

# Data Structure

(Chapter 1.4)

# Data Structures

- ▶ Often... the way you organize the data affects the performance of your algorithm
- ▶ A *data structure* is a particular way of storing and organizing data
  - Part of algorithm design is choosing the right data structure

# Fundamental Data Structures

- ▶ Linear Data Structure
  - Array
  - Linked list
  - Stack
  - Queue
- ▶ Set
- ▶ Dictionary (Map)
- ▶ Tree
- ▶ Graph

# Arrays

- ▶ A sequence of  $n$  items of the same type, accessed by an index



- ▶ The good:
  - Each item accessed in same constant time
- ▶ The bad:
  - Size is fixed
  - Insertion / deletion in an array is time consuming – all the elements following the inserted element must be shifted appropriately

# Fundamental Data Structures

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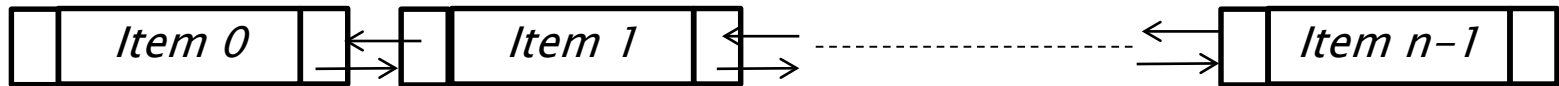
- ▶ Graph

# Linked Lists

- ▶ (singly) A sequence of zero or more elements called *nodes*, consisting of data and a pointer



- ▶ (doubly) Pointers in each direction



# Linked Lists

- ▶ Linked list provides following two advantages over arrays
  - Dynamic size
  - Ease of insertion/deletion
- ▶ Linked lists have following drawbacks:
  - Random access is not allowed.

# Linked Lists in java

```
import java.util.*;

public class LinkedListDemo {

    public static void main(String args[]) {
        // create a linked list
        LinkedList ll = new LinkedList();

        // add elements to the linked list
        ll.add("A");
        ll.add("B");
        ll.add("C");
        ll.addLast("Z");
        ll.addFirst("s");
        ll.add(1, "k");

        // remove elements from the linked list
        ll.remove(2);
    }
}
```



# Fundamental Data Structures

- ▶ Linear Data Structure

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- ▶ Set

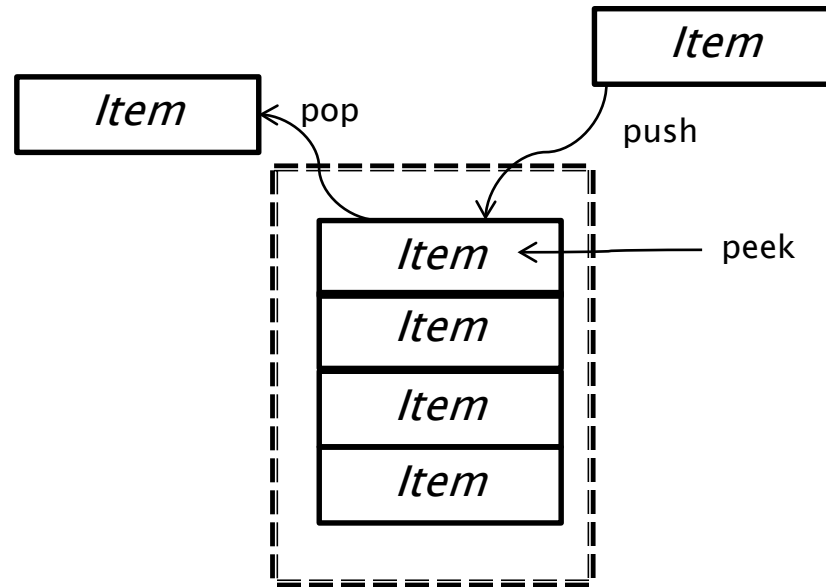
- ▶ Dictionary (Map)

- ▶ Tree

- ▶ Graph

# Stack

- ▶ Like a stack of plates
- ▶ Last-in-first-out (LIFO)



# Stack

- ▶ the insert operation is called Push
- ▶ the delete operation is called Pop
- ▶ Example:
  - Analysis of languages (e.g. properly nested brackets)
  - Properly nested: `()()`
  - Wrongly nested: `(()`

