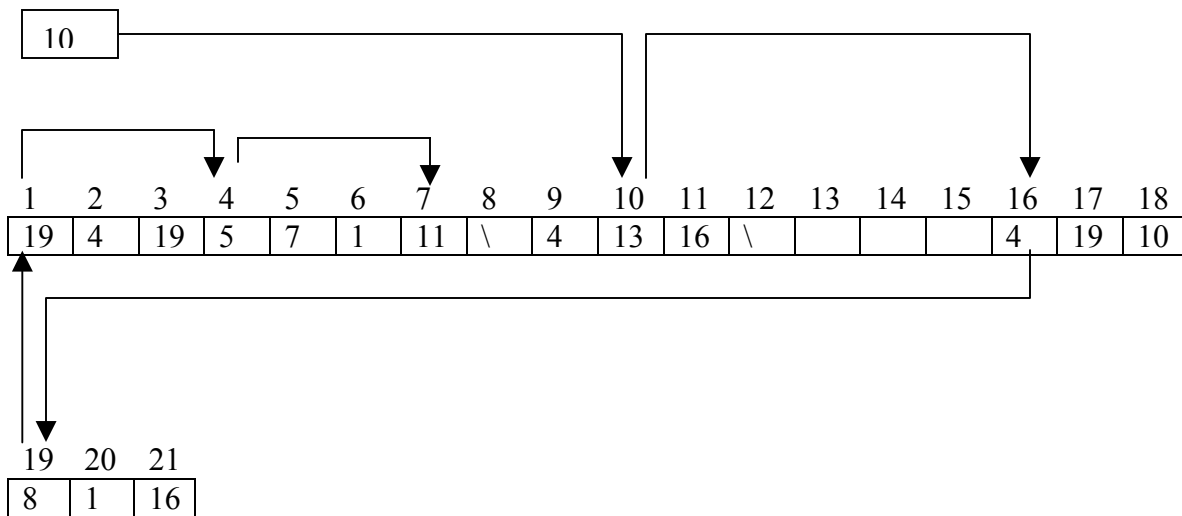


1. 10.3-1

1

Start

	1	2	3	4	5	6
NEXT	2	3	4	5	6	\
KEY	13	4	8	19	5	11
PREV	\	1	2	3	4	5



2. 10.3-2

Each list element is an object that occupies a contiguous sub array of length 2 within the array. The two fields are *key*, *next* corresponds to offsets 0 and 1 respectively. A pointer to an object is an index of the first element of the object. We keep the free objects in the same array, which we call the *free list*. The free list uses the *next*, which store the next pointers within the list. The head of the free list is held in the global variable *free*.

Allocate-Object()

```
{
    if(free = NIL)
        then error " Out of Space"
    else
        x=free
        free = next[A[free ]]

    return x
}
```

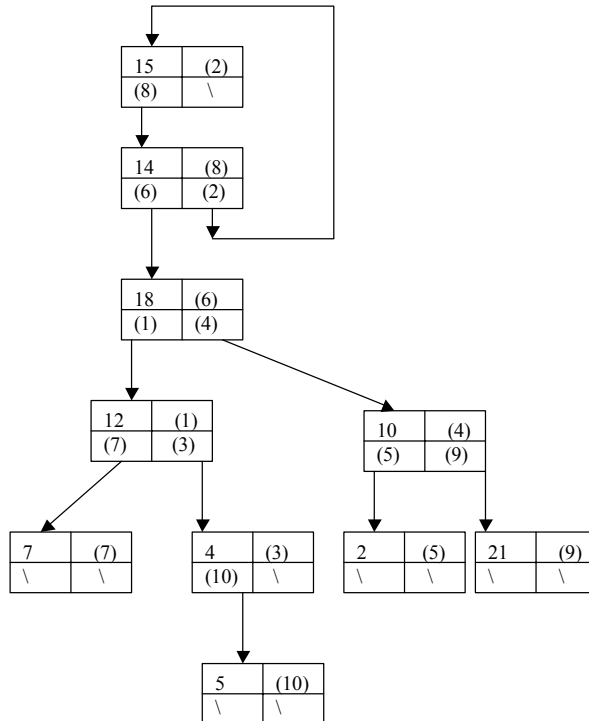
```

Delete-Object(x)
{
    next[A[x]] = free
    free=x
}

```

3. 10.4-1

Key	Index
Left	Right



4. 10.4-4

```

print-tree(root)
{
    if (root ≠ NIL)
    {
        print(root.key)

        print-tree(root.left-child)
        print-tree(root.right-sibling)
    }
}

```

5. 10-1

Comparison among lists

	Unsorted single linked list	Sorted Single linked list	Unsorted Doubly linked list	Sorted Doubly linked list
SEARCH (L, K)	$\Theta(n)$	$\Theta(n)$	$\Theta(n)$	$\Theta(n)$
INSERT (L, X)	$\Theta(1)$	$\Theta(n)$	$\Theta(1)$	$\Theta(n)$
DELETE (L, X)	$\Theta(n)$	$\Theta(n)$	$\Theta(1)$	$\Theta(1)$
SUCCESSOR (L, X)	$\Theta(n)$	$\Theta(1)$	$\Theta(n)$	$\Theta(1)$
PREDECESSOR (L, X)	$\Theta(n)$	$\Theta(n)$	$\Theta(n)$	$\Theta(1)$
MINIMUM (L)	$\Theta(n)$	$\Theta(1)$	$\Theta(n)$	$\Theta(1)$
MAXIMUM (L)	$\Theta(n)$	$\Theta(n)$	$\Theta(n)$	$\Theta(n)$

6. 12.2-1

c and e

c Because 912 cannot be encountered when a left path is taken from 911

e Because 299 cannot be encountered after taking a right path from 347

7. 12.3-4

Tree-Delete handles the deletion of a node z with two children by redirecting the pointers from $p[z]$, $left[z]$ and $right[z]$ to point to z 's successor. This replaces the copying of the data from the successor.

```

Tree Delete(T, z)
{
    if left[z] = NIL or right[z] =NIL
        then y ← z
        else y ← TREE-SUCCESSOR(z)

    if left[y] ≠ NIL
        then x ← left[y]
        else x ← right[y]

    if x ≠ NIL
        then p[x] ← p[y]

    if p[y] = NIL
        then root[T] ← x
        else if y = left[p[y]]
            then left[p[y]] ← x
            else right[p[y]] ← x

