k_4, \dots, k_n$$

$$s = k_1 + k_2 + k_3 + k_4 + \dots + k_n \quad h(K) = s$$

Here,

$s$  is obtained by adding the parts of the key  $k$

**Example:**

$$k = 12345$$

$$k_1=12, k_2=34, k_3=5$$

$$s = k_1 + k_2 + k_3$$

$$= 12 + 34 + 5$$

$$= 51$$

$$h(K) = 51$$

**Note:**

The number of digits in each part varies depending upon the size of the hash table. Suppose for example the size of the hash table is 100, then each part must have two digits except for the last part which can have a lesser number of digits.

#### **4. Multiplication Method**

This method involves the following steps:

1. Choose a constant value  $A$  such that  $0 < A < 1$ .
2. Multiply the key value with  $A$ .
3. Extract the fractional part of  $kA$ .
4. Multiply the result of the above step by the size of the hash table i.e.  $M$ .
5. The resulting hash value is obtained by taking the floor of the result obtained in step 4.

**Formula:**

$$h(K) = \text{floor}(M(kA \text{ mod } 1))$$

Here,

$M$  is the size of the hash table.

$k$  is the key value.

$A$  is a constant value.

**Example:**

$$k = 12345$$

$$A = 0.357840$$

$$M = 100$$

$$h(12345) = \text{floor}[100(12345 * 0.357840 \text{ mod } 1)]$$

$$= \text{floor}[100(4417.5348 \text{ mod } 1)]$$

$$=\text{floor}[100(0.5348)]$$

$$=\text{floor}[53.48]$$

$$=53$$

(OR)

The formula for computing the hash key is:

$H(\text{key}) = \text{floor}(p * (\text{fractional part of key} * A))$  where  $p$  is integer constant and  $A$  is constant real number.

**Donald Knuth suggested to use constant  $A = 0.61803398987$**

If key 107 and  $p = 50$  then

$$H(\text{key}) = \text{floor}(50 * (107 * 0.61803398987))$$

$$=\text{floor}(3306.4818458045)$$

$$=3306$$

At 3306 location in the hash table the record 107 will be placed.

### **COLLISION:**

The hash function is a function that returns the key value using which the record can be placed in the hash table. Thus this function helps us in placing the record in the hash table at appropriate position and due to this we can retrieve the record directly from that location. This function needs to be designed very carefully and it should not return the same hash key address for two different records. This is an undesirable situation in hashing.

### **Definition:**

The situation in which the hash function returns the same hash key (home bucket) for more than one record is called **collision** and two same hash keys returned for different records is called **synonym**.

Similarly when there is no room for a new pair in the hash table then such a situation is called **overflow**. Sometimes when we handle collision it may lead to overflow conditions. Collision and overflow show the poor hash functions.

### **For example:**

Consider a hash function.

$$H(\text{key}) = \text{record key} \% 10 \text{ having the hash table size of } 10$$



The record keys to be placed are

67, 131, 44, 43, 78, 19, 36, 57 and 77

$131 \% 10 = 1$	
$44 \% 10 = 4$	0
$43 \% 10 = 3$	1   131
$78 \% 10 = 8$	2
$19 \% 10 = 9$	3   43
$36 \% 10 = 6$	4   44
$57 \% 10 = 7$	5
$77 \% 10 = 7$	6   36
	7   57
	8   78
	9   19

Now if we try to place 77 in the hash table then we get the hash key to be 7 and at index 7 already the record key 57 is placed. This situation is called collision. From the index 7 if we look for next vacant position at subsequent indices 8, 9 then we find that there is no room to place 77 in the hash table. This situation is called overflow.

### **COLLISION RESOLUTION TECHNIQUES:**

If collision occurs then it should be handled by applying some techniques. Such a technique is called collision handling technique.

1. Chaining
2. Open addressing (linear probing)
3. Quadratic probing
4. Double hashing
5. Double hashing
6. Rehashing

### **CHAINING:**

In collision handling method chaining is a concept which introduces an additional field with data i.e. chain. A separate chain table is maintained for colliding data. When collision occurs then a linked list (chain) is maintained at the home bucket.

**For Example:**

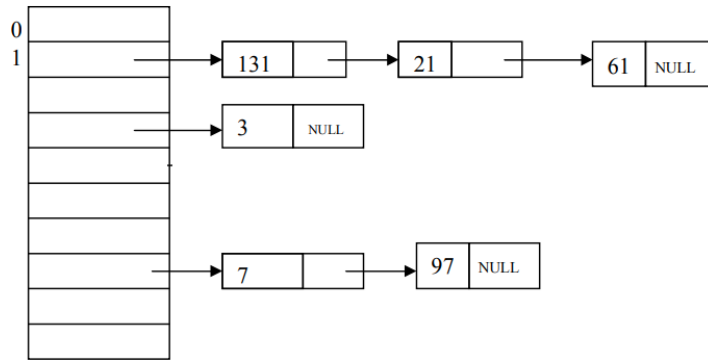
Consider the keys to be placed in their home buckets are 131,

3, 4, 21, 61, 7, 97, 8, 9

then we will apply a hash function as  $H(\text{key}) = \text{key} \% D$

Where  $D$  is the size of table. The hash table will be-

Here  $D = 10$



A chain is maintained for colliding elements. For instance 131 has a home bucket (key) 1. Similarly key 21 and 61 demand for home bucket 1. Hence a chain is maintained at index 1.

### **OPEN ADDRESSING – LINEAR PROBING:**

This is the easiest method of handling collision. When collision occurs i.e. when two records demand for the same home bucket in the hash table then collision can be solved by placing the second record linearly down whenever the empty bucket is found. When using linear probing (open addressing), the hash table is represented as a one-dimensional array with indices that range from 0 to the desired table size-1. Before inserting any elements into this table, we must initialize the table to represent the situation where all slots are empty. This allows us to detect overflows and collisions when we insert elements into the table. Then using some suitable hash function the element can be inserted into the hash table.

#### **For example:**

Consider that the following keys are to be inserted in the hash table 131, 4,

8, 7, 21, 5, 31, 61, 9, 29

Initially, we will put the following keys in the hash table.

We will use Division hash function. That means the keys are placed using the formula  $H(\text{key}) =$

$\text{key} \% \text{table size}$

$H(\text{key}) = \text{key} \% 10$

For instance the element 131 can be placed at

$$H(\text{key}) = 131 \% 10$$

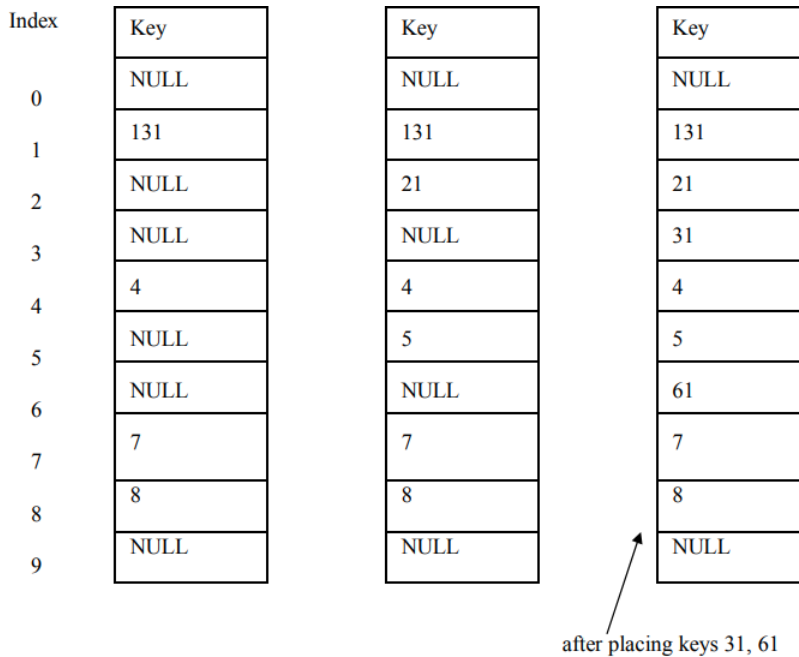
$$= 1$$

Index 1 will be the home bucket for 131. Continuing in this fashion we will place 4, 8, 7. Now the next key to be inserted is 21. According to the hash function

$$H(\text{key}) = 21 \% 10$$

$$H(\text{key}) = 1$$

But the index 1 location is already occupied by 131 i.e. collision occurs. To resolve this collision we will linearly move down and at the next empty location we will place the element. Therefore 21 will be placed at the index 2. If the next element is 5 then we get the home bucket for 5 as index 5 and this bucket is empty so we will put the element 5 at index 5.



The next record key is 9. According to decision hash function it demands for the home bucket 9. Hence we will place 9 at index 9. Now the next final record key 29 and it hashes a key 9. But home bucket 9 is already occupied. And there is no next empty bucket as the table size is limited to index 9. The overflow occurs. To handle it we move back to bucket 0 and as the location over there is empty 29 will be placed at 0th index.

### QUADRATIC PROBING:

Quadratic probing operates by taking the original hash value and adding successive values of an arbitrary quadratic polynomial to the starting value. This method uses following formula.

$$H(\text{key}) = (\text{Hash}(\text{key}) + i^2) \% m$$

where  $m$  can be table size or any prime number.

**Example:**

we have a list of size 20 ( $m=20$ ). We want to put some elements in linear probing fashion. The elements are {96, 48, 63, 29, 87, 77, 48, 65, 69, 94, 61}

x	$h(x, i) = (h'(x) + i^2) \text{ mod } 20$
96	$i = 0, h(x, 0) = 16$
48	$i = 0, h(x, 0) = 8$
63	$i = 0, h(x, 0) = 3$
29	$i = 0, h(x, 0) = 9$
87	$i = 0, h(x, 0) = 7$
77	$i = 0, h(x, 0) = 17$
48	$i = 0, h(x, 0) = 8$ $i = 1, h(x, 1) = 9$ $i = 2, h(x, 2) = 12$
65	$i = 0, h(x, 0) = 5$
69	$i = 0, h(x, 0) = 9$ $i = 1, h(x, 1) = 10$
94	$i = 0, h(x, 0) = 14$
61	$i = 0, h(x, 0) = 1$

**Hash Table**

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19
	61		63		65		87	48	29	69		48		94		96	77		

**DOUBLE HASHING:**

Double hashing is technique in which a second hash function is applied to the key when a collision occurs. By applying the second hash function we will get the number of positions from the point of collision to insert.

There are two important rules to be followed for the second function:

- It must never evaluate to zero.
- Must make sure that all cells can be probed. The

formula to be used for double hashing is:

$H_1(\text{key}) = \text{key mod table size}$ $H_2(\text{key}) = M - (\text{key mod } M)$
---

where  $M$  is a prime number smaller than the size of the table.

Consider the following elements to be placed in the hash table of size 10: 37, 90,

45, 22, 17, 49, 55

Initially insert the elements using the formula for  $H_1(\text{key})$ . Insert

37, 90, 45, 22, 49

$H_1(37) = 37 \% 10 = 7$	Key
	90
$H_1(90) = 90 \% 10 = 0$	
	22
$H_1(45) = 45 \% 10 = 5$	
	45
$H_1(22) = 22 \% 10 = 2$	
	37
$H_1(49) = 49 \% 10 = 9$	
	49

Now if 17 to be inserted then

$$H_1(17) = 17 \% 10 = 7$$

$$H_2(\text{key}) = M - (\text{key} \% M)$$

Here  $M$  is a prime number smaller than the size of the table. Prime numbers smaller than table size 10 is 7

Hence  $M = 7$

$$H_2(17) = 7 - (17 \% 7)$$

$$= 7 - 3 = 4$$

That means we have to insert the element 17 at 4 places from 37. In short we have jumps. Therefore the 17 will be placed at index 1.

Key
90
17
22
45
37
49

Now to insert number 55

$$H1(55) = 55 \% 10 = 5 \rightarrow \text{Collision}$$

$$H2(55) = 7 - (55 \% 7)$$

$$= 7 - 6 = 1$$

That means we have to take one jump from index 5 to place 55. Finally

the hash table will be –

Key
90
17
22
45
55
37
49

**REHASHING:**

When the hash table becomes nearly full, the number of collisions increases, thereby degrading the performance of insertion and search operations. In such cases, a better option is to create a new hash table with size double of the original hash table.

All the entries in the original hash table will then have to be moved to the new hash table. This is done by taking each entry, computing its new hash value, and then inserting it in the new hash table.

Though rehashing seems to be a simple process, it is quite expensive and must therefore not be done frequently. Consider the hash table of size 5 given below. The hash function used is  $h(x) = x \% 5$ . Rephash the entries into to a new hash table.

0	1	2	3	4
	26	31	43	17

Note that the new hash table is of 10 locations, double the size of the original table.

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

Now, rehash the key values from the old hash table into the new one using hash function— $h(x) = x \% 10$ .

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
	31		43			26	17		

**Advantages:**

- 1. This technique provides the programmer a flexibility to enlarge the table size if required.
- 2. Only the space gets doubled with simple hash function which avoids occurrence of collisions.

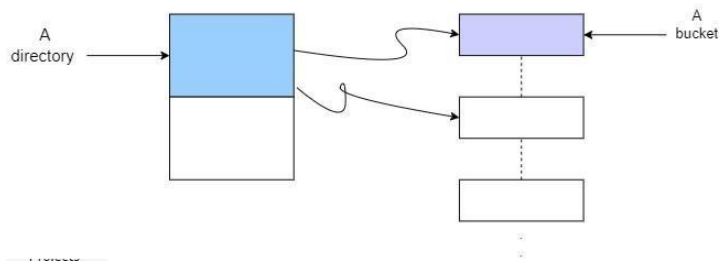
**Extendible Hashing:**

**Extendible hashing** is a dynamic approach to managing data. In this hashing method, flexibility is a crucial factor. This method caters to flexibility so that even the hashing function dynamically changes according to the situation and data type.

**Algorithm**

The following illustration represents the initial phases of a hash table:

The following illustration represents the initial phases of our hashtable:



**Directories** and **buckets** are two key terms in this algorithm. *Buckets* are the holders of hashed data, while *directories* are the holders of pointers pointing towards these buckets. Each directory has a unique ID.

The following points explain how the algorithm works:

1. Initialize the bucket depths and the global depth of the directories.
2. Convert data into a binary representation.
3. Consider the "global depth" number of the least significant bits (LSBs) of data.
4. Map the data according to the ID of a directory.
5. Check for the following conditions if a bucket overflows (if the number of elements in a bucket exceeds the set limit):
  - I. **Global depth == bucket depth:** Split the bucket into two and increment the global depth and the buckets' depth. Re-hash the elements that were present in the split bucket.
  - II. **Global depth > bucket depth:** Split the bucket into two and increment the bucket depth only. Re-hash the elements that were present in the split bucket.
6. Repeat the steps above for each element.

### Example

Let's take the following example to see how this hashing method works where:

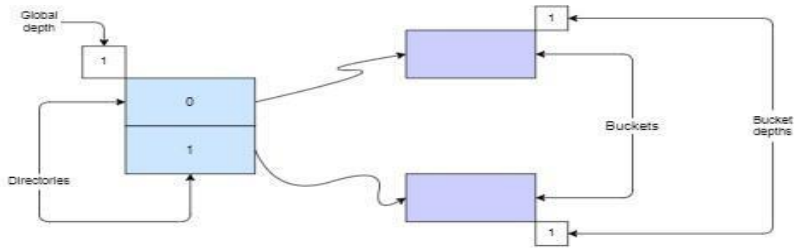
- Data = {28, 4, 19, 1, 22, 16, 12, 0, 5, 7}
- Bucket limit = 3

Convert the data into binary representation:

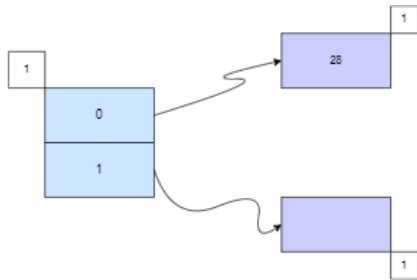
- 28 = 11100
- 4 = 00100
- 19 = 10011
- 1 = 00001
- 22 = 10110
- 16 = 10000
- 12 = 01100
- 0 = 00000
- 5 = 00101
- 7 = 00111



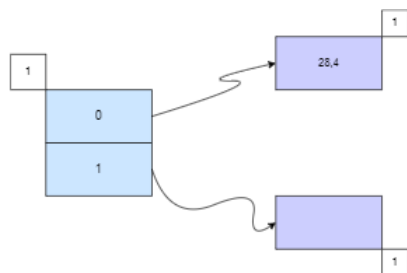
The following slides show the remaining steps:



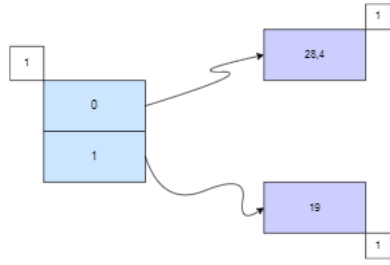
Initialize the hash table with two initial directories and buckets. Set the global depth and bucket depth to 1



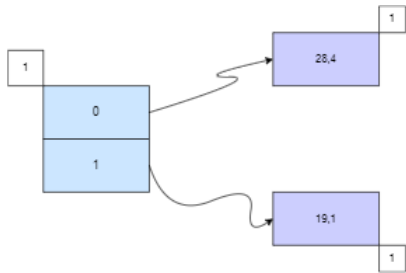
Consider  $28 = 11100$ . Take the global depth number of LSBs, which is currently one. We consider 0 as it is the rightmost LSB in 11100, and 28 is placed in the "0" ID bucket



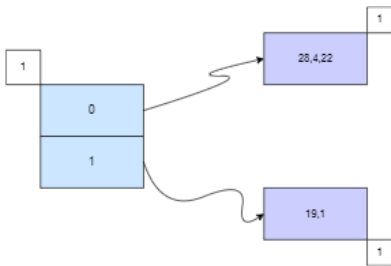
Consider  $4 = 00100$ . Add it to the "0" ID bucket as one LSBs will be considered



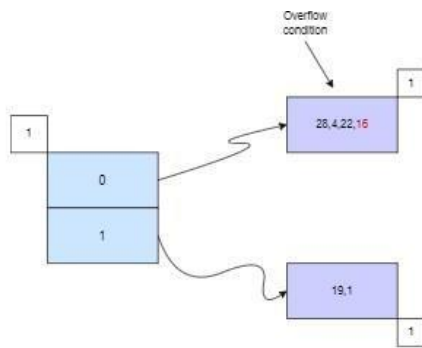
Consider 19 = 10011. Add it to the "1" ID bucket as one LSBs will be considered



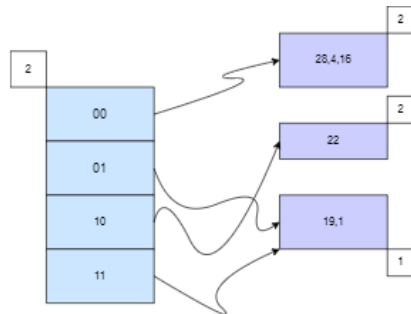
Consider 1 = 00001. Add it to the "1" ID bucket as one LSBs will be considered



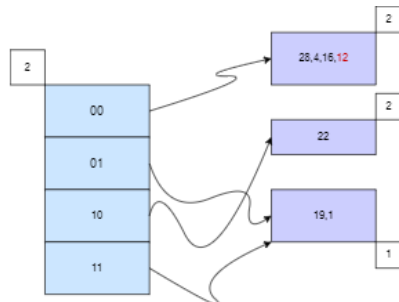
Consider 22 = 10110. Add it to the "0" ID bucket as one LSBs will be considered



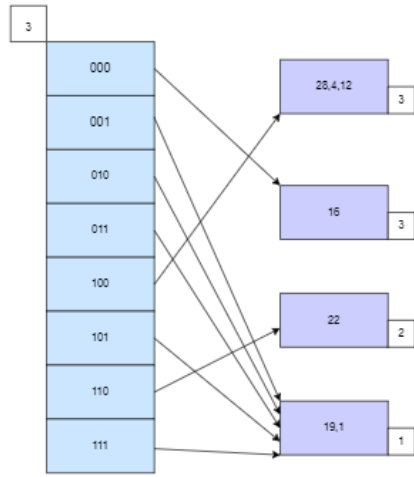
Consider  $16 = 10000$ . Adding it to the "0" ID bucket makes it overflow, and the first condition is satisfied where  $\text{global depth} == \text{bucket depth}$



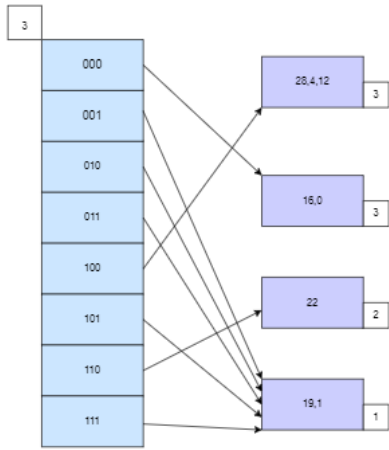
Split the bucket, grow directories, increment the global and bucket depths, and re-hash the bucket elements according to two LSBs



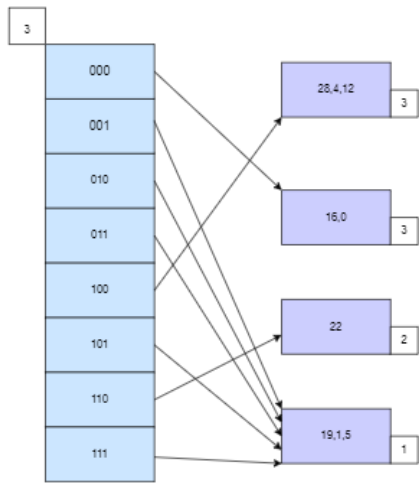
Consider  $12 = 01100$ . Adding it to the "00" ID bucket according to two LSBs makes it overflow, and satisfies the first condition



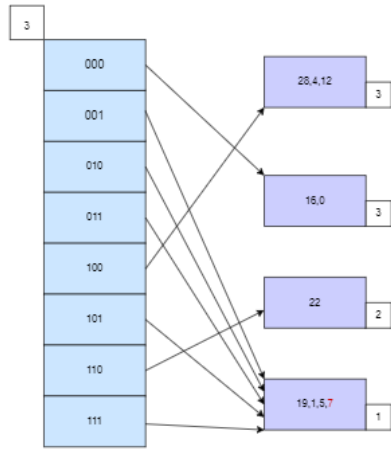
Repeat the previous step and re-hash the elements of the bucket according to three LSBs



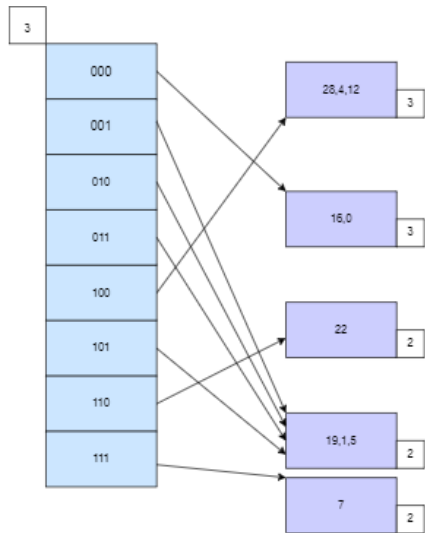
Consider 0 = 00000. Add it to the "000" ID bucket as three LSBs are considered



Consider 5 = 00101. Add it to the "101" bucket as three LSBs are considered



Consider 7 = 00111. Adding it to the "111" bucket according to three LSBs makes it overflow



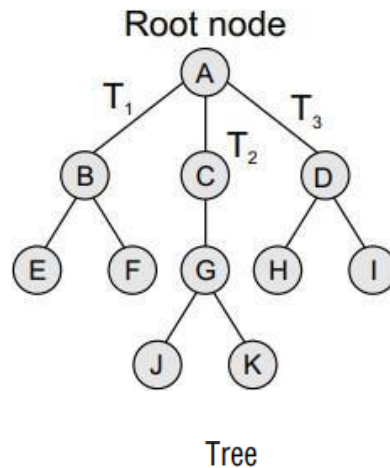
The bucket depth is now less than global depth. So, the second condition is fulfilled, and now only the bucket split step is executed. Elements are re-hashed according to the global depth, which is still 3.

## MODULE-3

### TREES

Tree is non-linear data structure that consists of root node and potentially many levels of additional nodes that form a hierarchy.

A tree is recursively defined as a set of one or more nodes where one node is designated as the root of the tree and all the remaining nodes can be partitioned into non-empty sets each of which is a sub-tree of the root.



Where node A is the root node; nodes B, C, and D are children of the root node.

#### Basic Terminology:

**Root node:** The root node R is the top most node in the tree. If R = NULL, then it means the tree is empty.

**Sub-trees:** If the root node R is not NULL, then the trees T<sub>1</sub>, T<sub>2</sub>, and T<sub>3</sub> are called the sub-trees of R.

**Leaf node:** A node that has no children is called the leaf node or the terminal node.

**Path:** A sequence of consecutive edges is called a path. For example, in the above diagram, the path from the root node A to node I is given as: A, D, and I.

**Ancestor node:** An ancestor of a node is any predecessor node on the path from root to that node.

The root node does not have any ancestors. In the tree given in the above diagram, nodes A, C, and G are the ancestors of node K.

**Descendant node:** A descendant node is any successor node on any path from the node to a leaf node. Leaf nodes do not have any descendants. In the tree given in the above diagram, nodes C, G, J, and K are the descendants of node A.

**Level number:** Every node in the tree is assigned a level number in such a way that the root node is at level 0, children of the root node are at level number 1. Thus, every node is at one level higher than its parent. So, all child nodes have a level number given by parent's level number + 1.

**Degree:** Degree of a node is equal to the number of children that a node has. The degree of a leaf node is zero.

**In-degree:** In-degree of a node is the number of edges arriving at that node.

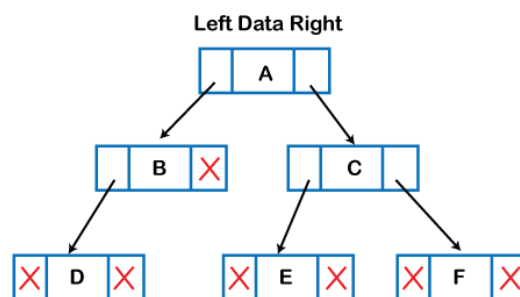
**Out-degree:** Out-degree of a node is the number of edges leaving that node.

**Siblings:** Nodes with the same parent.

**Height:** Number of nodes which must be traversed from the root to reach a leaf of a tree.

### Implementation of Tree:

The tree data structure can be created by creating the nodes dynamically with the help of the pointers. The tree in the memory can be represented as shown below:



The representation of the tree data structure in the memory. In the above structure, the node contains three fields. The second field stores the data; the first field stores the address of the left child, and the third field stores the address of the right child.

In programming, the structure of a node can be defined as:

```
struct node
{
    int data;
    struct node *left;
    struct node *right;
}
```

The above structure can only be defined for the binary trees because the binary tree can have at most two children, and generic trees can have more than two children. The structure of the node for generic trees would be different as compared to the binary tree.

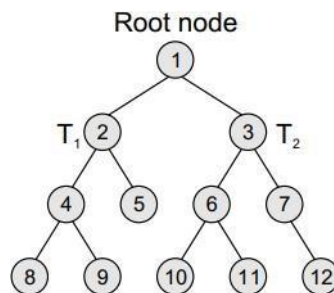
## Applications of trees

The following are the applications of trees:

- **Storing naturally hierarchical data:** Trees are used to store the data in the hierarchical structure. For example, the file system. The file system stored on the disc drive, the file and folder are in the form of the naturally hierarchical data and stored in the form of trees.
- **Organize data:** It is used to organize data for efficient insertion, deletion and searching. For example, a binary tree has a  $\log N$  time for searching an element.
- **Trie:** It is a special kind of tree that is used to store the dictionary. It is a fast and efficient way for dynamic spell checking.
- **Heap:** It is also a tree data structure implemented using arrays. It is used to implement priority queues.
- **B-Tree and B+Tree:** B-Tree and B+Tree are the tree data structures used to implement indexing in databases.
- **Routing table:** The tree data structure is also used to store the data in routing tables in the routers.

## Binary Trees:

A binary tree is a data structure that is defined as a collection of elements called nodes. In a binary tree, the topmost element is called the root node, and each node has 0, 1, or at the most 2 children. A node that has zero children is called a leaf node or a terminal node. Every node contains a data element, a left pointer which points to the left child, and a right pointer which points to the right child. The root element is pointed by a 'root' pointer. If root = NULL, then it means the tree is empty.



Binary tree

In the above diagram, R is the root node and the two trees T1 and T2 are called the left and right sub-trees of R. T1 is said to be the left successor of R. Likewise, T2 is called the right successor of R. Note that the left sub-tree of the root node consists of the nodes: 2, 4, 5, 8, and 9. Similarly, the right sub-tree of the root node consists of nodes: 3, 6, 7, 10, 11, and 12.



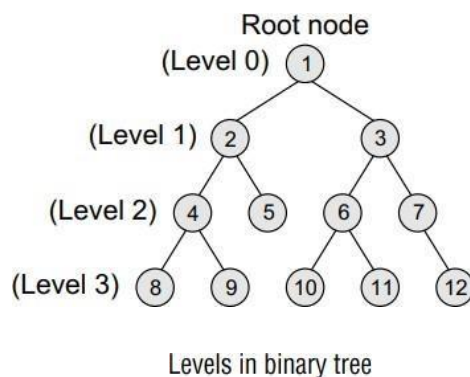
In the tree, root node 1 has two successors: 2 and 3. Node 2 has two successor nodes: 4 and 5. Node 4 has two successors: 8 and 9. Node 5 has no successor. Node 3 has two successor nodes: 6 and 7. Node 6 has two successors: 10 and 11. Finally, node 7 has only one successor: 12.

A binary tree is recursive by definition as every node in the tree contains a left sub-tree and a right sub-tree. Even the terminal nodes contain an empty left sub-tree and an empty right sub-tree. In the above diagram, nodes 5, 8, 9, 10, 11, and 12 have no successors and thus said to have empty sub-trees.

### Terminology:

**Parent:** If N is any node in T that has left successor S1 and right successor S2, then N is called the parent of S1 and S2. Correspondingly, S1 and S2 are called the left child and the right child of N. Every node other than the root node has a parent.

**Level number:** Every node in the binary tree is assigned a level number. The root node is defined to be at level 0. The left and the right child of the root node have a level number 1. Similarly, every node is at one level higher than its parents. So all child nodes are defined to have level number as parent's level number + 1.

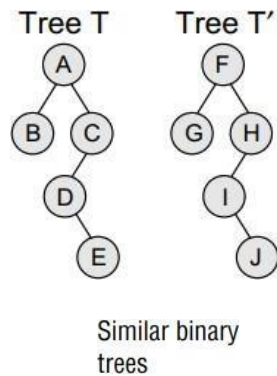


**Degree of a node** It is equal to the number of children that a node has. The degree of a leaf node is zero. For example, in the tree, degree of node 4 is 2, degree of node 5 is zero and degree of node 7 is 1.

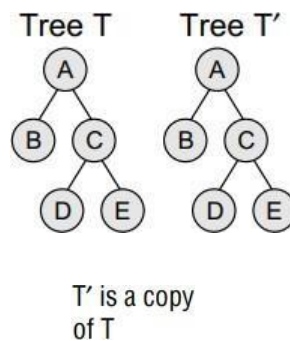
**Sibling:** All nodes that are at the same level and share the same parent are called siblings (brothers). For example, nodes 2 and 3; nodes 4 and 5; nodes 6 and 7; nodes 8 and 9; and nodes 10 and 11 are siblings.

**Leaf node:** A node that has no children is called a leaf node or a terminal node. The leaf nodes in the tree are: 8, 9, 5, 10, 11, and 12.

**Similar binary trees:** Two binary trees T and T' are said to be similar if both these trees have the same structure.



**Copies:** Two binary trees  $T$  and  $T'$  are said to be copies if they have similar structure and if they have same content at the corresponding nodes. Below diagram shows that  $T'$  is a copy of  $T$ .



**Edge:** It is the line connecting a node  $N$  to any of its successors. A binary tree of  $n$  nodes has exactly  $n - 1$  edges because every node except the root node is connected to its parent via an edge.

**Path:** A sequence of consecutive edges. For example, in the above diagram, the path from the root node to the node 8 is given as: 1, 2, 4, and 8.

**Depth:** The depth of a node  $N$  is given as the length of the path from the root  $R$  to the node  $N$ . The depth of the root node is zero.

**Height of a tree:** It is the total number of nodes on the path from the root node to the deepest node in the tree. A tree with only a root node has a height of 1. A binary tree of height  $h$  has at least  $n$  nodes and at most  $2^h - 1$  nodes. This is because every level will have at least one node and can have at most 2 nodes. So, if every level has two nodes then a tree with height  $h$  will have at the most  $2^h - 1$  nodes as at level 0, there is only one element called the root. The height of a binary tree with  $n$  nodes is at least  $\log_2(n+1)$  and at most  $n$ .

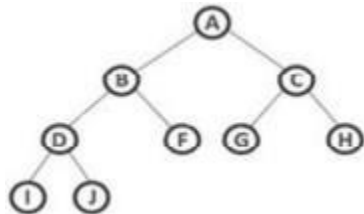
**In-degree/out-degree of a node:** It is the number of edges arriving at a node. The root node is the only node that has an in-degree equal to zero. Similarly, out-degree of a node is the number of edges leaving that node.

Binary trees are commonly used to implement binary search trees, expression trees, tournament trees, and binary heaps.

There are different types of binary trees and they are...

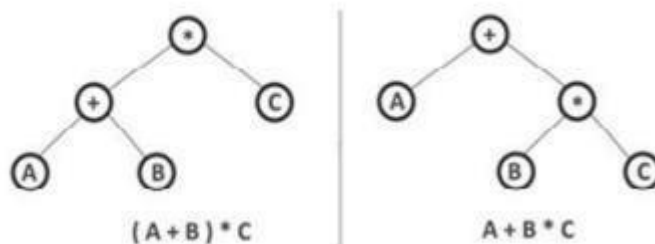
**1. Strictly Binary Tree:** In a binary tree, every node can have a maximum of two children.

But in strictly binary tree, every node should have exactly two children or none. That means every internal node must have exactly two children. A strictly Binary Tree can be defined as follows... A binary tree in which every node has either two or zero number of children is called Strictly Binary Tree. Strictly binary tree is also called as Full Binary Tree or Proper Binary Tree or 2-Tree.