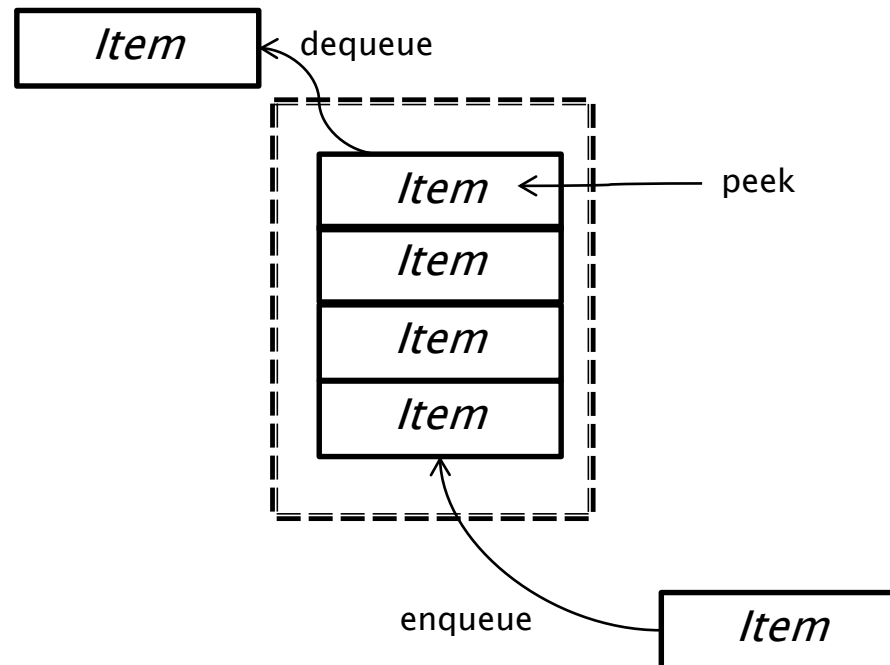
# Stack

CheckBalancedParenthesis(exp)

```
1.  n ← length(exp)
2.  Create a stack s
2.  for i ← 0 to n-1 do
3.      if (exp[i] is '(' ) do
6.          Push (exp[i])
7.      else if (exp[i] is ')' )
8.          if(s is empty or dose not pair with exp[i])
9.              return False
10.     else
11.         pop()
12. If (s is empty)
13.     return true
14. else
15.     return false
```

# Queues

- ▶ Like a line up
- ▶ First-in-first-out (FIFO)



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# Set

- ▶ a Set is just like a Set in math, ie:  $\text{set} = \{ 1, 2, 3, 4 \}$
- ▶ the key thing to remember:
  - *sets cannot contain duplicate items*
- ▶ all we can really do with a set is:
  - add things into it
  - take things out of it
  - check if it contains something
  - iterate over the Set (examine each item, one-by-one)

# Set in java

- ▶ there are a few different ways to implement Set
  - HashSet:
    - *HashSet* is the fastest implementation, *but it is unordered*
  - TreeSet
    - *TreeSet* is slower, *but maintains a sorted order*



# Fundamental Data Structures

- ▶ Linear Data Structure

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- ▶ Set

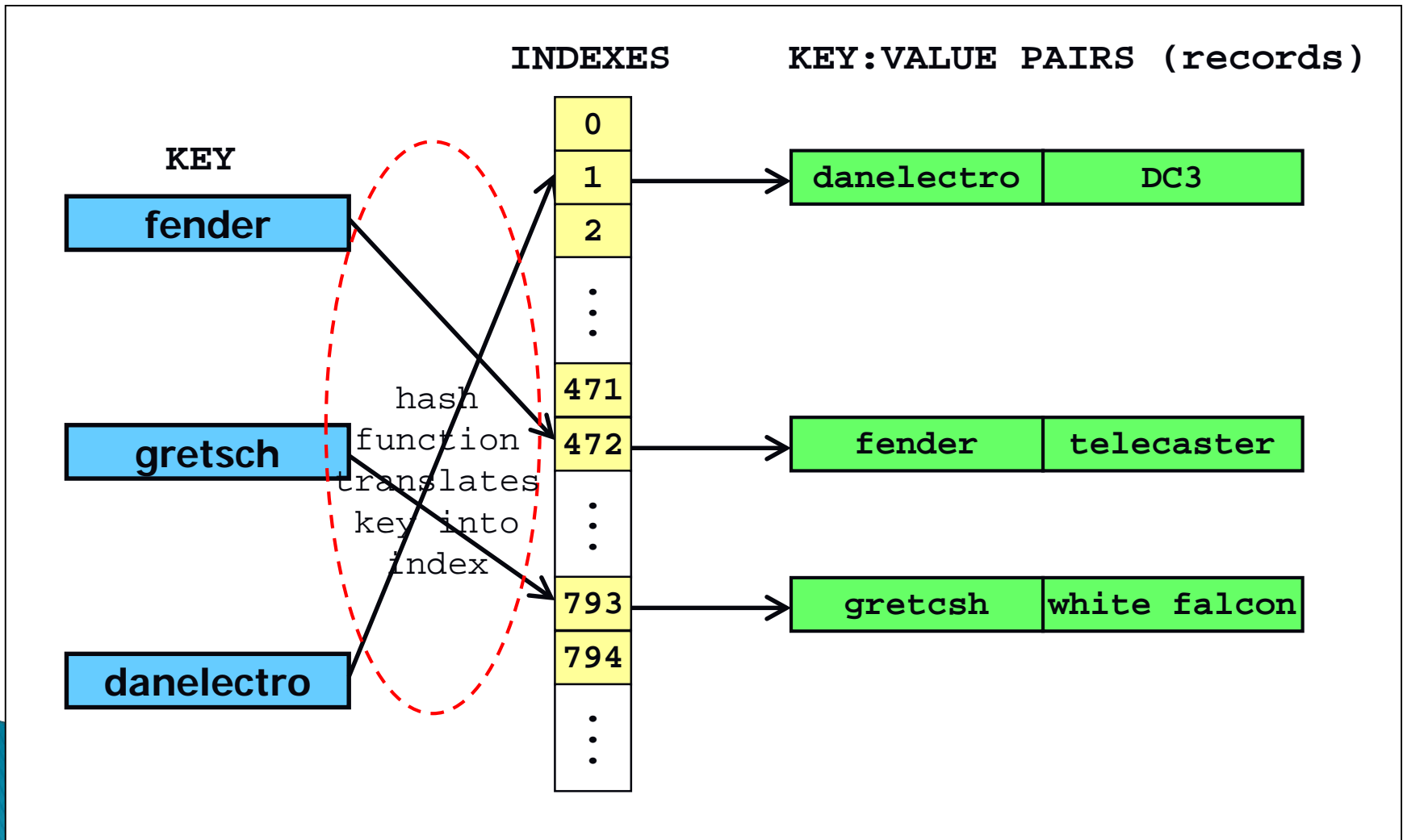
- ▶ Dictionary (Map)