```

```

if y ≠ z
    left[y] ← left[z]
    right[y] ← right[z]
    p[left[z]] ← y
    p[right[z]] ← y

if z = left[p[z]]
    left[p[z]] ← y
else
    right[p[z]] ← y
}

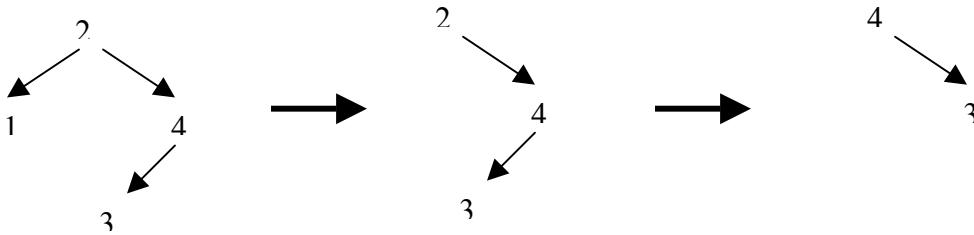
```

8. 12.3-5

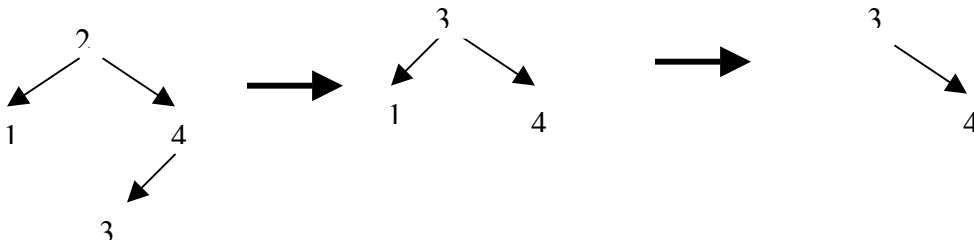
False

Below is a counter example

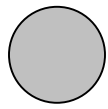
Deleting 1 then 2



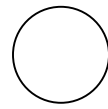
Deleting 2 then 1