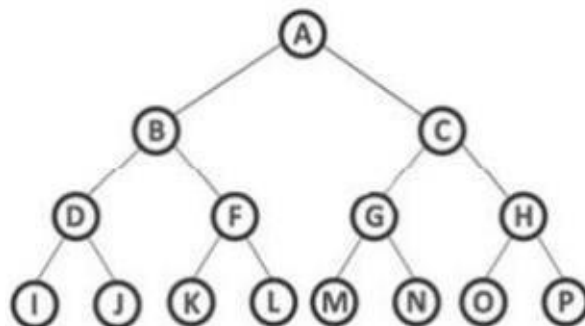


Strictly binary tree data structure is used to represent mathematical expressions.

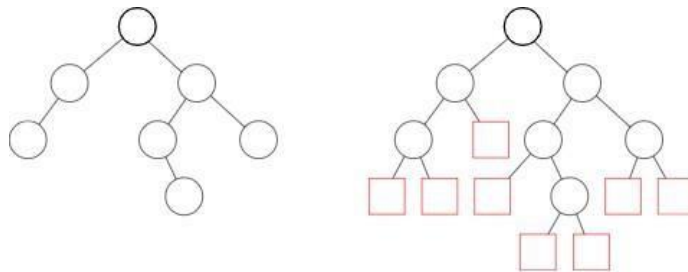
### Example



**Complete Binary Tree:** In a binary tree, every node can have a maximum of two children. But in strictly binary tree, every node should have exactly two children or none and in complete binary tree all the nodes must have exactly two children and at every level of complete binary tree there must be  $2^{\text{level}}$  number of nodes. For example at level 2 there must be  $2^2 = 4$  nodes and at level 3 there must be  $2^3 = 8$  nodes. A binary tree in which every internal node has exactly two children and all leaf nodes are at same level is called Complete Binary Tree. Complete binary tree is also called as Perfect Binary Tree



**Extended Binary Tree:** A binary tree can be converted into Full Binary tree by adding dummy nodes to existing nodes wherever required. The full binary tree obtained by adding dummy nodes to a binary tree is called as Extended Binary Tree.



In above figure, a normal binary tree is converted into full binary tree by adding dummy nodes (In pink colour).

### Binary Tree Representations

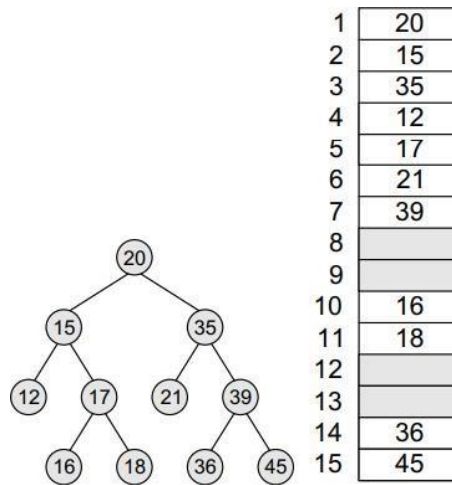
A binary tree data structure is represented using two methods. Those methods are as follows:

1. Array Representation
2. LinkedList Representation

### Sequential representation of binary trees:

Sequential representation of trees is done using single or one-dimensional arrays. Though it is the simplest technique for memory representation, it is inefficient as it requires a lot of memory space. A sequential binary tree follows the following rules:

1. A one-dimensional array, called TREE, is used to store the elements of tree.
2. The root of the tree will be stored in the first location. That is, TREE will store the data of the root element.
3. The maximum size of the array TREE is given as  $(2^h - 1)$ , where  $h$  is the height of the tree.
4. An empty tree or sub-tree is specified using NULL. If  $TREE = \text{NULL}$ , then the tree is empty.



Binary tree and its sequential representation

The above diagram shows the binary tree and its corresponding sequential representation. The tree has 15 nodes and its height is 4.

### Linked representation of binary trees:

In the linked representation of a binary tree, every node will have three parts: the data element, a pointer to the left node, and a pointer to the right node.

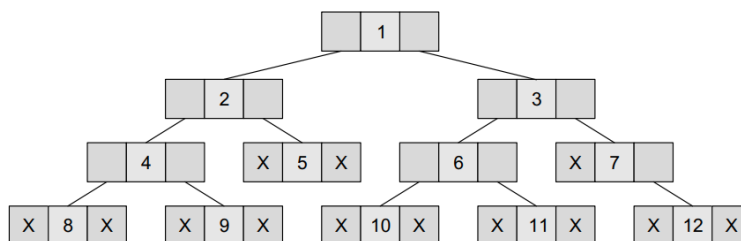
So in C, the binary tree is built with a node type given below.

```

struct node
{
    struct node* left;
    int data;
    struct node* right;
};

```

Every binary tree has a pointer ROOT, which points to the root element (topmost element) of the tree. If ROOT = NULL, then the tree is empty. The schematic diagram of the linked representation of the binary tree is shown below. In the below diagram, the left position is used to point to the left child of the node or to store the address of the left child of the node. The middle position is used to store the data. Finally, the right position is used to point to the right child of the node or to store the address of the right child of the node. Empty sub-trees are represented using X (meaning NULL).



Linked representation of a binary tree

## Tree Traversals (Inorder, Preorder and Postorder):

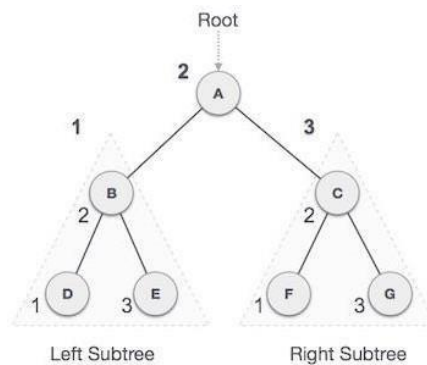
Traversal is a process to visit all the nodes of a tree and may print their values too. Because, all nodes are connected via edges (links) we always start from the root (head) node. That is, we cannot randomly access a node in a tree. There are three ways which we use to traverse a tree –

- In-order Traversal
- Pre-order Traversal
- Post-order Traversal

Generally, we traverse a tree to search or locate a given item or key in the tree or to print all the values it contains.

### In-order Traversal:

- In this traversal method, the left subtree is visited first, then the root and later the right subtree. We should always remember that every node may represent a subtree itself.
- If a binary tree is traversed **in-order**, the output will produce sorted key values in an ascending order.



We start from A, and following in-order traversal, we move to its left subtree B. B is also traversed in-order. The process goes on until all the nodes are visited. The output of inorder traversal of this tree will be –

**$D \rightarrow B \rightarrow E \rightarrow A \rightarrow F \rightarrow C \rightarrow G$**

### Algorithm

Until all nodes are traversed –

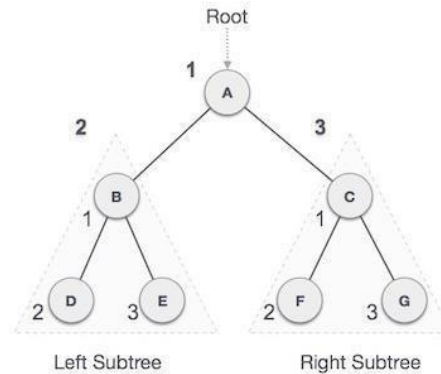
**Step 1** – Recursively traverse left subtree.

**Step 2** – Visit root node.

**Step 3** – Recursively traverse right subtree.

## Pre-order Traversal

In this traversal method, the root node is visited first, then the left subtree and finally the right subtree.



We start from **A**, and following pre-order traversal, we first visit **A** itself and then move to its left subtree **B**. **B** is also traversed pre-order. The process goes on until all the nodes are visited. The output of pre-order traversal of this tree will be –

**A → B → D → E → C → F → G**

## Algorithm

Until all nodes are traversed –

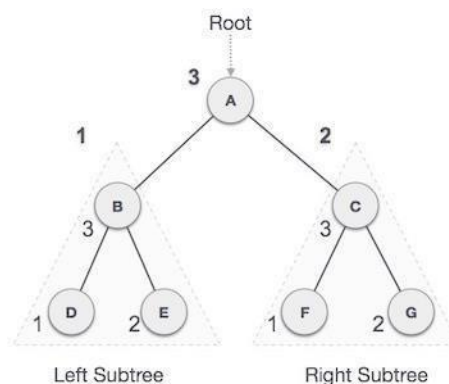
**Step 1** – Visit root node.

**Step 2** – Recursively traverse left subtree.

**Step 3** – Recursively traverse right subtree.

## Post-order Traversal

In this traversal method, the root node is visited last, hence the name. First we traverse the left subtree, then the right subtree and finally the root node.



We start from **A**, and following Post-order traversal, we first visit the left subtree **B**. **B** is also traversed post-order. The process goes on until all the nodes are visited. The output of post-order

traversal of this tree will be-

**$D \rightarrow E \rightarrow B \rightarrow F \rightarrow G \rightarrow C \rightarrow A$**

### Algorithm

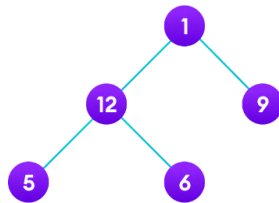
Until all nodes are traversed-

**Step 1** – Recursively traverse left subtree.

**Step 2** – Recursively traverse right subtree.

**Step 3** – Visit root node.

### Implementation in C:



```
//TreetraversalinC
#include <stdio.h>
#include <stdlib.h>
struct node {
    int item;
    struct node* left;
    struct node* right;
};
//Inordertraversal
void inorderTraversal(struct node* root) { if
    (root == NULL) return;
    inorderTraversal(root->left);
    printf("%d ->", root->item);
    inorderTraversal(root->right);
}
//preorderTraversaltraversal
void preorderTraversal(struct node* root) { if
    (root == NULL) return;
    printf("%d ->", root->item);
    preorderTraversal(root->left);
```



```

preorderTraversal(root->right);
}
//postorderTraversaltraversal
voidpostorderTraversal(structnode*root){ if
(root == NULL) return;
postorderTraversal(root->left);
postorderTraversal(root->right);printf("%d
->", root->item);
}
//CreateanewNode
structnode*createNode(value){
structnode*newNode=malloc(sizeof(structnode));
newNode->item = value;
newNode->left = NULL;
newNode->right=NULL;
return newNode;
}
//Insertontheleftofthenode
structnode*insertLeft(structnode*root,intvalue){
root->left = createNode(value);
returnroot->left;
}
//Insertonthe rightofthenode
structnode*insertRight(structnode*root,intvalue){
root->right = createNode(value);
returnroot->right;
}
intmain(){
structnode*root=createNode(1);
insertLeft(root, 12);
insertRight(root,9);
insertLeft(root->left,5);
insertRight(root->left, 6);
printf("Inorder traversal \n");
inorderTraversal(root);
printf("\nPreordertraversal\n");

```

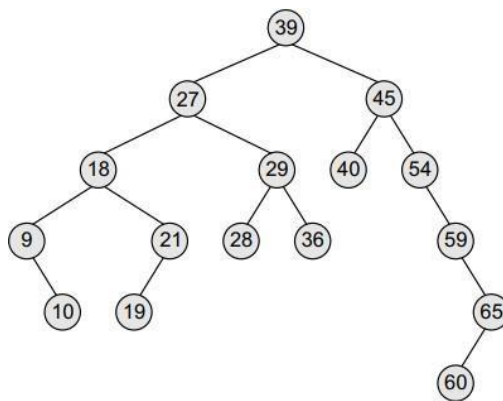
```

preorderTraversal(root);
printf("\nPostordertraversal
\n"postorderTraversal(root);
}

```

## **BINARYSEARCHTREES:**

A binary search tree, also known as an ordered binary tree, is a variant of binary trees in which the nodes are arranged in an order. In a binary search tree, all the nodes in the left sub-tree have a value less than that of the root node. Correspondingly, all the nodes in the right sub-tree have a value either equal to or greater than the root node. The same rule is applicable to every sub-tree in the tree.



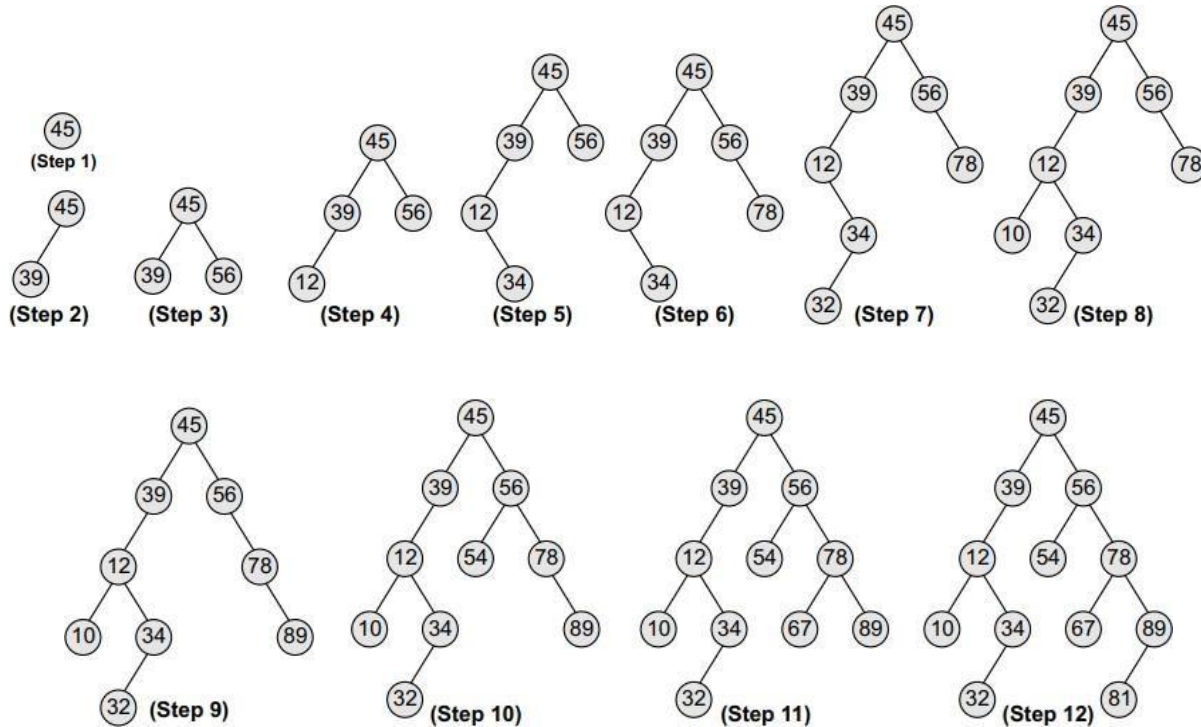
The root node is 39. The left sub-tree of the root node consists of nodes 9, 10, 18, 19, 21, 27, 28, 29, and 36. All these nodes have smaller values than the root node. The right sub-tree of the root node consists of nodes 40, 45, 54, 59, 60, and 65. Recursively, each of the sub-trees also obeys the binary search tree constraint. For example, in the left sub-tree of the root node, 27 is the root and all elements in its left sub-tree (9, 10, 18, 19, 21) are smaller than 27, while all nodes in its right sub-tree (28, 29, and 36) are greater than the root node's value.

Since the nodes in a binary search tree are ordered, the time needed to search an element in the tree is greatly reduced. Whenever we search for an element, we do not need to traverse the entire tree. At every node, we get a hint regarding which sub-tree to search in. For example, in the given tree, if we have to search for 29, then we know that we have to scan only the left sub-tree. If the value is present in the tree, it will only be in the left sub-tree, as 29 is smaller than 39 (the root node's value). The left sub-tree has a root node with the value 27. Since 29 is greater than 27, we will move to the right sub-tree, where we will find the element. Thus, the average running time of a search operation is  $O(\log_2 n)$ , as at every step, we eliminate half of the sub-tree from the search process. Due to its efficiency in searching elements, binary search trees are widely used in dictionary problems where the code always inserts and searches the elements that are indexed by some key value.

Create a binary search tree using the following data elements:

45, 39, 56, 12, 34, 78, 32, 10, 89, 54, 67, 81

**Solution:**



### The basic operations of a Binary Search Tree/Implementation

- Search- Searches an element in a tree.
- Insert- Inserts an element in a tree.
- Traversing- Processing of elements

#### Insertion operation:

In a binary search tree, the insertion operation is performed with  $O(\log n)$  time complexity. In a binary search tree, a new node is always inserted as a leaf node.

Adding a value to a BST can be divided into two stages:

- Search for a place to put a new element;
- Insert the new element to that place.

The insertion operation is performed as follows...

**Step 1:** Create a new Node with a given value and set its left and right to NULL.

**Step 2:** Check whether the tree is Empty.

**Step 3:** If the tree is Empty, then set the root to the new Node.

**Step 4:** If the tree is Not Empty, then check whether the value of the new Node is smaller or larger than the node (here it is the root node).

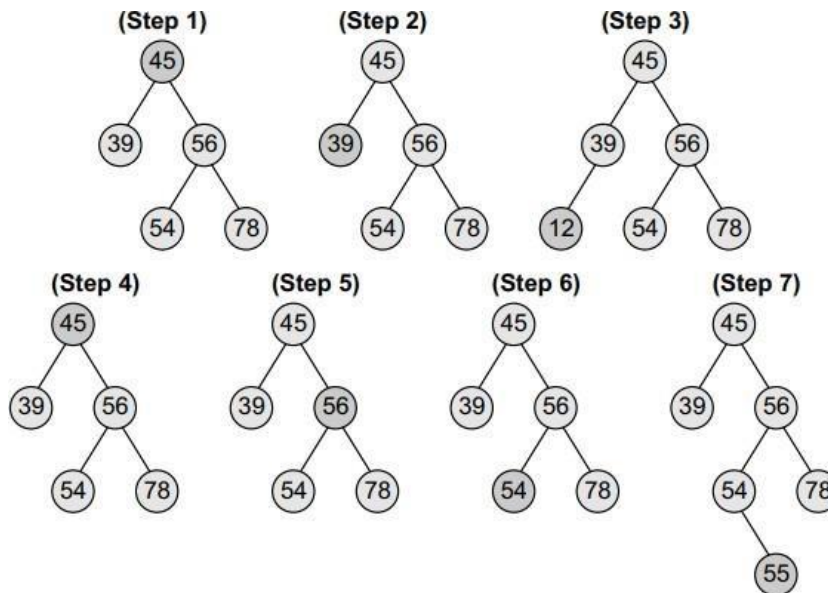
**Step 5:** If new Node is smaller than or equal to the node, then move to its left child. If new Node is larger than the node, then move to its right child.

**Step 6:** Repeat the above step until we reach to a leaf node (e.i., reach to NULL).

**Step 7:** After reaching a leaf node, then insert the new Node as left child if new Node is smaller or equal to that leaf else insert it as right child.

The new node will always replace a NULL reference.

**Example:**



Inserting nodes with values 12 and 55 in the given binary search tree

**Algorithm to Insert a given value in Binary Search Tree:**

**Insert (TREE, VAL)**

```

Step 1: IF TREE = NULL
    Allocate memory for TREE
    SET TREE -> DATA = VAL
    SET TREE -> LEFT = TREE -> RIGHT = NULL
ELSE
    IF VAL < TREE -> DATA
        Insert(TREE -> LEFT, VAL)
    ELSE
        Insert(TREE -> RIGHT, VAL)
    [END OF IF]
[END OF IF]
Step 2: END
    
```

## Delete Operation:

The delete function deletes a node from the binary search tree. However, utmost care should be taken that the properties of the binary search tree are not violated and nodes are not lost in the process. We will take up three cases in this section and discuss how a node is deleted from a binary search tree.

### Basically, it can be divided into two stages:

1. Search for a node to remove.
2. If the node is found, remove that element. For that we will use simple recursion to find the node and delete it from the tree.

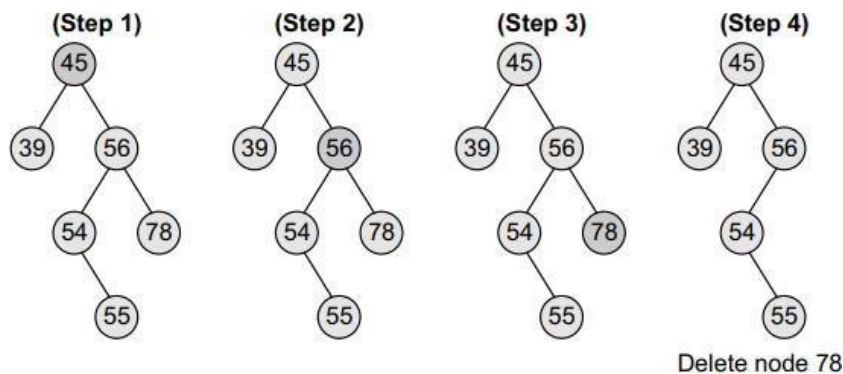
### The algorithm has 3 cases while deleting node:

1. Node to be deleted is a leaf node (no children).
2. Node to be deleted has one child.
3. Node to be deleted has two children (left and right child nodes).

#### Case 1:

##### Deleting a Node that has No Children:

Look at the binary search tree. If we have to delete node 78, we can simply remove this node without any issue. This is the simplest case of deletion.

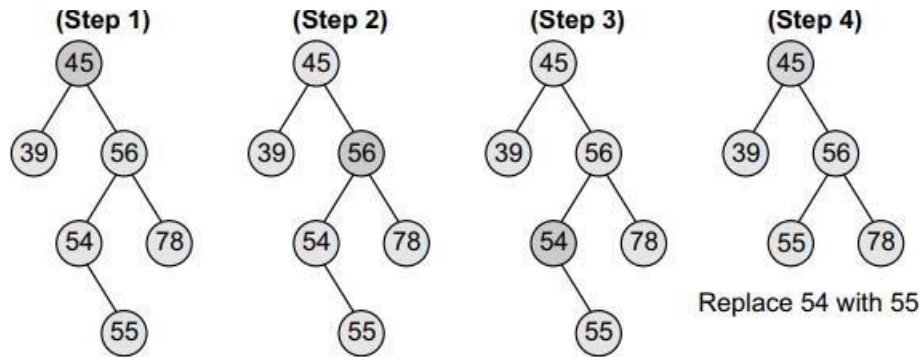


Deleting node 78 from the given binary search tree

#### Case 2:

##### Deleting a Node with One Child:

To handle this case, the node's child is set as the child of the node's parent. In other words, replace the node with its child. Now, if the node is the left child of its parent, the node's child becomes the left child of the node's parent. Correspondingly, if the node is the right child of its parent, then the node's child becomes the right child of the node's parent. Look at the binary search tree shown below and see how deletion of node 54 is handled.

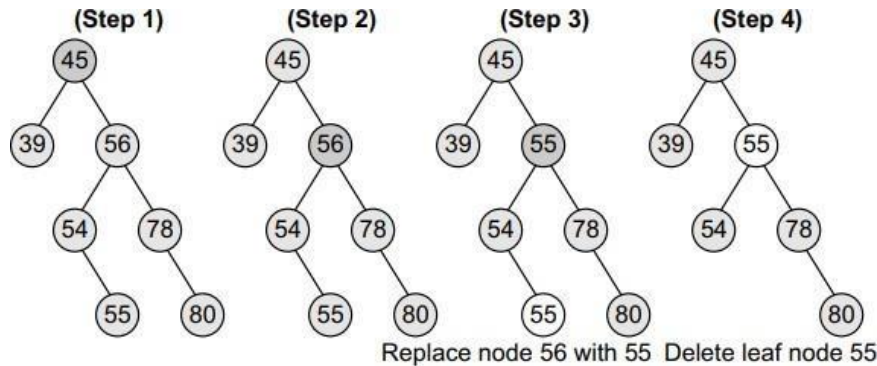


Deleting node 54 from the given binary search tree

**Case3:**

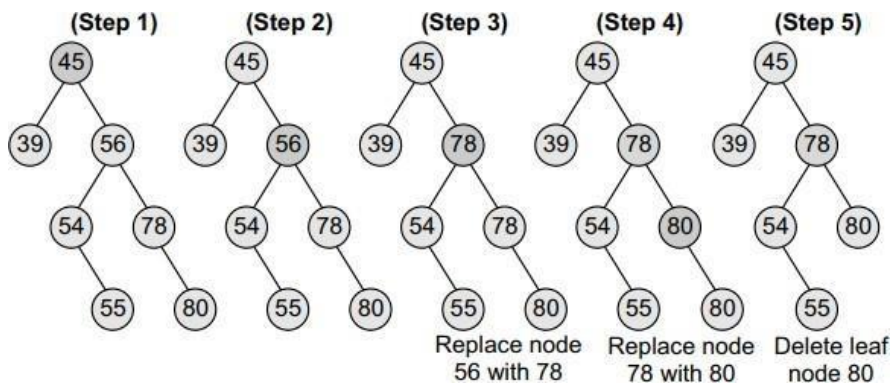
**Deleting a Node with Two Children:**

To handle this case, replace the node's value with its in-order predecessor (largest value in the left sub-tree) or in-order successor (smallest value in the right sub-tree). The in-order predecessor or the successor can then be deleted using any of the above cases. Look at the binary search tree given in below figure and see how deletion of node with value 56 is handled.



Deleting node 56 from the given binary search tree

This deletion could also be handled by replacing node 56 with its in-order successor, as shown in below diagram.



Deleting node 56 from the given binary search tree

## Algorithm to Delete a Node from Binary Search Tree:

### Delete (TREE, VAL)

```
Step 1: IF TREE = NULL
        Write "VAL not found in the tree"
    ELSE IF VAL < TREE->DATA
        Delete(TREE->LEFT, VAL)
    ELSE IF VAL > TREE->DATA
        Delete(TREE->RIGHT, VAL)
    ELSE IF TREE->LEFT AND TREE->RIGHT
        SET TEMP = findLargestNode(TREE->LEFT)
        SET TREE->DATA = TEMP->DATA
        Delete(TREE->LEFT, TEMP->DATA)
    ELSE
        SET TEMP = TREE
        IF TREE->LEFT = NULL AND TREE->RIGHT = NULL
            SET TREE = NULL
        ELSE IF TREE->LEFT != NULL
            SET TREE = TREE->LEFT
        ELSE
            SET TREE = TREE->RIGHT
    [END OF IF]
    FREE TEMP
[END OF IF]
Step 2: END
```

## The algorithm to delete a node from a binary search tree:

In Step 1 of the algorithm, we first check if TREE=NULL, because if it is true, then the node to be deleted is not present in the tree. However, if that is not the case, then we check if the value to be deleted is less than the current node's data. In case the value is less, we call the algorithm recursively on the node's left sub-tree, otherwise the algorithm is called recursively on the node's right sub-tree. Note that if we have found the node whose value is equal to VAL, then we check which case of deletion it is. If the node to be deleted has both left and right children, then we find the in-order predecessor of the node by calling findLargestNode(TREE->LEFT) and replace the current node's value with that of its in-order predecessor. Then, we call Delete(TREE->LEFT, TEMP->DATA) to delete the initial node of the in-order predecessor. Thus, we reduce the case 3 of deletion into either case 1 or case 2 of deletion. If the node to be deleted does not have any child, then we simply set the node to NULL. Last but not the least, if the node to be deleted has either left or right child but not both, then the current node is replaced by its child node and the initial child node is deleted from the tree.

## Search for a Node in a Binary Search Tree:

The search function is used to find whether a given value is present in the tree or not. The searching process begins at the root node. The function first checks if the binary search tree is empty. If it is empty, then the value we are searching for is not present in the tree. So, the search algorithm terminates by displaying an appropriate message. However, if there are nodes in the tree, then the search function



checks to see if the key value of the current node is equal to the value to be searched. If not, it checks if the value to be searched for is less than the value of the current node, in which case it should be recursively called on the left child node. In case the value is greater than the value of the current node, it should be recursively called on the right child node.

**The search operation is performed as follows:**

**Step 1:** Read the search element from the user

**Step 2:** Compare, the search element with the value of root node in the tree.

**Step 3:** If both are matching, then display "Given node found!!!" and terminate the function

**Step 4:** If both are not matching, then check whether search element is smaller or larger than that node value.

**Step 5:** If search element is smaller, then continue the search process in left subtree.

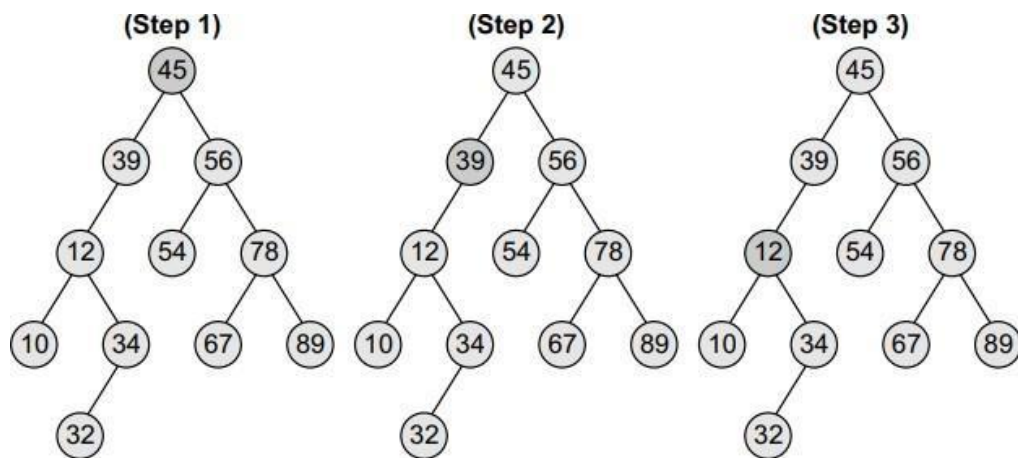
**Step 6:** If search element is larger, then continue the search process in right subtree.

**Step 7:** Repeat the same until we find exact element or we completed with a leaf node

**Step 8:** If we reach to the node with search value, then display "Element is found" and terminate the function.

**Step 9:** If we reach to a leaf node and it is also not matching, then display "Element not found" and terminate the function.

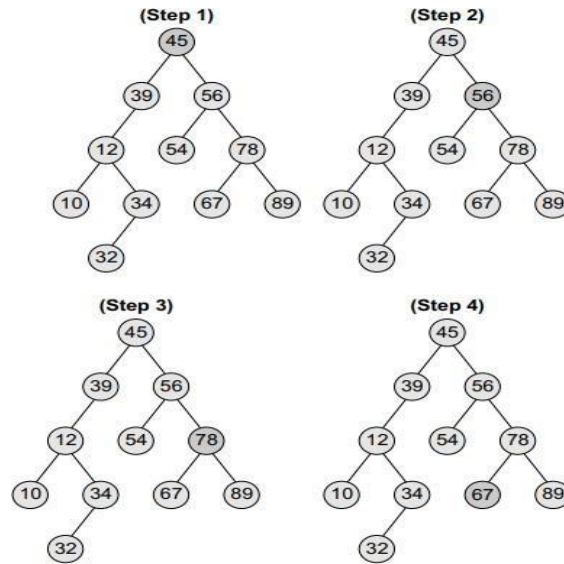
The below figure shows how a binary tree is searched to find a specific element. First, see how the tree will be traversed to find the node with value 12.



Searching a node with value 12 in the given binary search tree

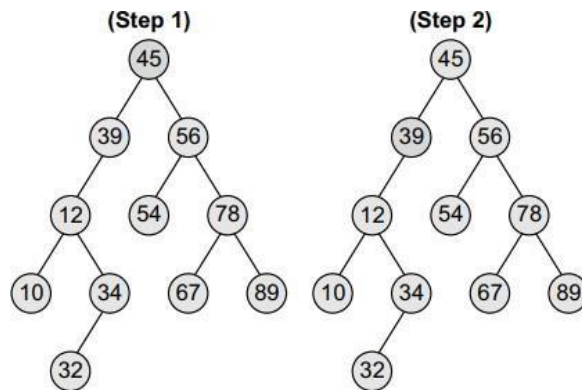


The procedure to find the node with value 67 is illustrated in below figure.



Searching a node with value 67 in the given binary search tree

The procedure to find the node with value 40 is shown in below figure. This search would terminate after reaching node 39 as it does not have any right child.



Searching a node with the value 40 in the given binary search tree

### Algorithm to Search for an Element in Binary Search Tree:

**searchElement (TREE, VAL)**

Step 1: IF TREE → DATA = VAL OR TREE = NULL

Return TREE

ELSE

IF VAL < TREE → DATA

Return searchElement(TREE → LEFT, VAL)

ELSE

Return searchElement(TREE → RIGHT, VAL)

[END OF IF]

[END OF IF]

Step 2: END

The algorithm to search for an element in the binary search tree as shown below. In Step 1, we check if the value stored at the current node of TREE is equal to VAL or if the current node is NULL, then we return the current node of TREE. Otherwise, if the value stored at the current node is less than VAL, then the algorithm is recursively called on its right sub-tree, else the algorithm is called on its left sub-tree.

### **AVLTREES:**

AVL tree is a self-balancing binary search tree invented by G.M. Adelson-Velsky and E.M. Landis in 1962. The tree is named AVL in honor of its inventors. In an AVL tree, the heights of the two sub-trees of a node may differ by at most one. Due to this property, the AVL tree is also known as a height-balanced tree. The key advantage of using an AVL tree is that it takes  $O(\log n)$  time to perform search, insert, and delete operations in an average case as well as the worst case because the height of the tree is limited to  $O(\log n)$ .

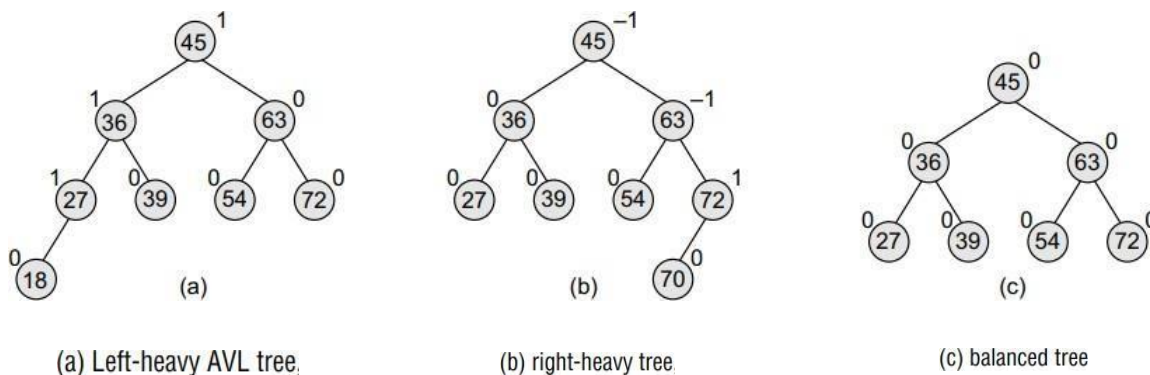
The structure of an AVL tree is the same as that of a binary search tree but with a little difference. In its structure, it stores an additional variable called the Balance Factor. Thus, every node has a balance factor associated with it. The balance factor of a node is calculated by subtracting the height of its right sub-tree from the height of its left sub-tree. A binary search tree in which every node has a balance factor of  $-1$ ,  $0$ , or  $1$  is said to be height balanced. A node with any other balance factor is considered to be unbalanced and requires rebalancing of the tree.