- ▶ Tree

- ▶ Graph

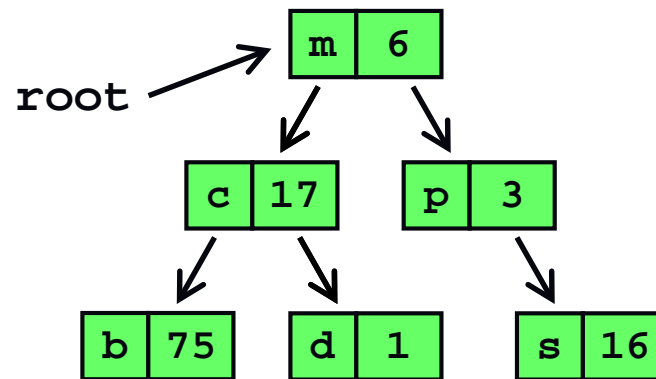
# Map (as a hash table)

- ▶ a **Map** is a lookup table that takes a **key** and returns a **value**
  - the most common implementation is as a hashtable (hashmap)



# Map (as a balanced tree)

- ▶ tree implementations, using red-black trees

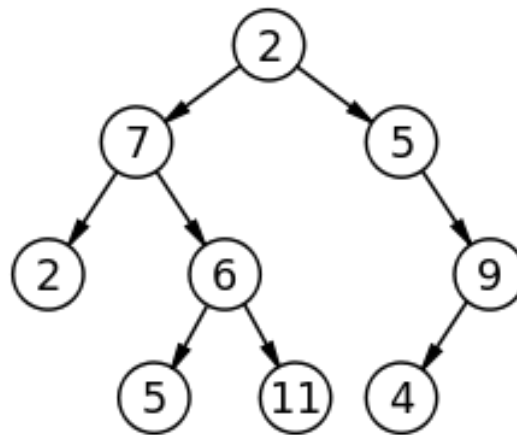


# Fundamental Data Structures

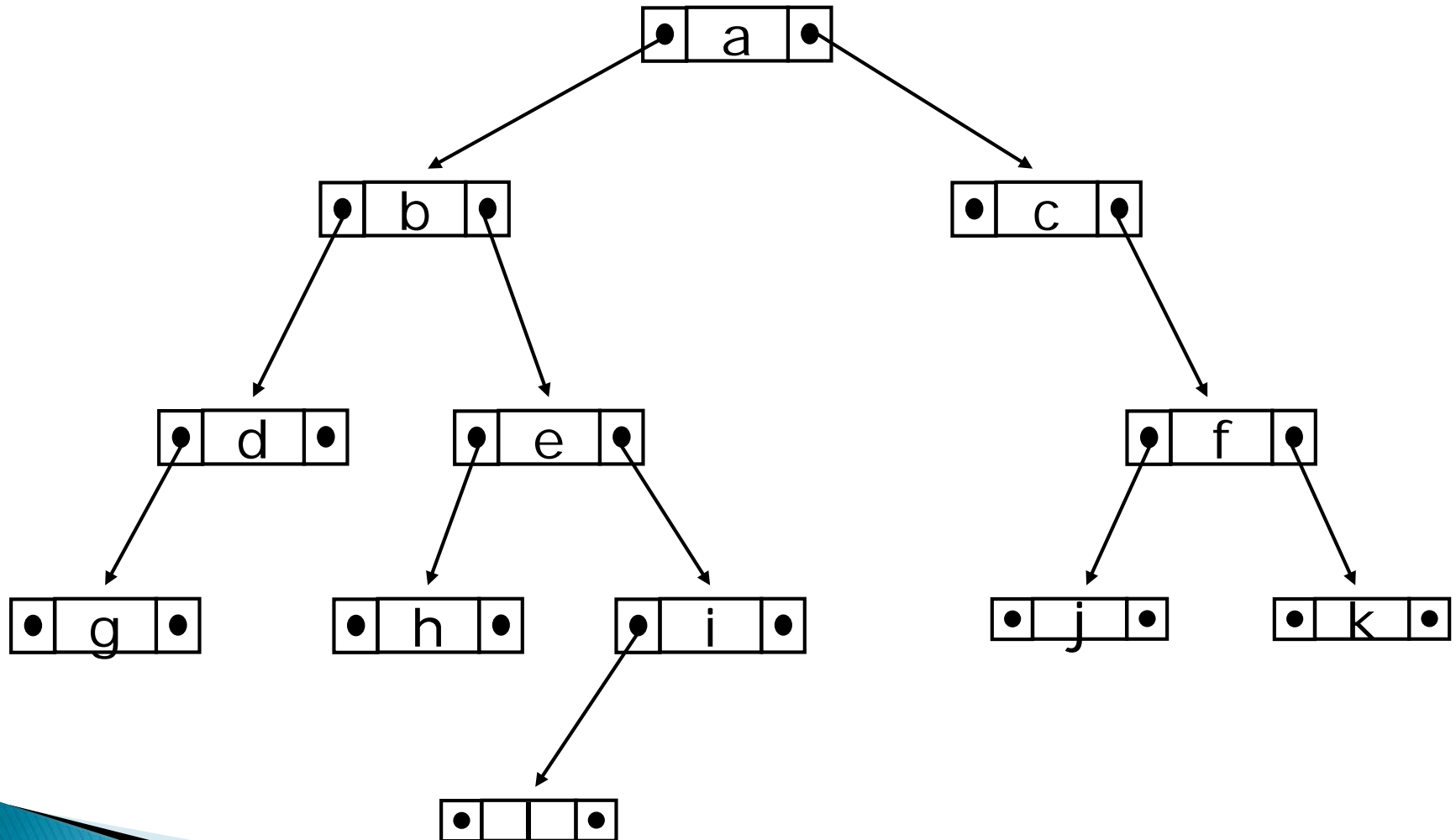
- ▶ Linear Data Structure
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# Trees

- ▶ A connected, acyclic graph