9. 13.1-1

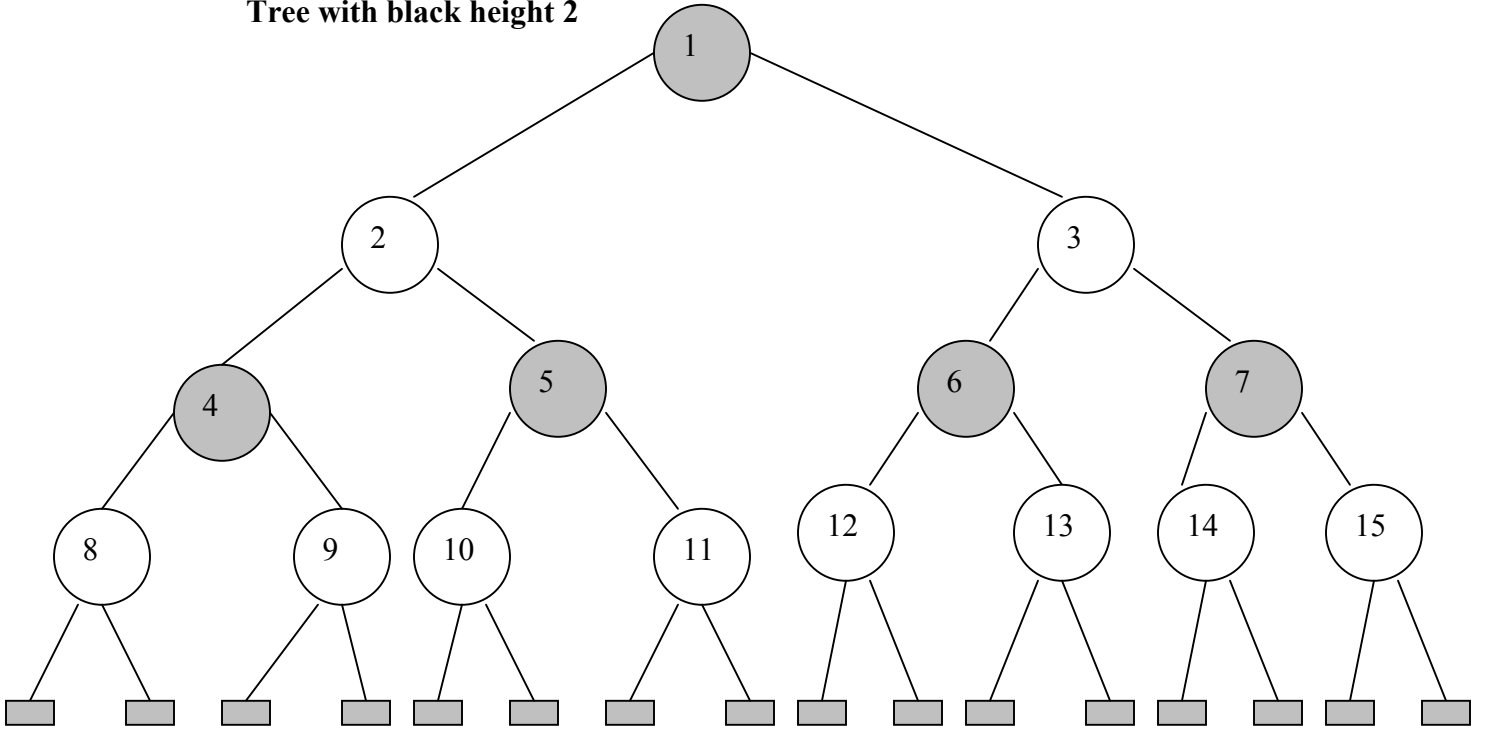


Black node

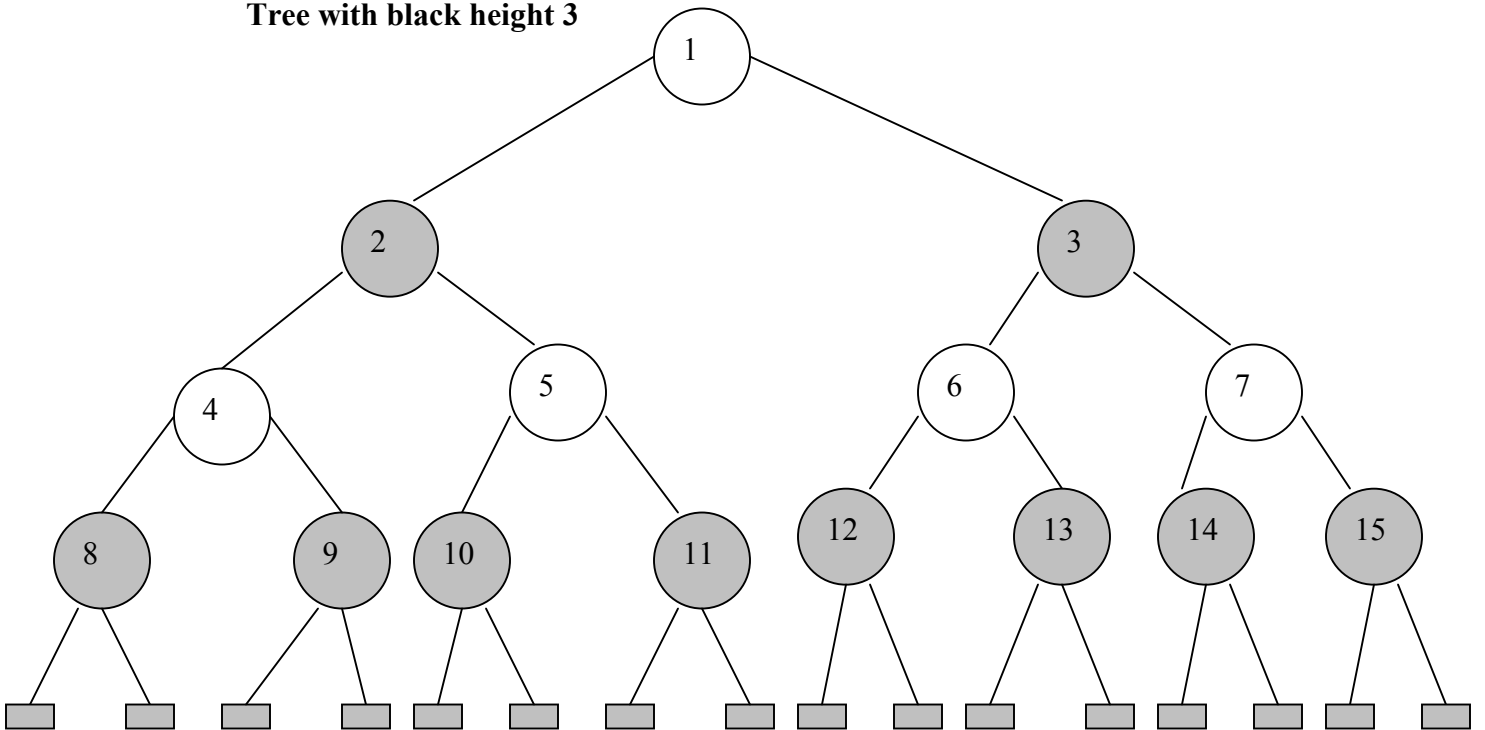


Red node

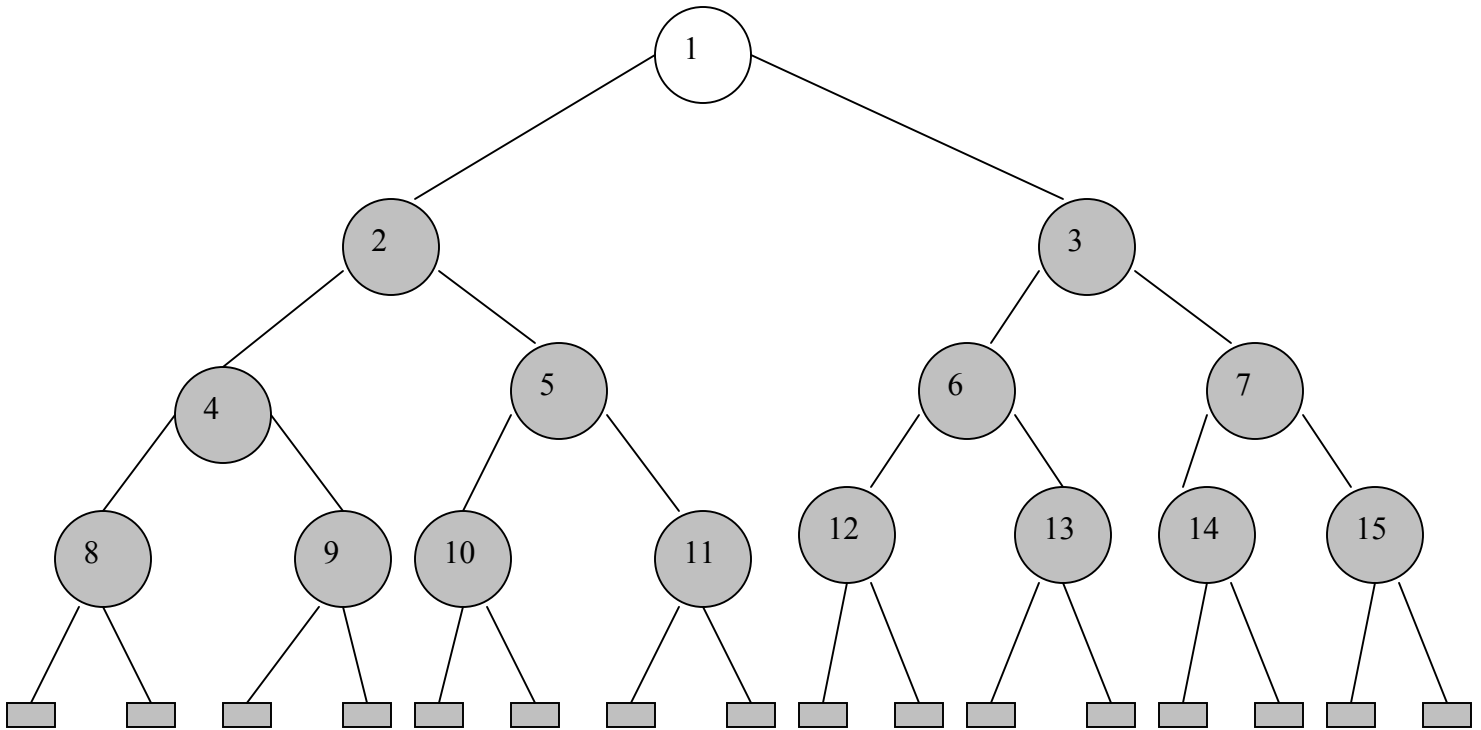
Tree with black height 2



Tree with black height 3



Tree with black height 4



10. 13.1-5

Show that the longest simple path from a node x in a red-black tree to a descendant leaf has length at most twice that of the shortest path from node x to a descendant leaf.