$\text{Balance factor} = \text{Height}(\text{left sub-tree}) - \text{Height}(\text{right sub-tree})$ .

- If balance factor of any node is  $1$ , it means that the left sub-tree is one level higher than the right sub-tree.
- If balance factor of any node is  $0$ , it means that the left sub-tree and right sub-tree contain equal height.
- If balance factor of any node is  $-1$ , it means that the left sub-tree is one level lower than the right sub-tree.

Look at the below figure. Note that the nodes 18, 39, 54, and 72 have no children, so their balance factor =  $0$ . Node 27 has one left child and zero right child. So, the height of left sub-tree =  $1$ , whereas the height of right sub-tree =  $0$ . Thus, its balance factor =  $1$ . Look at node 36, it has a left sub-tree with height

= 2, whereas the height of right sub-tree = 1. Thus, its balance factor =  $2 - 1 = 1$ . Similarly, the balance factor of node 45 =  $3 - 2 = 1$ ; and node 63 has a balance factor of 0 ( $1 - 1$ ).



The trees given in above figure are typical candidates of AVL trees because the balancing factor of every node is either 1, 0, or -1. However, insertions and deletions from an AVL tree may disturb the balance factor of the nodes and, thus, rebalancing of the tree may have to be done. The tree is rebalanced by performing rotation at the critical node.

There are four types of rotations: LL rotation, RR rotation, LR rotation, and RL rotation. The type of rotation that has to be done will vary depending on the particular situation.

**Operations on AVL tree:**

Due to the fact that, AVL tree is also a binary search tree therefore, all the operations are performed in the same way as they are performed in a binary search tree. Searching and traversing do not lead to the violation in property of AVL tree. However, insertion and deletion are the operations which can violate this property and therefore, they need to be revisited.

- 1. Insertion    2. Deletion

**Inserting a New Node in an AVL Tree:**

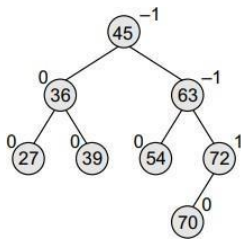
Insertion in an AVL tree is also done in the same way as it is done in a binary search tree. In the AVL tree, the new node is always inserted as the leaf node. But the step of insertion is usually followed by an additional step of rotation. Rotation is done to restore the balance of the tree. However, if insertion of the new node does not disturb the balance factor, that is, if the balance factor of every node is still -1, 0, or 1, then rotations are not required. During insertion, the new node is inserted as the leaf node, so it will always have a balance factor equal to zero. The only

nodes whose balance factors will change are those which lie in the path between the root of the tree and the newly inserted node.

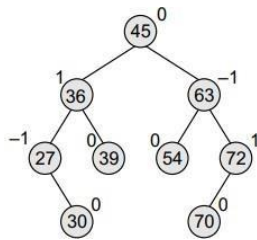
The possible changes which may take place in any node on the path are as follows:

- Initially, the node was either left-or-right-heavy and after insertion, it becomes balanced.
- Initially, the node was balanced and after insertion, it becomes either left-or-right-heavy.
- Initially, the node was heavy (either left or right) and the new node has been inserted in the heavy sub-tree, thereby creating an unbalanced sub-tree. Such a node is said to be a critical node.

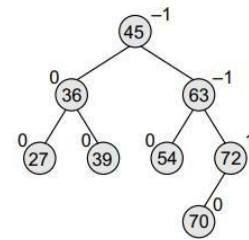
Consider the AVL tree given in below figure. If we insert a new node with the value 30, then the new tree will still be balanced and no rotations will be required in this case. Look at the tree which shows the tree after inserting node 30.



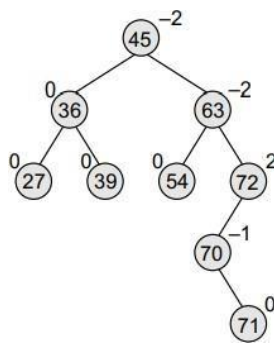
AVL tree



AVL tree after inserting a node with the value 30



AVL tree



AVL tree after inserting a node with the value 71

Let us take another example to see how insertion can disturb the balance factors of the nodes and how rotations are done to restore the AVL property of a tree. After inserting a new node with the value 71, the new tree will be as shown in the above figure. Note that there are three nodes in the tree that have their balance factors 2, -2, and -2, thereby disturbing the

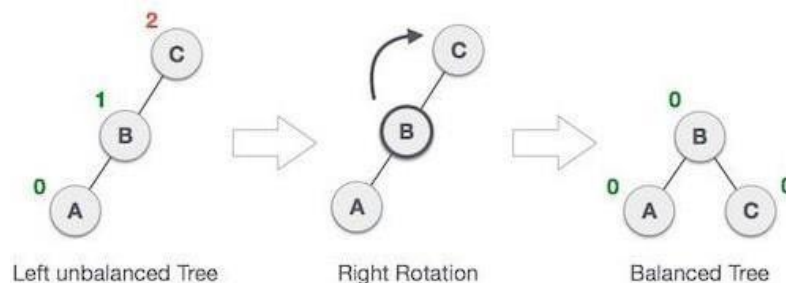
AVLness of the tree. So, here comes the need to perform rotation. To perform rotation, our first task is to find the critical node. Critical node is the nearest ancestor node on the path from the inserted node to the root whose balance factor is neither  $-1$ ,  $0$ , nor  $1$ . In the tree given above, the critical node is 72. The second task in rebalancing the tree is to determine which type of rotation has to be done. There are four types of rebalancing rotations and application of these rotations depends on the position of the inserted node with reference to the critical node.

The four categories of rotations are:

- **LL rotation:** The new node is inserted in the left sub-tree of the left sub-tree of the critical node.
- **RR rotation:** The new node is inserted in the right sub-tree of the right sub-tree of the critical node.
- **LR rotation:** The new node is inserted in the right sub-tree of the left sub-tree of the critical node.
- **RL rotation:** The new node is inserted in the left sub-tree of the right sub-tree of the critical node.

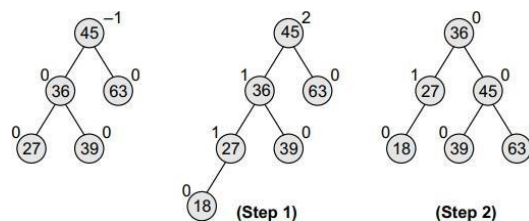
### LL Rotation:

When BST becomes unbalanced, due to a node is inserted into the left subtree of the left subtree of C, then we perform LL rotation, LL rotation is clockwise rotation, which is applied on the edge below a node having balance factor 2.



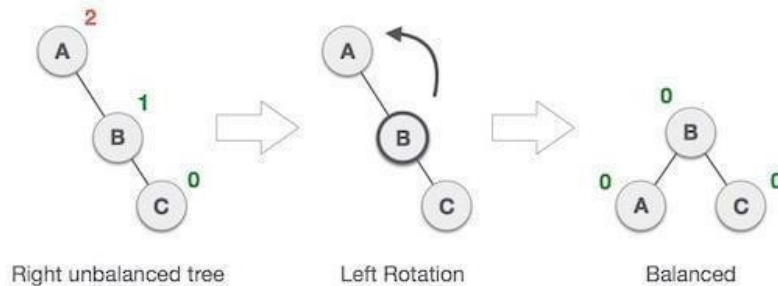
In above example, node C has balance factor 2 because a node A is inserted in the left subtree of C left subtree. We perform the LL rotation on the edge below A.

**Example: Consider the AVL Tree and insert 18 into it.**



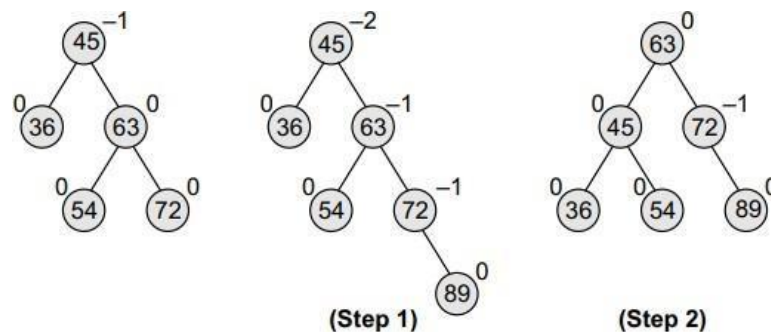
## RR Rotation

When BST becomes unbalanced, due to a node is inserted into the right subtree of the right subtree of A, then we perform RR rotation, RR rotation is an anticlockwise rotation, which is applied on the edge below a node having balance factor -2.



In above example, node A has balance factor -2 because a node C is inserted in the right subtree of A right subtree. We perform the RR rotation on the edge below A.

**Example: Consider the AVL Tree and insert 89 into it.**

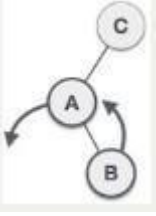
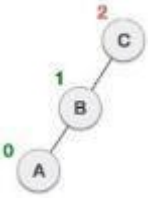
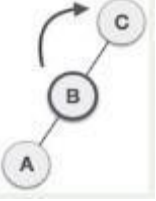
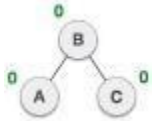


## LR Rotation

Double rotations are bit tougher than single rotation which has already explained above. LR rotation = RR rotation + LL rotation, i.e., first RR rotation is performed on subtree and then LL rotation is performed on full tree, by full tree we mean the first node from the path of inserted node whose balance factor is other than -1, 0, or 1.

**Let us understand each and every step very clearly:**

State	Action
	<p>A node B has been inserted into the right subtree of A the left subtree of C, because of which C has become an unbalanced node having balance factor 2. This case is L R rotation where: Inserted node is in the right subtree of left subtree of C</p>

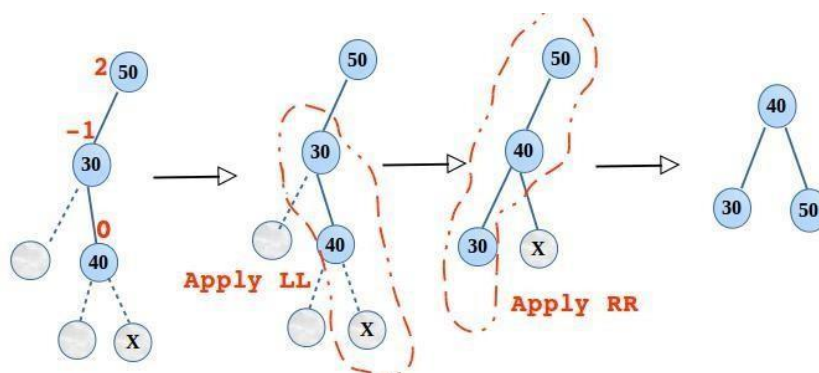
	<p>As LR rotation = RR + LL rotation, hence RR (anticlockwise) on subtree rooted at A is performed first. By doing RR rotation, node A, has become the left subtree of B.</p>
	<p>After performing RR rotation, node C is still unbalanced, i.e., having balance factor 2, as inserted node A is in the left of left of C.</p>
	<p>Now we perform LL clockwise rotation on full tree, i.e. on node C. node C has now become the right subtree of node B, A is left subtree of B.</p>
	<p>Balance factor of each node is now either -1, 0, or 1, i.e. BST is balanced now.</p>

### Example:

Shown below is the case of LR rotation, here two rotations are performed. First RR and then, LL as follows,

- Right rotation is applied at 70, after restructuring, 60 takes the place of 70 and 70 as the right child of 60.
- Now left rotation is required at the root 50, 60 becomes the root. 50 and 70 become the left and right child respectively.

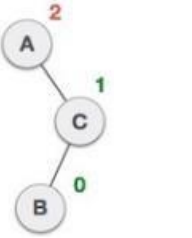
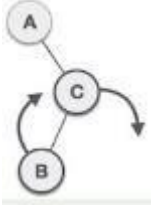
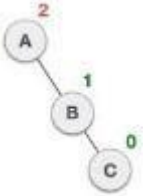
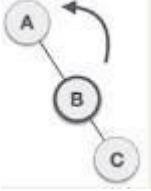
### LR Rotation



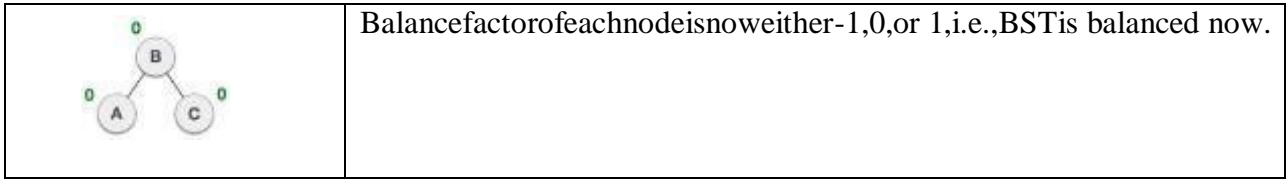
We could also think of the shown way to balance quickly rather than going with two rotations.

### RL Rotation

As already discussed, that double rotations are bit tougher than single rotation which has already explained above. RL rotation = LL rotation + RR rotation, i.e., first LL rotation is performed on subtree and then RR rotation is performed on full tree, by full tree we mean the first node from the path of inserted node whose balance factor is other than -1, 0, or 1.

State	Action
	<p>A node <b>B</b> has been inserted into the left subtree of <b>C</b> the right subtree of <b>A</b>, because of which <b>A</b> has become an unbalanced node having balance factor - 2. This case is RL rotation where: Inserted node is in the left subtree of right subtree of <b>A</b></p>
	<p>As RL rotation = LL rotation + RR rotation, hence, LL (clockwise) on subtree rooted at <b>C</b> is performed first. By doing RR rotation, node <b>C</b> has become the right subtree of <b>B</b>.</p>
	<p>After performing LL rotation, node <b>A</b> is still unbalanced, i.e. having balance factor -2, which is because of the right-subtree of the right-subtree node <b>A</b>.</p>
	<p>Now we perform RR rotation (anticlockwise rotation) on full tree, i.e. on node <b>A</b>. node <b>C</b> has now become the right subtree of node <b>B</b>, and node <b>A</b> has become the left subtree of <b>B</b>.</p>





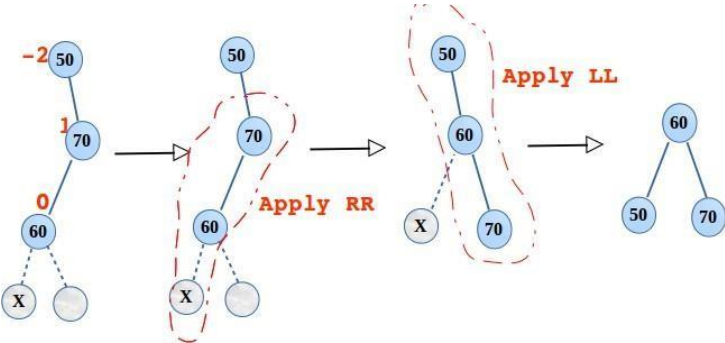
**Example:**

Shown below is the case of RL rotation, here two rotations are performed. First LL and then, RR as follows,

- Left rotation is applied at 30, after restructuring 40 takes the place of 30 and 30 as the left child of 40.
- Now right rotation is required at the root 50, 40 becomes root. 30 and 50 become the left and right child respectively.

RL Rotation

We could also think of the shown way to balance quickly rather than going with two rotations.



**Example:**

Construct AVL Tree for the following sequence of numbers:

50, 20, 60, 10, 8, 15, 32, 46, 11, 48

**Solution:**

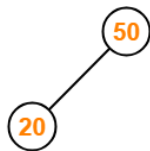
**Step-01:** Insert 50



Tree is Balanced

**Step-02:** Insert 20

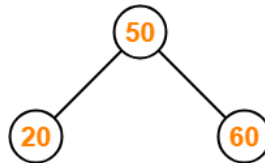
- As  $20 < 50$ , so insert 20 in 50's left subtree.



Tree is Balanced

**Step-03:** Insert 60

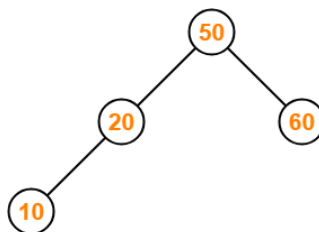
- As  $60 > 50$ , so insert 60 in 50's right subtree.



Tree is Balanced

**Step-04:** Insert 10

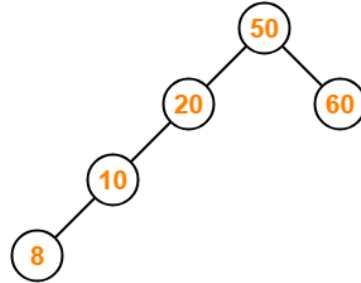
- As  $10 < 50$ , so insert 10 in 50's left subtree. □
- As  $10 < 20$ , so insert 10 in 20's left subtree.



Tree is Balanced

### Step-05: Insert 8

- As  $8 < 50$ , so insert 8 in 50's left subtree. □
- As  $8 < 20$ , so insert 8 in 20's left subtree. □
- As  $8 < 10$ , so insert 8 in 10's left subtree.



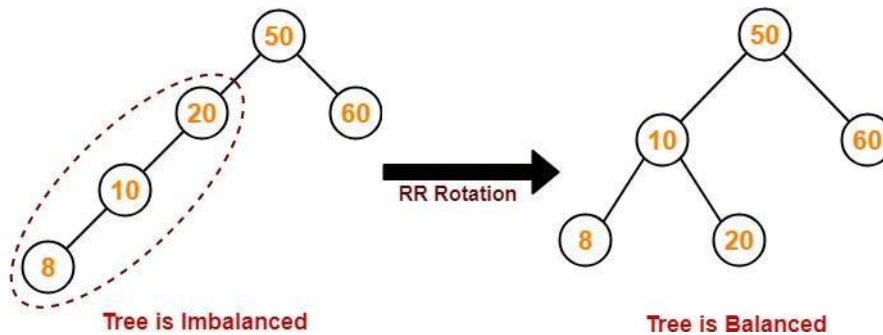
Tree is Imbalanced

To balance the tree,

- Find the first imbalanced node on the path from the newly inserted node (node 8) to the root node.
- The first imbalanced node is node 20.
- Now, count three nodes from node 20 in the direction of leaf node. □

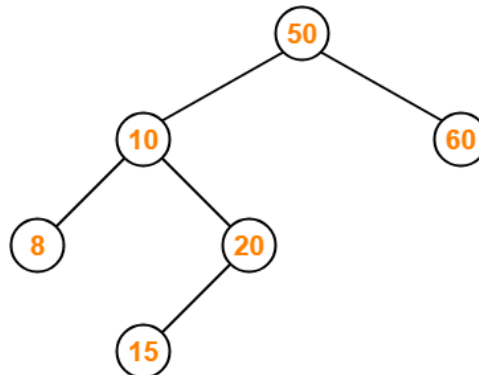
Then, use AVL tree rotation to balance the tree.

Following this, we have-



### Step-06: Insert 15

- As  $15 < 50$ , so insert 15 in 50's left sub tree.
- As  $15 > 10$ , so insert 15 in 10's right subtree. □
- As  $15 < 20$ , so insert 15 in 20's left sub tree.



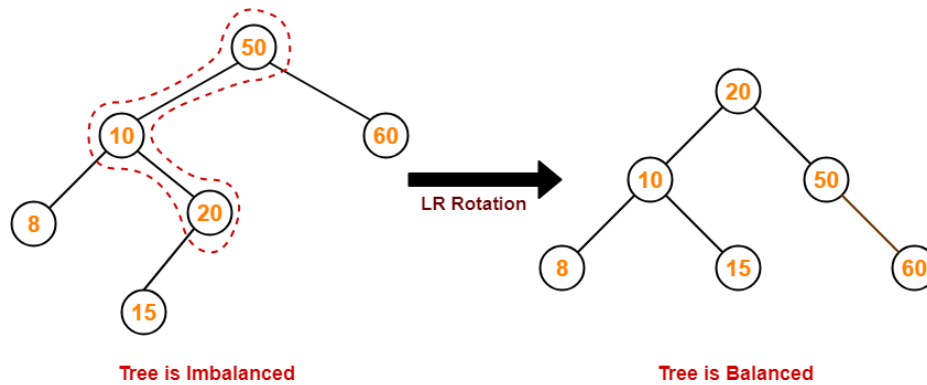
Tree is Imbalanced

To balance the tree,

- Find the first imbalanced node on the path from the newly inserted node (node 15) to the root node.
- The first imbalanced node is node 50.
- Now, count three nodes from node 50 in the direction of leaf node.

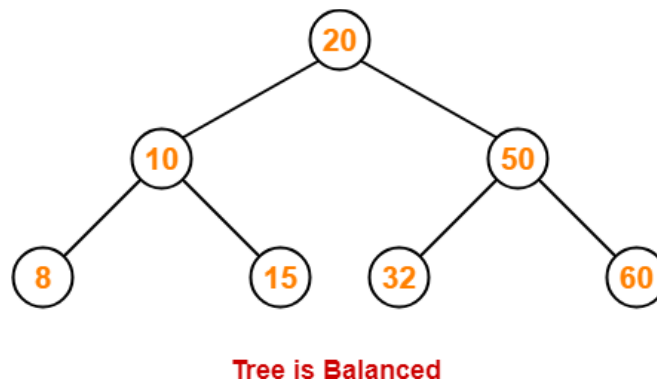
Then, use AVL tree rotation to balance the tree.

Following this, we have-



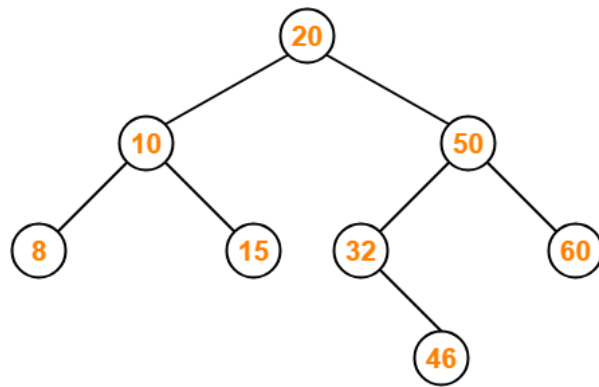
### Step-07: Insert 32

- As  $32 > 20$ , so insert 32 in 20's right subtree.
- As  $32 < 50$ , so insert 32 in 50's left subtree.



### Step-08: Insert 46

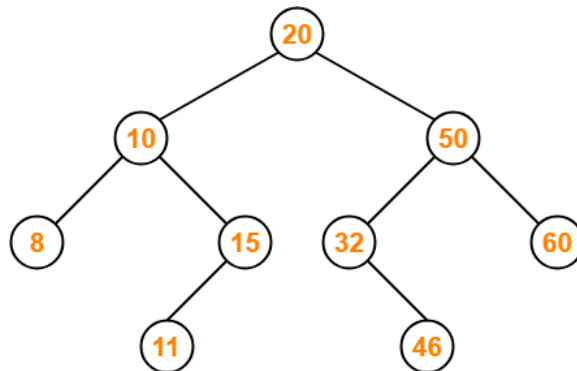
- As  $46 > 20$ , so insert 46 in 20's right subtree.
- As  $46 < 50$ , so insert 46 in 50's left subtree.
- As  $46 > 32$ , so insert 46 in 32's right subtree.



**Tree is Balanced**

### Step-09: Insert 11

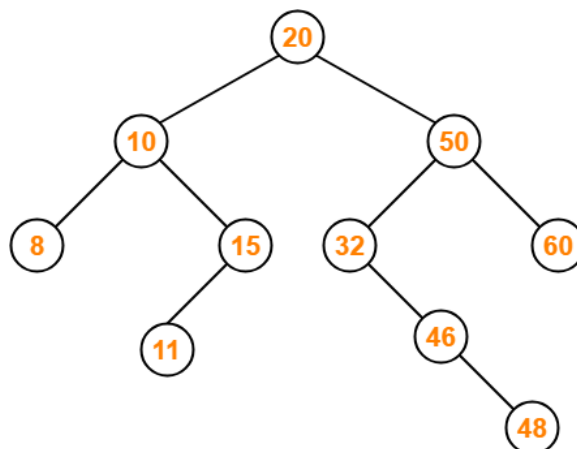
- As  $11 < 20$ , so insert 11 in 20's left sub tree.
- As  $11 > 10$ , so insert 11 in 10's right subtree. □
- As  $11 < 15$ , so insert 11 in 15's left sub tree.



**Tree is Balanced**

### Step-10: Insert 48

- As  $48 > 20$ , so insert 48 in 20's right subtree. □
- As  $48 < 50$ , so insert 48 in 50's left sub tree. □
- As  $48 > 32$ , so insert 48 in 32's right subtree. □ As  $48 > 46$ , so insert 48 in 46's right subtree.



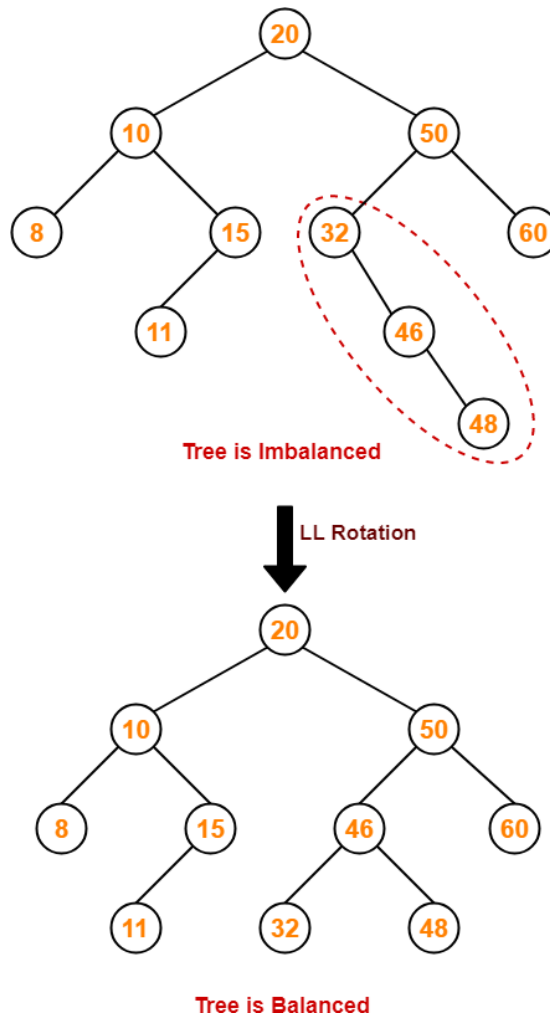
**Tree is imbalanced**

To balance the tree,

- Find the first imbalanced node on the path from the newly inserted node (node 48) to the root node.
- The first imbalanced node is node 32.
- Now, count three nodes from node 32 in the direction of leaf node. □

Then, use AVL tree rotation to balance the tree.

Following this, we have-



### Deleting a Node from an AVL Tree:

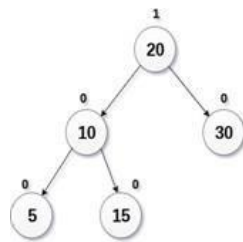
Deletion of a node in an AVL tree is similar to that of binary search trees. But it goes one step ahead. Deletion may disturb the AVLness of the tree, so to rebalance the AVL tree, we need to perform rotations. There are two classes of rotations that can be performed on an AVL tree after deleting a given node. These rotations are R rotation and L rotation. On deletion of node X from the AVL tree, if node A becomes the critical node (closest ancestor node on the path from X to the root node that does not have its balance factor as 1, 0, or -1), then the type of rotation depends on whether X is in the left sub-tree of A or in its right sub-tree.

If the node to be deleted is present in the left sub-tree of A, then L rotation is applied, else if X is in the right sub-tree, R rotation is performed. Further, there are three categories of L and R rotations. The variations of L rotation are L-1, L0, and L1 rotation. Correspondingly for R rotation, there are R0, R-1, and R1 rotations. In this section, we will discuss only R rotation. L rotations are the mirror images of R rotations.

**R0rotation(NodeBhasbalancefactor0):**

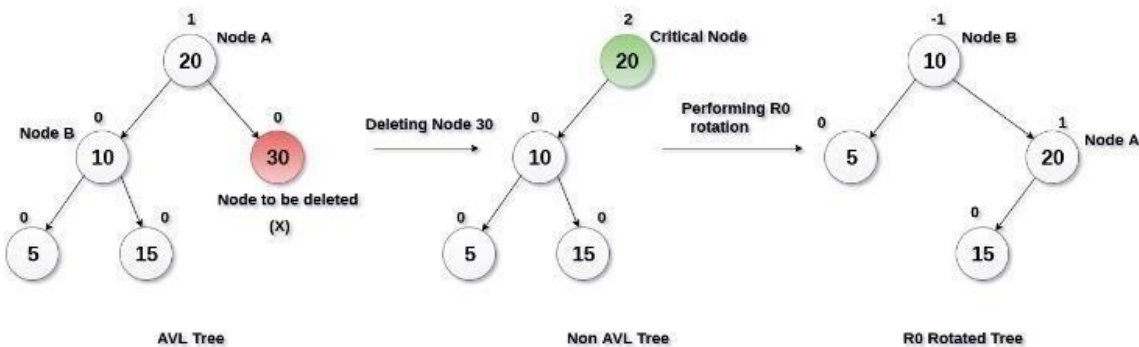
**Example:**

Deletethenode30fromtheAVLtreeshowninthefollowingimage.



**Solution:**

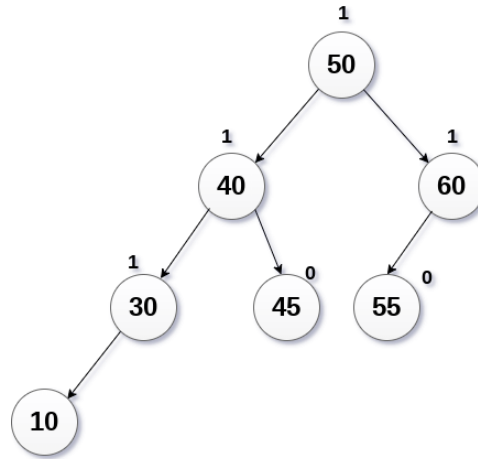
Inthis case,thenodeBhasbalancefactor0,thereforethetreewillberotatedbyusingR0 rotation as shown in the following image. The node B(10) becomes the root, while the node A is moved to its right. The right child of node B will now become the left child of node A.



## R1Rotation(NodeBhasbalancefactor1):

### Example:

DeleteNode55fromtheAVLtreeshowninthefollowingimage.

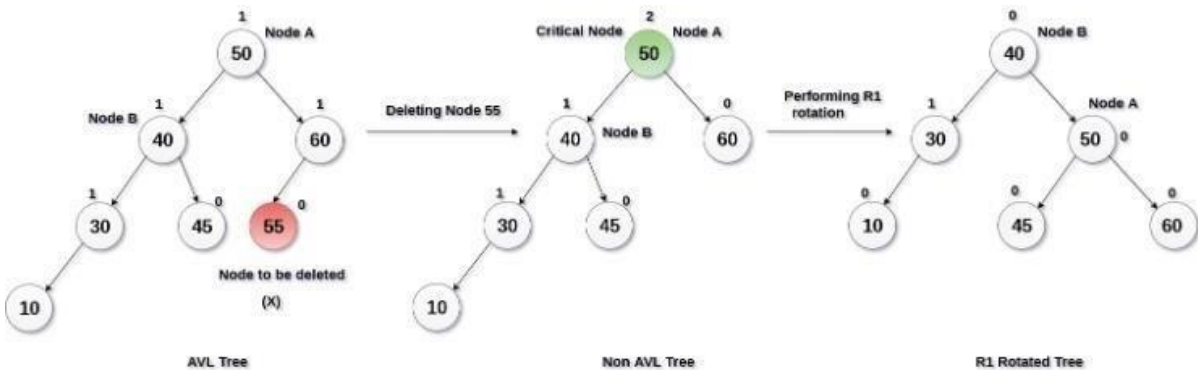


AVL Tree

### Solution:

Deleting 55 from the AVL Tree disturbs the balance factor of the node 50 i.e. node A which becomes the critical node. This is the condition of R1 rotation in which, the node A will be moved to its right (shown in the image below). The right of B is now become the left of A (i.e. 45).

Theprocessinvolvedinthesolutionisshowninthefollowing image.

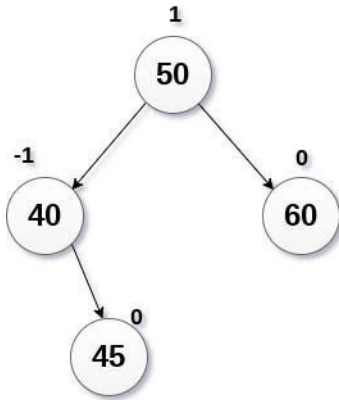




### R-1 Rotation(Node B has balance factor -1):

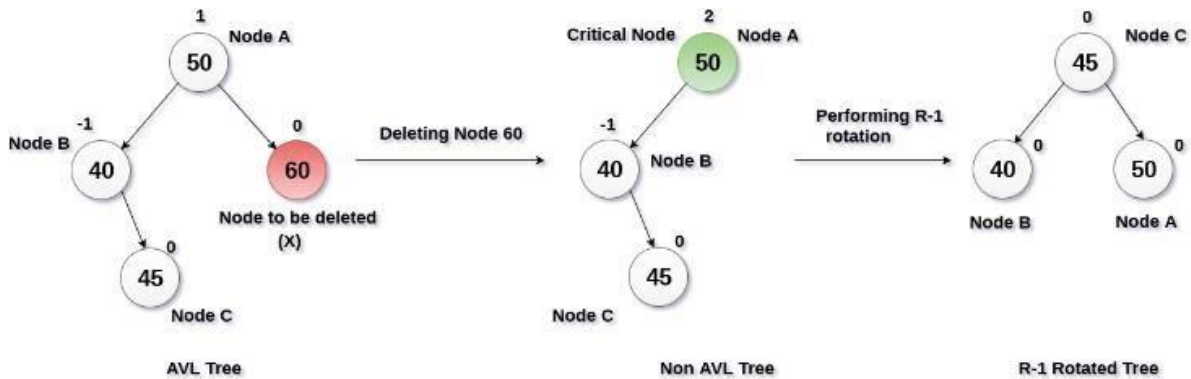
#### Example:

Delete the node 60 from the AVL tree shown in the following image.



