

Mathematics Concepts For Computing

AQ010-3-1-MCFC



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Chapter 7

Graph and Tree

Topic & Structure of the lesson

- **Introduction**
- **Definition**
- **Degree of a Vertex**
- **Graphs & Representations**
- **Paths & Circuits**
- **Trees**

Graph

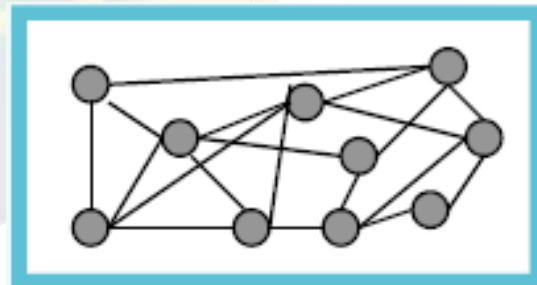
General meaning in everyday math:

- A plot or chart of numerical data using a coordinate system.



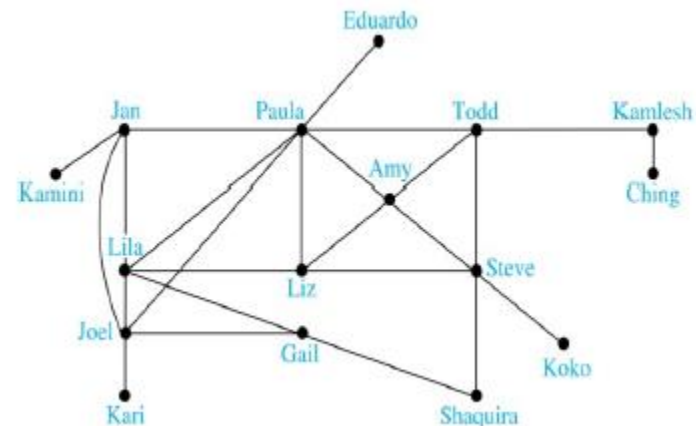
Technical meaning in discrete mathematics:

- A particular class of discrete structures (to be defined) that is useful for representing relations and has a convenient webby-looking graphical representation.



Application of Graphs

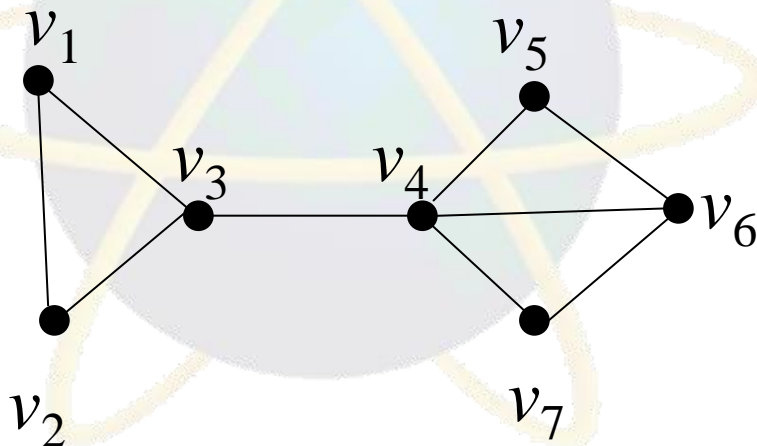
- **Social networks**
 - A friendship graph: two people are connected if they are Facebook friends.
- **Communications networks**
- **Information networks**
 - In a *web graph*, *web pages* are represented by vertices and links are represented by directed edges.
- **Transportation networks**





Def 1. A **graph** $G = (V, E)$ consists of V , a nonempty set of **vertices** (or **nodes**), and E , a set of **edges**. Each edge has either one or two vertices associated with it, called its **endpoints**. An edge is said to **connect** its endpoints.

eg.



$G = (V, E)$, where

$$V = \{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_7\}$$

$$E = \{ \{v_1, v_2\}, \{v_1, v_3\}, \{v_2, v_3\}, \\ \{v_3, v_4\}, \{v_4, v_5\}, \{v_4, v_6\}, \\ \{v_4, v_7\}, \{v_5, v_6\}, \{v_6, v_7\} \}$$



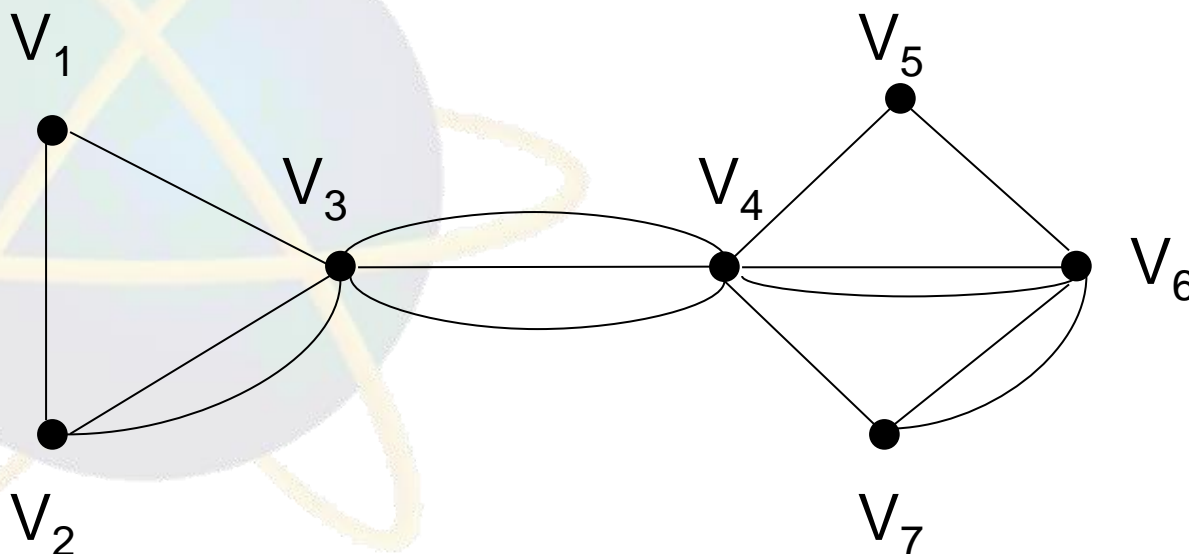
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Def A graph in which each edge connects two different vertices and where no two edges connect the same pair of vertices is called a **simple graph**.