The shortest simple path from any node x will be the black height of the tree with x as root (i.e., $bh(x)$). There could be many branches in the tree; each branch is a combination of red and black nodes. The longest simple path in any tree will be that path which has the total number of nodes = (Property 4) $bh(x) + \text{max possible number of red nodes}$. The maximum possible number of red nodes will be equal to the $bh(x)$, as to satisfy the red-black property, for each red node, its children has to be black (no two consecutive red nodes in a path). Hence the max height of the tree could be $2 * bh(x)$, twice the shortest simple path.

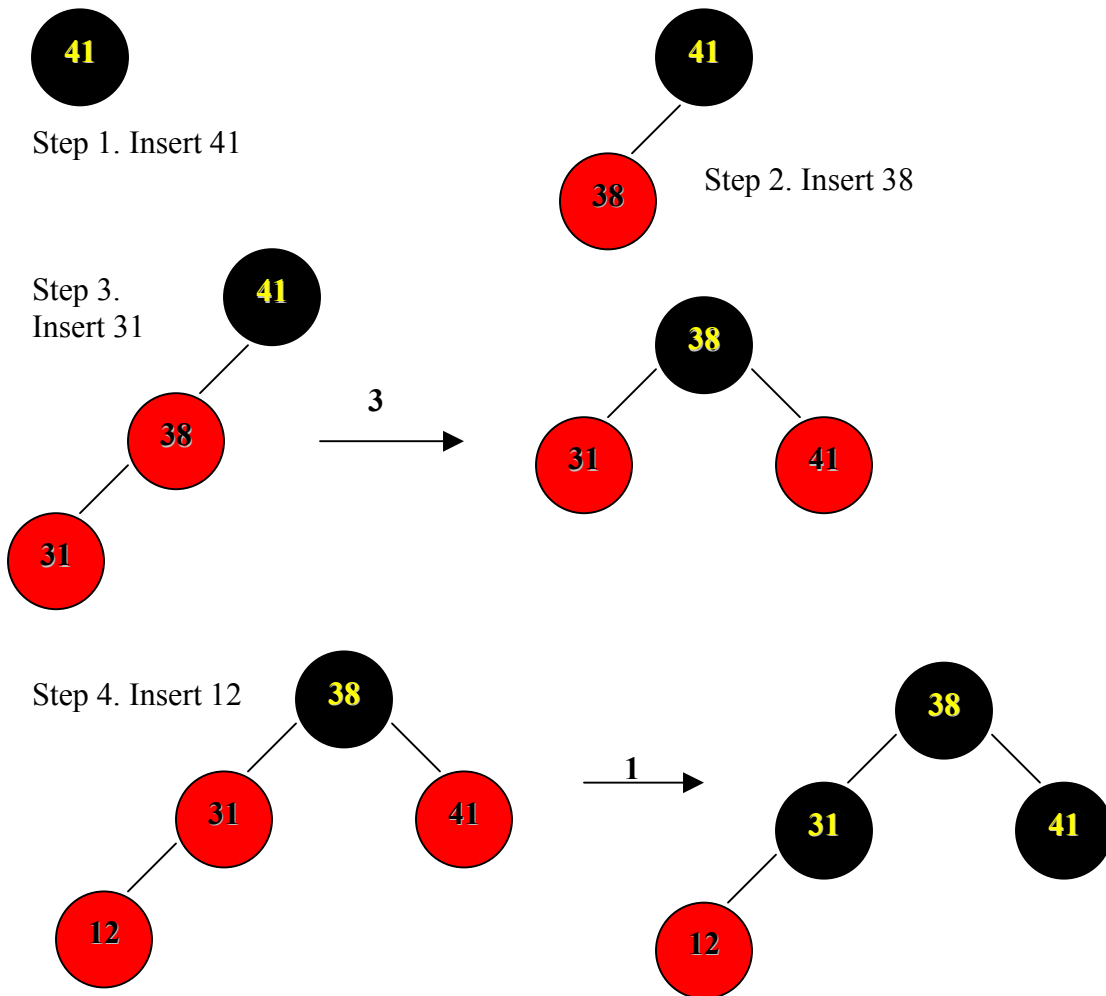
11. 13.2-3

Let a , b , and c be arbitrary nodes in subtrees α , β , and γ , respectively, in the left tree of Figure 13.2. How do the depths of a , b , and c change when a left rotation is performed on node x in the figure?

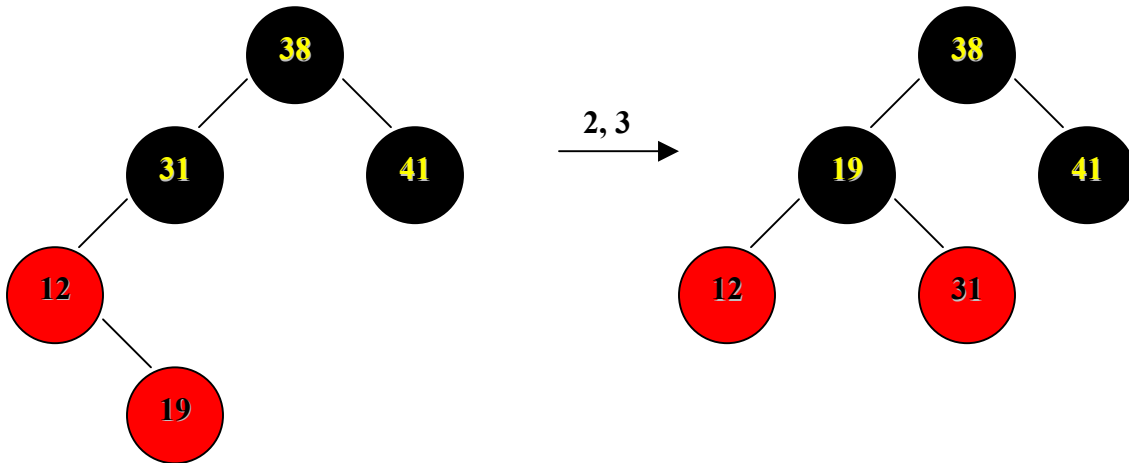
- The depth of a increases by $+1$
- The depth of b remains the same
- The depth of c changes by -1

