CSCI 136 Data Structures & Advanced Programming

> Lecture 26 Fall 2019 Instructors: B&S

Administrative Details

- Lab 9: Super Lexicon is online
 - Partners are permitted this week!

Last Time

- Efficient Binary search trees (Ch 14)
 - AVL Trees
 - Height is O(log n), so all operations are O(log n)
 - Red-Black Trees
 - Different height-balancing idea: height is O(log n)
 - All operations are O(log n)

Today's Outline

- Lab 9: Super Lexicon
- Introduction To Graphs
 - Basic Definitions and Properties
 - Applications and Problems

Lab 9 : Lexicon

- Goal: Build a data structure that can efficiently store and search a large set of words
- A special kind of tree called a trie



Lab 9 : Tries

- A trie is a tree that stores words where
 - Each node holds a letter
 - Some nodes are "word" nodes (dark circles)
 - Any path from the root to a word node describes one of the stored words
 - All paths from the root form prefixes of stored words (a word is considered a prefix of itself)



Now add "dot" and "news"



Now remove "not" and "zen"



Lab 9 : Lexicon

An inteface that provides the methods

public interface Lexicon {

}

- public boolean addWord(String word);
- public int addWordsFromFile(String filename);
- public boolean removeWord(String word);
- public int numWords();
- public boolean containsWord(String word);
- public boolean containsPrefix(String prefix);
- public Iterator<String> iterator();

public Set<String> matchRegex(String pattern);

Lab 9

- Implement a program that creates, updates, and searches a Lexicon
 - Based on a LexiconTrie class
 - Each node of the Trie is a LexiconNode
 - Analogous to a SLL consisting of SLLNodes
 - LexiconTrie implements the Lexicon Interface
 - Supports
 - adding/removing words
 - searching for words and prefixes
 - reading words from files
 - Iterating over all words

Graphs Describe the World

- Transportation Networks
- Communication Networks
- Molecular structures
- Dependency structures
- Scheduling
- Matching
- Graphics Modeling





Nodes = subway stops; Edges = track between stops



Nodes = cities; Edges = rail lines connecting cities



Note: Connections in graph matter, not precise locations of nodes







Word Game



CS Pre-requisite Structure (subset)



Nodes = courses; Edges = prerequisites ***

Wire-Frame Models



Basic Definitions & Concepts



Def'n: An undirected graph G = (V,E) consists of two sets

•V : the vertices of G, and E : the edges of G

•Each edge e in E is defined by a set of two vertices: its incident vertices. We write $e = \{u, v\}$ and say that u and v are *adjacent*.

Walking Along a Graph

 A walk from u to v in a graph G = (V,E) is an alternating sequence of vertices and edges

 $u = v_0, e_1, v_1, e_2, v_2, ..., v_{k-1}, e_k, v_k = v$

such that each $e_i = \{v_i, v_{i+1}\}$ for i = 1, ..., k

- Note a walk starts and ends on a vertex
- If no edge appears more than once then the walk is called a *path*
- If no vertex appears more than once then the walk is a simple path

Walking In Circles

• A closed walk in a graph G = (V,E) is a <u>walk</u> $v_0, e_1, v_1, e_2, v_2, ..., v_{k-1}, e_k, v_k$

such that each $v_0 = v_k$

- A circuit is a <u>path</u> where v₀ = v_k
 No repeated edges
- A cycle is a simple path where v₀ = v_k
 No repeated vertices (uhm, except for v₀!)
- The length of any of these is the number of edges in the sequence

Little Tiny Theorems

- If there is a walk from u to v, then there is a walk from v to u.
- If there is a walk from u to v, then there is a path from u to v (and from v to u)
- If there is a path from u to v, then there is a simple path from u to v (and v to u)
- Every circuit through v contains a cycle through v
- Not every closed walk through v contains a cycle through v! [Try to find an example!]