Def **Multigraph**:

simple graph + multiple edges (**multiedges**)

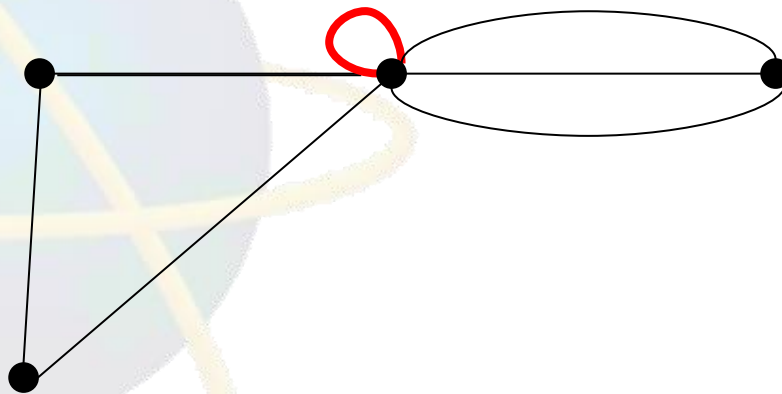
eg.



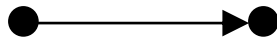
Def. Pseudograph:

simple graph + multiedge
+ loop
(a loop: )

eg.



Def 2. Directed graph (digraph):
simple graph with each edge directed

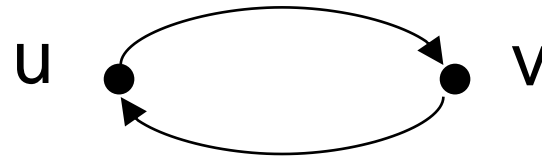


Note:  is allowed in a **directed graph**

Note:



The two edges $(u,v), (u,v)$ are multiedges.



The two edges $(u,v), (v,u)$ are not multiedges.

Def. Directed multigraph: digraph+multiedges

Graph Terminology

Def 1. Two vertices u and v in a undirected graph G are called **adjacent** (or **neighbors**) in G if $\{u, v\}$ is an edge of G .

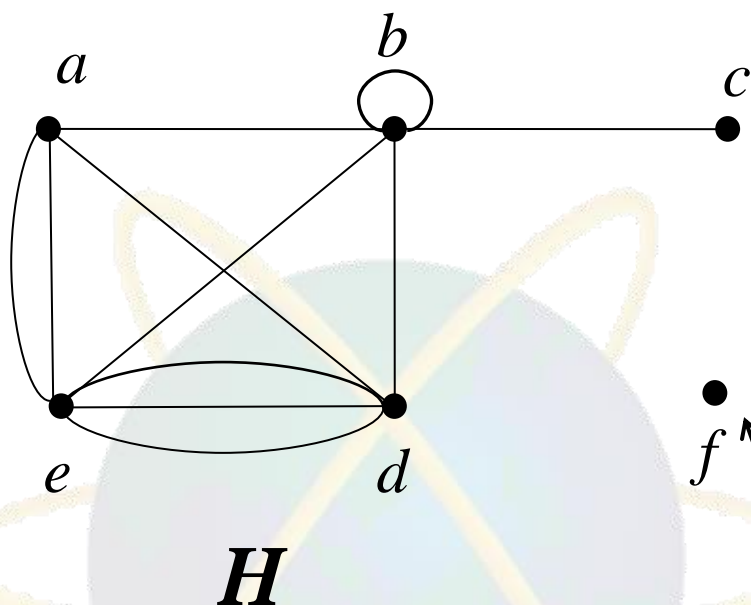
Note : **adjacent**: a vertex connected to a vertex
incident: a vertex connected to an edge

Def 2. The **degree** of a vertex v , denoted by **$\deg(v)$** , in an undirected graph is the number of edges incident with it.

(Note : A loop adds 2 to the degree.)

Example

What are the degrees of the vertices in the graph H ?



Sol :

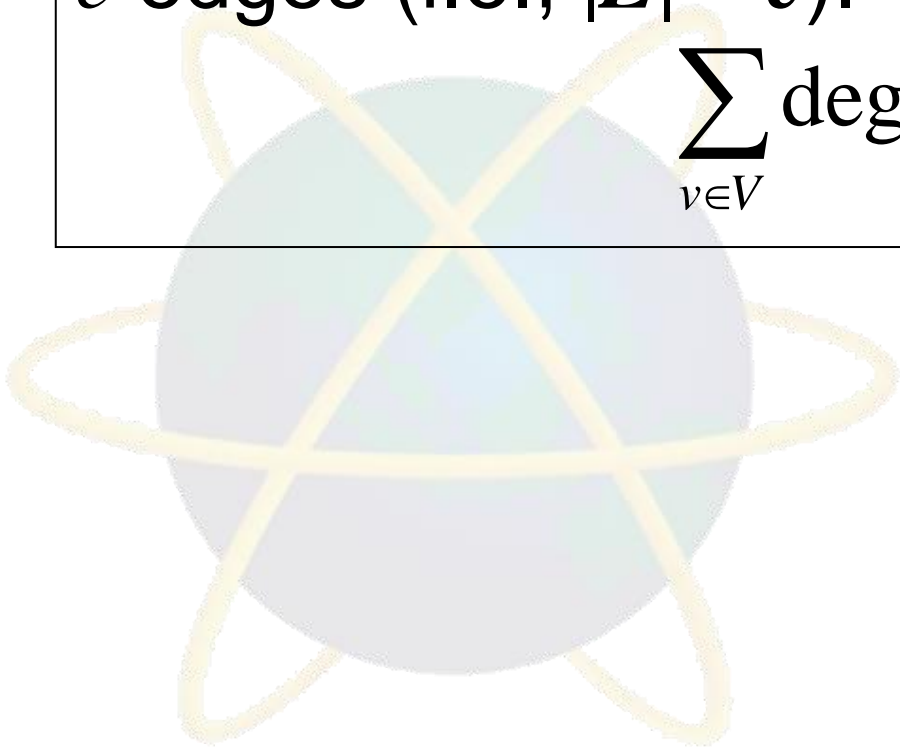
- $\deg(a)=4$
- $\deg(b)=6$
- $\deg(c)=1$
- $\deg(d)=5$
- $\deg(e)=6$
- $\deg(f)=0$