#### Solution:

In this case, node B has balance factor -1. Deleting the node 60, disturbs the balance factor of the node 50 therefore, it needs to be R-1 rotated. Then node C i.e. 45 becomes the root of the tree with the node B(40) and A(50) as its left and right child.



## BTREES:

A B tree is a specialized M-way tree developed by Rudolf Bayer and Ed McCreight in 1970 that is widely used for disk access. A B tree of order  $m$  can have a maximum of  $m-1$  keys and  $m$  pointers to its sub-trees. A B tree may contain a large number of key values and pointer to sub-trees. Storing a large number of keys in a single node keeps the height of the tree relatively small.

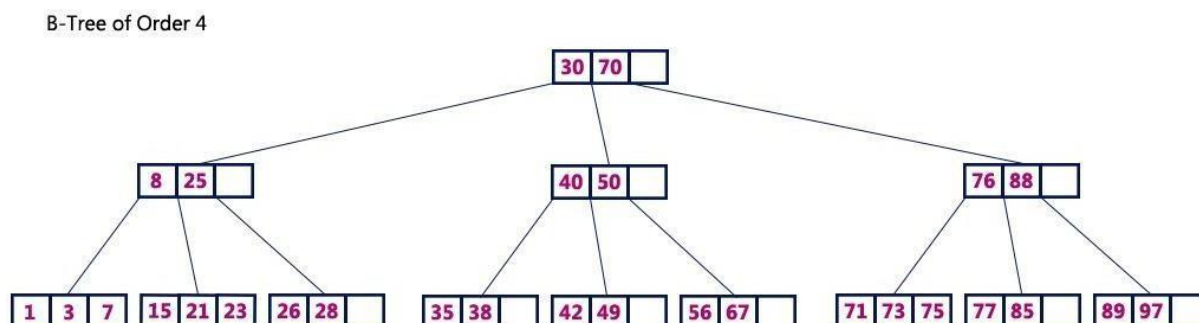
Most of the tree operations (search, insert, delete, max, min, ..etc ) require  $O(h)$  disk accesses where  $h$  is the height of the tree. B-tree is a fat tree. The height of B-Trees is kept low by putting the maximum possible keys in a B-Tree node. Generally, the B-Tree node size is kept equal to the disk block size. Since the height of the B-tree is low so total disk accesses for most of the operations are reduced significantly compared to balanced Binary Search Trees like AVL Tree, Red-Black Tree, etc.

### Properties of B Trees:

1. Every node in the B tree has at most (maximum)  $m$  children.
2. Every node in the B tree except the root node and leaf nodes has at least (minimum)  $m/2$  children. This condition helps to keep the tree bushy so that the path from the root node to the leaf is very short, even in a tree that stores a lot of data.
3. The root node has at least two children if it is not a terminal (leaf) node.
4. All leaf nodes are at the same level.

### For example:

B-Tree of Order 4 contains a maximum of 3 key values in a node and maximum of 4 children for a node.



While performing insertion and deletion operations in a B tree, the number of child nodes may change. So, in order to maintain a minimum number of children, the internal nodes may be joined or split.

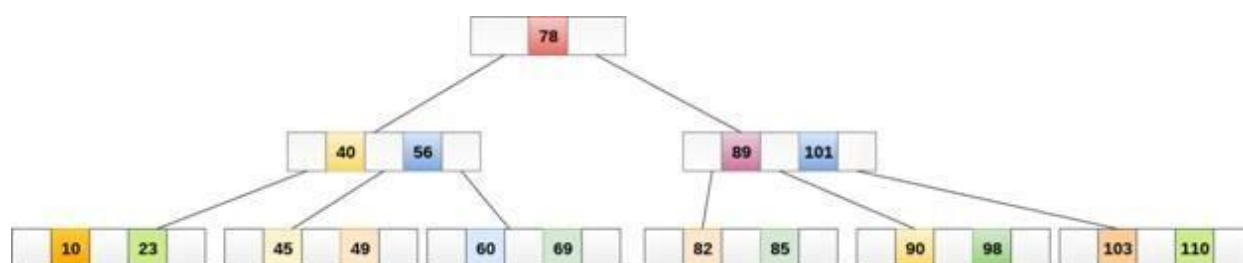
We will discuss search, insertion, and deletion operations:

## Searching:

Searching in B Trees is similar to that in Binary search tree. For example, if we search for an item 49 in the following B Tree. The process will be something like following :

1. Compare item 49 with root node 78. since  $49 < 78$  hence, move to its left sub-tree.
2. Since,  $40 < 49 < 56$ , traverse right sub-tree of 40.
3.  $49 > 45$ , move to right. Compare 49.
4. match found, return.

Searching in a B tree depends upon the height of the tree. This search algorithm takes  $O(\log n)$  time to search any element in a B tree.



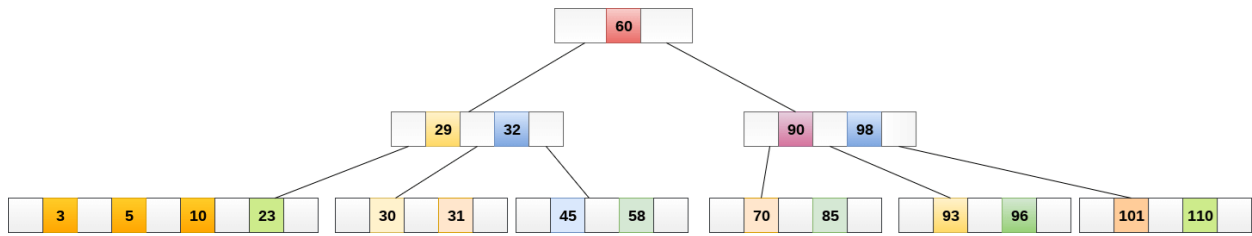
## Inserting

Insertions are done at the leaf node level. The following algorithm needs to be followed in order to insert an item into B Tree.

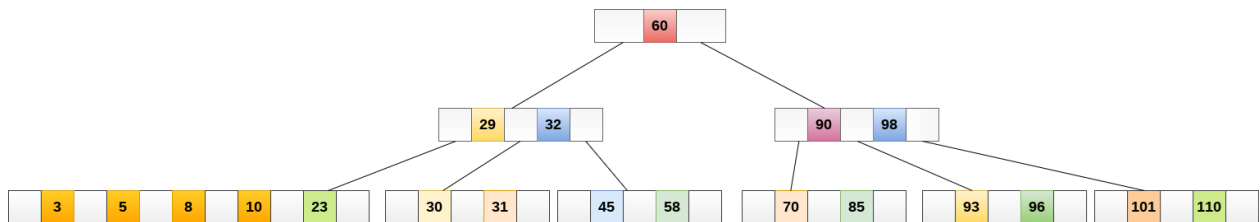
1. Traverse the B Tree in order to find the appropriate leaf node at which the node can be inserted.
2. If the leaf node contains less than  $m-1$  keys then insert the element in the increasing order.
3. Else, if the leaf node contains  $m-1$  keys, then follow the following steps.
  - Insert the new element in the increasing order of elements.
  - Split the node into two nodes at the median.
  - Push the median element up to its parent node.
  - If the parent node also contains  $m-1$  number of keys, then split it too by following the same steps.

### Example:

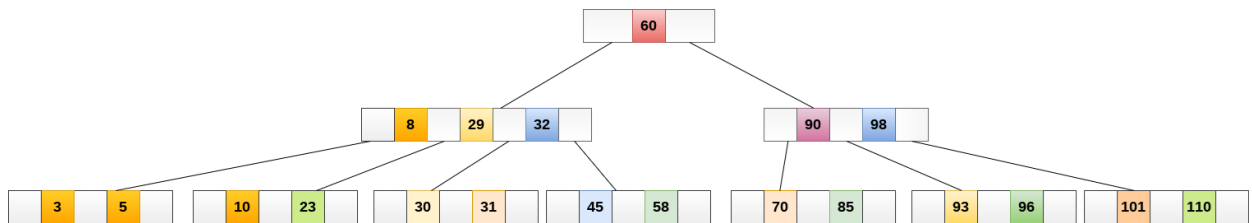
Insert the node 8 into the BTree of order 5 shown in the following image.



8 will be inserted to the right of 5, therefore insert 8.



The node, now contains 5 keys which is greater than  $(5 - 1 = 4)$  keys. Therefore split the node from the median i.e. 8 and push it up to its parent node shown as follows.



### Deletion:

Deletion is also performed at the leaf nodes. The node which is to be deleted can either be a leaf node or an internal node. Following algorithm needs to be followed in order to delete a node from a B tree.

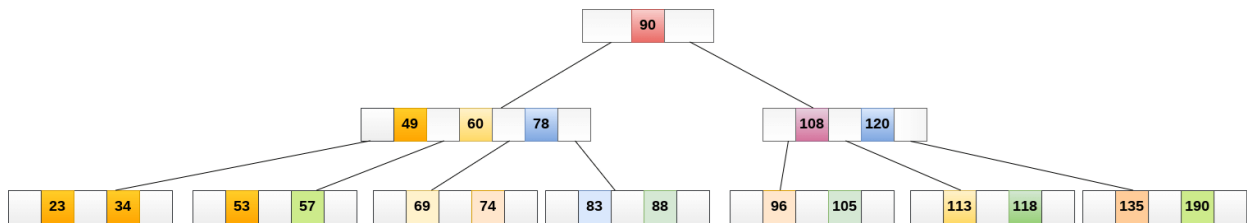
1. Locate the leaf node.
2. If there are more than  $n/2$  keys in the leaf node then delete the desired key from the node.
3. If the leaf node doesn't contain  $n/2$  keys then complete the keys by taking the element from right or left sibling.

- If the left sibling contains more than  $m/2$  elements then push its largest element up to its parent and move the intervening element down to the node where the key is deleted.
  - If the right sibling contains more than  $m/2$  elements then push its smallest element up to the parent and move the intervening element down to the node where the key is deleted.
4. If neither of the sibling contain more than  $m/2$  elements then create a new leaf node by joining two leaf nodes and the intervening element of the parent node.
  5. If parent is left with less than  $m/2$  nodes then, apply the above process on the parent too.

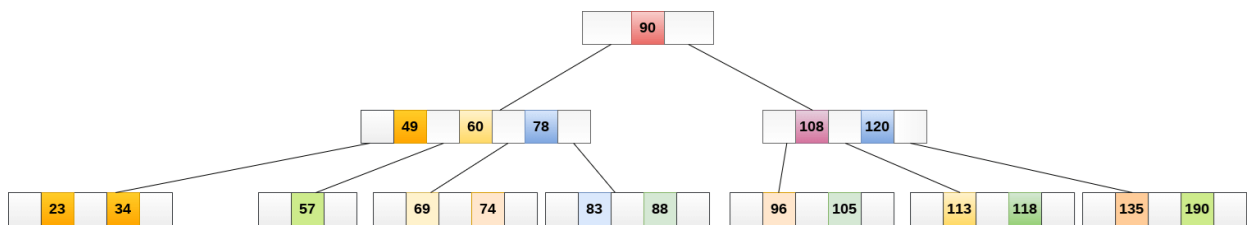
If the node which is to be deleted is an internal node, then replace the node with its in-order successor or predecessor. Since, successor or predecessor will always be on the leaf node hence, the process will be similar as the node is being deleted from the leaf node.

### Example 1

Delete the node 53 from the B Tree of order 5 shown in the following figure.

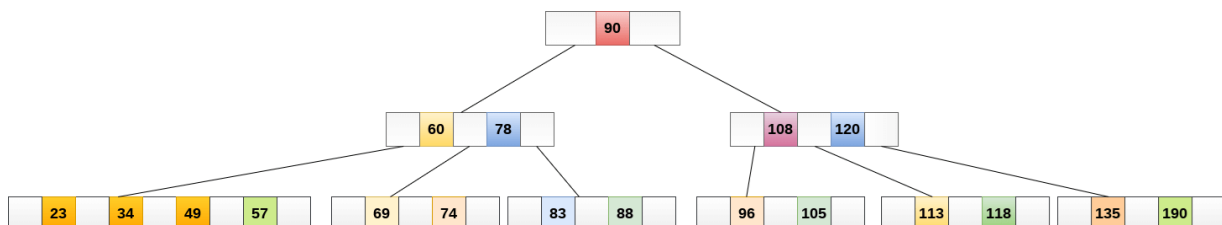


53 is present in the right child of element 49. Delete it.



Now, 57 is the only element which is left in the node, the minimum number of elements that must be present in a B tree of order 5, is 2. it is less than that, the elements in its left and right sub-tree are also not sufficient therefore, merge it with the left sibling and intervening element of parent i.e. 49.

The final B tree is shown as follows.



## Example

Construct a **B-Tree of Order 3** by inserting numbers from 1 to 10.

### insert(1)

Since '1' is the first element into the tree that is inserted into a new node. It acts as the root node.



### insert(2)

Element '2' is added to existing leaf node. Here, we have only one node and that node acts as root and also leaf. This leaf node has an empty position. So, new element (2) can be inserted at that empty position.



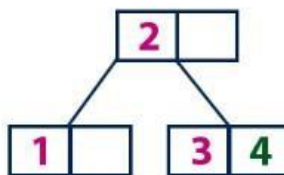
### insert(3)

Element '3' is added to existing leaf node. Here, we have only one node and that node acts as root and also leaf. This leaf node doesn't have an empty position. So, we split that node by sending middle value (2) to its parent node. But here, this node doesn't have a parent. So, this middle value becomes a new root node for the tree.



### insert(4)

Element '4' is larger than root node '2' and it is not a leaf node. So, we move to the right of '2'. We reach to a leaf node with value '3' and it has an empty position. So, new element (4) can be inserted at that empty position.



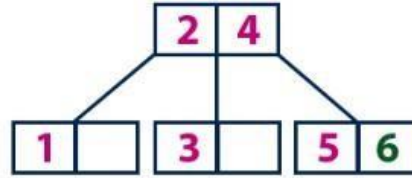
### insert(5)

Element '5' is larger than root node '2' and it is not a leaf node. So, we move to the right of '2'. We reach to a leaf node and it is already full. So, we split that node by sending middle value (4) to its parent node (2). There is an empty position in its parent node. So, value '4' is added to node with value '2' and new element '5' added as new leaf node.



**insert(6)**

Element '6' is larger than root node '2' & '4' and it is not a leaf node. So, we move to the right of '4'. We reach to a leaf node with value '5' and it has an empty position. So, new element (6) can be inserted at that empty position.



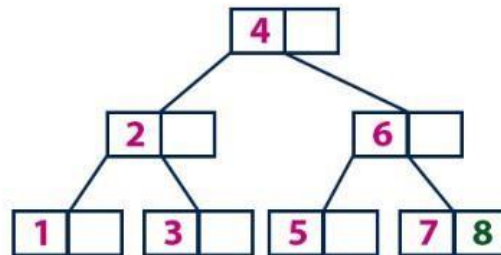
**insert(7)**

Element '7' is larger than root node '2' & '4' and it is not a leaf node. So, we move to the right of '4'. We reach to a leaf node and it is already full. So, we split that node by sending middle value (6) to its parent node (2&4). But the parent (2&4) is also full. So, again we split the node (2&4) by sending middle value '4' to its parent but this node doesn't have parent. So, the element '4' becomes new root node for the tree.



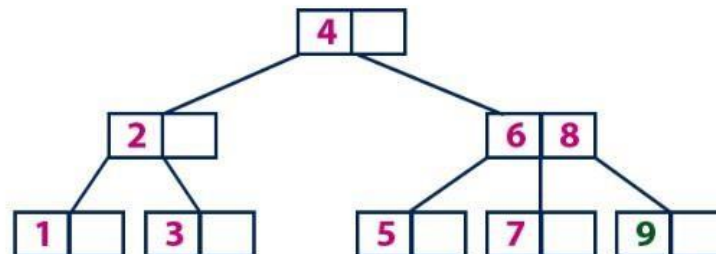
**insert(8)**

Element '8' is larger than root node '4' and it is not a leaf node. So, we move to the right of '4'. We reach to a node with value '6'. '8' is larger than '6' and it is also not a leaf node. So, we move to the right of '6'. We reach to a leaf node (7) and it has an empty position. So, new element (8) can be inserted at that empty position.



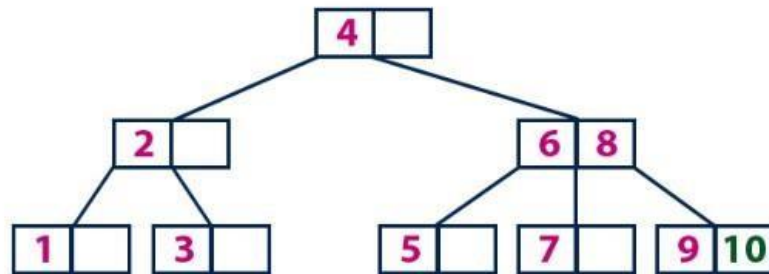
**insert(9)**

Element '9' is larger than root node '4' and it is not a leaf node. So, we move to the right of '4'. We reach to a node with value '6'. '9' is larger than '6' and it is also not a leaf node. So, we move to the right of '6'. We reach to a leaf node (7 & 8). This leaf node is already full. So, we split this node by sending middle value (8) to its parent node. The parent node (6) has an empty position. So, '8' is added at that position. And new element is added as a new leaf node.



### insert(10)

Element '10' is larger than root node '4' and it is not a leaf node. So, we move to the right of '4'. We reach to a node with values '6 & 8'. '10' is larger than '6 & 8' and it is also not a leaf node. So, we move to the right of '8'. We reach to a leaf node (9). This leaf node has an empty position. So, new element '10' is added at that empty position.



## B+ TREES

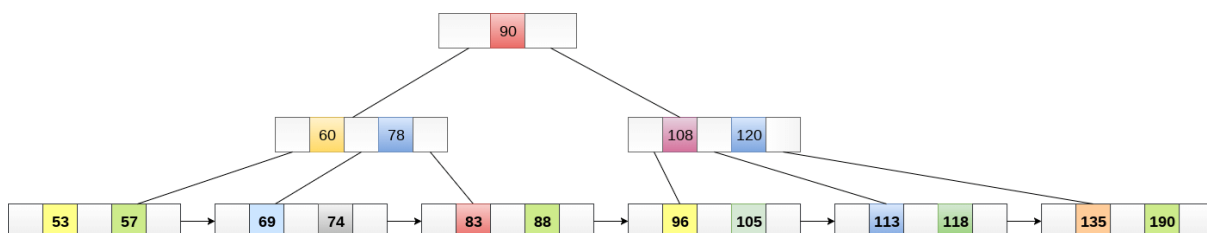
A B+ tree is a variant of a B tree which stores sorted data in a way that allows for efficient insertion, retrieval, and removal of records, each of which is identified by a key. While a B tree can store both keys and records in its interior nodes, a B+ tree, in contrast, stores all the records at the leaf level of the tree; only keys are stored in the interior nodes.

The leaf nodes of a B+ tree are often linked to one another in a linked list. This has an added advantage of making the queries simpler and more efficient.

Typically, B+ trees are used to store large amounts of data that cannot be stored in the main memory. With B+ trees, the secondary storage (magnetic disk) is used to store the leaf nodes of trees and the internal nodes of trees are stored in the main memory.

B+ trees store data only in the leaf nodes. All other nodes (internal nodes) are called index nodes or i-nodes and store index values. This allows us to traverse the tree from the root down to the leaf node that stores the desired data item.

The internal nodes of B+ tree are often called index nodes. A B+ tree of order 3 is shown in the following figure.





Many database systems are implemented using B+ tree structure because of its simplicity. Since all the data appear in the leaf nodes and are ordered, the tree is always balanced and makes searching for data efficient.

#### Advantages of B+ Tree

1. Records can be fetched in equal number of disk accesses.
2. Height of the tree remains balanced and less as compared to B tree.
3. We can access the data stored in a B+ tree sequentially as well as directly.
4. Keys are used for indexing.
5. Faster search queries as the data is stored only on the leaf nodes.

#### Comparison Between B Trees and B+ Trees

B Tree	B+ Tree
1. Search keys are not repeated	1. Stores redundant search key
2. Data is stored in internal or leaf nodes	2. Data is stored only in leaf nodes
3. Searching takes more time as data may be found in a leaf or non-leaf node	3. Searching data is very easy as the data can be found in leaf nodes only
4. Deletion of non-leaf nodes is very complicated	4. Deletion is very simple because data will be in the leaf node
5. Leaf nodes cannot be stored using linked lists	5. Leaf node data are ordered using sequential linked lists
6. The structure and operations are complicated	6. The structure and operations are simple

#### Insertion in B+ Tree:

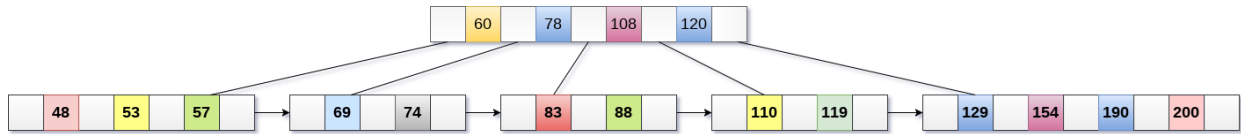
**Step 1:** Insert the new node as a leaf node

**Step 2:** If the leaf doesn't have required space, split the node and copy the middle node to the next index node.

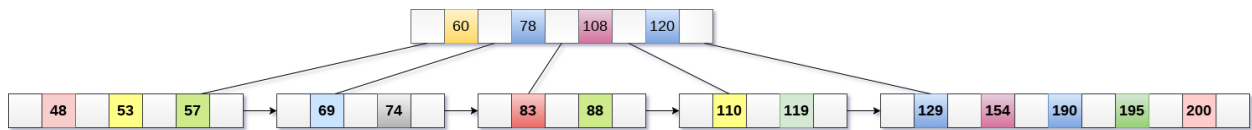
**Step 3:** If the index node doesn't have required space, split the node and copy the middle element to the next index page.

### Example:

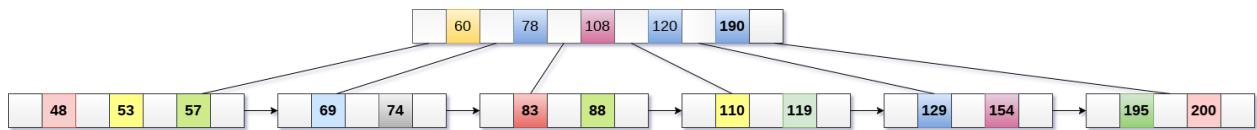
Insert the value 195 into the B+ tree of order 5 shown in the following figure.



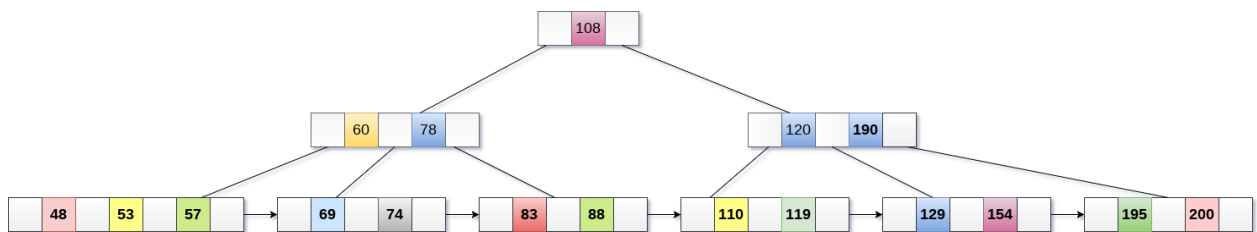
195 will be inserted in the right sub-tree of 120 after 190. Insert it at the desired position.



The node contains greater than the maximum number of elements i.e. 4, therefore split it and place the median node up to the parent.



Now, the index node contains 6 children and 5 keys which violates the B+ tree properties, therefore we need to split it, shown as follows.



### Deletion in B+ Tree:

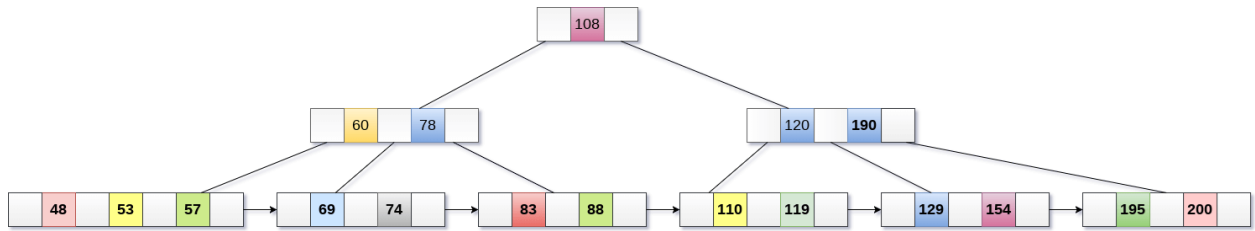
**Step 1:** Delete the key and data from the leaves.

**Step 2:** if the leaf node contains less than minimum number of elements, merge down the node with its sibling and delete the key in between them.

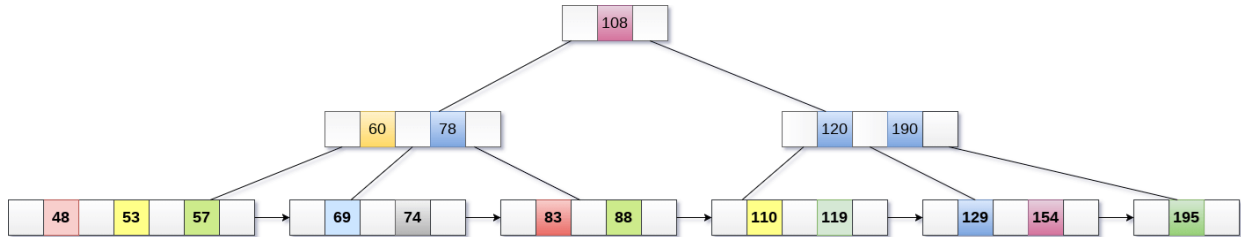
**Step 3:** if the index node contains less than minimum number of elements, merge the node with the sibling and move down the key in between them.

## Example

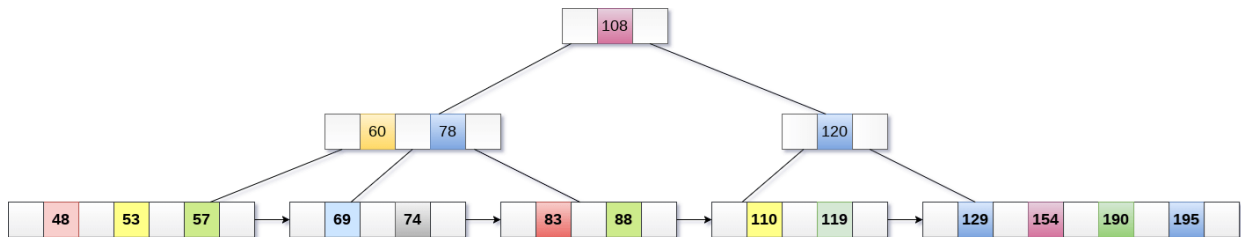
Delete the key 200 from the B+ Tree shown in the following figure.



200 is present in the right sub-tree of 190, after 195 delete it.

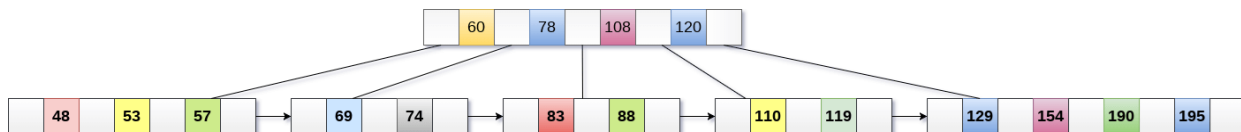


Merge the two nodes by using 195, 190, 154 and 129.



Now, element 120 is the single element present in the node which is violating the B+ Tree properties. Therefore, we need to merge it by using 60, 78, 108 and 120.

Now, the height of B+ tree will be decreased by 1.



## RED-BLACK TREE

Red-Black Trees are another type of the Balanced Binary Search Trees with two coloured nodes: Red and Black. It is a self-balancing binary search tree that makes use of these colours to maintain the balance factor during the insertion and deletion operations. Hence, during the Red-Black Tree operations, the memory uses 1 bit of storage to accommodate the colour information of each node

In Red-Black trees, also known as RB trees, there are different conditions to follow while assigning the colour to the nodes.

- The root node is always black in colour.
- Not two adjacent nodes must be red in colour.
- Every path in the tree (from the root node to the leaf node) must have the same amount of black coloured nodes.

Even though AVL trees are more balanced than RB trees, with the balancing algorithm in AVL trees being stricter than that of RB trees, multiple and faster insertion and deletion operations are made more efficient through RB trees.

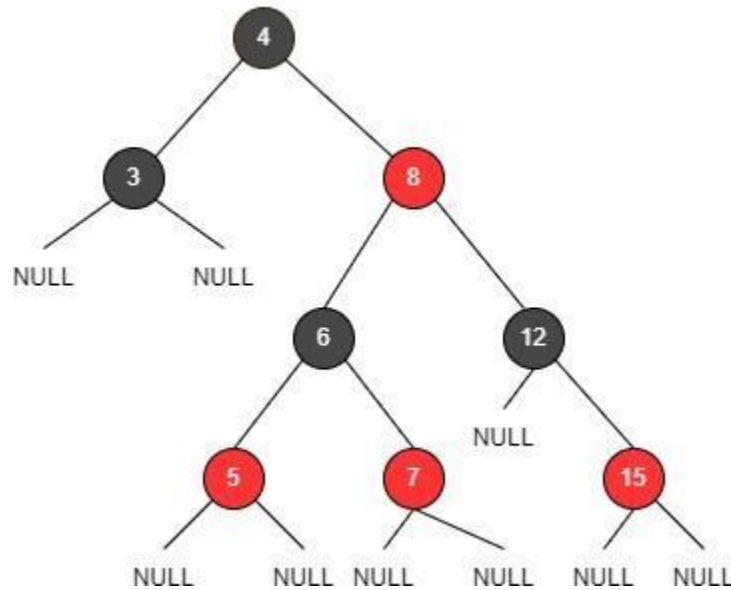


Fig:RBtrees

## Basic Operations of Red-Black Trees

The operation on Red-Black Trees include all the basic operations usually performed on a Binary Search Tree. Some of the basic operations of an RBT tree include –

- Insertion
- Deletion
- Search

Insertion operation of a Red-Black tree follows the same insertion algorithm of a binary search tree. The elements are inserted following the binary search property and as an addition, the nodes are color coded as red and black to balance the tree according to the red-black tree properties.

Follow the procedure given below to insert an element into a red-black tree by maintaining both binary search tree and red black tree properties.

**Case 1**– Check whether the tree is empty; make the current node as the root and color the node black if it is empty.

**Case 2**– But if the tree is not empty, we create a new node and color it red. Here we face two different cases –

- If the parent of the new node is a black colored node, we exit the operation and the tree is left as it is.
- If the parent of this new node is red and the color of the parent's sibling is either black or it does not exist, we apply a suitable rotation and recolor accordingly.
- If the parent of this new node is red and color of the parent's sibling is red, recolor the parent, the sibling and grandparent nodes to black. The grandparent is recolored only if it is **not** the root node; if it is the root node recolor only the parent and the sibling.

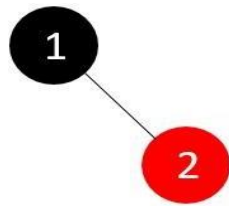
### Insertion Example

Let us construct an RBT tree for the first 7 integers to understand the insertion operation in detail – The tree is

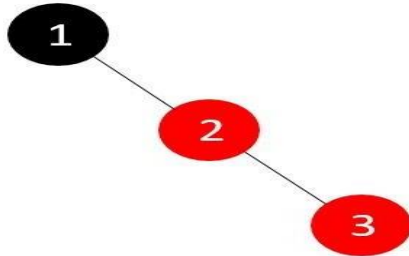
checked to be empty so the first node added is a root and is colored black.

1

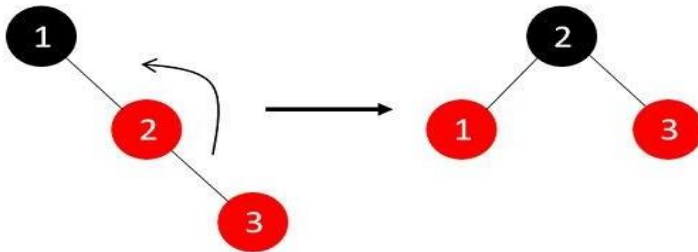
Now, the tree is not empty so we create a new node and add the next integer with color red,



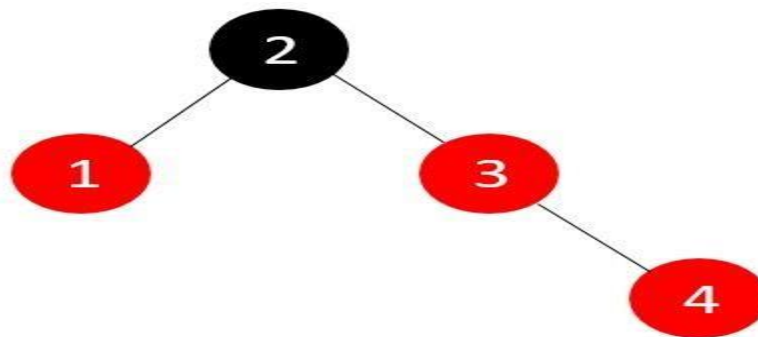
The nodes do not violate the binary search tree and RB tree properties, hence we move ahead to add another node.  
 The tree is not empty; we create a new red node with the next integer to it. But the parent of the new node is not a black colored node,



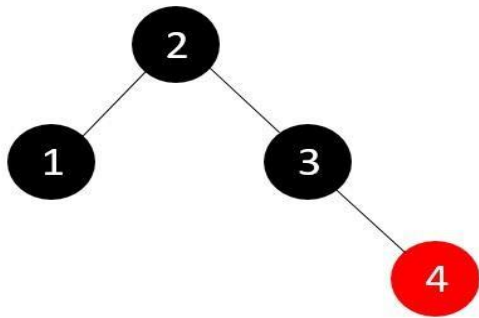
The tree right now violates both the binary search tree and RB tree properties; since parent's sibling is NULL, we apply a suitable rotation and recolor the nodes.