12. 13.3-2

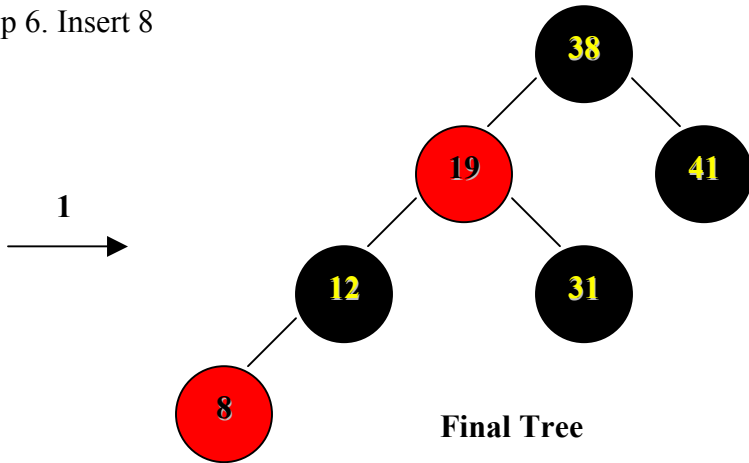
Show the red-black trees that result after successively inserting the keys 41, 38, 31, 12, 19, and 8 into an initially empty red-black tree.



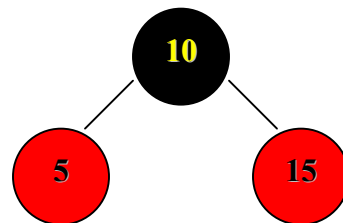
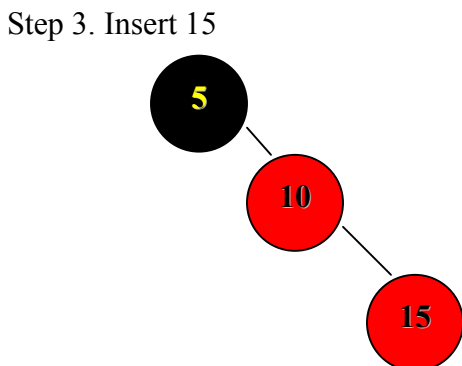
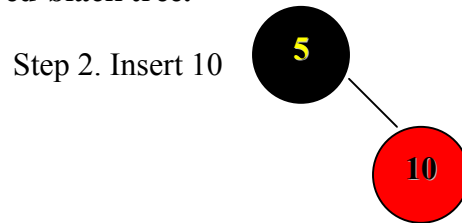
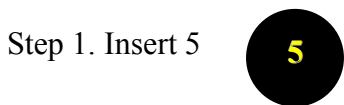
Step 5. Insert 19



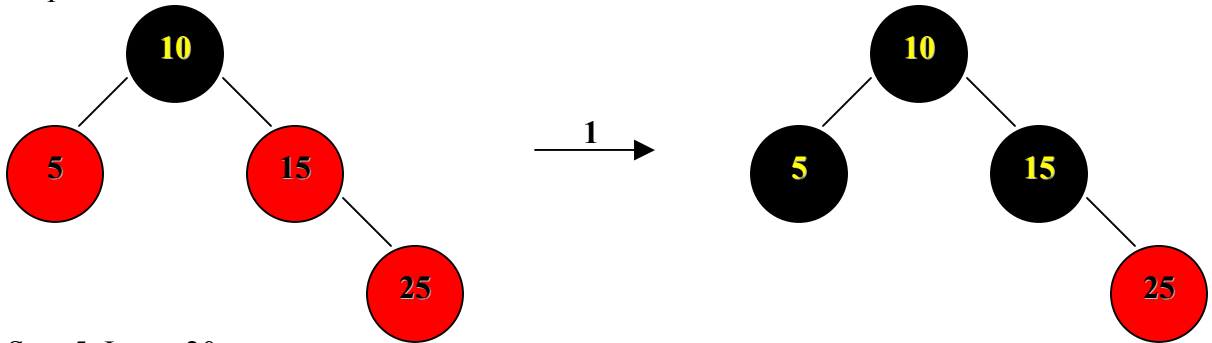
Step 6. Insert 8



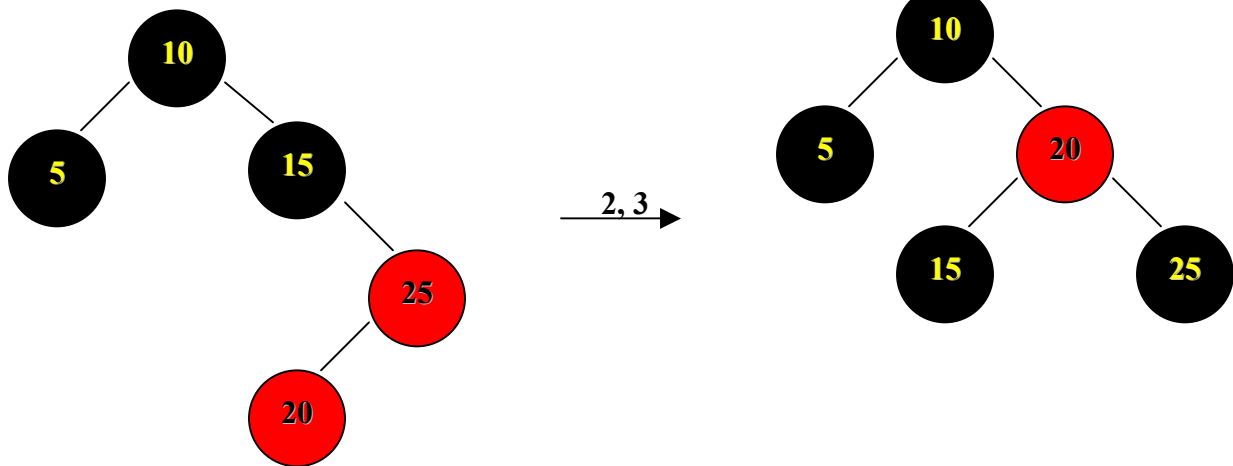
13. Show the red-black trees that result after successively inserting the keys 5, 10, 15, 25, 20, and 30 into an initially empty red-black tree.