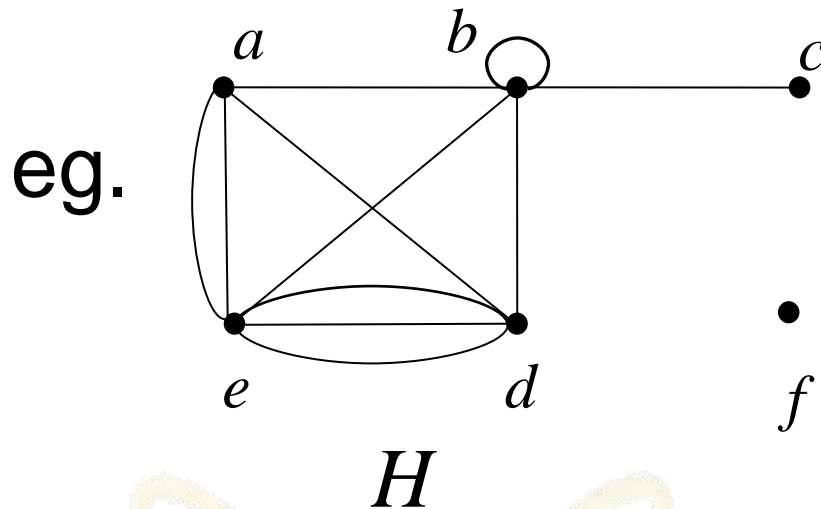
Def. A vertex of degree 0 is called **isolated**.

Thm 1. (The Handshaking Theorem)

Let $G = (V, E)$ be an undirected graph with e edges (i.e., $|E| = e$). Then

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





The graph H has 11 edges, and

$$\sum_{v \in V} \deg(v) = 22$$

Example

How many edges are there in a graph with 10 vertices each of degree six?

Sol :

$$10 \cdot 6 = 2e \Rightarrow e=30$$

Example

Draw a simple graph whose degree sequence is :

(a) $(1, 2, 2, 2, 3, 4)$

(b) $(2, 2, 2, 2, 3, 3, 4, 4)$



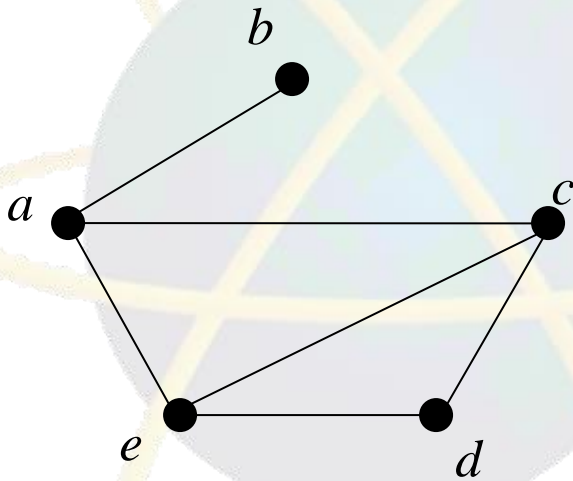
Representing Graphs – Adjacency List

✖Adjacency list

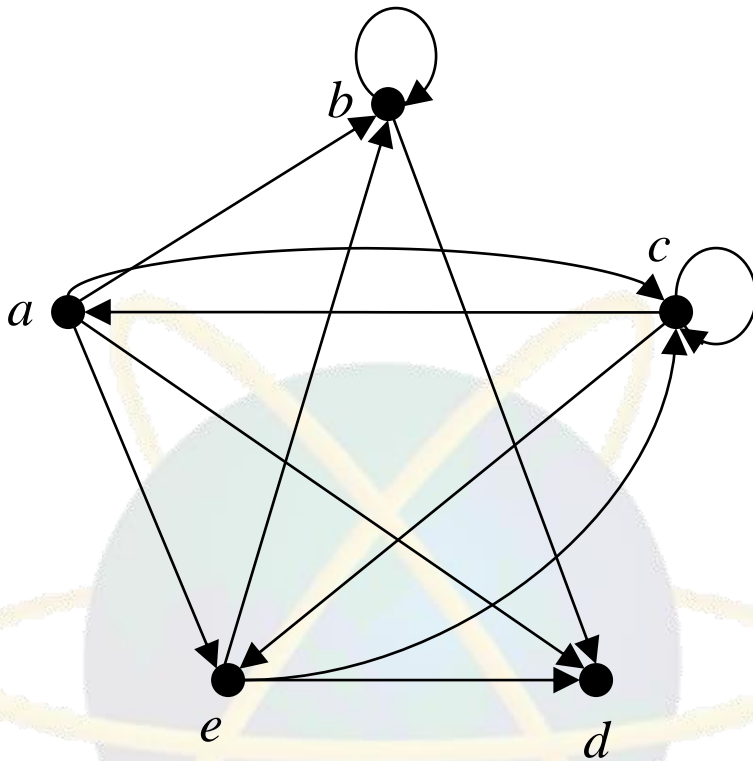
Example 1. Use adjacency lists to describe the simple graph given below.

Sol :

Vertex	Adjacent Vertices
<i>a</i>	<i>b, c, e</i>
<i>b</i>	<i>a</i>
<i>c</i>	<i>a, d, e</i>
<i>d</i>	<i>c, e</i>
<i>e</i>	<i>a, c, d</i>



Example 2.



Initial vertex	Terminal vertices
a	b, c, d, e
b	b, d
c	a, c, e
d	
e	b, c, d

Representing Graphs – Adjacency Matrix



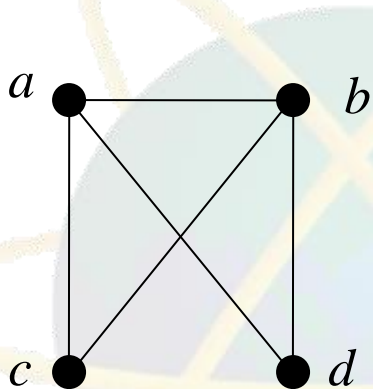
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Def. $G=(V, E)$: simple graph, $V=\{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n\}$.

A matrix A is called the **adjacency matrix** of G

if $A=[a_{ij}]_{n \times n}$, where $a_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } \{v_i, v_j\} \in E, \\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$

Example 3.