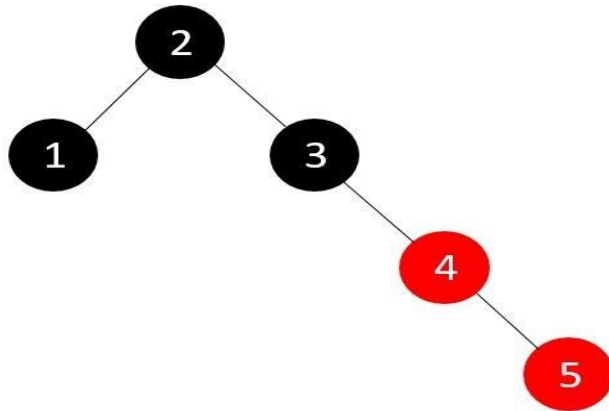
Now that the RB Tree property is restored, we add another node to the tree—



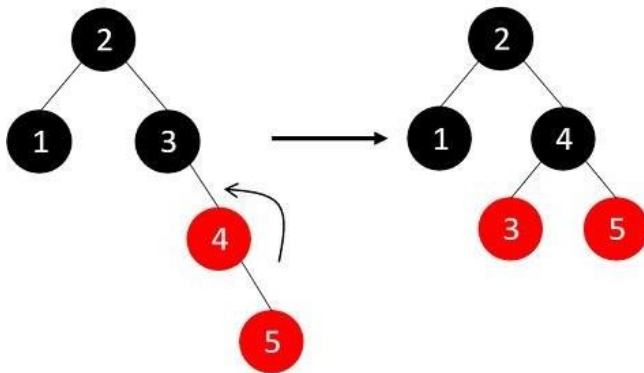
The tree once again violates the RB Tree balance property, so we check for the parent's sibling node color, red in this case, so we just recolor the parent and the sibling.



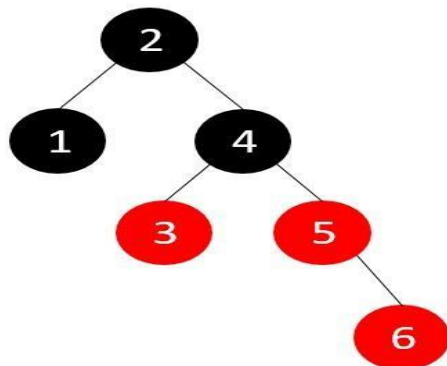
Wenextinserttheelement5,whichmakesthetreeviolatetheRBTreebalancepropertyonceagain.



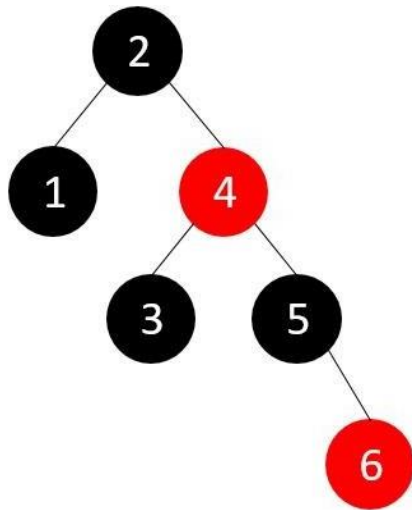
AndsincethesiblingisNULL,weapplysuitablerotationandrecolor.



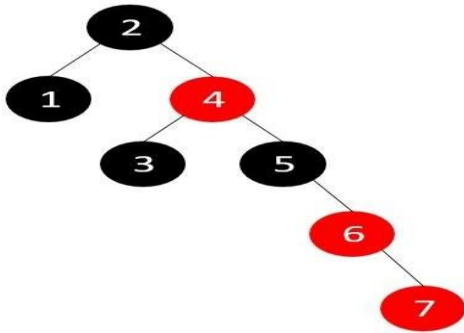
Now,weinsertelement6,buttheRBTreepropertyisviolatedandoneoftheinsertioncasesneedtobeapplied-



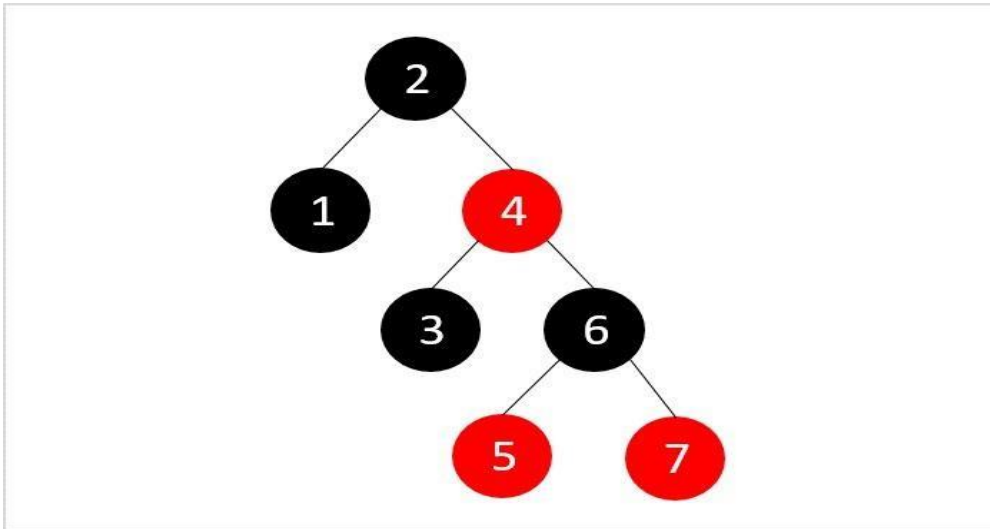
The parent's sibling is red, so we recolor the parent, parent's sibling and the grandparent node since the grandparent is not the root node.



Now, we add the last element, 7, but the parent node of this new node is red.



Since the parent's sibling is NULL, we apply suitable rotations (RR rotation)



The final RB Tree is achieved.

### Deletion in Red-Black tree

Let's understand how we can delete the particular node from the Red-Black tree. The following are the rules used to delete the particular node from the tree:

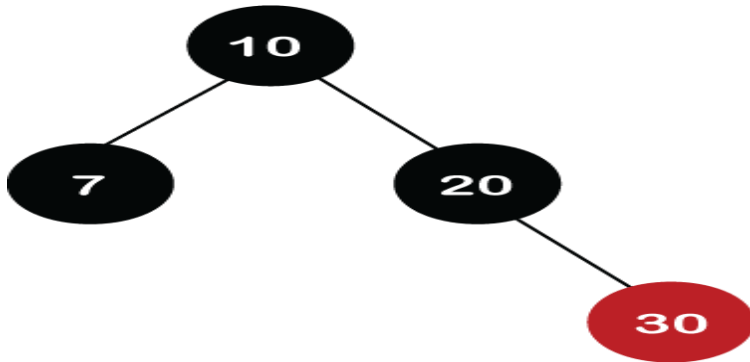
**Step1:** First, we perform BST rules for the deletion.

**Step2:**

**Case 1:** if the node is Red, which is to be deleted, we simply delete it. Let's

understand case 1 through an example.

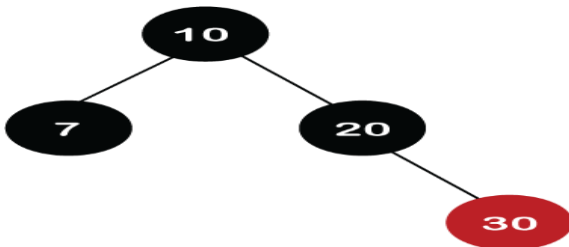
Suppose we want to delete node 30 from the tree, which is given below.



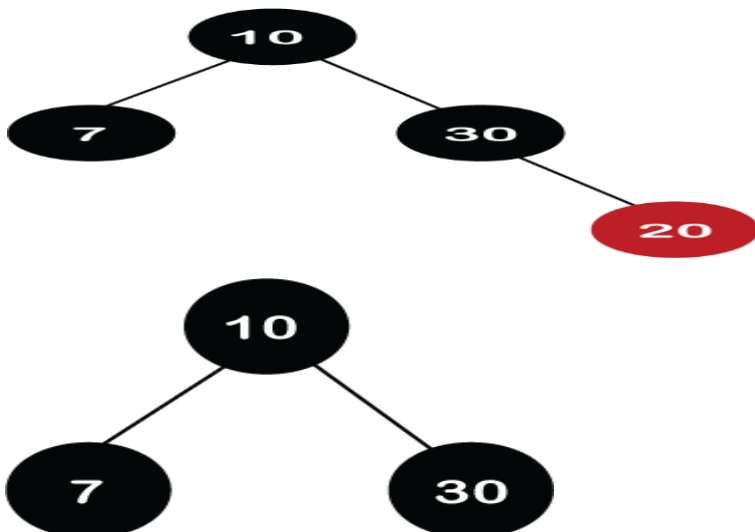
Initially, we are having the address of the root node. First, we will apply BST to search the node. Since 30 is greater than 10 and 20, which means that 30 is the right child of node 20. Node 30 is a leaf node and Red in color, so it is simply deleted from the tree.

If we want to delete the internal node that has one child. First, replace the value of the internal node with the value of the child node and then simply delete the child node.

**Let's take another example in which we want to delete the internal node, i.e., node 20.**



We cannot delete the internal node; we can only replace the value of that node with another value. Node 20 is at the right of the root node, and it is having only one child, node 30. So, node 20 is replaced with a value 30, but the color of the node would remain the same, i.e., Black. In the end, node 20 (leaf node) is deleted from the tree.

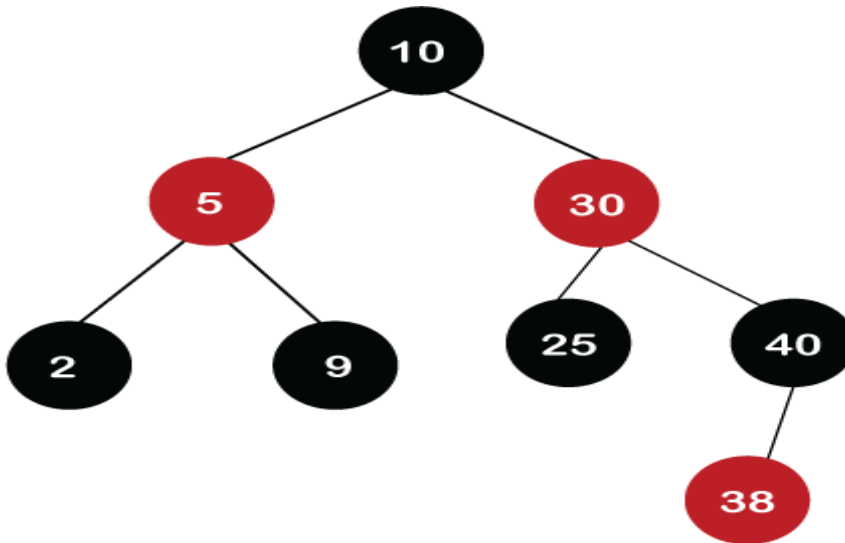


If we want to delete the internal node that has two child nodes. In this case, we have to decide from which we have to replace the value of the internal node (either left subtree or right subtree). We have two ways:

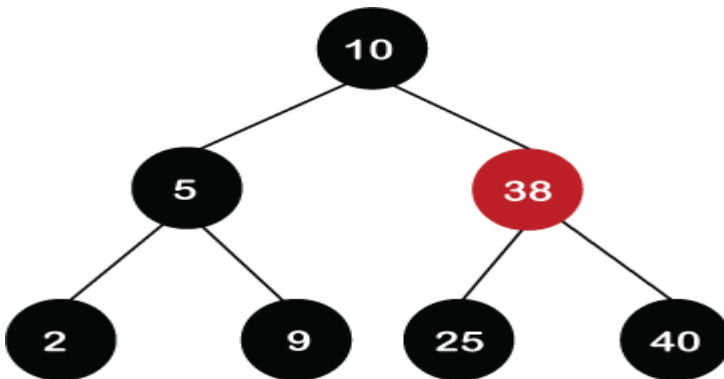


- **Inorderpredecessor:** We will replace with the largest value that exists in the left subtree.
- **Inordersuccessor:** We will replace with the smallest value that exists in the right subtree.

Suppose we want to delete node 30 from the tree, which is shown below:



Node 30 is at the right of the root node. In this case, we will use the **inordersuccessor**. The value 38 is the smallest value in the right subtree, so we will replace the value 30 with 38, but the node would remain the same, i.e., Red. After replacement, the leaf node, i.e., 30, would be deleted from the tree. Since node 30 is a leaf node and Red in color, we need to delete it (we do not have to perform any rotations or any recoloring).



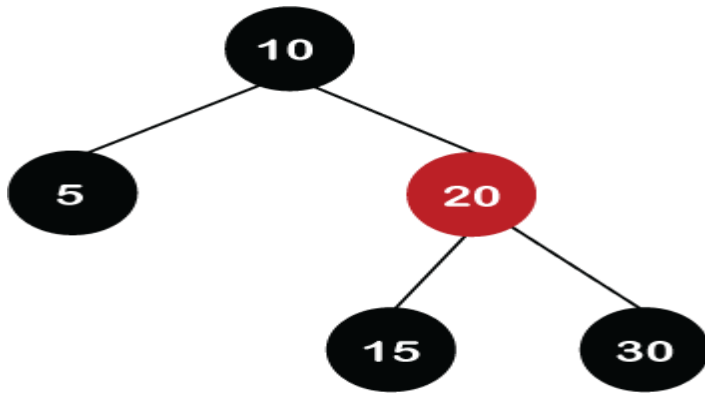
**Case 2:** If the root node is also double black, then simply remove the double black and make it a single black.

**Case 3:** If the double black's sibling is black and both its children are black.

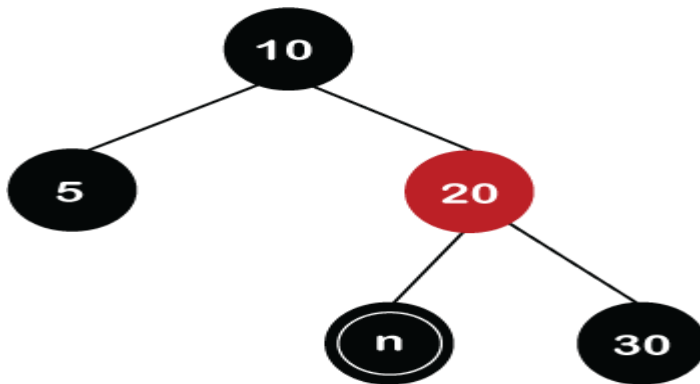
- Remove the double black node.
  - Add the color of the node to the parent (P) node.
1. If the color of P is red then it becomes black.
  2. If the color of P is black, then it becomes double black.
- The color of double black's sibling is changed to stored.
  - If still a double black situation arises, then we will apply other cases.

**Let's understand this case through an example.**

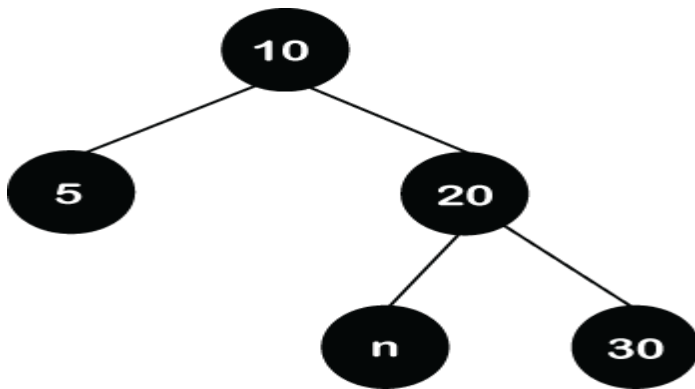
Suppose we want to delete node 15 in the below tree.



We cannot simply delete node 15 from the tree as node 15 is Black in color. Node 15 has two children, which are nil. So, we replace the 15 value with a nil value. As node 15 and nil node are black in color, the node becomes double black after replacement, as shown in the below figure.



In the above tree, we can observe that the double black's sibling is black in color and its children are nil, which are also black. As the double black's sibling and its children have black so it cannot give its black color to neither of these. Now, the double black's parent node is Red so double black's node add its black color to its parent node. The color of the node 20 changes to black while the color of the nil node changes to a single black as shown in the below figure.



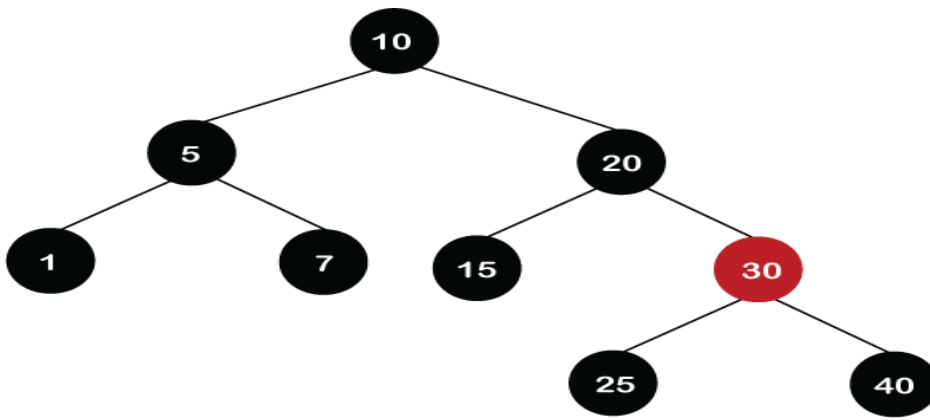
After adding the color to its parent node, the color of the double black's sibling, i.e., node 30 changes to red as shown in the below figure. In the above tree, we can observe that there is no longer double black's problem exists, and it is also a Red-Black tree.

**Case 4:** If double black's sibling is Red.

- Swap the color of its parent and its sibling.
- Rotate the parent node in the double black's direction.
- Reapply cases.

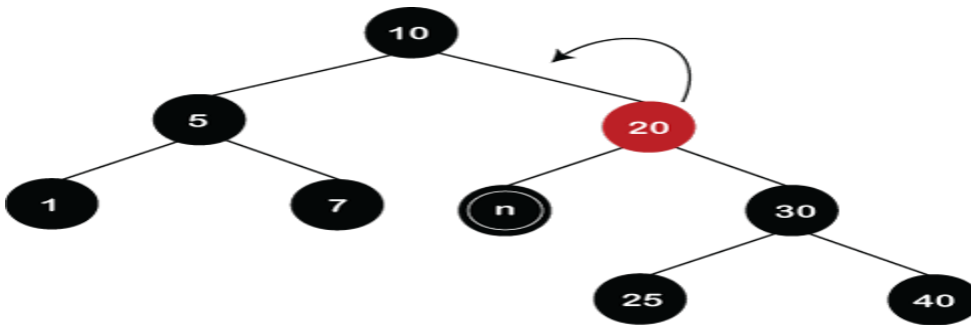
**Let's understand this case through an example.**

Suppose we want to delete node 15.

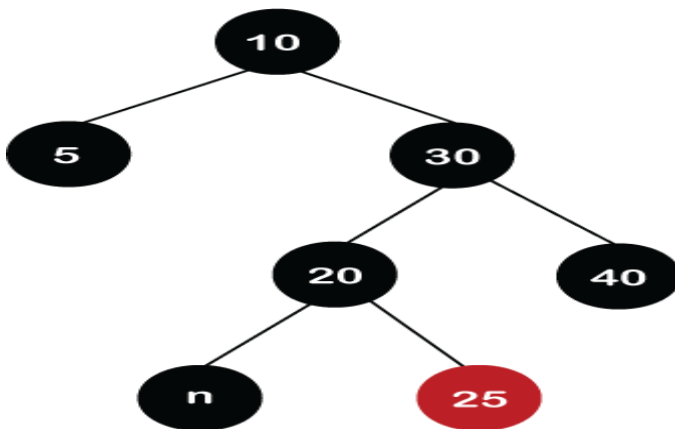


Initially, the 15 is replaced with a nil value. After replacement, the node becomes double black. Since double black's sibling is Red so color of the node 20 changes to Red and the color of the node 30 changes to Black.

Once the swapping of the color is completed, the rotation towards the double black would be performed. The node 30 will move upwards and the node 20 will move downwards as shown in the below figure.



In the above tree, we can observe that double black situation still exists in the tree. It satisfies the case 3 in which double black's sibling is black as well as both its children are black. First, we remove the double black from the node and add the black color to its parent node. At the end, the color of the double black's sibling, i.e., node 25 changes to Red as shown in the below figure.



In the above tree, we can observe that the double black situation has been resolved. It also satisfies the properties of the Red Black tree.

## Search

The search operation in red-black tree follows the same algorithm as that of a binary search tree. The tree is traversed and each node is compared with the key element to be searched; if found it returns a successful search. Otherwise, it returns an unsuccessful search.

# SplayTree

Splay trees are the altered versions of the Binary Search Trees, since it contains all the operations of BSTs, like insertion, deletion and searching, followed by another extended operation called **splaying**.

For instance, a value "A" is supposed to be inserted into the tree. If the tree is empty, add "A" to the root of the tree and exit; but if the tree is not empty, use binary search insertion operation to insert the element and then perform splaying on the new node.

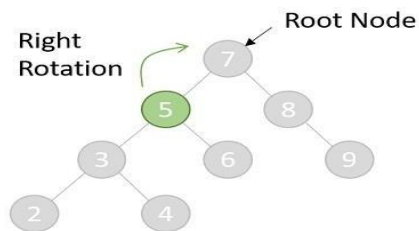
Similarly, after searching an element in the splay tree, the node consisting of the element must be splayed as well.

*How does it perform splaying?* Splaying, in simpler terms, is just a process of bringing an operational node to the root. There are six types of rotations for it.

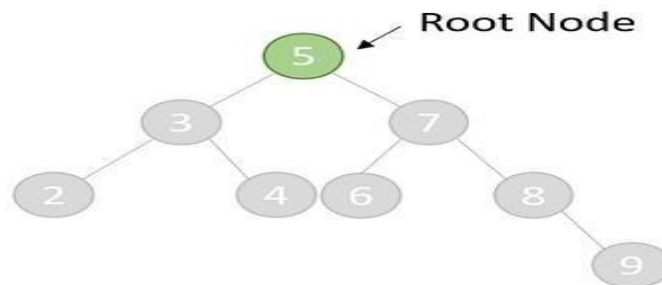
- Zig rotation
- Zag rotation
- Zig-Zig rotation
- Zag-Zag rotation
- Zig-Zag rotation
- Zag-Zig rotation

## Zig rotation

The zig rotations are performed when the operational node is either the root node or the left child node of the root node. The node is rotated towards its right.

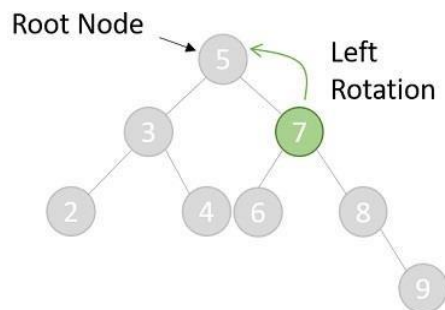


After the shift, the tree will look like—

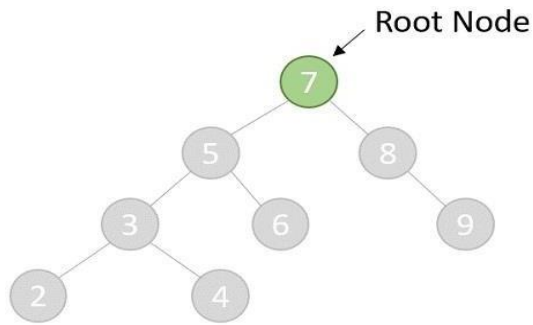


## Zag rotation

The zag rotations are also performed when the operational node is either the root node or the right child node of the root node. The node is rotated towards its left.

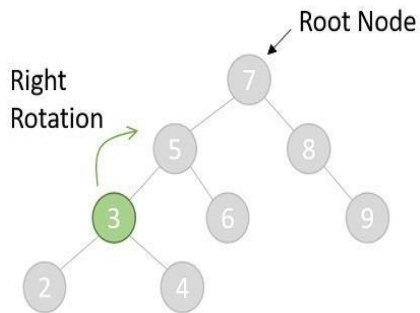


The operational node becomes the root node after the shift—

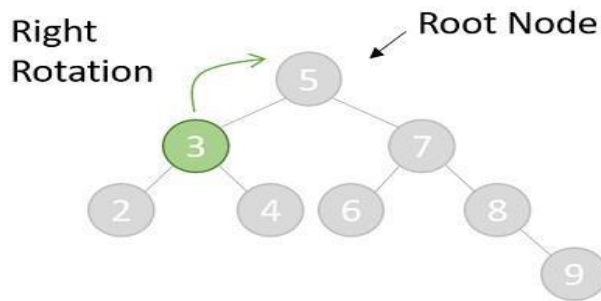


### Zig-Zigrotation

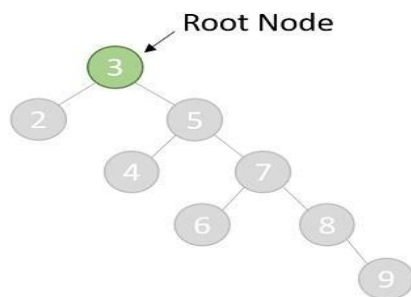
The zig-zigrotations are performed when the operational node has both parent and a grandparent. The node is rotated two places towards its right.



The first rotation will shift the tree to one position right –

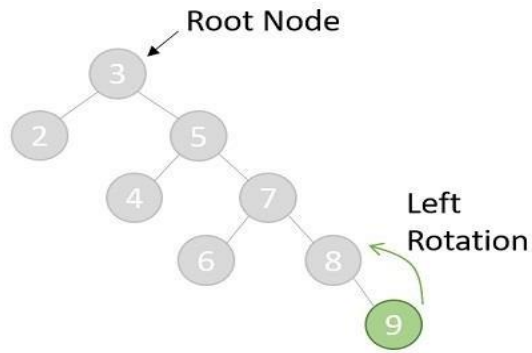


The second right rotation will once again shift the node for one position. The final tree after the shift will look like this –

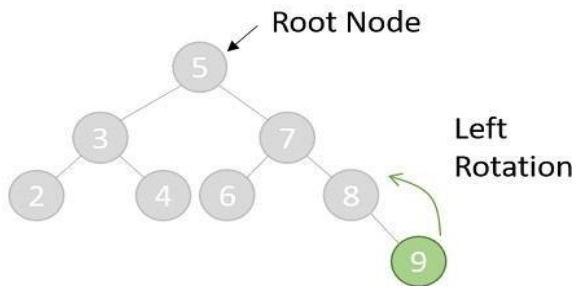


### Zag-Zagrotation

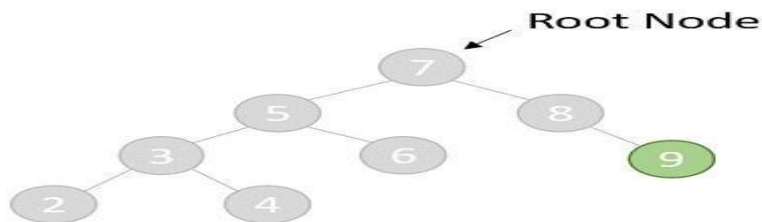
The zag-zagrotations are also performed when the operational node has both parent and a grandparent. The node is rotated two places towards its left.



After the first rotation, the tree will look like-

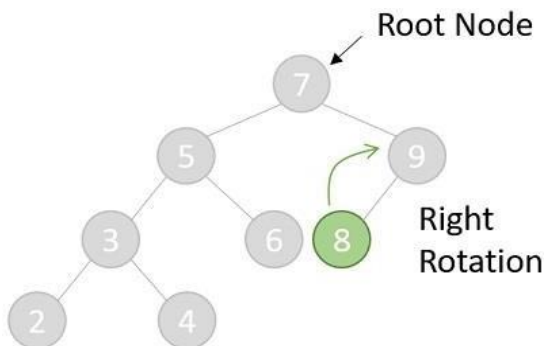


Then the final tree after the second rotation is given as follows. However, the operational node is still not the root so the splaying is considered incomplete. Hence, other suitable rotations are again applied in this case until the node becomes the root.

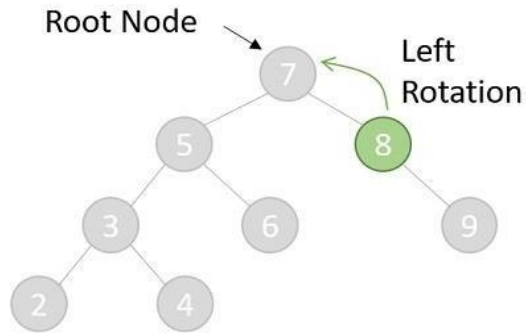


### Zig-Zag rotation

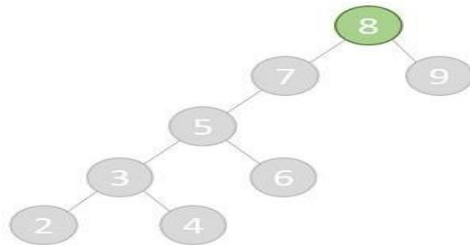
The zig-zag rotations are performed when the operational node has both a parent and a grandparent. But the difference is the grandparent, parent and child are in LRL format. The node is rotated first towards its right followed by left.



After the first rotation, the tree is-

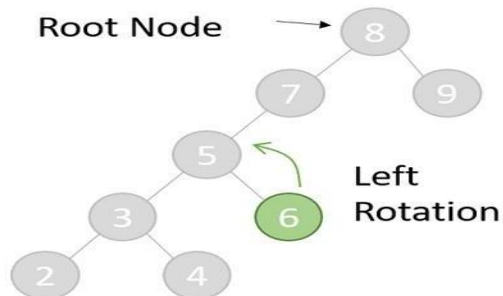


The final tree after the second rotation—

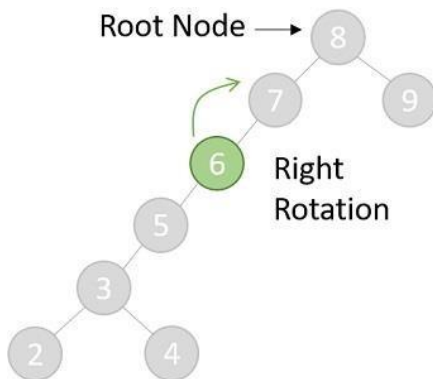


### Zag-Zig rotation

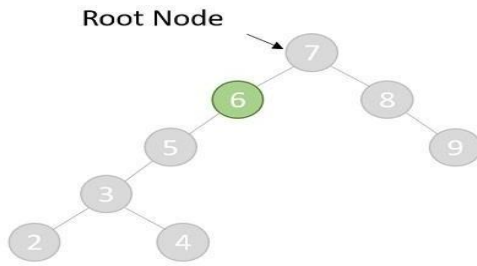
The zag-zig rotations are also performed when the operational node has both parent and grandparent. But the difference is the grandparent, parent and child are in RLR format. The node is rotated first towards its left followed by right.



First rotation is performed, the tree is obtained as—



After second rotation, the final tree is given as below. However, the operational node is not the root node yet so one more rotation needs to be performed to make the said node as the root.



## Basic Operations of Splay Trees

A splay contains the same basic operations that a Binary Search Tree provides with: Insertion, Deletion, and Search. However, after every operation there is an additional operation that differs them from Binary Search tree operations: Splaying. We have learned about Splaying already so let us understand the procedures of the other operations.

### Insertion

The insertion operation in a Splay tree is performed in the exact same way insertion in a binary search tree is performed. The procedure to perform the insertion in a splay tree is given as follows –

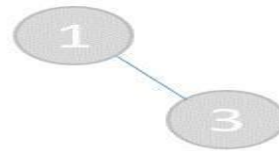
- Check whether the tree is empty; if yes, add the new node and exit

#### Insert 1, 3 into the Splay Tree



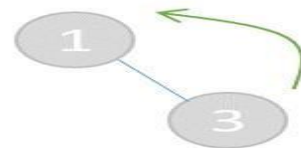
- If the tree is not empty, add the new node to the existing tree using the binary search insertion.

#### Insert 1, 3 into the Splay Tree



- Then, suitable splaying is chosen and applied on the newly added node.

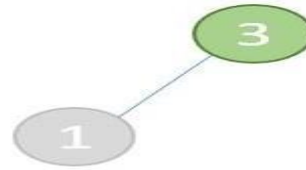
#### Insert 1, 3 into the Splay Tree



Zag(Left) Rotation is applied on the new node



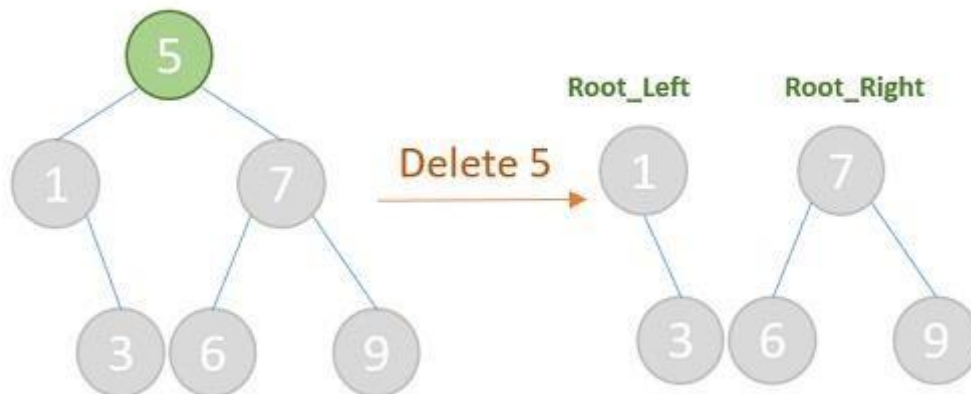
## Insert 1, 3 into the Splay Tree



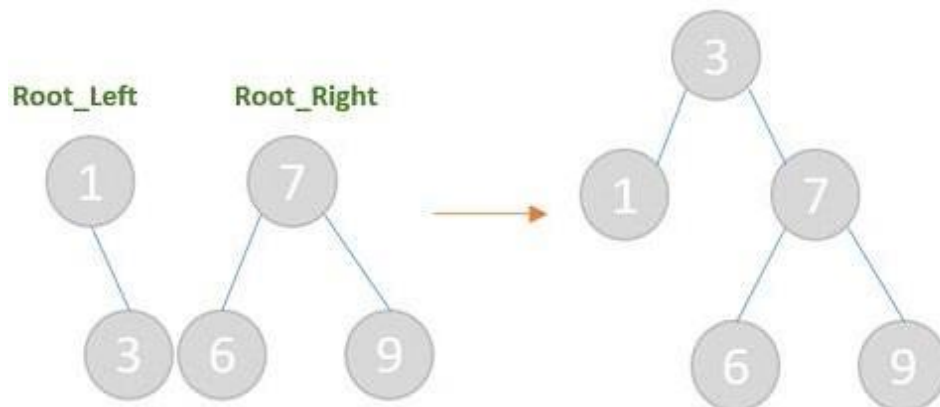
## Deletion

The deletion operation in a splay tree is performed as following—

- Apply splaying operation on the node to be deleted.
- Once, the node is made the root, delete the node.
- Now, the tree is split into two trees, the left subtree and the right subtree; with their respective first nodes as the root nodes: say root\_left and root\_right.