Step 4. Insert 25

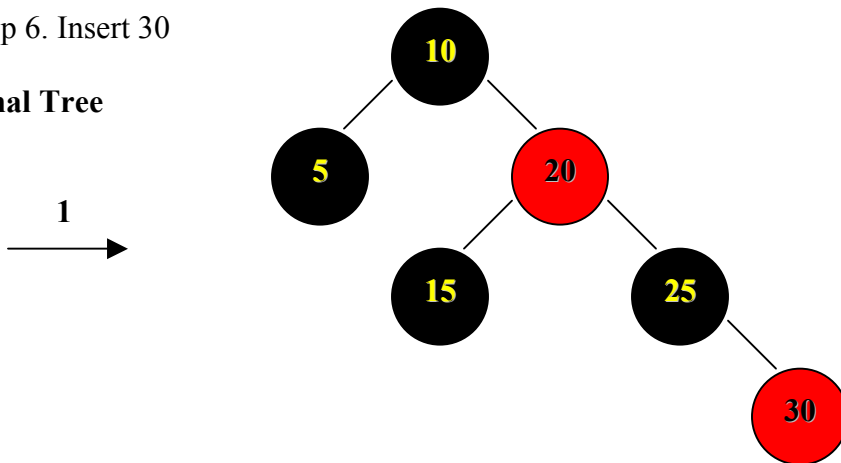


Step 5. Insert 20



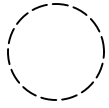
Step 6. Insert 30

Final Tree

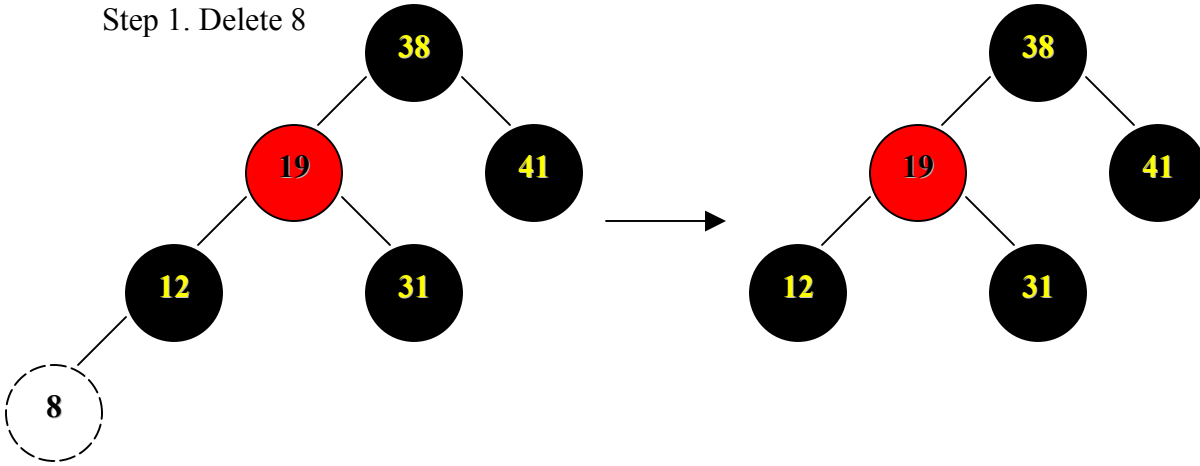


14. 13.4-3

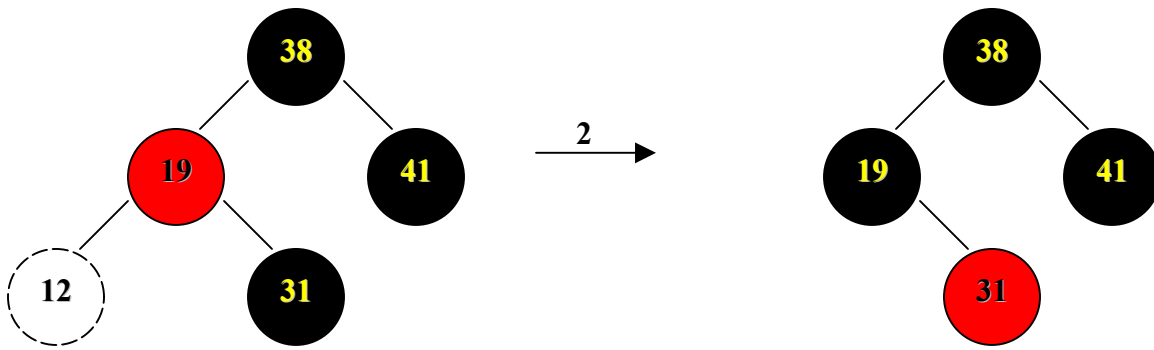
In exercise 13.3-2 (problem 12), you found the red-black tree that results from successively inserting the keys 41, 38, 31, 12, 19, and 8 into an initially empty tree. Now show the red-black trees that result from the successive deletion of the keys in the order 8, 12, 19, 31, 38, and 41.