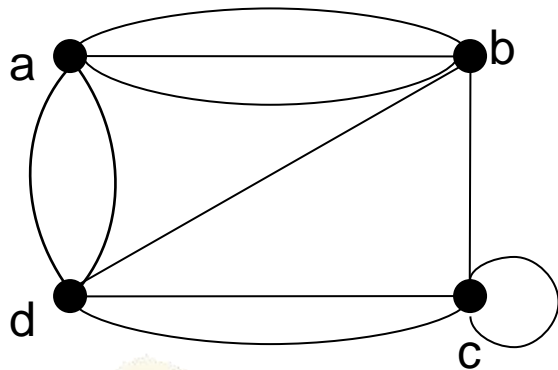
$$A_1 = \begin{matrix} & \begin{matrix} a & b & c & d \end{matrix} \\ \begin{matrix} a \\ b \\ c \\ d \end{matrix} & \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \end{matrix}$$

Note:

1. There are $n!$ different adjacency matrices for a graph with n vertices.
2. The adjacency matrix of an undirected graph is **symmetric**.



Example 5. (Pseudograph)



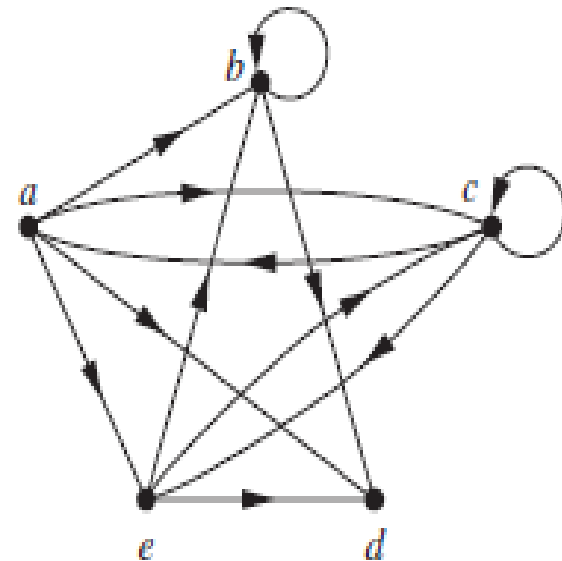
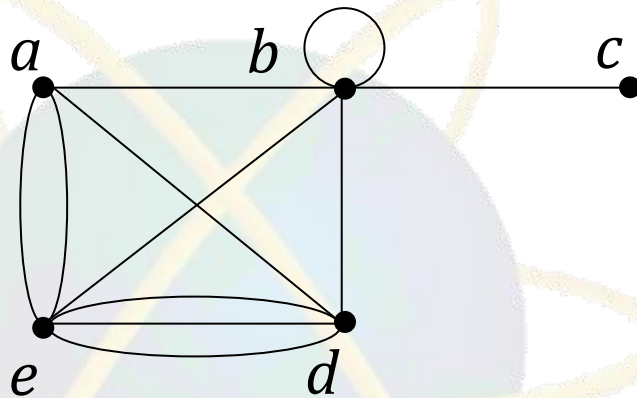
$$A = \begin{matrix} & \begin{matrix} a & b & c & d \end{matrix} \\ \begin{matrix} a \\ b \\ c \\ d \end{matrix} & \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 3 & 0 & 2 \\ 3 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 1 & 2 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \end{matrix}$$

Def. If $A=[a_{ij}]$ is the adjacency matrix for the directed graph, then

$$a_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & , \text{ if } \begin{matrix} \bullet & \longrightarrow & \bullet \\ v_i & & v_j \end{matrix} \\ 0 & , \text{ otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Example

- Use adjacency list and adjacency matrix to represent the graph:

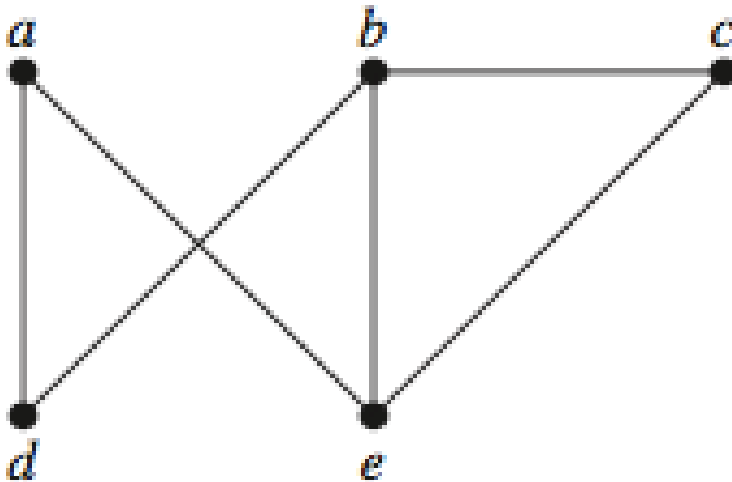


Paths and Circuits

- A **path** is sequence of adjacent vertices and edges.
- **Simple path** is a path that **does not contain a repeated edge**.
- A simple path is a **circuit** if it begins and ends at the same vertex.

Example

Does each of these lists of vertices from a **path** in the following graph? Which paths are **simple**? Which are **circuits**? What are the **lengths** of those that are paths?

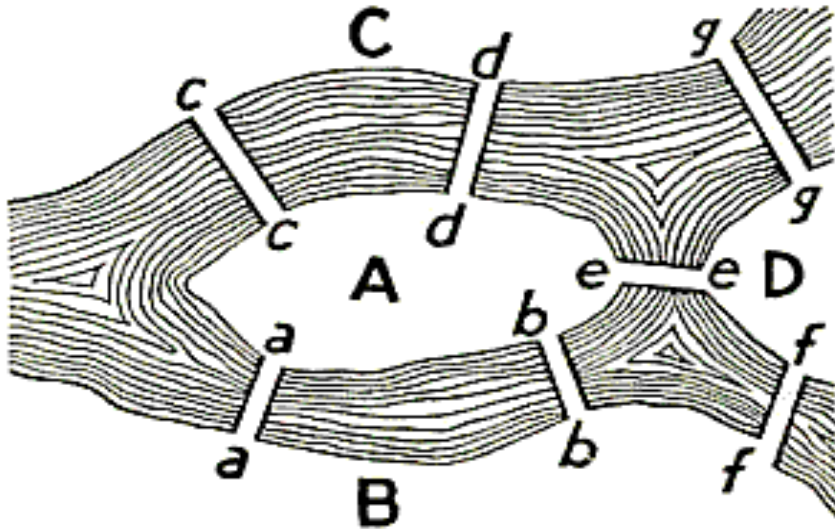


- a) a, e, b, c, b
- b) a, e, a, d, b, c, a
- c) e, b, a, d, b, e
- d) c, b, d, a, e, c