- If root\_left is a NULL value, then the root\_right will become the root of the tree. And vice versa.
- But if both root\_left and root\_right are not NULL values, then select the maximum value from the left subtree and make it the new root by connecting the subtrees.



## Search

The search operation in a Splay tree follows the same procedure of the Binary Search Tree operation. However, after the searching is done and the element is found, splaying is applied on the node searched. If the element is not found, then unsuccessful search is prompted.

## MODULE-4

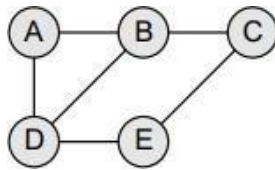
### GRAPHS

#### INTRODUCTION

A graph is an abstract data structure that is used to implement the mathematical concept of graphs. It is basically a collection of vertices (also called nodes) and edges that connect these vertices. A graph is often viewed as a generalization of the tree structure, where instead of having a purely parent-to-child relationship between tree nodes, any kind of complex relationship can exist.

#### DEFINITION:

A graph  $G$  is defined as an ordered set  $(V, E)$ , where  $V(G)$  represents the set of vertices and  $E(G)$  represents the edges that connect these vertices.



#### Undirected Graph

The above Figure shows a Graph with  $V(G) = \{A, B, C, D \text{ and } E\}$  and  $E(G) = \{(A, B), (B, C), (A, D), (B, D), (D, E), (C, E)\}$ . Note that there are five vertices or nodes and six edges in the graph.

A graph can be Directed or Undirected. In an Undirected graph, edges do not have any direction associated with them. That is, if an edge is drawn between nodes A and B, then the nodes can be traversed from A to B as well as from B to A. The above Figure shows an undirected graph because it does not give any information about the direction of the edges.

Look at the Below Figure which shows a Directed graph. In a directed graph, edges form an ordered pair. If there is an edge from A to B, then there is a path from A to B but not from B to A. The edge  $(A, B)$  is said to initiate from node A (also known as initial node) and terminate at node B (terminal node).

#### GRAPH TERMINOLOGY:

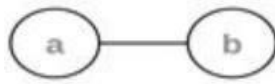
We use the following terms in graph data structure.

**1. Vertex:** An individual data element of a graph is called as Vertex. Vertex is also known as node. In above example graph, A, B, C, D & E are known as vertices.

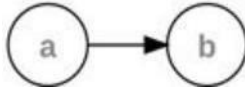
**2. Edge:** An edge is a connecting link between two vertices. Edge is also known as Arc. An edge is represented as (starting Vertex, ending Vertex). For example, the link between vertices A and B is represented as  $(A, B)$ . In above graph, there are 7 edges  $(A, B), (A, C), (A, D), (B, D), (B, E), (C, D), (D, E)$ .

**Edges are three types:**

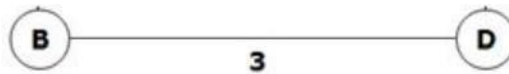
**A. Undirected Edge:** An undirected edge is a bidirectional edge. If there is an undirected edge between vertices A and B then edge (a , b) is equal to edge (b, a).



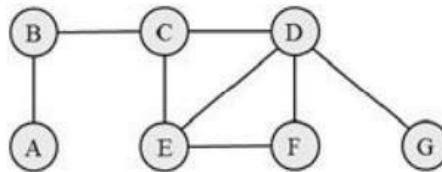
**B. Directed Edge:** A directed edge is a unidirectional edge. If there is a directed edge between vertices A and B then edge (A , B) is not equal to edge (B , A).



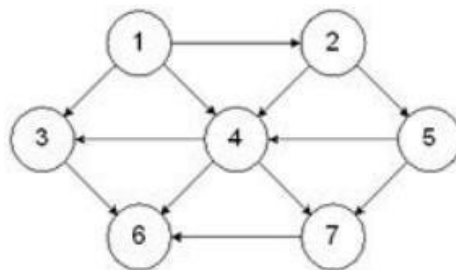
**C. Weighted Edge:** A weighted edge is an edge with a cost on it.



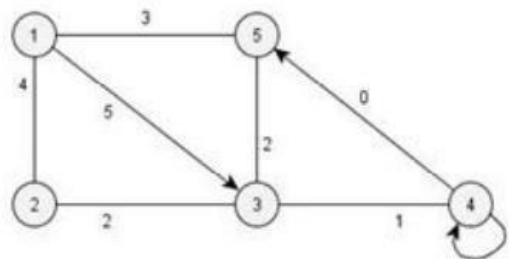
**3. Undirected Graph:** A graph with only undirected edges is said to be an undirected graph.



**4. Directed Graph:** A directed graph is a graph in which all the edges are uni-directional i.e. the edges point in a single direction.



**5. Mixed Graph:** A graph with undirected and directed edges is said to be a mixed graph.



**6. Weighted Graph:** In a weighted graph, each edge is assigned a weight or cost. Consider a graph of 4 nodes as in the diagram below. As you can see each edge has a weight/cost assigned to it. If you want to go from vertex 1 to vertex 3, you can take one of the following 3 paths:

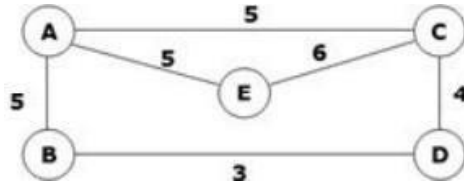
a. 1->2->3

b. 1->3

c. 1->4->3

Therefore the total cost of each path will be as follows: - The total cost of 1->2->3 will be (1+2)

i.e. 3 units - The total cost of 1->3 will be 1 unit - The total cost of 1->4->3 will be (3+2) i.e. 5 units



**7. End vertices or Endpoints:** The two vertices joined by an edge are called the end vertices (or endpoints) of the edge.

**8. Origin:** If an edge is directed, its first endpoint is said to be origin of it.

**9. Destination:** If an edge is directed, its first endpoint is said to be origin of it and the other endpoint is said to be the destination of the edge.

**10. Adjacent:** If there is an edge between vertices A and B then both A and B are said to be adjacent.

**11. Degree:** Total number of edges connected to a vertex is said to be degree of that vertex.

**12. Indegree:** Total number of incoming edges connected to a vertex is said to be indegree of that vertex.

**13. Outdegree:** Total number of outgoing edges connected to a vertex is said to be outdegree of that vertex.

**14. Path:** A path is a sequence of alternating vertices and edges that starts at a vertex and ends at a vertex such that each edge is incident to its predecessor and successor vertex.

## **Graph Traversals:(Searches in Graphs):**

Graph traversal is a technique used for searching a vertex in a graph. The graph traversal is also used to decide the order of vertices to be visited in the search process. A graph traversal finds the shortest path to be used in the search process without creating loops that means using graph traversal we visit all vertices of graph without getting into looping path.

There are two graph traversal techniques and they are as follows.

1. DFS (Depth First Search)
2. BFS (Breadth First Search)

### **1. Depth-first Search Algorithm:**

The depth-first search algorithm progresses by expanding the starting node of G and then going deeper and deeper until the goal node is found, or until a node that has no children is encountered. When a dead-end is reached, the algorithm backtracks, returning to the most recent node that has not been completely explored.

In other words, depth-first search begins at a starting node A which becomes the current node. Then, it examines each node N along a path P which begins at A. That is, we process a neighbour of A, then a neighbour of neighbour of A, and so on. During the execution of the algorithm, if we reach a path that has a node N that has already been processed, then we backtrack to the current node. Otherwise, the unvisited (unprocessed) node becomes the current node.

### **We use the following steps to implement DFS traversal:**

**Step 1:** Define a stack of size total number of vertices in the graph.

**Step 2:** Select any vertex as starting point for traversal. Visit that vertex and push it on to the Stack.

**Step 3:** Visit any one of the adjacent vertex of the vertex which is at top of the stack which is not visited and push it on to the stack.

**Step 4:** Repeat step 3 until there are no new vertex to be visited from the vertex on top of the stack.

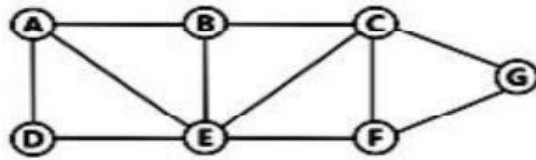
**Step 5:** When there is no new vertex to be visited then use back tracking and pop one vertex from the stack.

**Step 6:** Repeat steps 3, 4 and 5 until stack becomes Empty.

**Step 7:** When stack becomes Empty, then produce final spanning tree by removing unused edges from the graph

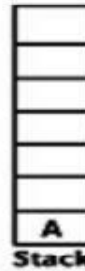
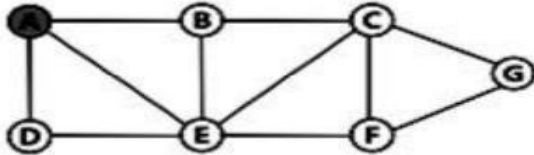
Example:

Consider the following example graph to perform DFS traversal



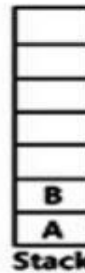
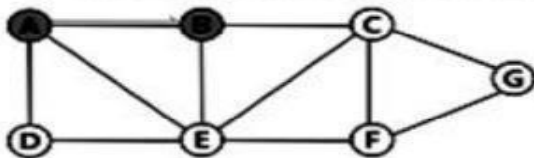
Step 1:

- Select the vertex **A** as starting point (visit **A**).
- Push **A** on to the Stack.



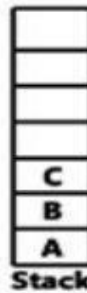
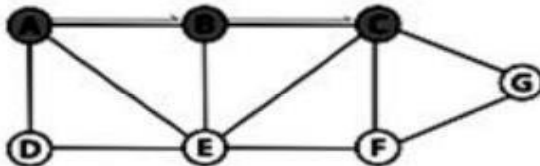
Step 2:

- Visit any adjacent vertex of **A** which is not visited (**B**).
- Push newly visited vertex **B** on to the Stack.



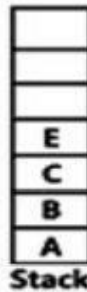
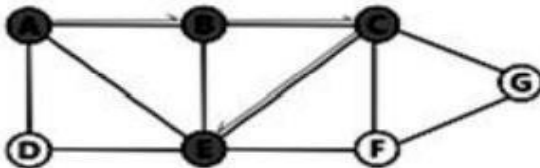
Step 3:

- Visit any adjacent vertex of **B** which is not visited (**C**).
- Push **C** on to the Stack.



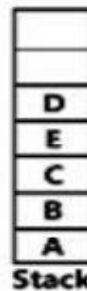
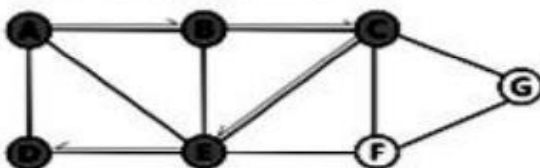
Step 4:

- Visit any adjacent vertex of **C** which is not visited (**E**).
- Push **E** on to the Stack



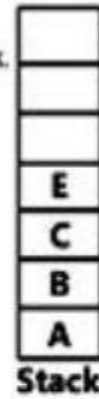
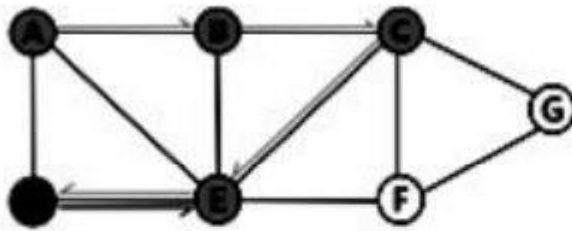
Step 5:

- Visit any adjacent vertex of **E** which is not visited (**D**).
- Push **D** on to the Stack



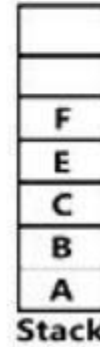
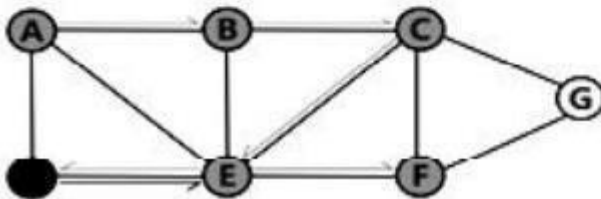
**Step 6:**

- There is no new vertex to be visited from D. So use back track.
- Pop D from the Stack.



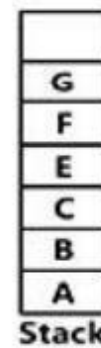
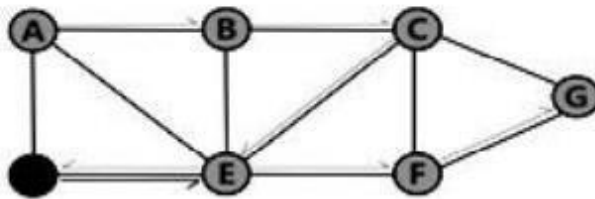
**Step 7:**

- Visit any adjacent vertex of E which is not visited (F).
- Push F on to the Stack.



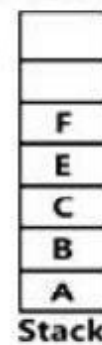
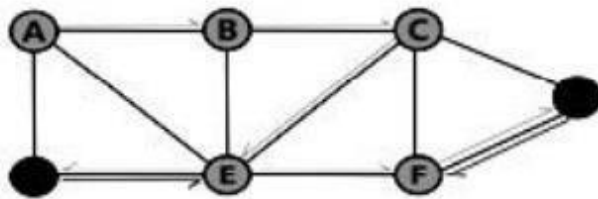
**Step 8:**

- Visit any adjacent vertex of F which is not visited (G).
- Push G on to the Stack.



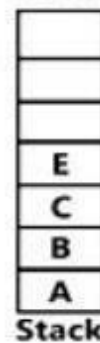
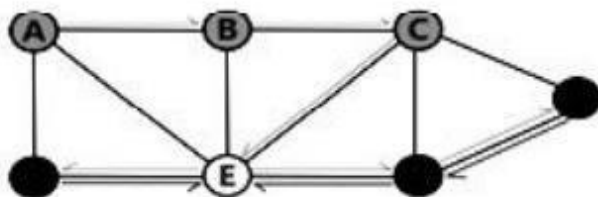
**Step 9:**

- There is no new vertex to be visited from G. So use back track.
- Pop G from the Stack.



**Step 10:**

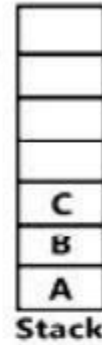
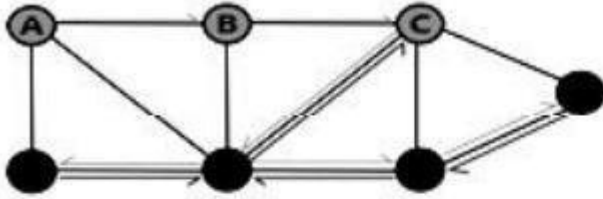
- There is no new vertex to be visited from F. So use back track.
- Pop F from the Stack.





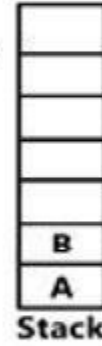
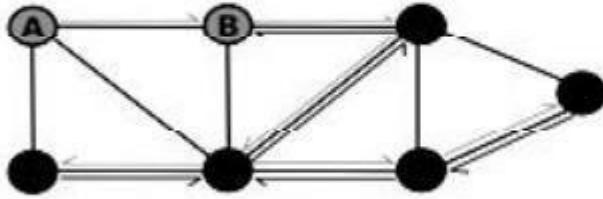
**Step 11:**

- There is no new vertex to be visited from E. So use back track.
- Pop E from the Stack.



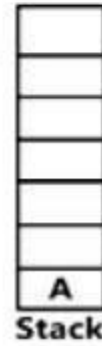
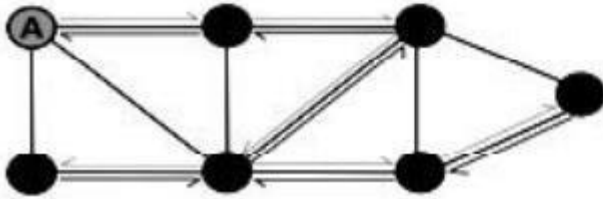
**Step 12:**

- There is no new vertex to be visited from C. So use back track.
- Pop C from the Stack.



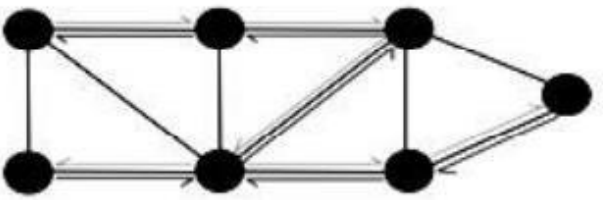
**Step 13:**

- There is no new vertex to be visited from B. So use back track.
- Pop B from the Stack.

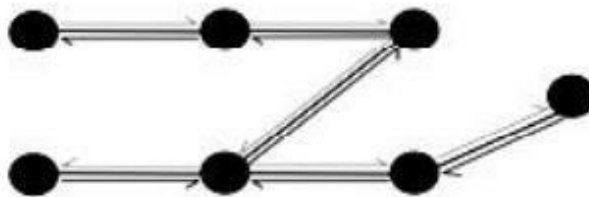


**Step 14:**

- There is no new vertex to be visited from A. So use back track.
- Pop A from the Stack.



- Stack became Empty. So stop DFS Traversal,
- Final result of DFS traversal is following spanning tree.



## **Applications of Depth-First Search Algorithm :**

Depth-first search is useful for:

1. Finding a path between two specified nodes,  $u$  and  $v$ , of an unweighted graph.
2. Finding a path between two specified nodes,  $u$  and  $v$ , of a weighted graph.
3. Finding whether a graph is connected or not.
4. Computing the spanning tree of a connected graph.

## **Breadth-First Search Algorithm:**

Breadth-first search (BFS) is a graph search algorithm that begins at the root node and explores all the neighbouring nodes. Then for each of those nearest nodes, the algorithm explores their unexplored neighbour nodes, and so on, until it finds the goal.

BFS traversal of a graph, produces a spanning tree as final result. Spanning Tree is a graph without any loops. We use Queue data structure with maximum size of total number of vertices in the graph to implement BFS traversal of a graph.

## **We use the following steps to implement BFS traversal:**

**Step 1:** Define a Queue of size total number of vertices in the graph.

**Step 2:** Select any vertex as starting point for traversal. Visit that vertex and insert it into the Queue.

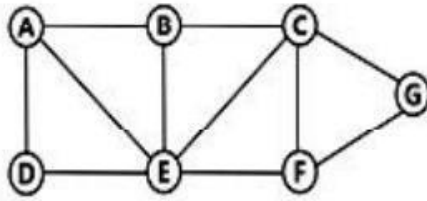
**Step 3:** Visit all the adjacent vertices of the vertex which is at front of the Queue which is not visited and insert them into the Queue.

**Step 4:** When there is no new vertex to be visited from the vertex at front of the Queue then delete that vertex from the Queue.

**Step 5:** Repeat step 3 and 4 until queue becomes empty.

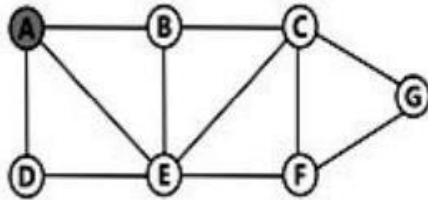
**Step 6:** When queue becomes Empty, then produce final spanning tree by removing unused edges from the graph.

Consider the following example graph to perform BFS traversal

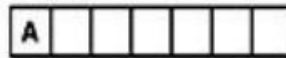


**Step 1:**

- Select the vertex **A** as starting point (visit **A**).
- Insert **A** into the Queue.

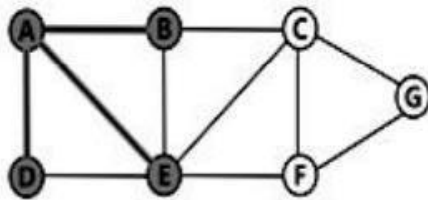


Queue



**Step 2:**

- Visit all adjacent vertices of **A** which are not visited (**D, E, B**).
- Insert newly visited vertices into the Queue and delete A from the Queue.

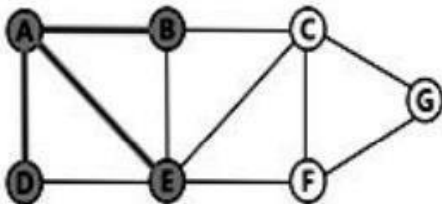


Queue

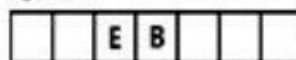


**Step 3:**

- Visit all adjacent vertices of **D** which are not visited (there is no vertex).
- Delete D from the Queue.

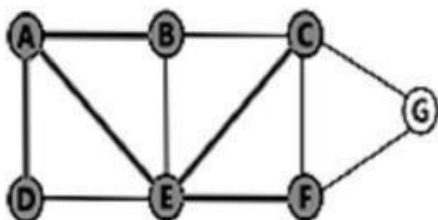


Queue

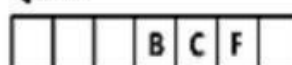


**Step 4:**

- Visit all adjacent vertices of **E** which are not visited (**C, F**).
- Insert newly visited vertices into the Queue and delete E from the Queue.

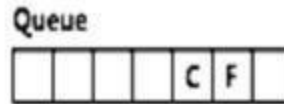
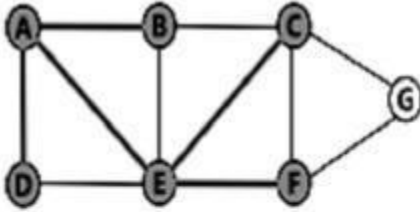


Queue



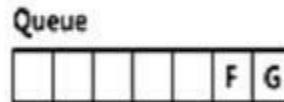
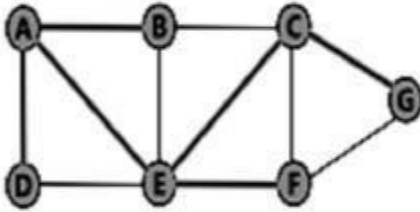
**Step 5:**

- Visit all adjacent vertices of **B** which are not visited (**there is no vertex**).
- Delete **B** from the Queue.



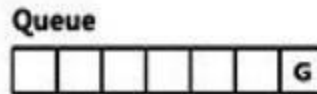
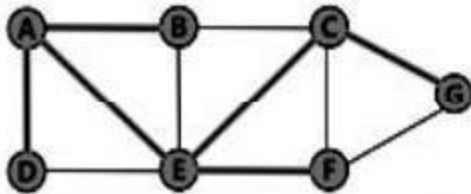
**Step 6:**

- Visit all adjacent vertices of **C** which are not visited (**G**).
- Insert newly visited vertex into the Queue and delete **C** from the Queue.



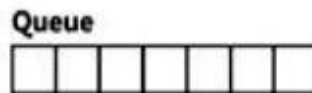
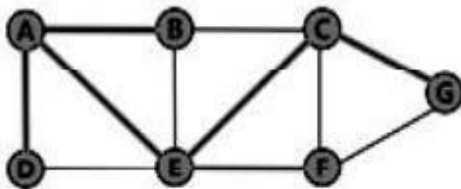
**Step 7:**

- Visit all adjacent vertices of **F** which are not visited (**there is no vertex**).
- Delete **F** from the Queue.

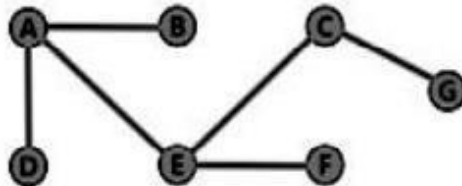


**Step 8:**

- Visit all adjacent vertices of **G** which are not visited (**there is no vertex**).
- Delete **G** from the Queue.



- Queue became Empty. So, stop the BFS process.
- Final result of BFS is a Spanning Tree as shown below...



## Sorting

### QuickSort Algorithm

Sorting is a way of arranging items in a systematic manner. Quicksort is the widely used sorting algorithm that makes  $n \log n$  comparisons in average case for sorting an array of  $n$  elements. It is a faster and highly efficient sorting algorithm. This algorithm follows the divide and conquer approach. Divide and conquer is a technique of breaking down the algorithms into subproblems, then solving the subproblems, and combining the results back together to solve the original problem.

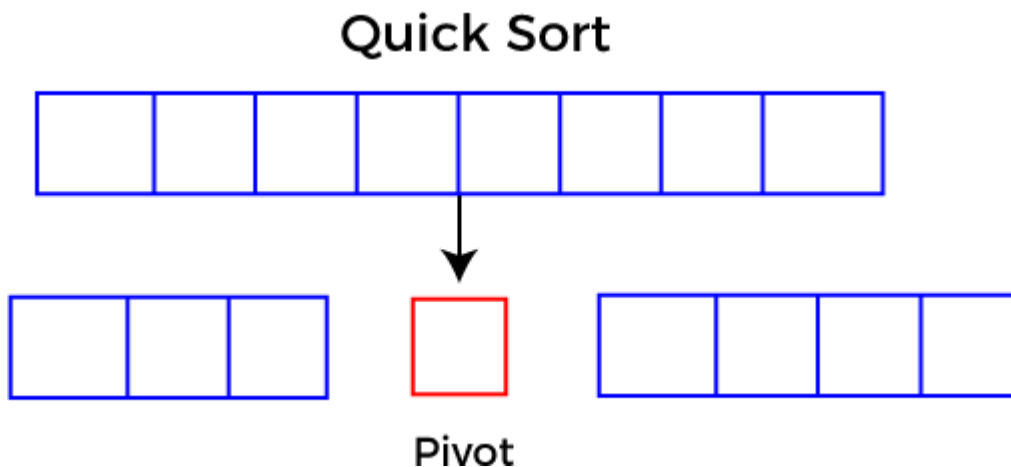
**Divide:** In Divide, first pick a pivot element. After that, partition or rearrange the array into two sub-arrays such that each element in the left sub-array is less than or equal to the pivot element and each element in the right sub-array is larger than the pivot element.

**Conquer:** Recursively, sort two subarrays with Quicksort.

**Combine:** Combine the already sorted array.

Quicksort picks an element as pivot, and then it partitions the given array around the picked pivot element. In quick sort, a large array is divided into two arrays in which one holds values that are smaller than the specified value (Pivot), and another array holds the values that are greater than the pivot.

After that, left and right sub-arrays are also partitioned using the same approach. It will continue until the single element remains in the sub-array.



#### Choosing the pivot

Picking a good pivot is necessary for the fast implementation of quicksort. However, it is typical to determine a good pivot. Some of the ways of choosing a pivot are as follows -

- Pivot can be random, i.e. select the random pivot from the given array.
- Pivot can either be the rightmost element or the leftmost element of the given array.
- Select median as the pivot element.

### Algorithm

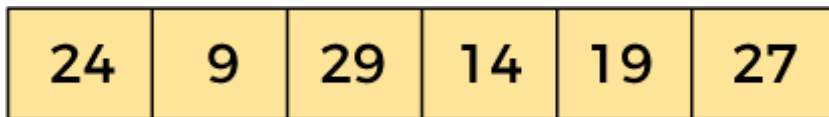
1. QUICKSORT(arrayA, start, end)
2. {
3. **1**if(start<end)
4. **2** {
5. **3**p=partition(A, start, end)
6. **4**QUICKSORT(A, start, p-1)
7. **5**QUICKSORT(A, p+ 1, end)
8. **6** }
9. }

### WorkingofQuickSort Algorithm

Now, let's see the working of the Quicksort Algorithm.

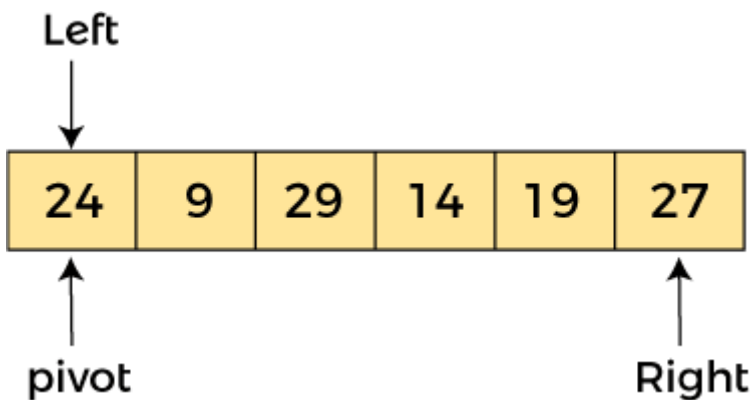
To understand the working of quicksort, let's take an unsorted array. It will make the concept more clear and understandable.

Let the elements of the array are-

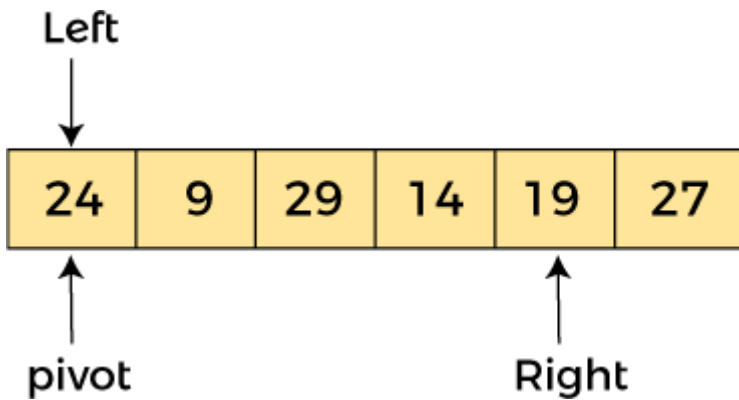


In the given array, we consider the leftmost element as pivot. So, in this case,  $a[\text{left}] = 24$ ,  $a[\text{right}] = 27$  and  $a[\text{pivot}] = 24$ .

Since, pivot is at left, so algorithm starts from right and moves towards left.

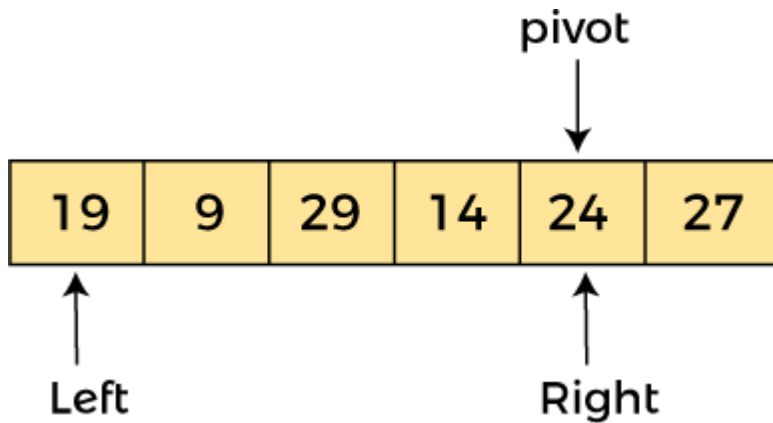


Now,  $a[\text{pivot}] < a[\text{right}]$ , so algorithm moves forward one position towards left, i.e. -



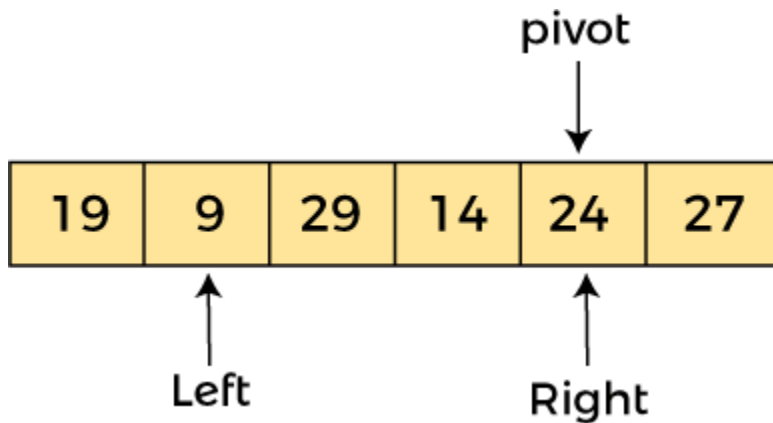
Now,  $a[\text{left}] = 24$ ,  $a[\text{right}] = 19$ , and  $a[\text{pivot}] = 24$ .

Because,  $a[\text{pivot}] > a[\text{right}]$ , so, algorithm will swap  $a[\text{pivot}]$  with  $a[\text{right}]$ , and pivot moves to right, as -

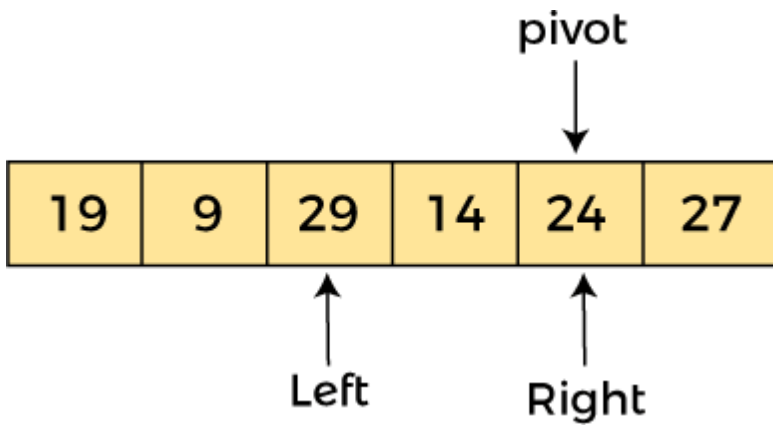


Now,  $a[\text{left}] = 19$ ,  $a[\text{right}] = 24$ , and  $a[\text{pivot}] = 24$ . Since, pivot is at right, so algorithm starts from left and moves to right.