 = Node to be deleted

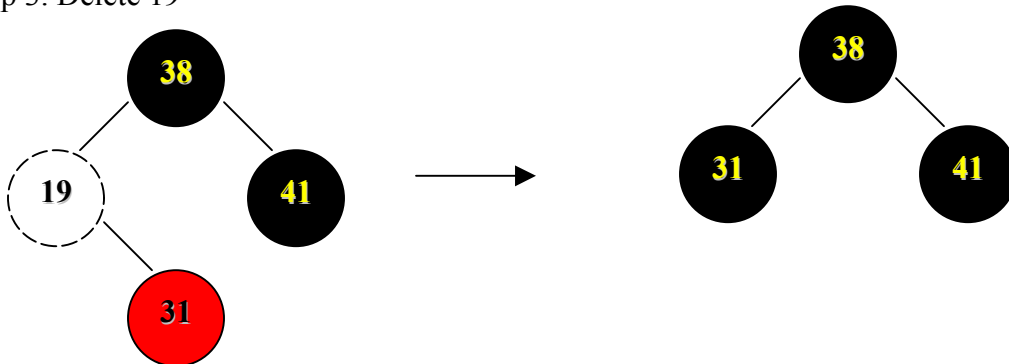
Step 1. Delete 8



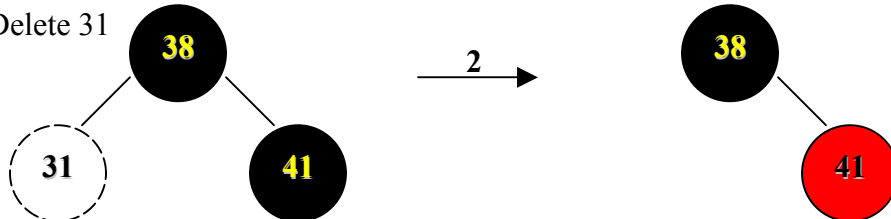
Step 2. Delete 12



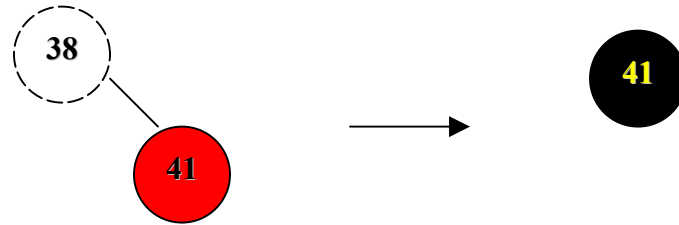
Step 3. Delete 19



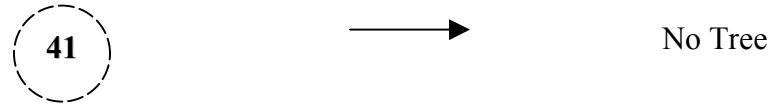
Step 4. Delete 31



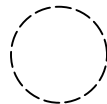
Step 5. Delete 38



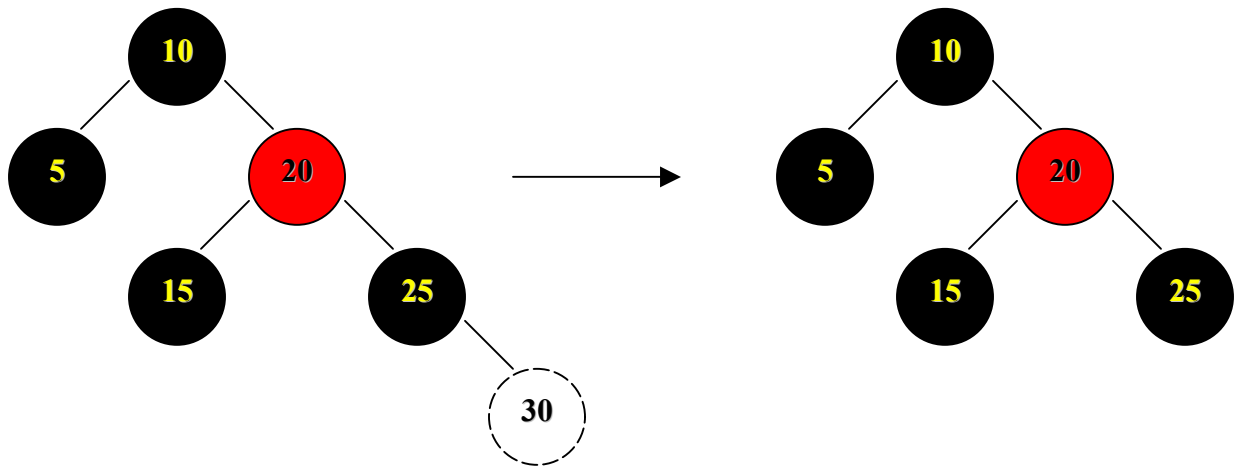
Step 6. Delete 41



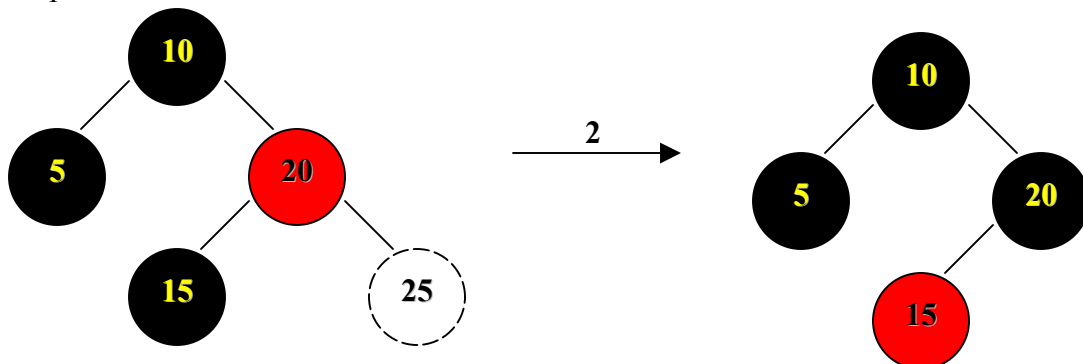
15. Show the red-black tree that results from successively deleting the keys 30, 25, 20, 15, 10, and 5 from the final tree in problem 13.