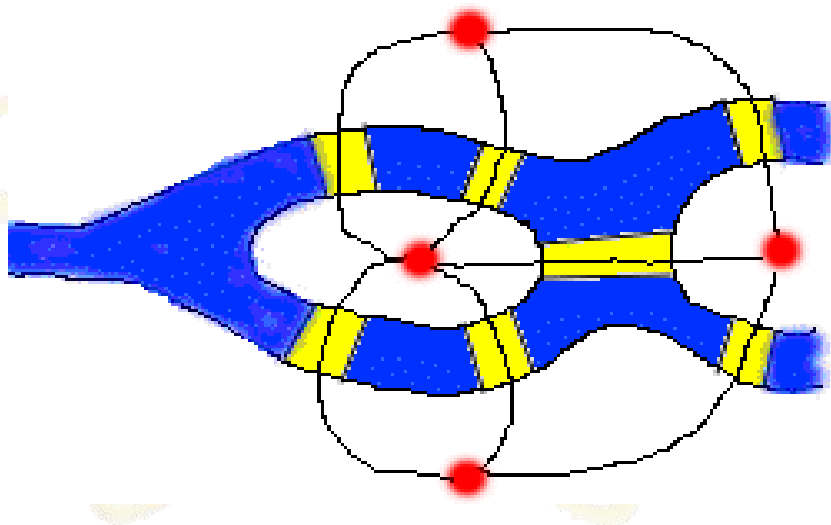
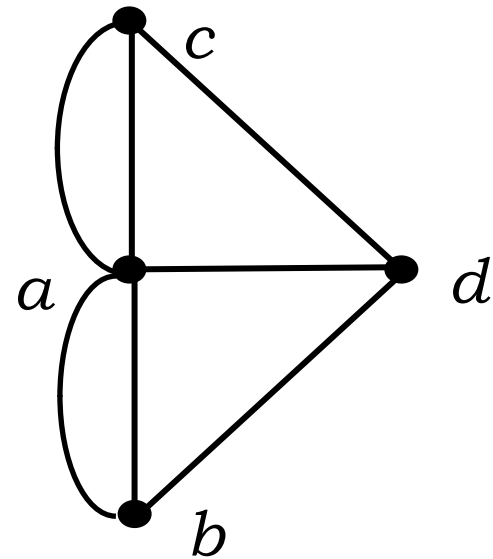
Konigsberg- in days past.



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Is it possible to start at some location in the town, travel **across all the bridges once without crossing any bridge twice**, and **return to the starting point** ?



Euler Paths and Circuits



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Def 1:

An *Euler circuit* in a graph G is a simple circuit containing every edge of G .

An *Euler path* in G is a simple path containing every edge of G .

Thm. 1:

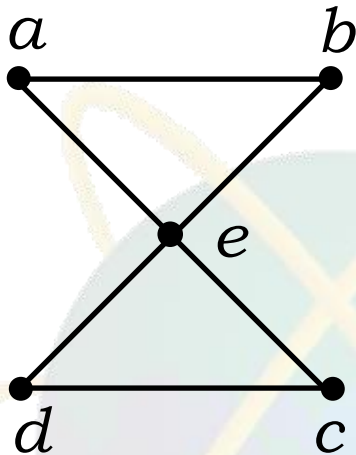
A connected multigraph with at least two vertices has an Euler circuit if and only if each of its vertices has even degree.

Thm. 2:

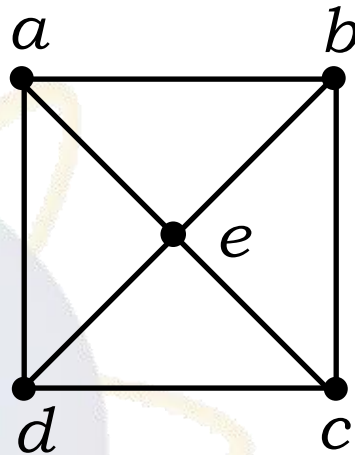
A connected multigraph has an Euler path (**but not an Euler circuit**) if and only if it has exactly 2 vertices of odd degree.

Example

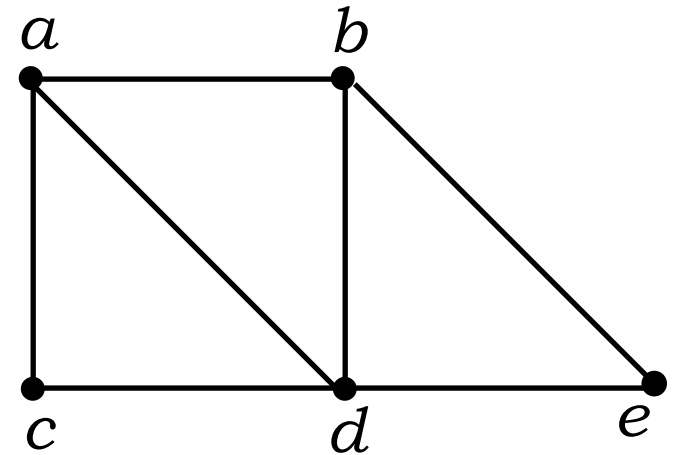
Which of the following graphs has an **Euler circuit**?