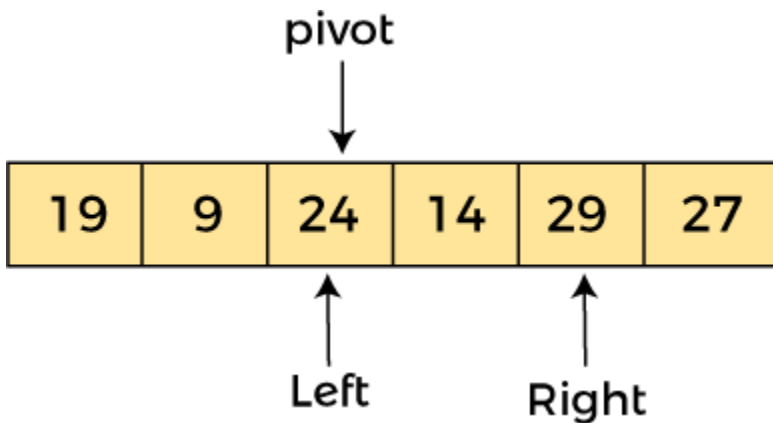
As  $a[\text{pivot}] > a[\text{left}]$ , so algorithm moves one position to right as -



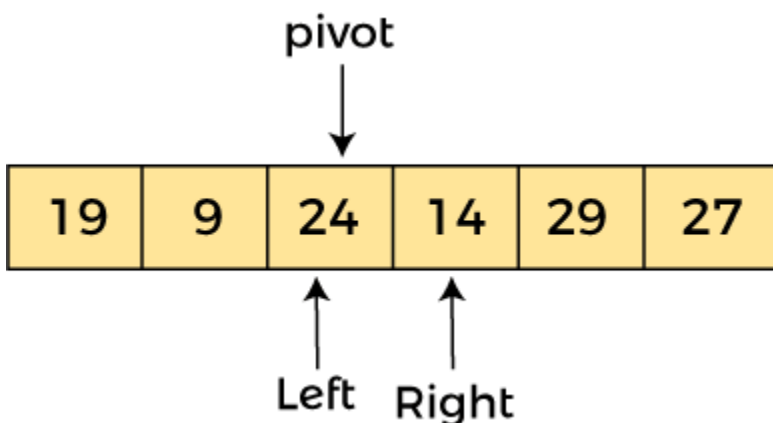
Now,  $a[\text{left}] = 9$ ,  $a[\text{right}] = 24$ , and  $a[\text{pivot}] = 24$ . As  $a[\text{pivot}] > a[\text{left}]$ , so algorithm moves one position to right as -



Now,  $a[\text{left}] = 29$ ,  $a[\text{right}] = 24$ , and  $a[\text{pivot}] = 24$ . As  $a[\text{pivot}] < a[\text{left}]$ , so, swap  $a[\text{pivot}]$  and  $a[\text{left}]$ , now pivot is at left, i.e. -

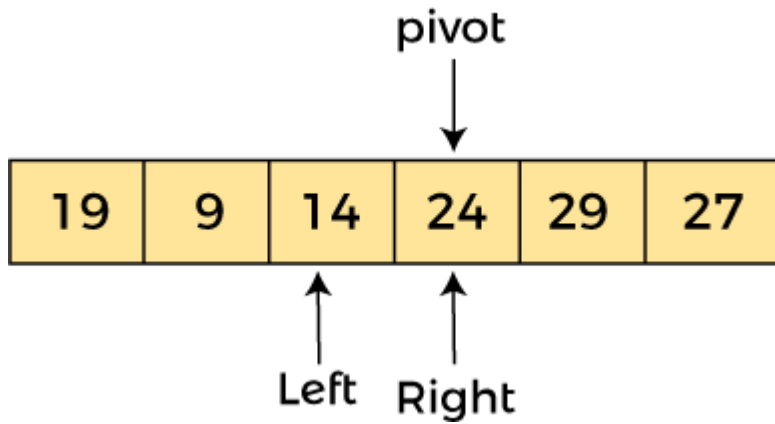


Since, pivot is at left, so algorithm starts from right, and move to left. Now,  $a[\text{left}] = 24$ ,  $a[\text{right}] = 29$ , and  $a[\text{pivot}] = 24$ . As  $a[\text{pivot}] < a[\text{right}]$ , so algorithm moves one position to left, as -

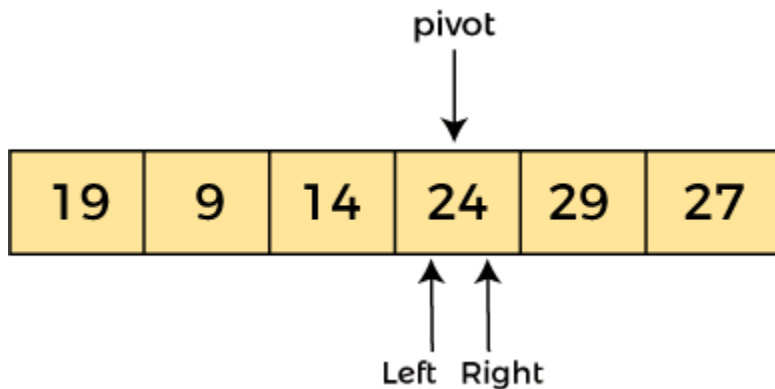


Now,  $a[\text{pivot}] = 24$ ,  $a[\text{left}] = 24$ , and  $a[\text{right}] = 14$ . As  $a[\text{pivot}] > a[\text{right}]$ , so, swap  $a[\text{pivot}]$  and  $a[\text{right}]$ , now pivot is at right, i.e. -





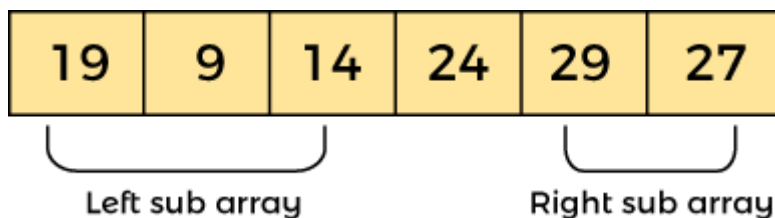
Now,  $a[\text{pivot}] = 24$ ,  $a[\text{left}] = 14$ , and  $a[\text{right}] = 24$ . Pivot is at right, so the algorithm starts from left and move to right.



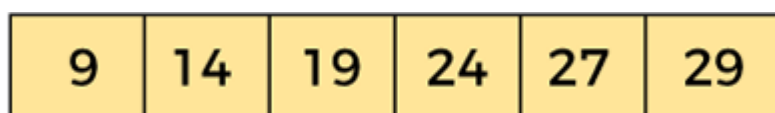
Now,  $a[\text{pivot}] = 24$ ,  $a[\text{left}] = 24$ , and  $a[\text{right}] = 24$ . So, pivot, left and right are pointing the same element. It represents the termination of procedure.

Element 24, which is the pivot element is placed at its exact position.

Elements that are right side of element 24 are greater than it, and the elements that are left side of element 24 are smaller than it.



Now, in a similar manner, quicksort algorithm is separately applied to the left and right sub-arrays. After sorting gets done, the array will be -



## Quicksort complexity

Now, let's see the time complexity of quicksort in best case, average case, and in worst case. We will also see the space complexity of quicksort.

### 1. Time Complexity

Case	Time Complexity
BestCase	$O(n \cdot \log n)$
AverageCase	$O(n \cdot \log n)$
WorstCase	$O(n^2)$

### 2. Space Complexity

Space Complexity	$O(n \cdot \log n)$
Stable	NO

- The space complexity of quicksort is  $O(n \cdot \log n)$ .

### Implementation of quicksort

Now, let's see the programs of quicksort in different programming languages.

**Program:** Write a program to implement quicksort in C language. `#include`

```
<stdio.h>
```

```
/*function that consider last element as pivot,  
place the pivot at its exact position, and place smaller  
elements to left of pivot and greater elements to  
right of pivot.*/
```

```
int partition (int a[], int start, int end)
```

```
{
```

```
    int pivot = a[end]; // pivot element
```

```
    int i = (start - 1);
```

```
    for (int j = start; j <= end - 1; j++)
```

```
    {
```

```
        // If current element is smaller than the pivot
```

```
        if (a[j] < pivot)
```

```
        {
```

```
            i++; // increment index of smaller element
```

```
            int t = a[i];
```

```
            a[i] = a[j];
```

```
            a[j] = t;
```

```
        }
```

```

}
int t = a[i+1];
a[i+1]=a[end];
a[end] = t;
return (i + 1);
}

/*function toimplementquicksort */
voidquick(inta[],intstart, intend)/*a[]=arrayto besorted,start =Starting index,end=Ending index
*/
{
if(start <end)
{
intp=partition(a,start,end);//pisthepartitioningindex
quick(a, start, p - 1);
quick(a,p+1,end);
}
}

/*functiontoprintanarray */
void printArr(inta[],intn)
{
inti;
for(i=0;i<n;i++)
printf("%d", a[i]);
}
int main()
{
inta[]={ 24, 9, 29, 14, 19, 27};
intn =sizeof(a)/ sizeof(a[0]);
printf("Before sorting array elements are-\n");
printArr(a, n);
quick(a,0,n-1);
printf("\nAfter sorting array elements are-\n");
printArr(a, n);

return0;
}

```

**Output:**

```

Before sorting array elements are -
24 9 29 14 19 27
After sorting array elements are -
9 14 19 24 27 29

```

# Heap Sort Algorithm

In this article, we will discuss the Heapsort Algorithm. Heap sort processes the elements by creating the min-heap or max-heap using the elements of the given array. Min-heap or max-heap represents the ordering of array in which the root element represents the minimum or maximum element of the array.

Heapsort basically recursively performs two main operations-

- Build a heap  $H$ , using the elements of array.
- Repeatedly delete the root element of the heap formed in 1<sup>st</sup> phase.

Before knowing more about the heapsort, let's first see a brief description of **Heap**.

## What is a heap?

A heap is a complete binary tree, and the binary tree is a tree in which the node can have the utmost two children. A complete binary tree is a binary tree in which all the levels except the last level, i.e., leaf node, should be completely filled, and all the nodes should be left-justified.

## What is heapsort?

Heapsort is a popular and efficient sorting algorithm. The concept of heapsort is to eliminate the elements one by one from the heap part of the list, and then insert them into the sorted part of the list.

Heapsort is the in-place sorting algorithm. Now,

let's see the algorithm of heap sort.

## Working of Heapsort Algorithm

Now, let's see the working of the Heapsort Algorithm.

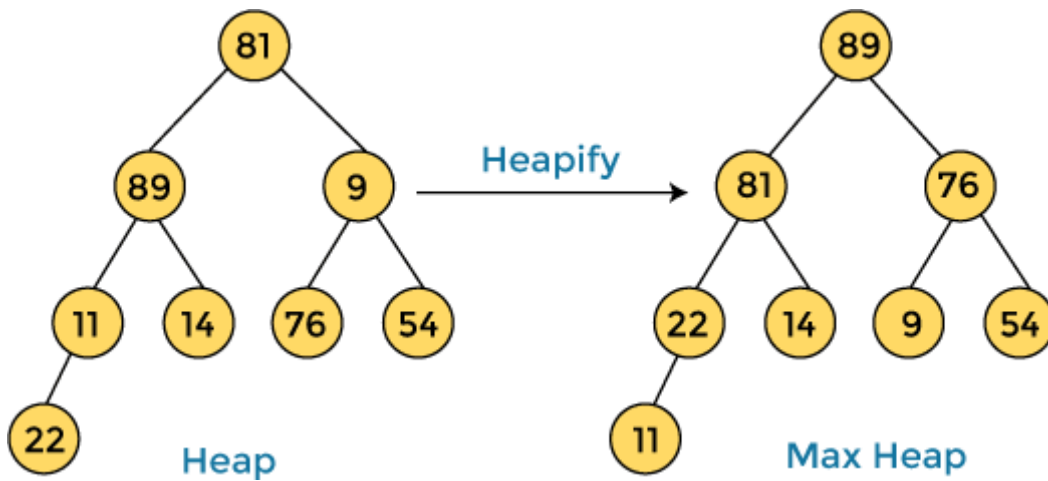
In heap sort, basically, there are two phases involved in the sorting of elements. By using the heap sort algorithm, they are as follows -

- The first step includes the creation of a heap by adjusting the elements of the array.
- After the creation of heap, now remove the root element of the heap repeatedly by shifting it to the end of the array, and then store the heap structure with the remaining elements.

Now let's see the working of heap sort in detail by using an example. To understand it more clearly, let's take an unsorted array and try to sort it using heap sort. It will make the explanation clearer and easier.

81	89	9	11	14	76	54	22
----	----	---	----	----	----	----	----

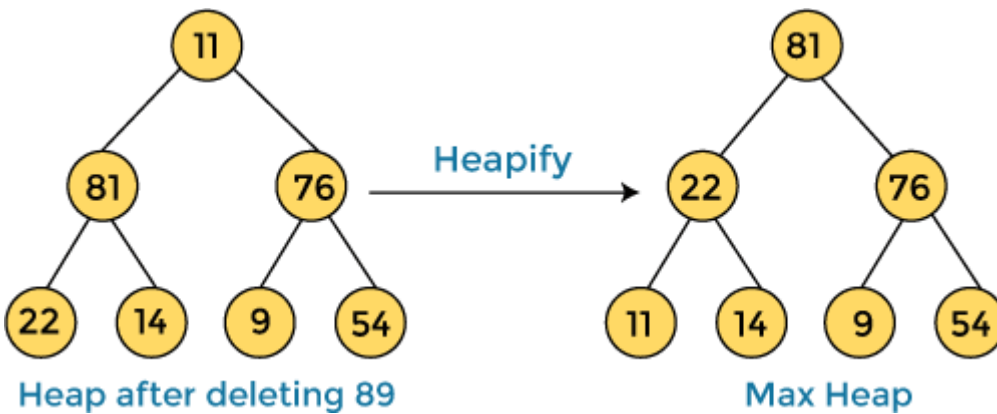
First, we have to construct a heap from the given array and convert it to max heap.



After converting the given heap into max heap, the array elements are-

89	81	76	22	14	9	54	11
----	----	----	----	----	---	----	----

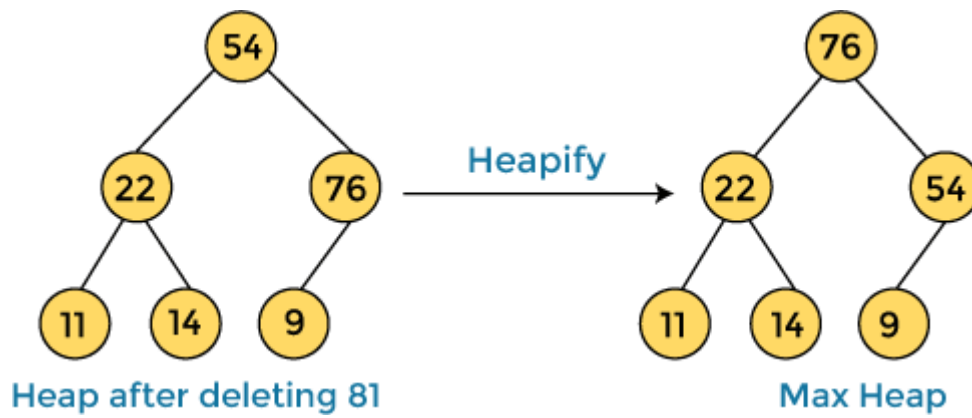
Next, we have to delete the root element (89) from the max heap. To delete this node, we have to swap it with the last node, i.e. (11). After deleting the root element, we again have to heapify it to convert it into max heap.



After swapping the array element 89 with 11, and converting the heap into max-heap, the elements of the array are-

81	22	76	11	14	9	54	89
----	----	----	----	----	---	----	----

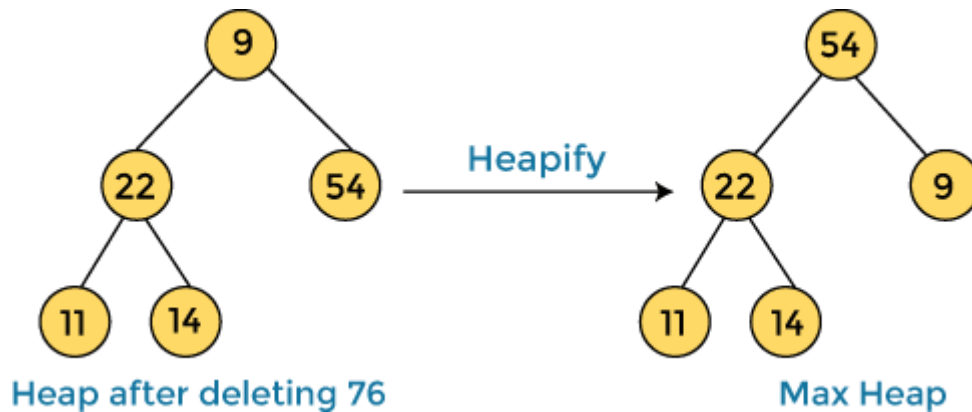
In the next step, again, we have to delete the root element (81) from the max heap. To delete this node, we have to swap it with the last node, i.e. (54). After deleting the root element, we again have to heapify it to convert it into max heap.



After swapping the array element 81 with 54 and converting the heap into max-heap, the elements of the array are-

76	22	54	11	14	9	81	89
----	----	----	----	----	---	----	----

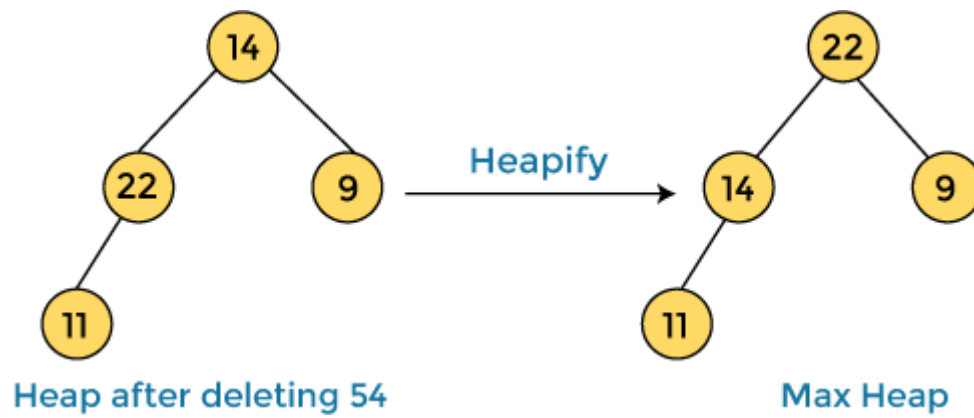
In the next step, we have to delete the root element (76) from the max heap again. To delete this node, we have to swap it with the last node, i.e. (9). After deleting the root element, we again have to heapify it to convert it into max heap.



After swapping the array element 76 with 9 and converting the heap into max-heap, the elements of the array are-

54	22	9	11	14	76	81	89
----	----	---	----	----	----	----	----

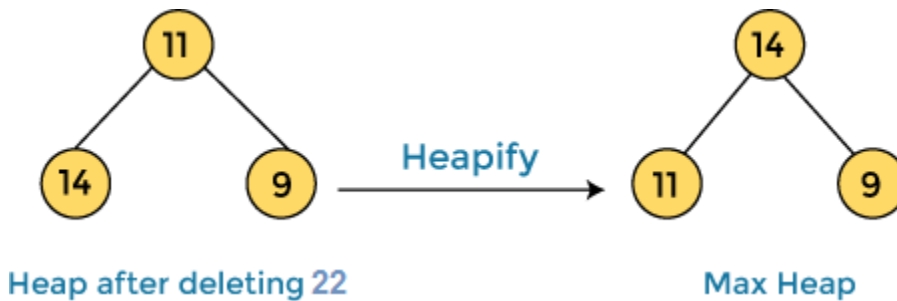
In the next step, again we have to delete the root element (54) from the max heap. To delete this node, we have to swap it with the last node, i.e. (14). After deleting the root element, we again have to heapify it to convert it into max heap.



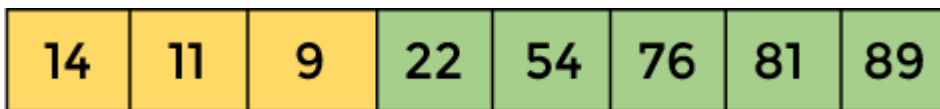
After swapping the array element 54 with 14 and converting the heap into max-heap, the elements of the array are-



In the next step, again we have to delete the root element (22) from the max heap. To delete this node, we have to swap it with the last node, i.e. (11). After deleting the root element, we again have to heapify it to convert it into max heap.



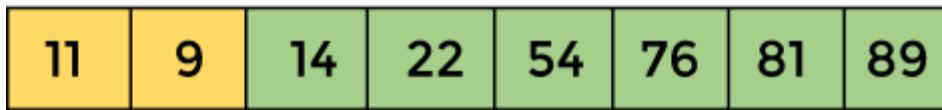
After swapping the array element 22 with 11 and converting the heap into max-heap, the elements of the array are-



In the next step, again we have to delete the root element (14) from the max heap. To delete this node, we have to swap it with the last node, i.e. (9). After deleting the root element, we again have to heapify it to convert it into max heap.



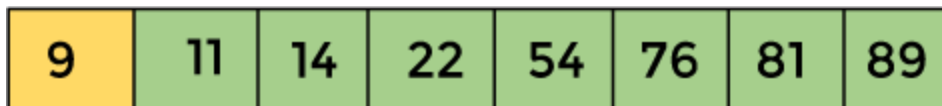
After swapping the array element 14 with 9 and converting the heap into max-heap, the elements of the array are-



In the next step, again we have to delete the root element (11) from the max heap. To delete this node, we have to swap it with the last node, i.e. (9). After deleting the root element, we again have to heapify it to convert it into max heap.



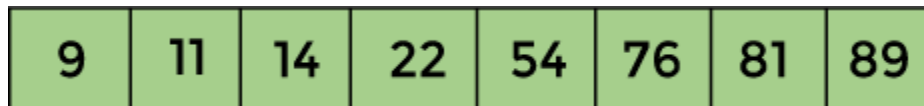
After swapping the array element 11 with 9, the elements of array are-



Now, heap has only one element left. After deleting it, heap will be empty.



After completion of sorting, the array elements are-



Now, the array is completely sorted.

**Program:** Write a program to implement the heap sort in C language.

```
#include <stdio.h>
/*function to heapify as subtree. Here 'i' is the
index of root node in array[], and 'n' is the size of heap.*/ void
heapify(int a[], int n, int i)
{
    int largest=i; //Initialize largest as root int
    left = 2 * i + 1; // left child
    int right=2*i+2; //right child
    //If left child is larger than root
    if(left<n&& a[left]>a[largest])
```



```

    largest=left;
//Ifrightchildislargerthanroot
if(right<n&&a[right]>a[largest]) largest =
    right;
//Ifrootisnotlargest if
(largest != i) {
    //swapa[i]witha[largest] int
    temp = a[i];
    a[i] = a[largest];
    a[largest]=temp;

    heapify(a,n,largest);
}
}
/*Functiontoimplementtheheapsort*/ void
heapSort(int a[], int n)
{
    for(inti=n/2-1;i>=0;i--) heapify(a, n,
        i);
//Onebyoneextractanelementfromheap for
(int i = n - 1; i >= 0; i--) {
    /*Movecurrentrootelementtoend*/
    //swapa[0]witha[i]
    int temp = a[0];
    a[0] = a[i];
    a[i]=temp;

    heapify(a,i,0);
}
}
/*functiontoprintthearrayelements*/ void
printArr(int arr[], int n)
{
    for(int i=0;i<n;++i)
    {
        printf("%d",arr[i]);
        printf("");
    }
}
}
intmain()
{
    inta[]={48,10,23,43,28,26, 1};
    intn =sizeof(a)/ sizeof(a[0]);
    printf("Beforesortingarrayelementsare-\n"); printArr(a,
    n);
}

```

```

heapSort(a,n);
printf("\nAftersortingarrayelementsare-\n"); printArr(a,
n);
return0;
}

```

## Output

```

Before sorting array elements are -
48 10 23 43 28 26 1
After sorting array elements are -
1 10 23 26 28 43 48

```

## MergeSort Algorithm

In this article, we will discuss the merge sort Algorithm. Merge sort is the sorting technique that follows the divide and conquer approach. This article will be very helpful and interesting to students as they might face merge sort as a question in their examinations. In coding or technical interviews for software engineers, sorting algorithms are widely asked. So, it is important to discuss the topic.

Merge sort is similar to the quick sort algorithm as it uses the divide and conquer approach to sort the elements. It is one of the most popular and efficient sorting algorithms. It divides the given list into two equal halves, calls itself for the two halves and then merges the two sorted halves. We have to define the **merge()** function to perform the merging.

The sub-lists are divided again and again into halves until the list cannot be divided further. Then we combine the pair of one element lists into two-element lists, sorting them in the process. The sorted two-element pairs are merged into the four-element lists, and so on until we get the sorted list.

## Working of Merge Sort Algorithm

Now, let's see the working of merge sort Algorithm.

To understand the working of the merge sort algorithm, let's take an unsorted array. It will be easier to understand the merge sort via an example.

Let the elements of array are-

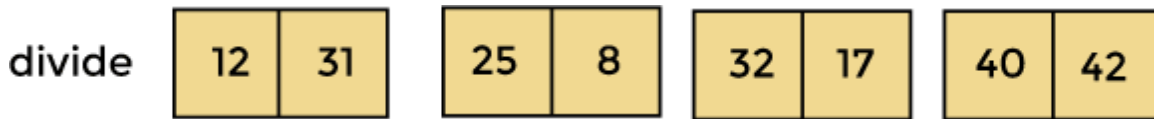
12	31	25	8	32	17	40	42
----	----	----	---	----	----	----	----

According to the merge sort, first divide the given array into two equal halves. Merge sort keeps dividing the list into equal parts until it cannot be further divided.

As there are eight elements in the given array, so it is divided into two arrays of size 4.



Now, again divide these two arrays into halves. As they are of size 4, so divide them into new arrays of size 2.



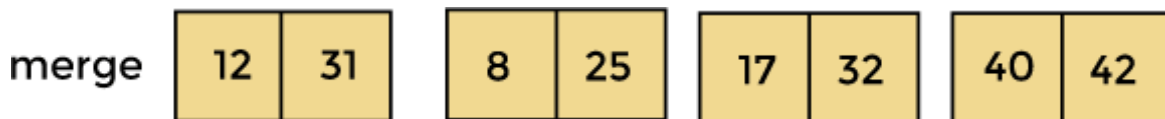
Now, again divide these arrays to get the atomic value that cannot be further divided.



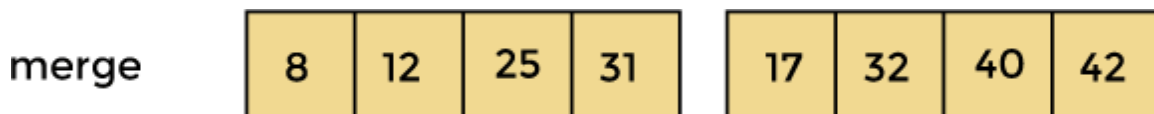
Now, combine them in the same manner they were broken.

In combining, first compare the element of each array and then combine them into another array in sorted order.

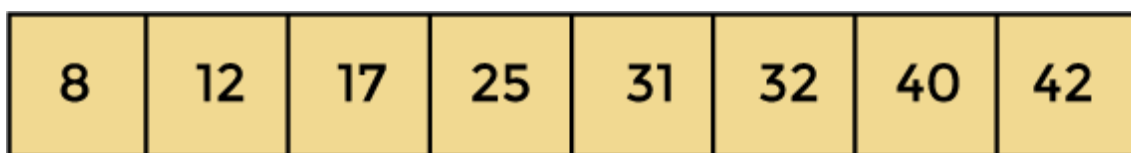
So, first compare 12 and 31, both are in sorted positions. Then compare 25 and 8, and in the list of two values, put 8 first followed by 25. Then compare 32 and 17, sort them and put 17 first followed by 32. After that, compare 40 and 42, and place them sequentially.



In the next iteration of combining, now compare the arrays with two data values and merge them into an array of found values in sorted order.



Now, there is a final merging of the arrays. After the final merging of above arrays, the array will look like-



Now, the array is completely sorted.

```

#include<stdio.h>

/*Function tomergethesubarraysofa[]*/
voidmerge(inta[],intbeg,intmid,intend)
{
    inti,j,k;
    intn1=mid-beg +1;
    intn2=end-mid;

    intLeftArray[n1],RightArray[n2];//temporaryarrays

    /*copydatatotemparrays*/ for
    (int i = 0; i < n1; i++)
    LeftArray[i] = a[beg + i];
    for (int j = 0; j < n2; j++)
    RightArray[j]=a[mid+1+j];

    i=0;/*initialindexoffirstsub-array*/
    j=0;/*initialindexofsecondsub-array*/
    k=beg;/*initialindexofmerged sub-array*/

    while(i<n1&& j<n2)
    {
        if(LeftArray[i]<=RightArray[j])
        {
            a[k]=LeftArray[i];
            i++;
        }
        else
        {
            a[k]=RightArray[j];
            j++;
        }
        k++;
    }
    while(i<n1)
    {
        a[k]=LeftArray[i];
        i++;
        k++;
    }

    while(j<n2)
    {
        a[k]=RightArray[j];
        j++;
    }
}

```

```

        k++;
    }
}

```

```

void mergeSort(inta[],intbeg,intend)
{
    if(beg<end)
    {
        int mid = (beg + end) / 2;
        mergeSort(a, beg, mid);
        mergeSort(a, mid+1, end);
        merge(a, beg, mid, end);
    }
}

```

*/\*Function to print the array\*/*

```

void printArray(inta[],intn)
{
    inti;
    for(i=0;i<n;i++)
        printf("%d",a[i]);
    printf("\n");
}

```

```

intmain()
{
    inta[]={ 12,31,25,8,32,17,40, 42};
    intn=sizeof(a)/sizeof(a[0]);
    printf("Before sorting array elements are-\n");
    printArray(a, n);
    mergeSort(a,0,n-1);
    printf("After sorting array elements are-\n");
    printArray(a, n);
    return0;
}

```

**Output:**

```

Before sorting array elements are -
12 31 25 8 32 17 40 42
After sorting array elements are -
8 12 17 25 31 32 40 42

```

## MODULE-5

### Pattern matching algorithms:

A pattern matching algorithm is used to determine the index positions where a given pattern string (P) is matched in a text string (T). It returns "pattern not found" if the pattern does not match in the text string. For example, for the given string (s) = "packt publisher", and the pattern (p) = "publisher", the pattern matching algorithm returns the index position where the pattern is matched in the text string.

In this section, we will discuss two pattern matching algorithms, that is, the brute-force method, as well as Knuth-Morris-Pratt (KMP).

### Brute Force Approach:

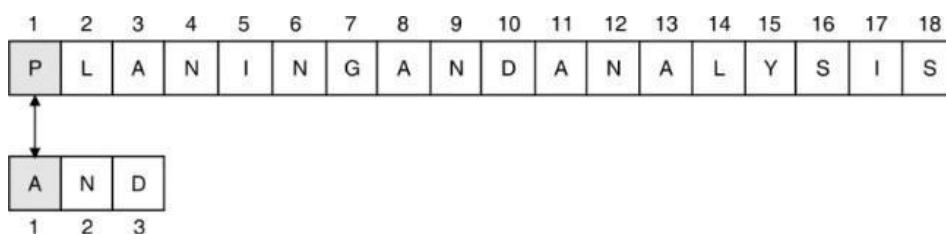
Brute force approach can also be called as exhaustive search. Basically brute force means you go through all the possible solutions.

It is one of the easiest ways to solve a problem. But in terms of time and space complexity will take a hit.

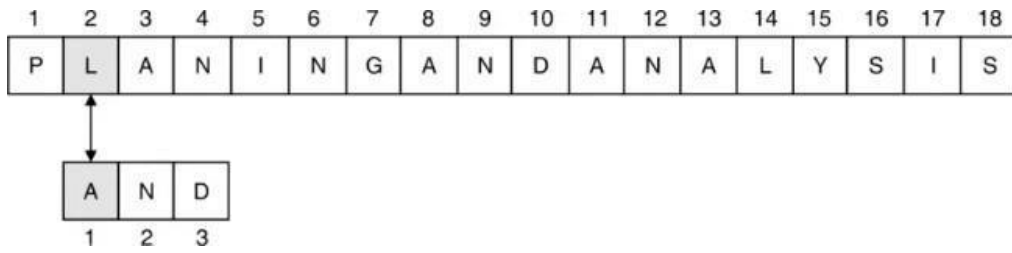
### Working Mechanism

- This is simple and efficient brute force approach. It compares the first character of pattern with searchable text. If a match is found, pointers in both strings are advanced. If a match is not found, the pointer to text is incremented and pointer of the pattern is reset. This process is repeated till the end of the text.
- The naïve approach does not require any pre-processing. Given text T and pattern P, it directly starts comparing both strings character by character.
- After each comparison, it shifts pattern string one position to the right.
- Following example illustrates the working of naïve string matching algorithm. Here, T = PLANING AND ANALYSIS and P = AND
- Here,  $t_i$  and  $p_j$  are indices of text and pattern respectively.

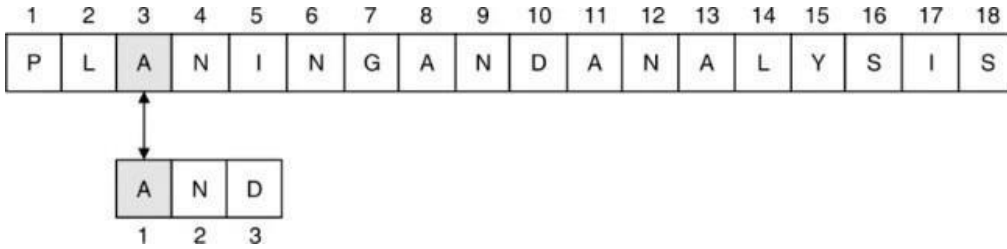
**Step 1:**  $T[1] \neq P[1]$ , so advance text pointer, i.e.  $t_i++$ .