  - Usually we think of trees as having a *root*
- ▶ Representing data in a tree can speed up your algorithms in many natural problems

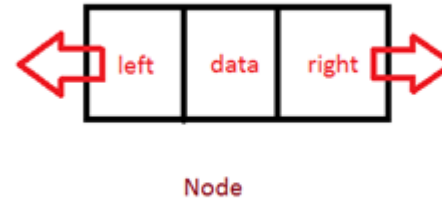


# Binary tree implementation



# Tree node implementation

```
public class Node {  
    public int data;  
    public Node left;  
    public Node right;  
  
    public Node(int d) {  
        data = d;  
    }  
}
```



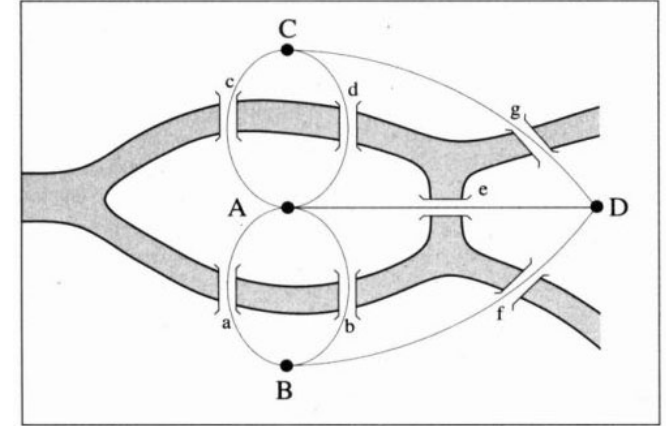
# Fundamental Data Structures

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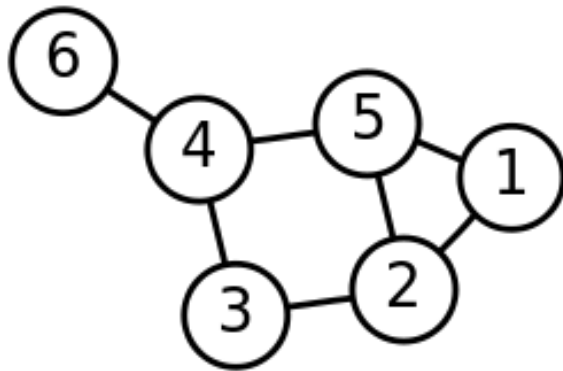