yes



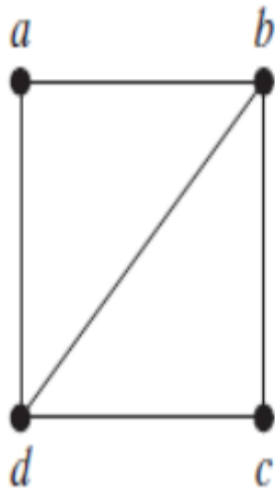
no



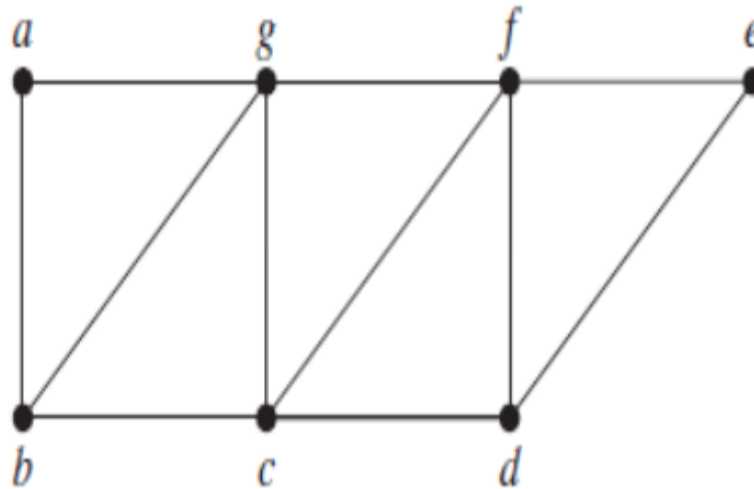
no, but has Euler path
(a, c, d, a, b, d, e, b)



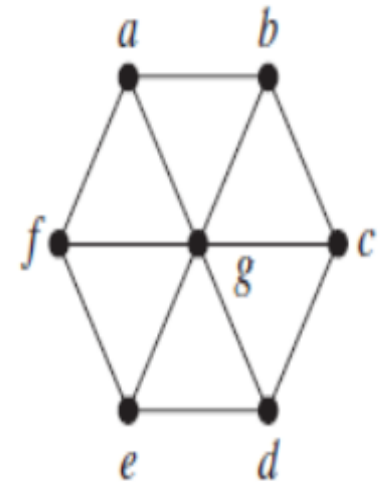
- **Example:** G_1 contains exactly two vertices of odd degree, namely, b and d . Hence, **it has an Euler path** that must have b and d as its endpoints. One such Euler path is d, a, b, c, d, b . Similarly, G_2 has exactly two vertices of odd degree, namely, b and d . So, it has an **Euler path** that must have b and d as endpoints. One such Euler path is $b, a, g, f, e, d, c, g, b, c, f, d$. **G_3 has no Euler path** because it has six vertices of odd degree.



G_1

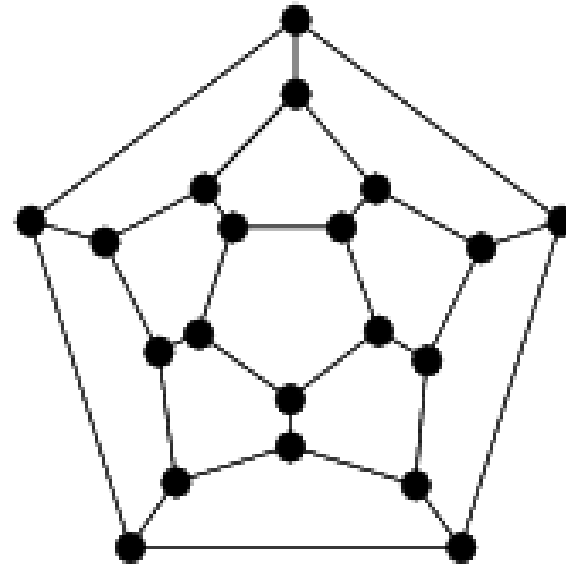
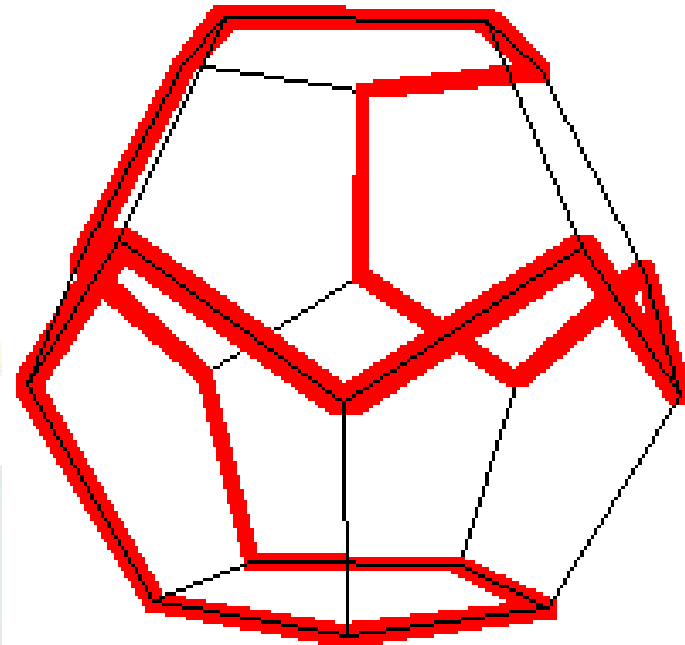