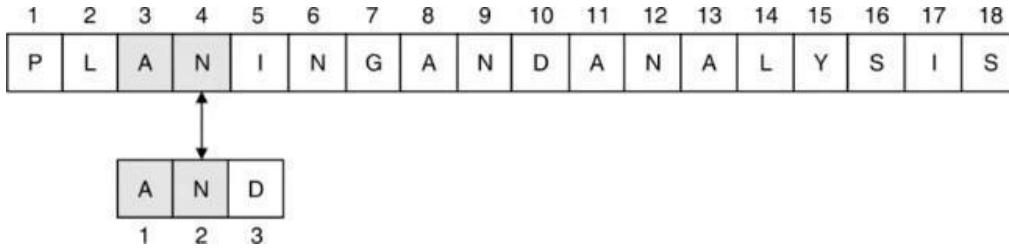
**Step2:**  $T[2] \neq P[1]$ , so advance text pointer i.e.  $t_i++$



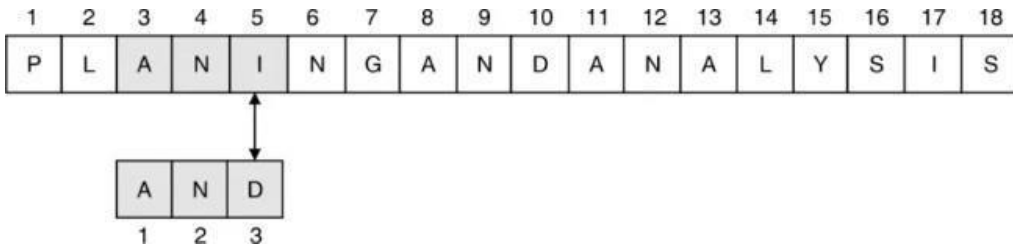
**Step3:**  $T[3] = P[1]$ , so advance both pointers i.e.  $t_i++$ ,  $p_j++$



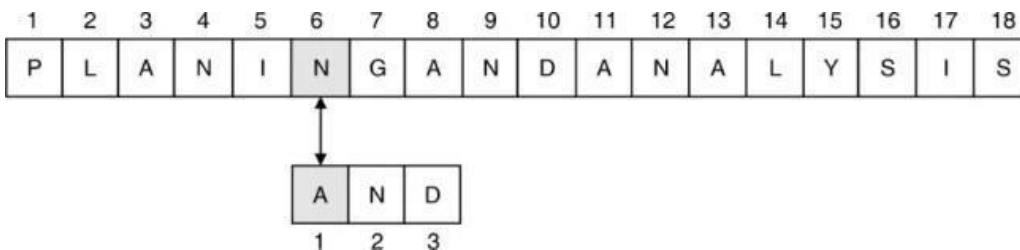
**Step4:**  $T[4] = P[2]$ , so advance both pointers, i.e.  $t_i++$ ,  $p_j++$



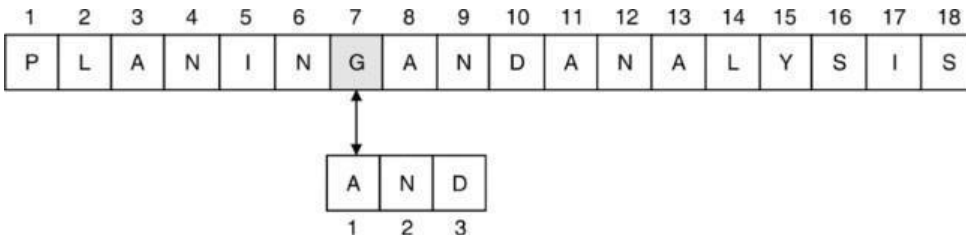
**Step5:**  $T[5] \neq P[3]$ , so advance text pointer and reset pattern pointer, i.e.  $t_i++$ ,  $p_j=1$



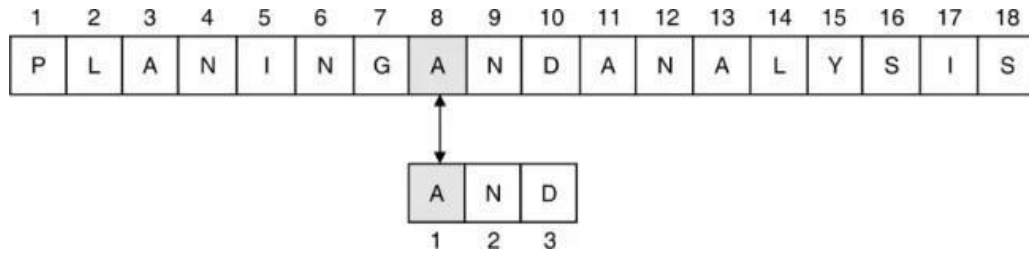
**Step6:**  $T[6] \neq P[1]$ , so advance text pointer, i.e.  $t_i++$



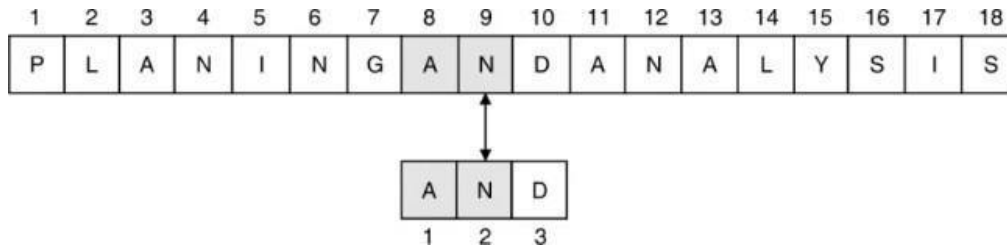
**Step7:**  $T[7] \neq P[1]$ , so advance text pointer, i.e.  $t_i++$



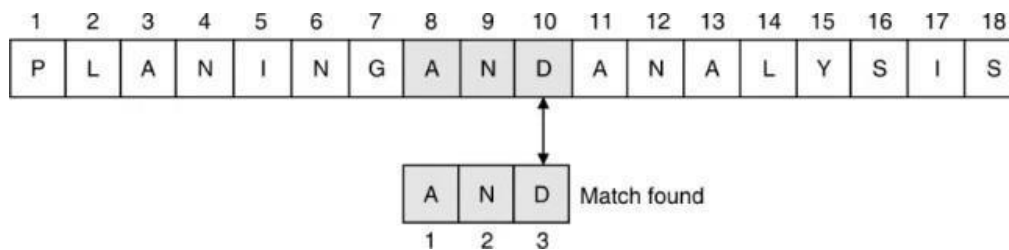
**Step 8:**  $T[8] = P[1]$ , so advance both pointers, i.e.  $t_i++$ ,  $p_j++$



**Step 9:**  $T[9] = P[2]$ , so advance both pointers, i.e.  $t_i++$ ,  $p_j++$



**Step 10:**  $T[10] = P[3]$ , so advance both pointers, i.e.  $t_i++$ ,  $p_j++$



## Algorithm

Algorithm for a naïve string matching approach is described below:

```

Algorithm NAÏVE_STRING_MATCHING(T, P)
// T is the text string of length n
// P is the pattern of length m

for i ← 0 to n - m do
    if P[1.. m] == T[i+1..i+m] then
        print "Match Found"
    end
end
end

```



## Knuth-Morris-Pratt(KMP)Algorithm:

KMP Algorithm is one of the most popular pattern matching algorithms. KMP stands for Knuth Morris Pratt. KMP algorithm was invented by **Donald Knuth** and **Vaughan Pratt** together and independently by **James H Morris** in the year 1970. In the year 1977, all the three jointly published KMP Algorithm.

KMP algorithm is used to find a "**Pattern**" in a "**Text**". This algorithm compares character by character from left to right. But whenever a mismatch occurs, it uses a preprocessed table called "**Prefix Table**" to skip characters comparison while matching. Some times prefix table is also known as **LPS Table**. Here LPS stands for "**Longest proper Prefix which is also Suffix**".

### Steps for Creating LPS Table (Prefix Table):

- **Step 1** - Define a one dimensional array with the size equal to the length of the Pattern. (LPS[size])
- **Step 2** - Define variables **i** & **j**. Set  $i=0, j=1$  and  $LPS[0]=0$ .
- **Step 3** - Compare the characters at **Pattern[i]** and **Pattern[j]**.
- **Step 4** - If both are matched then set  $LPS[j] = i+1$  and increment both **i** & **j** values by one. Goto to Step 3.
- **Step 5** - If both are not matched then check the value of variable 'i'. If it is '0' then set  $LPS[j] = 0$  and increment 'j' value by one, if it is not '0' then set  $i = LPS[i-1]$ . Goto Step 3.
- **Step 6** - Repeat above steps until all the values of LPS[] are filled.

Let us use above steps to create prefix table for a pattern:

#### Example for creating KMP Algorithm's LPS Table (Prefix Table)

Consider the following Pattern

Pattern : 

0	1	2	3	4	5	6
A	B	C	D	A	B	D

Let us define LPS[] table with size 7 which is equal to length of the Pattern

LPS 

0	1	2	3	4	5	6

**Step 1** - Define variables **i** & **j**. Set  $i = 0, j = 1$  and  $LPS[0] = 0$ .

LPS 

0	1	2	3	4	5	6
0						

$i = 0$  and  $j = 1$

**Step 2** - Compare Pattern[i] with Pattern[j] ==> A with B.  
 Since both are not matching and also "i = 0", we need to set LPS[j] = 0 and increment 'j' value by one.

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
LPS	0	0					

i = 0 and j = 2

**Step 3** - Compare Pattern[i] with Pattern[j] ==> A with C.  
 Since both are not matching and also "i = 0", we need to set LPS[j] = 0 and increment 'j' value by one.

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
LPS	0	0	0				

i = 0 and j = 3

**Step 4** - Compare Pattern[i] with Pattern[j] ==> A with D.  
 Since both are not matching and also "i = 0", we need to set LPS[j] = 0 and increment 'j' value by one.

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
LPS	0	0	0	0			

i = 0 and j = 4

**Step 5** - Compare Pattern[i] with Pattern[j] ==> A with A.  
 Since both are matching set LPS[j] = i+1 and increment both i & j value by one.

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
LPS	0	0	0	0	1		

i = 1 and j = 5

**Step 6** - Compare Pattern[i] with Pattern[j] ==> B with B.  
 Since both are matching set LPS[j] = i+1 and increment both i & j value by one.

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
LPS	0	0	0	0	1	2	

i = 2 and j = 6

**Step 7** - Compare Pattern[i] with Pattern[j] ==> C with D.  
 Since both are not matching and i != 0, we need to set i = LPS[i-1]  
 ==> i = LPS[2-1] = LPS[1] = 0.

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
LPS	0	0	0	0	1	2	

i = 0 and j = 6

**Step 8** - Compare Pattern[i] with Pattern[j] ==> A with D.  
 Since both are not matching and also "i = 0", we need to set LPS[j] = 0 and increment 'j' value by one.

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
LPS	0	0	0	0	1	2	0

Here LPS[] is filled with all values so we stop the process. The final LPS[] table is as follows...

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
LPS	0	0	0	0	1	2	0

## How to use LPS Table

We use the LPS table to decide how many characters are to be skipped for comparison when a mismatch has occurred.

When a mismatch occurs, check the LPS value of the previous character of the mismatched character in the pattern. If it is '0' then start comparing the first character of the pattern with the next character to the mismatched character in the text. If it is not '0' then start comparing the character which is at an index value equal to the LPS value of the previous character to the mismatched character in pattern with the mismatched character in the Text.

## How the KMP Algorithm Works

Let us see a working example of KMP Algorithm to find a Pattern in a Text...

Consider the following Text and Pattern

**Text : ABC ABCDAB ABCDABCDABDE**  
**Pattern : ABCDABD**

LPS[] table for the above pattern is as follows...

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
LPS	0	0	0	0	1	2	0

**Step 1** - Start comparing first character of Pattern with first character of Text from left to right

<b>Text</b>	A	B	C	A	B	C	D	A	B	A	B	C	D	A	B	C	D	A	B	D	E
<b>Pattern</b>				A	B	C	D	A	B	D											

Here mismatch occurred at Pattern[3], so we need to consider LPS[2] value. Since LPS[2] value is '0' we must compare first character in Pattern with next character in Text.

**Step 2** - Start comparing first character of Pattern with next character of Text.

<b>Text</b>	A	B	C	A	B	C	D	A	B	A	B	C	D	A	B	C	D	A	B	D	E
<b>Pattern</b>				A	B	C	D	A	B	D											

Here mismatch occurred at Pattern[6], so we need to consider LPS[5] value. Since LPS[5] value is '2' we compare Pattern[2] character with mismatched character in Text.

**Step 3** - Since LPS value is '2' no need to compare Pattern[0] & Pattern[1] values

<b>Text</b>	A	B	C	A	B	C	D	A	B	A	B	C	D	A	B	C	D	A	B	D	E
<b>Pattern</b>											A	B	C	D	A	B	D				

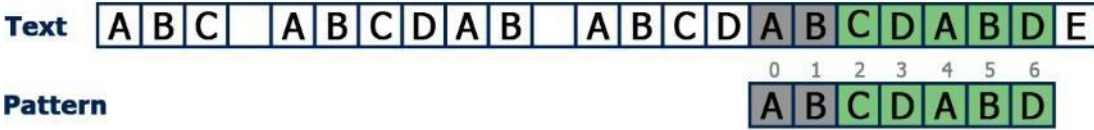
Here mismatch occurred at Pattern[2], so we need to consider LPS[1] value. Since LPS[1] value is '0' we must compare first character in Pattern with next character in Text.

**Step 4** - Compare Pattern[0] with next character in Text.



Here mismatch occurred at Pattern[6], so we need to consider LPS[5] value. Since LPS[5] value is '2' we compare Pattern[2] character with mismatched character in Text.

**Step 5** - Compare Pattern[2] with mismatched character in Text.



Here all the characters of Pattern matched with a substring in Text which is starting from index value 15. So we conclude that given Pattern found at index 15 in Text.

## The Boyer-Moore Algorithm

Robert Boyer and J Strother Moore established it in 1977. The B-M String search algorithm is a particularly efficient algorithm and has served as a standard benchmark for string search algorithm ever since.

The B-M algorithm takes a 'backward' approach: the pattern string (P) is aligned with the start of the text string (T), and then compares the characters of a pattern from right to left, beginning with rightmost character.

If a character is compared that is not within the pattern, no match can be found by analyzing any further aspects at this position so the pattern can be changed entirely past the mismatching character.

For deciding the possible shifts, B-M algorithm uses two preprocessing strategies simultaneously. Whenever a mismatch occurs, the algorithm calculates a variation using both approaches and selects the more significant shift thus, if make use of the most effective strategy for each case.

The two strategies are called heuristics of B-M as they are used to reduce the search. They are:

1. BadCharacter Heuristics
2. GoodSuffix Heuristics

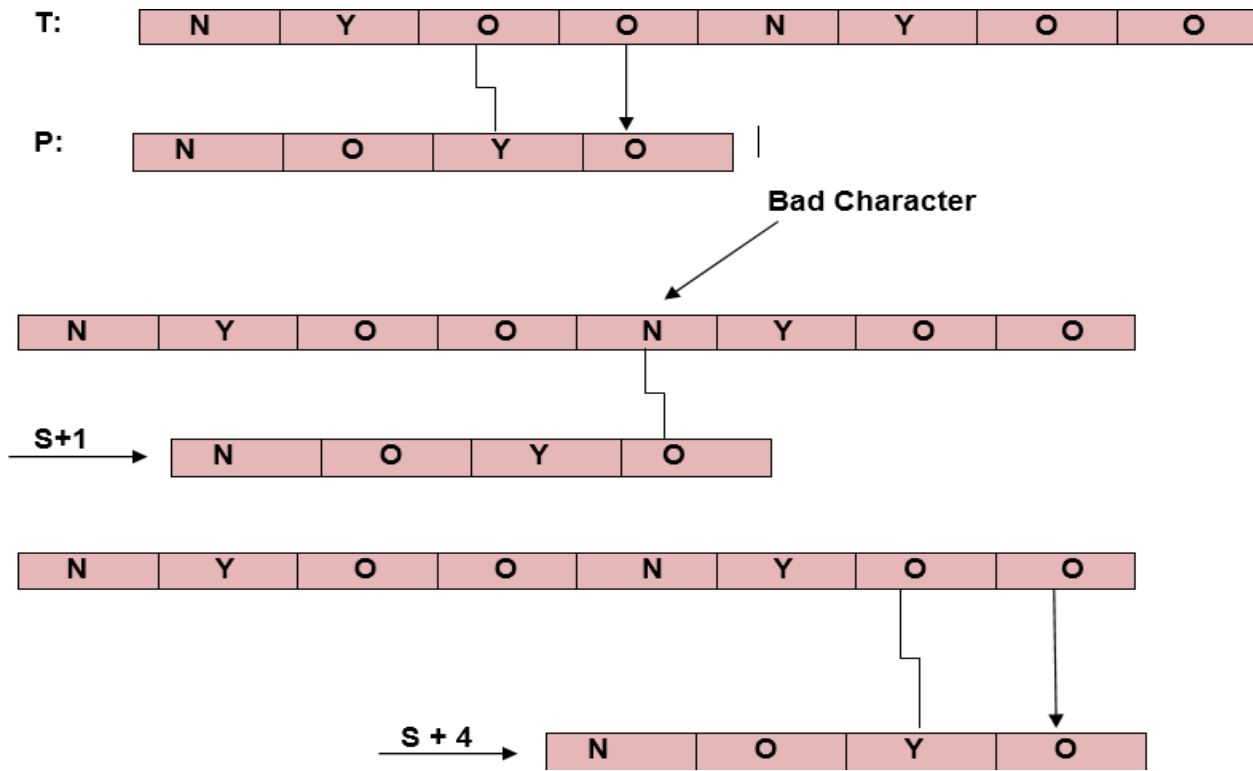
### 1. BadCharacter Heuristics

This heuristic has two implications:

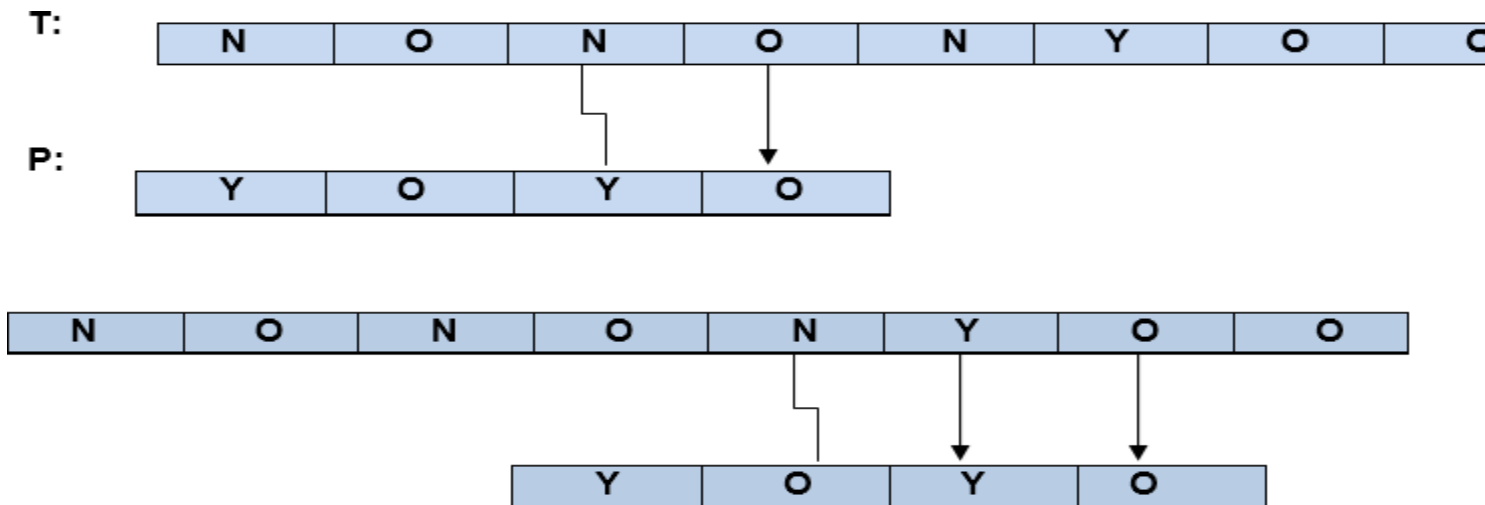
- Suppose there is a character in a text in which does not occur in a pattern at all. When a mismatch happens at this character (called as bad character), the whole pattern can be changed, begin matching from substring next to this 'bad character.'
- On the other hand, it might be that a bad character is present in the pattern, in this case, align the nature of the pattern with a bad character in the text.

Thus in any case shift may be higher than one.

**Example 1:** Let Text  $T = \langle \text{nyoonyoo} \rangle$  and pattern  $P = \langle \text{noyo} \rangle$



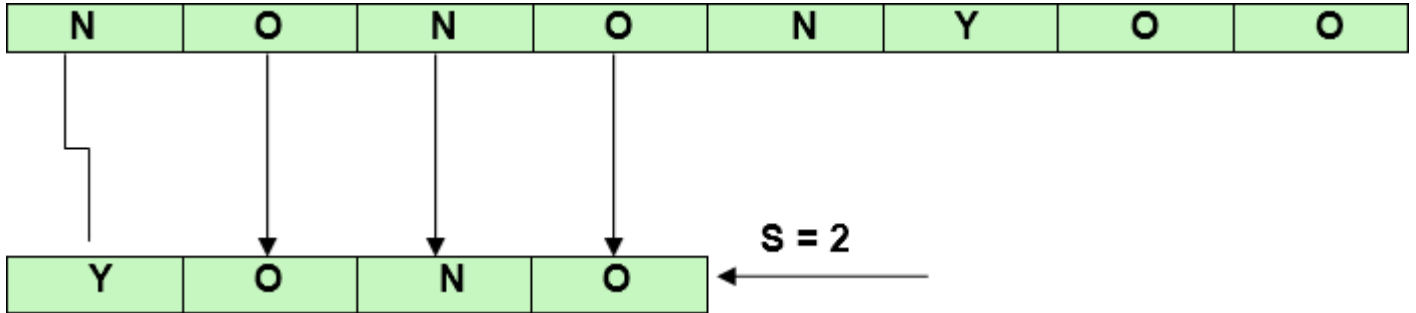
**Example 2:** If a bad character doesn't exist in the pattern then.



**Problem in Bad-Character Heuristics:**

In some cases, Bad-Character Heuristics produces some negative shifts. For

Example:



This means that we need some extra information to produce a shift on encountering a bad character. This information is about the last position of every aspect in the pattern and also the set of characters used in a pattern (often called the alphabet  $\Sigma$  of a pattern).

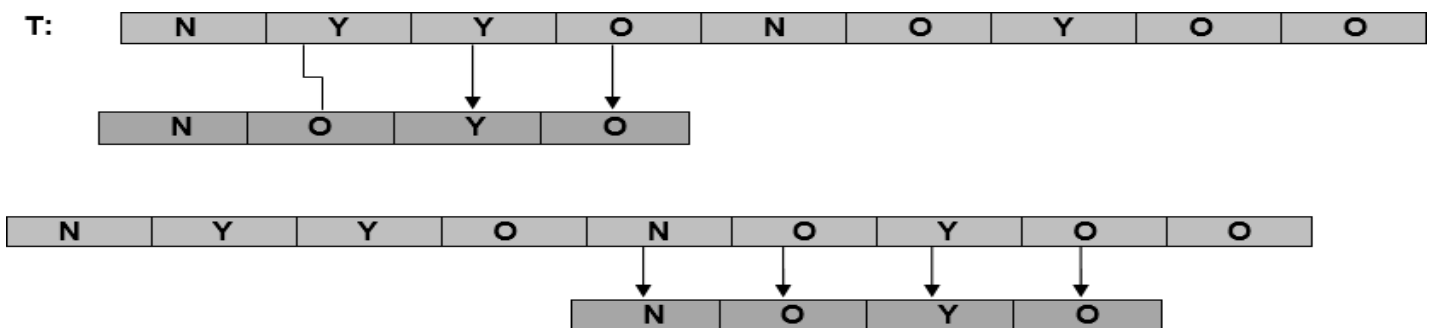
**COMPUTE-LAST-OCCURRENCE-FUNCTION(P,m, $\Sigma$ )**

1. for each character  $a \in \Sigma$
2. do  $\lambda[a] = 0$
3. for  $j \leftarrow 1$  to  $m$
4. do  $\lambda[P[j]] \leftarrow j$
5. Return  $\lambda$

*2. Good Suffix Heuristics:*

A good suffix is a suffix that has matched successfully. After a mismatch which has a negative shift in bad character heuristics, look if a substring of pattern matched till bad character has a good suffix in it, if it is so then we have an onward jump equal to the length of suffix found.

Example:



# TRIES

A trie is a tree-like information retrieval data structure whose nodes store the letters of an alphabet. It is also known as a digital tree or a radix tree or prefix tree. Tries are classified into three categories:

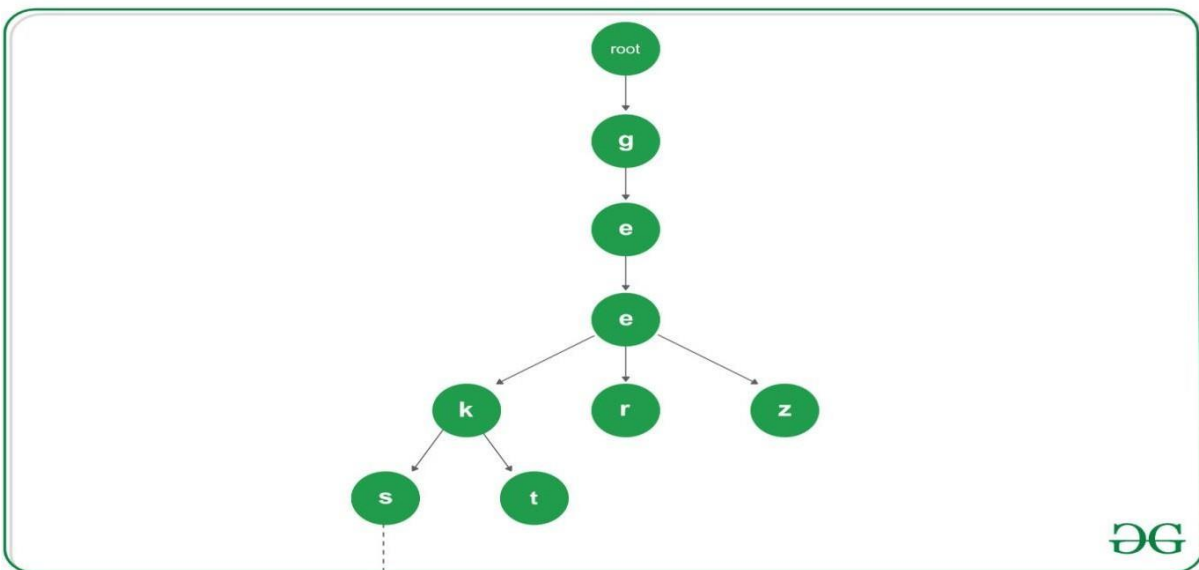
1. [StandardTrie](#)
2. [CompressedTrie](#)
3. [SuffixTrie](#)

**Standard Trie**A standard trie have the following properties:

A Standard Trie has the below structure:

```
classNode {  
  
    // Array to store the nodes of a tree  
    Node[] children = new Node[26];  
  
    // To check for end of string  
    boolean isWordEnd;  
  
}
```

- It is an [ordered tree](#) like data structure.
- Each node (except the **root** node) in a standard trie is labeled with a character.
- The children of a node are in alphabetical order.
- Each node or branch represents a possible character of keys or words.
- Each node or branch may have multiple branches.
- The last node of every key or word is used to mark the end of word or node.
- Below is the illustration of the Standard Trie:



**Compressed Trie**A Compressed trie have the following properties:

A Compressed Trie has the below structure:

```
classNode {
```

```
    // Array to store the nodes of tree
```

```
Node[] children = new Node[26];
```



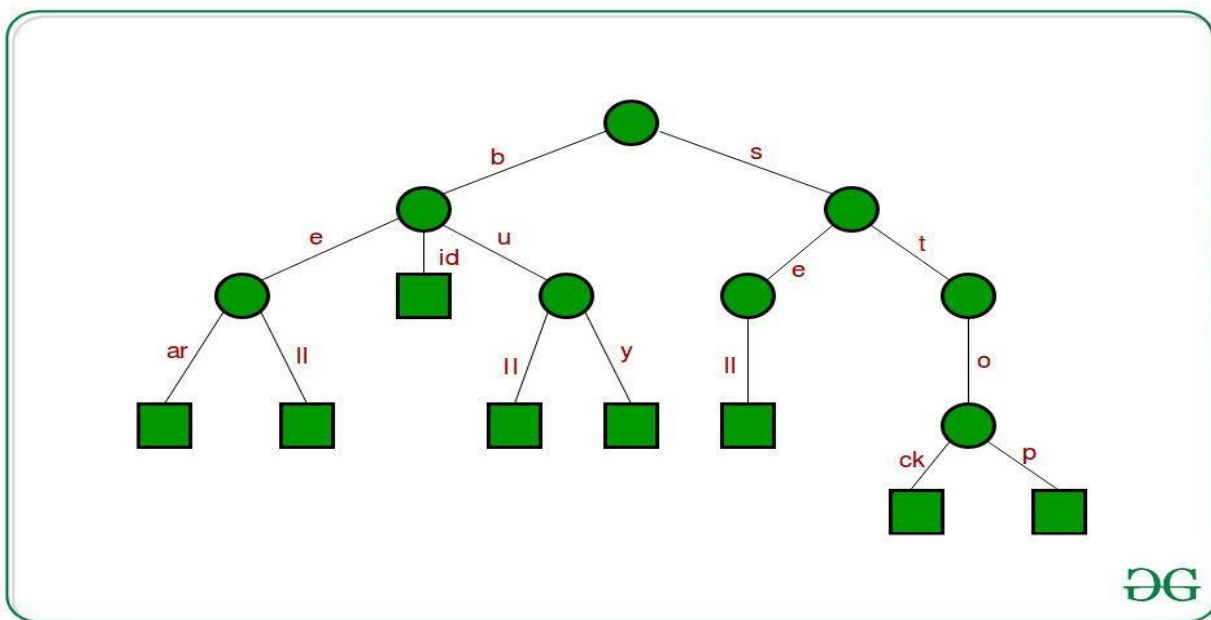
```

//TostoretheedgeLabel
StringBuilder []edgeLabel=newStringBuilder [26];

// To check for end of string boolean
isEnd;
}

```

- A Compressed Trie is an advanced version of the standard trie.
- Each node (except the leaf nodes) have at least 2 children.
- It is used to achieve space optimization.
- To derive a Compressed Trie from a Standard Trie, compression of chains of redundant nodes is performed.
- It consists of grouping, re-grouping and un-grouping of keys of characters.
- While performing the insertion operation, it may be required to un-group the already grouped characters.
- While performing the deletion operation, it may be required to re-group the already grouped characters.
- A compressed trie T storing s strings (keys) has s external nodes and O(s) total number of nodes.
- Below is the illustration of the Compressed Trie:



**Suffix Trie** A Suffix trie have the following properties:

A Compressed Trie has the below structure:

```
struct SuffixTreeNode {
```

```
//Array to store the nodes
```

```
struct SuffixTreeNode *children[256];
```

```
//pointer to other node via suffix link
```

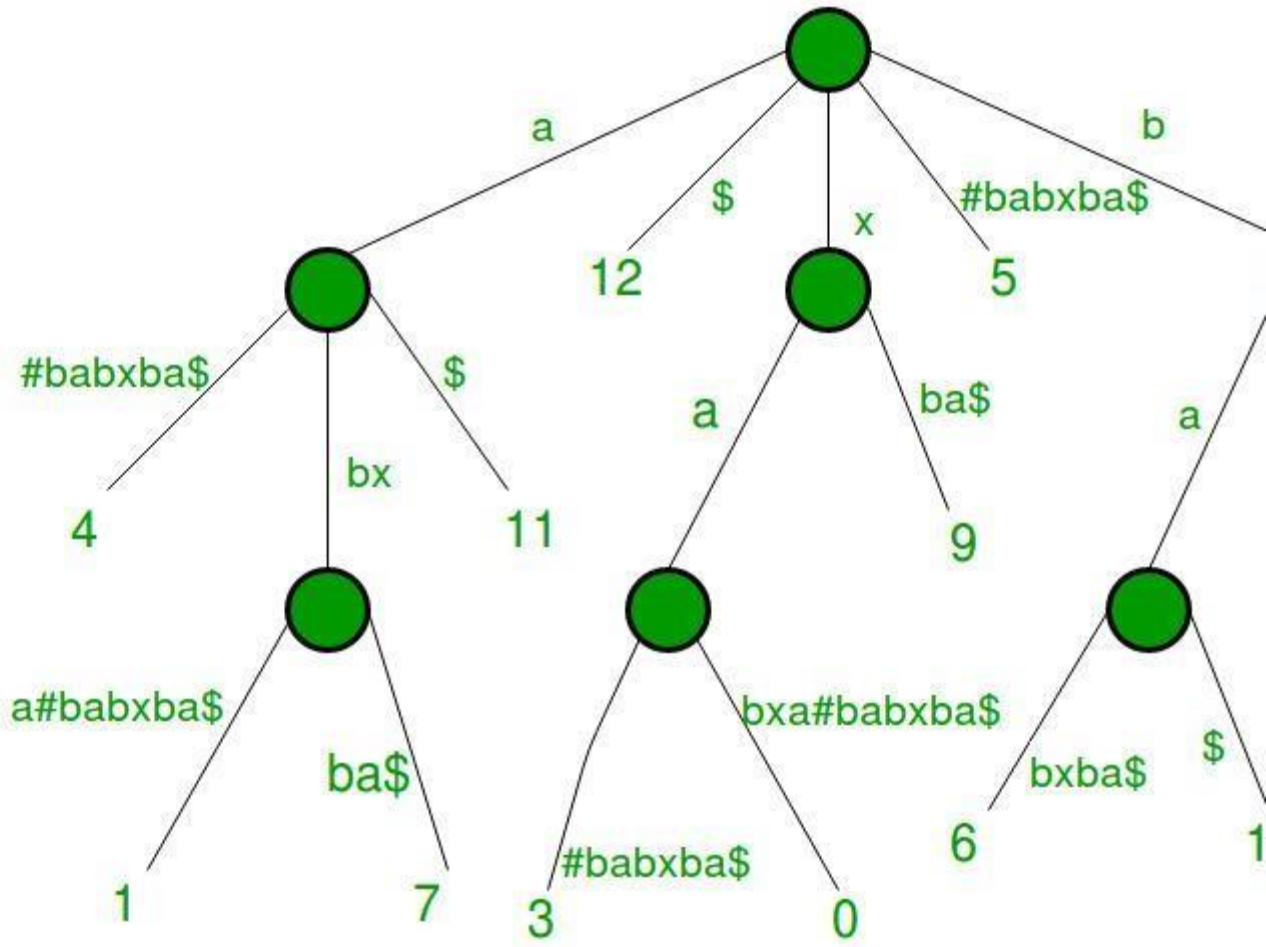
```
struct SuffixTreeNode *suffixLink;
```

//(start, end) interval specif iestheedge,

```
//by which the node is connected to its
// parent node
int start;
int*end;

//For leaf nodes, it stores the index of
// Suffix for the path from root to leaf int
suffixIndex;
}
```

- A Suffix Trie is an advanced version of the compressed trie.
- The most common application of suffix trie is [Pattern Matching](#).
- While performing the insertion operation, both the word and its suffixes are stored.
- A suffix trie is also used in word matching and prefix matching.
- To generate a suffix trie, all the suffixes of given string are considered as individual words.
- Using the suffixes, compressed trie is built.
- Below is the illustration of the Suffix Trie:



Suffix tree for string xabxa#babxa\$