# Graphs

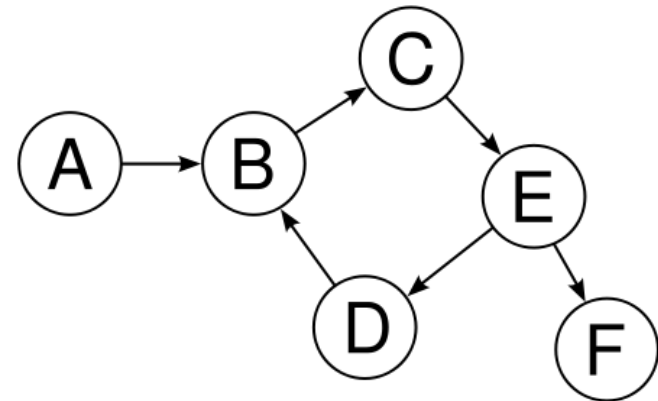
- ▶  $G = (V, E)$ 
  - $V$  is a set of *vertices*
  - $E$  is a set of *edges*



Motivation: Real world connections



Undirected



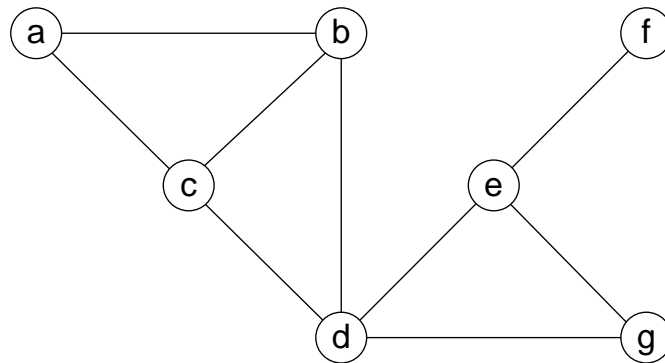
Directed

# Representing Graphs

1. Adjacency matrix
2. Adjacency lists

# Representation: Adjacency Matrix

- ▶ For this graph:

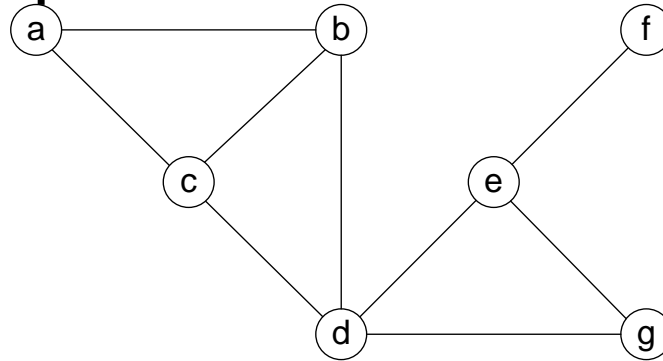


- ▶ Adjacency matrix is the following:

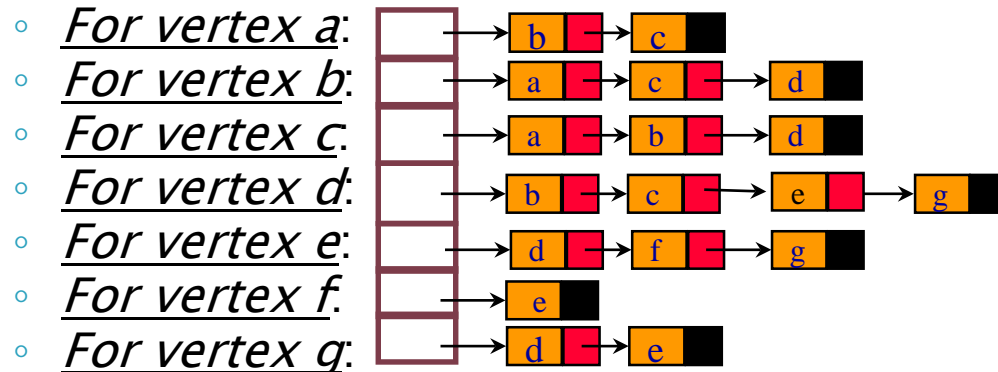
	a	b	c	d	e	f	g
a	0	1	1	0	0	0	0
b	1	0	1	1	0	0	0
c	1	1	0	1	0	0	0
d	0	1	1	0	1	0	1
e	0	0	0	1	0	1	1
f	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
g	0	0	0	1	1	0	0

# Representation: Adjacency List

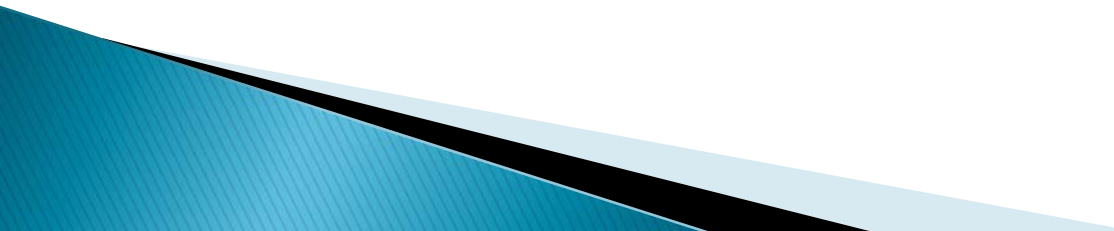
- ▶ For this graph:



- ▶ Adjacency list is the following:



# Representing Graphs

1. Adjacency matrix
    - Or Weight Matrix for weighted graphs
  2. Adjacency lists
    - A list of vertices connected to each vertex
- ▶ Which one to use?
- Depends on the nature of the graph (sparse or not)
  - Depends on the algorithm
- 

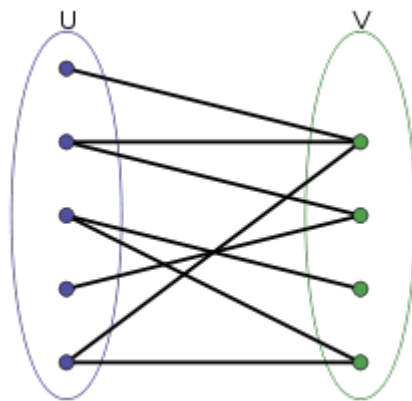
# Properties

- ▶ *Connected graph*

- A graph where there is a path connecting each pair of vertices

- ▶ *Bi-partite graph*

- Vertices can be divided into two separate sets  $u$  and  $v$ , so that all edges go from set  $u$  to set  $v$



# Properties

- ▶ *Cyclic graph*
  - A graph containing at least one cycle
  - (must have 3 vertices)
- ▶ *Acyclic graph*
  - A graph containing no cycles

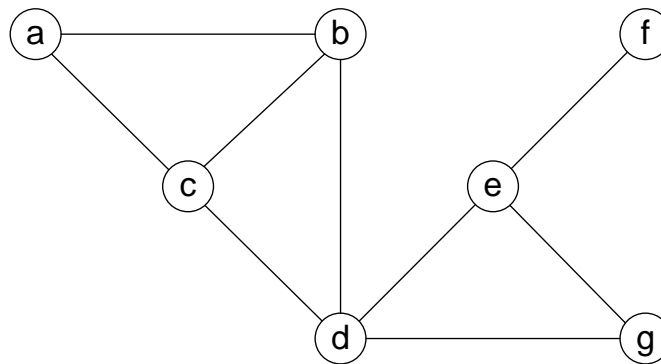
# Graph Algorithm

(Chapter 3.5)



# Graph Traversal

- ▶ Many real-world problems require processing of each vertex (or edge) in a graph
  - e.g. Routing a message on a network



# Graph Traversal Algorithms

- ▶ Graph traversal algorithms give a method for *systematically processing* all vertices

Idea: "visit" all the vertices, one at a time,  
*marking* them as we visit them

- ▶ Two approaches:
  - Depth-First Search (DFS)
  - Breadth-First Search (BFS)

# Depth–First Search (DFS)

- ▶ Visits all vertices by always moving away from the last vertex visited (if possible)
  - Backtracks if there are no more adjacent vertices
- ▶ Implementation often uses a stack of vertices being processed
- ▶ “Re–draws” graph in a tree–like fashion

# DFS

## Algorithm:

DFS(G):

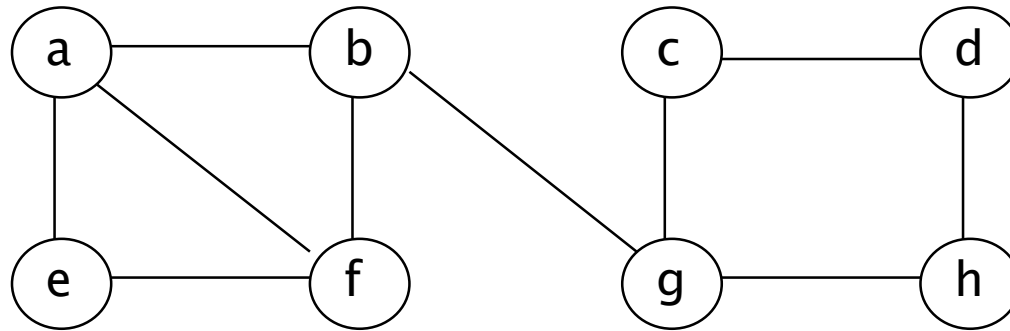
```
    init all visited values to false
    for each vertex v in V      // where G = {V,E}
        if v has not been visited
            dfs(v)
```

dfs(v)

```
    visit node v
    for each vertex w in V adjacent to v
        if w has not been visited
            dfs(w)
```

- ▶ the stmt "visit node v" should be replaced by whatever you are doing
- ▶ the output is typically a “*DFS Tree*”, which is a tree containing all the edges that are used to visit node
- ▶ edges that are in G, but not in the DFS Tree are called “*back edges*”