G_2



G_3

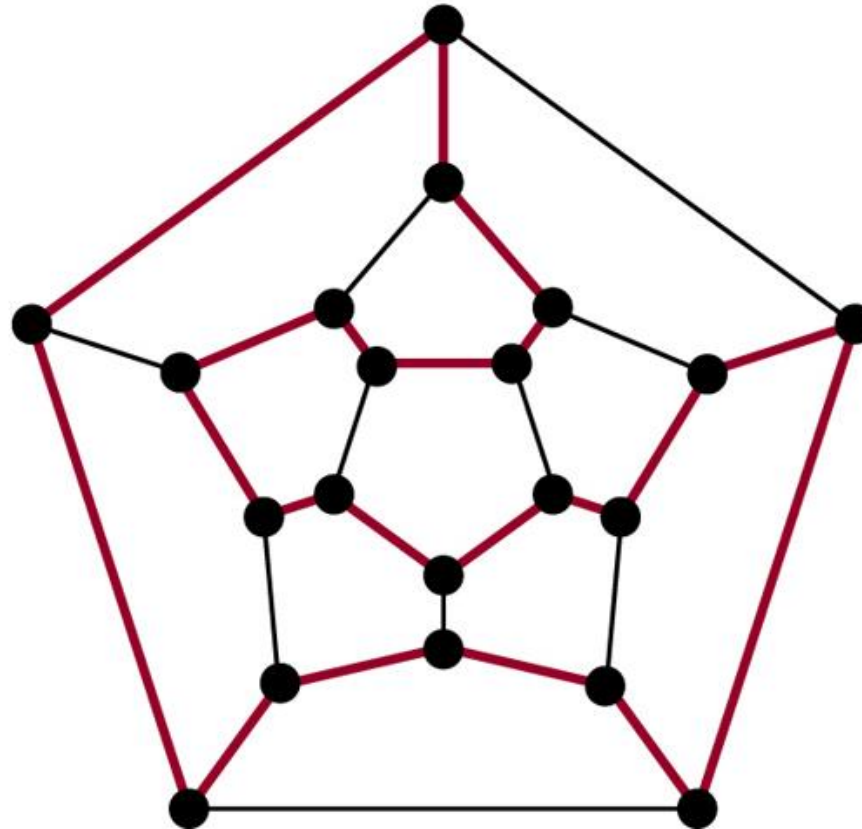
Hamilton Circuits



Dodecahedron puzzle and its equivalent graph

Is there a circuit in this graph that passes through each vertex exactly once?

Hamilton Circuits



Yes; this is a circuit that passes through each vertex exactly once.

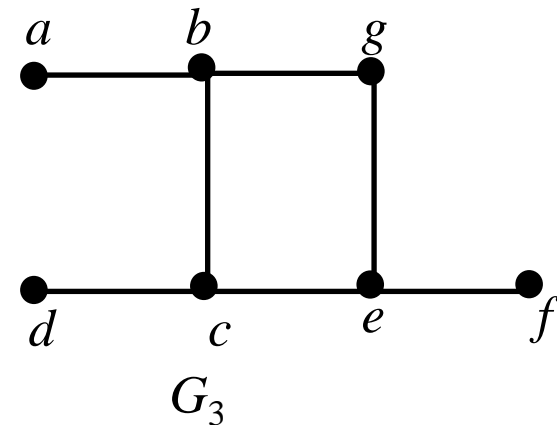
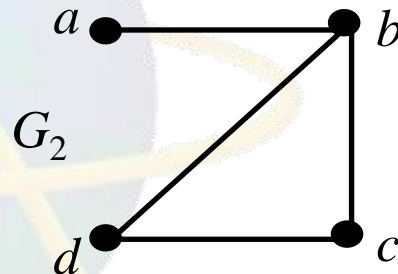
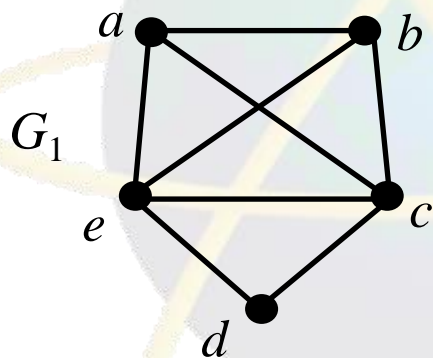


Hamilton Paths and Circuits

Def. 2: A *Hamilton path* is a path that traverses each vertex in a graph G exactly once.

A *Hamilton circuit* is a circuit that traverses each vertex in G exactly once.

Example 1. Which of the following graphs have a Hamilton circuit or a Hamilton path?



Hamilton circuit: G_1

Hamilton path: G_2

Theorem

If a graph G has a **Hamilton circuit**, then G has a subgraph H with the following properties:

1. H contains every vertex of G .
2. H is connected.
3. H has the same number of edges as vertices.
4. Every vertex of H has degree 2.

Example of Hamilton Circuit: Travelling Salesman Problem

A Hamilton circuit or path may be used to solve practical problems that require visiting “vertices”, such as:

- road intersections
- pipeline crossings
- communication network nodes

A classic example is the **Travelling Salesman Problem** – finding a Hamilton circuit in a complete graph such that the total weight of its edges is minimal.

Summary



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Property	Euler	Hamilton
Repeated visits to a given vertices allowed?	Yes	No
Repeated traversals of a given edge allowed?	No	No
Skipped vertices allowed?	No	No
Skipped edges allowed?	No	Yes



Special Simple Graphs

- **Complete Graphs:** A complete graph on n vertices, denoted by K_n , is a simple graph that contains exactly one edge between each pair of distinct vertices.
- **Non-complete:** A simple graph for which there is at least one pair of distinct vertex not connected by an edge is called non-complete.

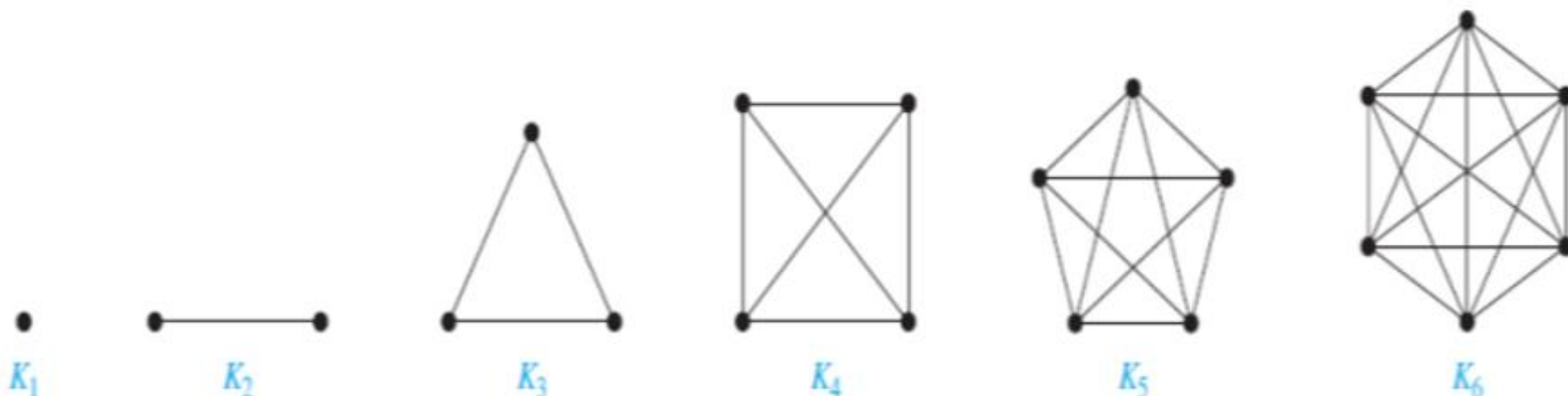


Figure: The Graphs K_n for $1 \leq n \leq 6$



Special Simple Graphs

- **Cycles:** A cycle C_n , $n \geq 3$, consists of n vertices v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n and edges $\{v_1, v_2\}, \{v_2, v_3\}, \dots, \{v_{n-1}, v_n\}$, and $\{v_n, v_1\}$.