Another Useful Graph Fact

- Degree of a vertex v
 - Number of edges incident to v
 - Denoted by deg(v)
- Thm: For any graph G = (V, E)

$$\sum_{v \in V} \deg(v) = 2 |E|$$

where |E| is the number of edges in G

- Proof Hint: Induction on |E|: How does removing an edge change the equation?
 - Or: Count pairs (v,e) where v is incident with e

Reachability and Connectedness

- Def'n: A vertex v in G is reachable from a vertex u in G if there is a path from u to v
- v is reachable from u *iff* u is reachable from v
- Def'n: An undirected graph G is connected if for every pair of vertices u, v in G, v is reachable from u (and, of course, u from v)
- The set of all vertices reachable from v, along with all edges of G connecting any two of them, is called the *connected component of v*

Distance in Undirected Graphs

Def: The distance between two vertices u and v in an undirected graph G=(V,E) is the minimum of the path lengths over all u-v paths.

- We write it as d(u,v). It satisfies the properties
 - d(u,u) = 0, for all $u \in V$
 - d(u,v) = d(v,u), for all $u,v \in V$
 - $d(u,v) \le d(u,w) + d(w,v)$, for all $u,v,w \in V$
- This last property is called the *triangle inequality*

Algorithms on Graphs

- What are the basic operations we need to describe algorithms on graphs?
 - Given vertices u and v: are they adjacent?
 - Given vertex v and edge e, are they incident?
 - Given an edge e, get its incident vertices (ends)
 - How many vertices are adjacent to v? (degree of v)
 - The vertices adjacent to v are called its neighbors
 - Get a list of the vertices *adjacent* to v
 - From which we can get the edges *incident* with v

Basic Graph Algorithms

- We'll look at a number of graph algorithms
 - Connectedness: Is G connected?
 - If not, how many connected components does G have?
 - Cycle testing: Does G contain a cycle?
 - Does G contain a cycle through a given vertex?
 - If the edges of G have costs:
 - What is the cheapest connected subgraph of G that contains every vertex?
 - What is a cheapest path from u to v?
 - And more....

Testing Connectedness

- How can we determine whether G is connected?
 - Pick a vertex v; see if every vertex u is reachable from v
- How could we do this?
 - Visit the neighbors of v, then visit their neighbors, etc. See if you reach all vertices

• Assume we can mark a vertex as "visited"

• How do we efficiently manage all this visiting?

Reachability: Breadth-First Search

BFS(G, v) // Do a breadth-first search of G starting at v // pre: all vertices are marked as unvisited

count $\leftarrow 0$;

Create empty queue Q; enqueue v; mark v as visited; count++ While Q isn't empty current \leftarrow Q.dequeue();

for each unvisited neighbor u of current :

add u to Q; mark u as visited; count++

return count;

Now compare value returned from BFS(G,v) to size of V

BFS Theorem

Thm. BFS(G,v) visits exactly those vertices u reachable from v.

Proof: We'll show that if u is reachable from v then BFS(G,v) visits u by induction on d = d(v,u)

- Base Case: d = 0. Then u = v.
 - v is reachable from v and BFS(G,v) visits v
- Induction Hypothesis: For some $d \ge 0$, if d(u,v) = d then BFS(G,v) visits u.

BFS Theorem

- Induction Step: Assume now that d(u,v) = d+1
 - Let v = v₀, e₁, v₁, e₂, v₂, ..., v_d, e_{d+1}, v_{d+1} = u be a path of length d+1 from v to u
 - Then $v = v_0$, e_1 , v_1 , e_2 , v_2 , ..., v_d is a path of length d from v to v_d
 - By I.H., v_d is visited by BFS(G,v) and put in Q
 - So v_d will be dequeued and all of its unvisited neighbors, including u, will be marked as visited

A similar argument shows that if u is visited by BFS(G,v) then u is reachable from v

BFS Reflections

- The BFS algorithm traced out a tree T_v: the edges connecting a visited vertex to (as yet) unvisited neighbors
- T_v is called a BFS tree of G with root v (or from v)
- The vertices of T_v are visited in level-order
- Every path in T_v from v to a vertex u is a shortest possible path from v to u
 - That is, the path has length d(v,u)