# DFS Example (using the algo)



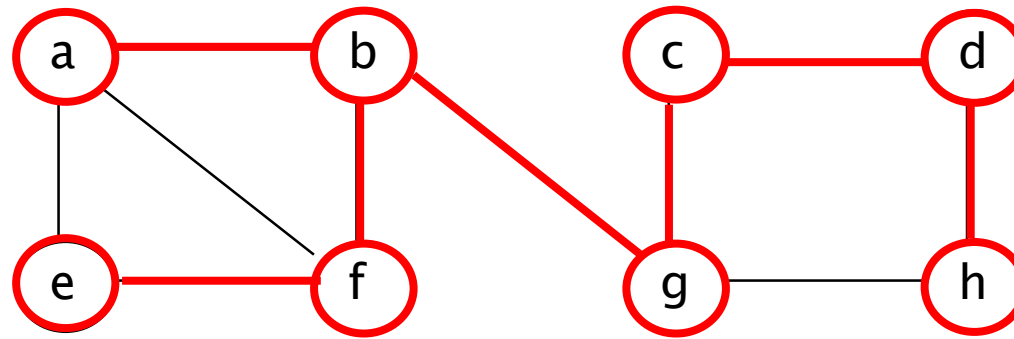
Notes: To trace the operation algorithm we use a stack.

When we make a recursive call (eg  $\text{dfs}(v)$ ), we push  $v$  onto the stack.

When  $v$  becomes a dead-end (ie: no more adjacent unvisited neighbors) it is popped off the stack.

Typically we break ties for next unvisited neighbor by using alphabetical order.

# DFS Example (using the algo)



DFS: a b f e g c d h

# Uses of DFS

DFS is commonly used to:

- ▶ find a spanning tree
- ▶ find a path from  $v$  to  $u$  (ie: get out of a maze)
- ▶ find a cycle
- ▶ find all connected components
- ▶ searching state-space of problems for solution (AI)

# Efficiency of DFS

- ▶ the basic operation is:

```
for each vertex w in V adjacent to v
    if w has not been visited
        dfs(w)
```

- ▶ we can see that this operation will be performed once for each vertex that occurs in the underlying graph structure
  - therefore the #basic ops depends on the size of the structure used to implement the graph
- ▶ basically we need to visit each element of the data structure exactly once. so the efficiency must be:
  - $O(|V|^2)$  – for adjacency matrix
  - $O(|V| + |E|)$  for adjacency lists



# Breadth-first search (BFS)

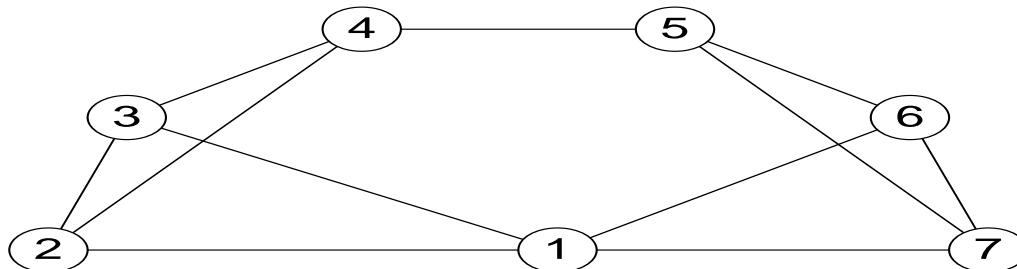
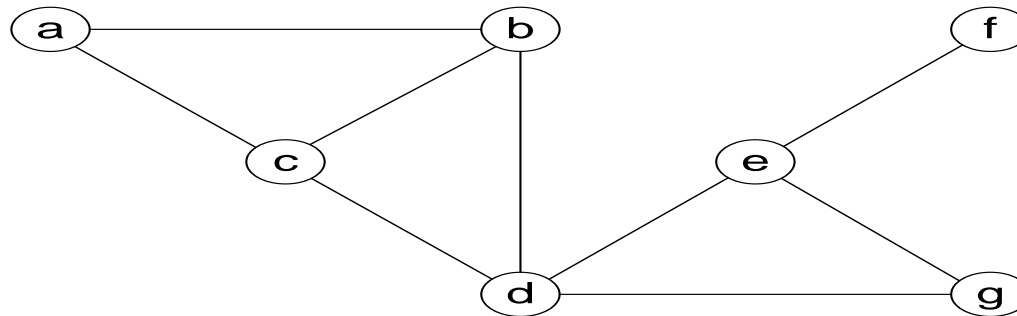
- ▶ Visits graph vertices by moving across to all the neighbors of last visited vertex
- ▶ Instead of a stack, BFS uses a queue
- ▶ Similar to level-by-level tree traversal
- ▶ “Redraws” graph in tree-like fashion (with tree edges and cross edges for undirected graph)

# Breadth First Search

Informally:

- for each vertex  $v$  in  $V$
- visit all vertices adjacent to  $v$
- when all vertices have been visited, visit all vertices 2 hops away
- continue in this way until all have been visited

Examples:

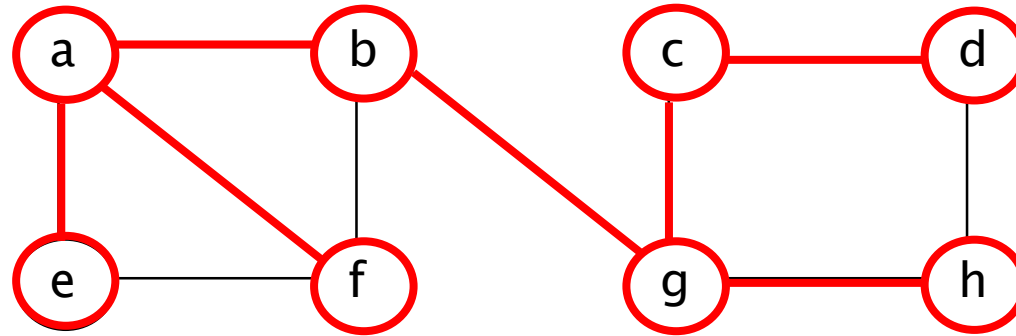


# BFS Algorithm

```
BFS(G):  
    init all visited flags to false  
    for each v in V  
        if v has not been visited  
            bfs(v)  
  
bfs(v)  
    visit node v  
    initialize a queue Q  
    add v to Q  
    while Q is not empty  
        for each w adjacent to Q.head  
            if w has not been visited  
                visit node w  
                add w to Q  
    remove Q.head from Q
```

- ▶ the stmt "visit node v|w" can be replaced by whatever you are doing
- ▶ use a queue (FIFO) to determine which vertex to visit next
- ▶ edges that are in G, but not in the resulting BFS tree are called *cross-edges*

# BFS Example (using the algo)



BFS: a b e f g c h d

# Notes on BFS

- ▶ BFS has same efficiency as DFS and can be implemented with graphs represented as:
  - adjacency matrices:  $O(V^2)$
  - adjacency lists:  $O(|V| + |E|)$
- ▶ Yields single ordering of vertices (order added/deleted from queue is the same)

# BFS Applications

- ▶ Really the same as DFS
- ▶ But... with some judgment... there are applications where BFS seems better:
  - Finding all connected components in a graph
  - Traversing all nodes within one connected component
  - Finding the shortest path (number hops) between two connected vertices

# Problems

- ▶ In many problems... we need to traverse a graph
- ▶ Either DFS or BFS will work
  - But one is better
- ▶ Consider some examples...

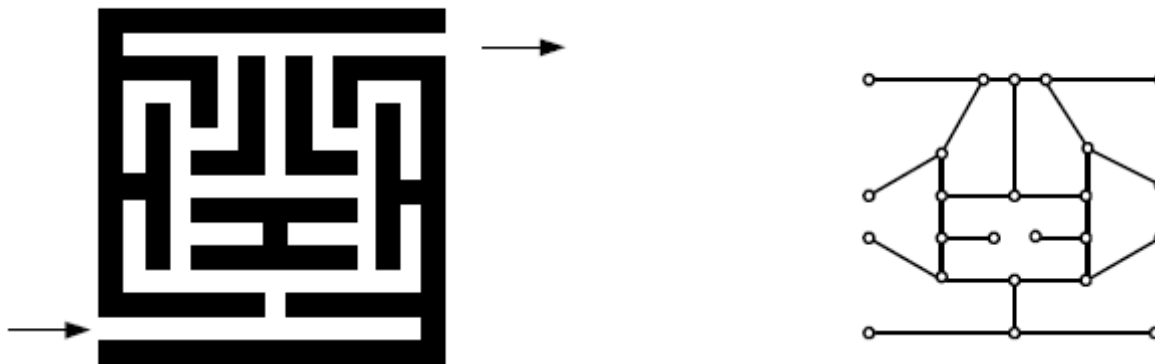
# Problem 1: Spanning Tree

- ▶ Given a connected graph  $G$ , use BFS or DFS to construct a spanning tree of  $G$ .
  - use BFS so that we get “shorter” paths between vertices
  - this is a straight-up application of BFS, just build a new graph (the spanner) as we go



# Problem 2: Maze Solving

- ▶ Model the following maze as a graph. Use DFS to find a path through the maze
  - use DFS because its tree is constructed by moving along existing edges (in contrast, BFS keeps back-tracking to the parent node, so you would have to walk further)



# Problem 3: Shortest Path

- ▶ Use BFS to find the shortest path between two connected vertices,  $u$  and  $w$ 
  - use BFS because it will find a shortest path (DFS will find “a path” – not always the shortest one)

Step 1: run  $\text{bfs}(u)$  to create a spanning tree  $T$  rooted at  $u$  (all paths from in  $T$ , starting at root, are shortest)

Step 2: extract the path from  $T$

- use DFS on  $T$ , to find any path (as in the previous problem),

# Problem 4: Determine Connectivity

- ▶ Explain how you can use BFS or DFS to determine if a graph is connected
  - either will work
  - modify the first loop so that it calls dfs|bfs on any vertex. If there are any unvisited vertices when it returns, the graph is not connected

# Try it/ homework

1. Chapter 1.4, page 37, question 1,3,9
2. Chapter 3.5, page 128, questions 1,2,4,10

# QUIZ Announcement

- ▶ There will be a quiz in the lab next week.
- ▶ It will be 5 questions, on D2L
  - It will take 10–20 minutes
  - Followed by a lab activity