 = Node to be deleted

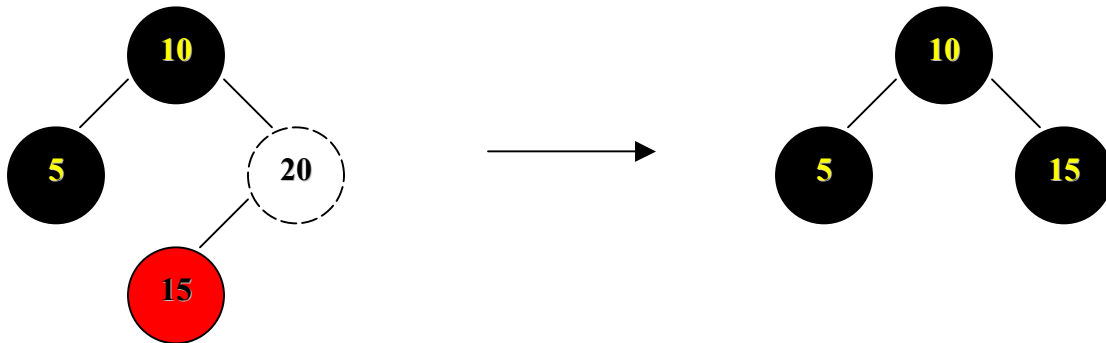
Step 1. Delete 30



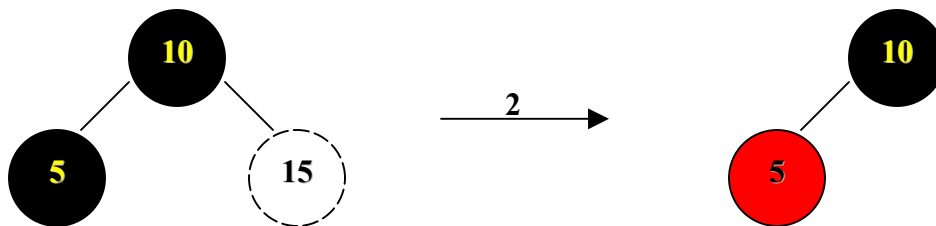
Step 2. Delete 25



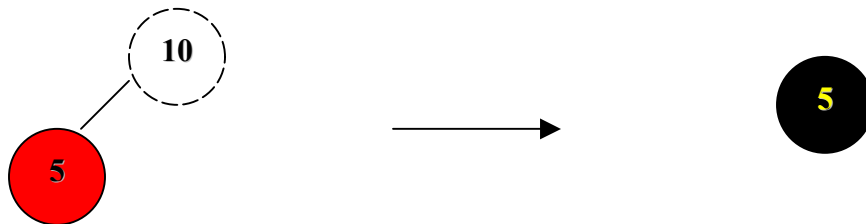
Step 3. Delete 20



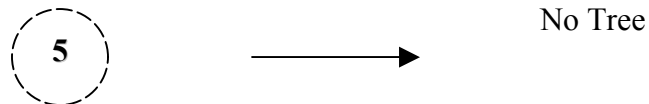
Step 4. Delete 15



Step 5. Delete 10



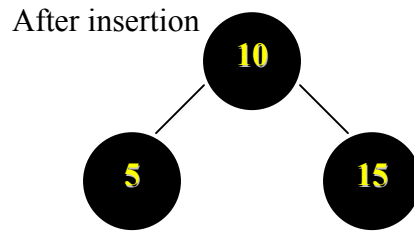
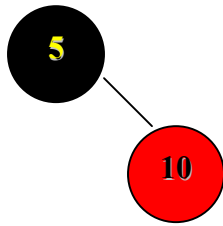
Step 6. Delete 5



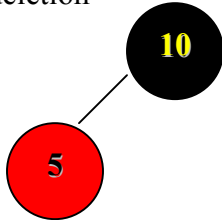
16. 13.4-7

Suppose that a node x is inserted into a red-black tree with RB-INSERT and then immediately deleted with RB-DELETE. Is the resulting red-black tree the same as the initial red-black tree? Justify your answer.

No. The tree after insertion and a deletion of the same node may or may not be different. Let us insert and delete node 15 into the following tree:

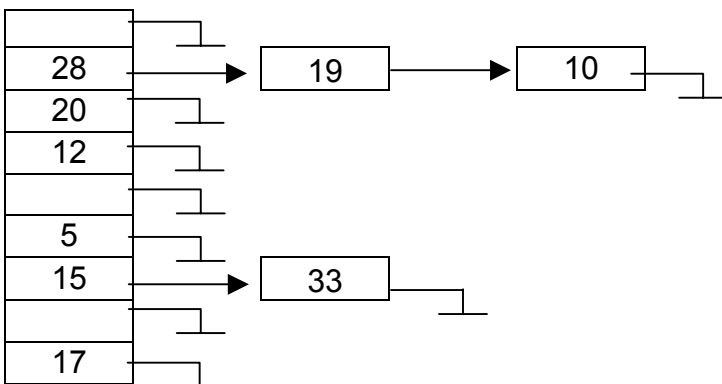


After deletion



17. 11.2-2

Demonstrate the insertion of the keys 5, 28, 19, 15, 20, 33, 12, 17, and 10 into a hash table with collisions resolved by chaining. Let the table have 9 slots, and let the hash function be $h(k) = k \text{ mod } 9$.



18. 11.3-1

Suppose we wish to search a linked list of length n , where each element contains a key k along with a hash value $h(k)$. Each key is a long character string. How might we take advantage of the hash values when searching the list for an element with a given key?

Each key is a long character thus to compare keys, at every node we need to perform a string comparison operation which is very time consuming. Instead we generate a hash value for the key (i.e., generate a numeric value for each string) we are searching for and

comparing hash values $h(k)$ along the length of the list, which turns out to be numeric values and the comparison is faster.

19. 11.4-1

Consider inserting the keys 10, 22, 31, 4, 15, 28, 17, 88, and 59 into a hash table of length $m=11$ using open addressing with the primary hash function $h'(k) = k \bmod m$. Illustrate the result of inserting these keys using linear probing, using quadratic probing with $c_1 = 1$ and $c_2 = 3$, and using double hashing with $h_2(k) = 1 + (k \bmod (m-1))$.

Using Linear probing the final state of the hash table would be:

0	22
1	88
2	
3	
4	4
5	15
6	28
7	17
8	59
9	31
10	10

Using Quadratic probing, with $c_1 = 1$, $c_2=3$) the final state of the hash table would be $h(k,i) = (h'(k) + c_1 * i + c_2 * i^2) \bmod m$ where $m=11$ and $h'(k) = k \bmod m$.

0	22
1	88
2	
3	17
4	4
5	
6	28
7	59
8	15
9	31
10	10

Using double hashing the final state of the hash table would be:

0	22
1	
2	59
3	17
4	4
5	15
6	28
7	88
8	
9	31
10	10

20. 11.4-4

Consider an open-address hash table with uniform hashing. Give upper bounds on the expected number of probes in an unsuccessful search and on the expected number of probes in a successful search when the load factor is $\frac{3}{4}$ and when it is $\frac{7}{8}$.

Theorem 11.6. Given an open address hash table with load factor $\alpha = n/m < 1$, the expected number of probes in an unsuccessful search is at most $1/(1-\alpha)$, assuming uniform hashing.

$\alpha = \frac{3}{4}$, then the upper bound on the number of probes = $1 / (1 - \frac{3}{4}) = 4$ probes

$\alpha = \frac{7}{8}$, then the upper bound on the number of probes = $1 / (1 - \frac{7}{8}) = 8$ probes

Theorem 11.8. Given an open address hash table with load factor $\alpha = n/m < 1$, the expected number of probes in a successful search is at most $(1/\alpha) \ln (1/(1-\alpha))$, assuming uniform hashing and assuming that each key in the table is equally likely to be searched for.

$\alpha = \frac{3}{4}$. $(1/ \frac{3}{4}) \ln (1/ (1 - \frac{3}{4})) = 1.85$ probes

$\alpha = \frac{7}{8}$. $(1/ .875) \ln (1/ (1 - .875)) = 2.38$ probes