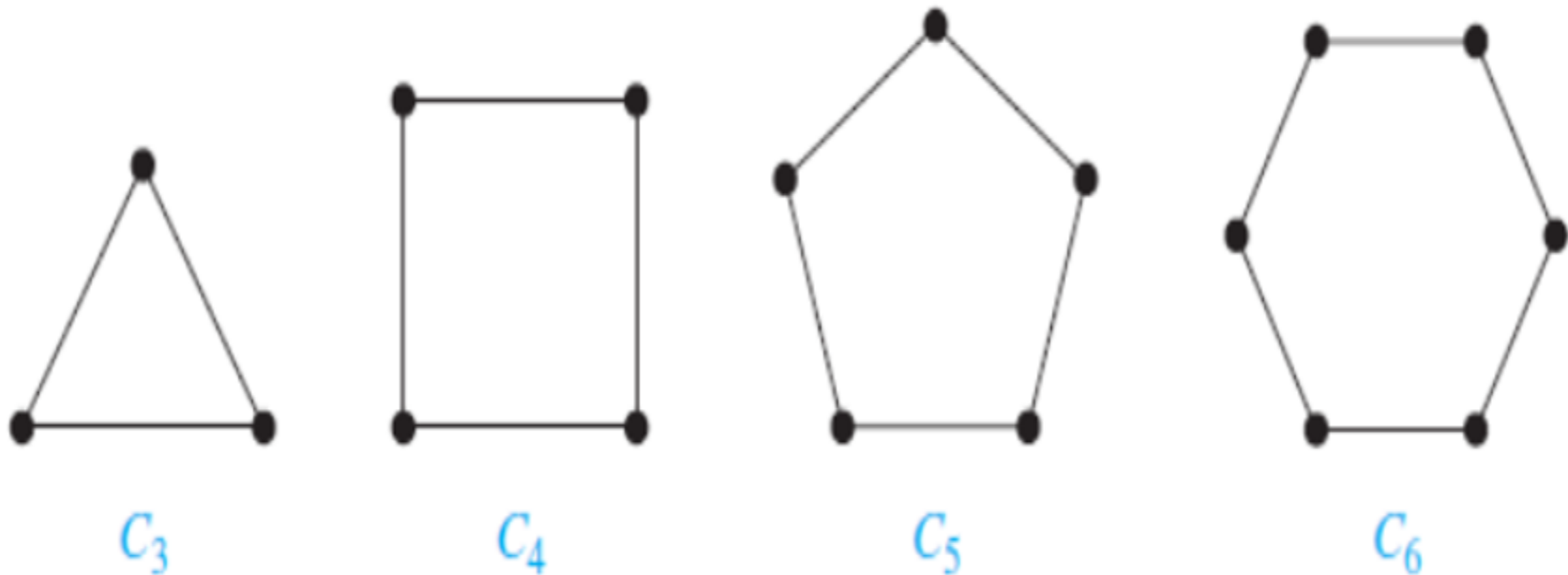


Figure 4.5: The Cycles C_3 , C_4 , C_5 , and C_6

Special Simple Graphs

- **Wheel:** We obtain the wheel W_n when we add an additional vertex to the cycle C_n , for $n \geq 3$, and connect this new vertex to each of the n vertices in C_n by adding new edges.

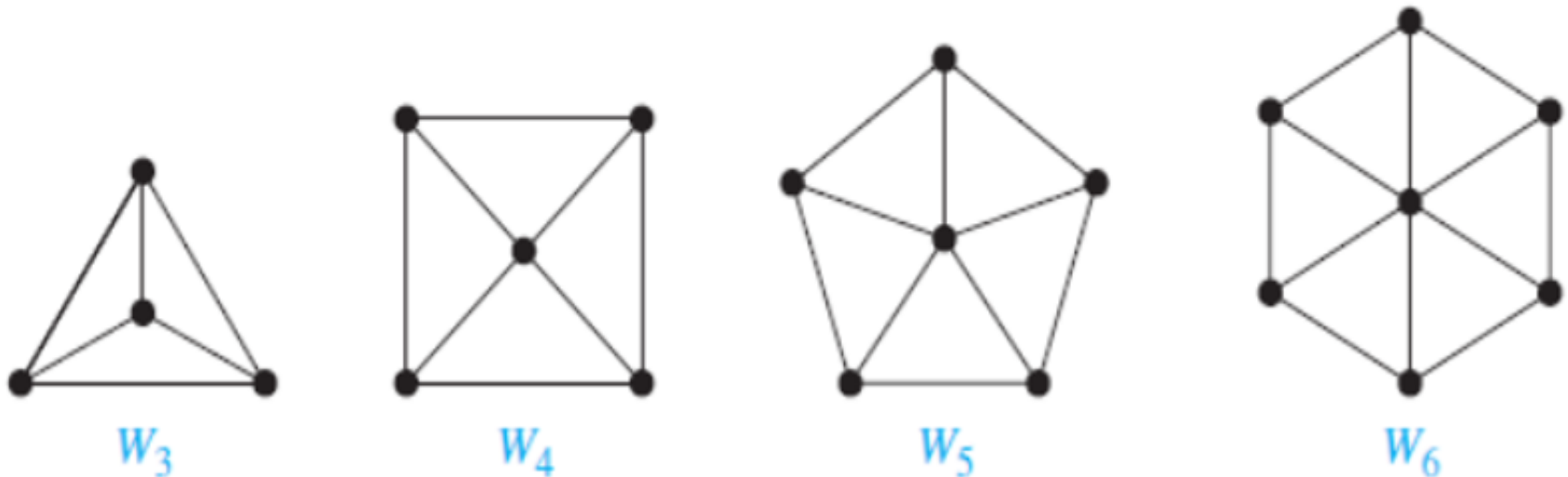


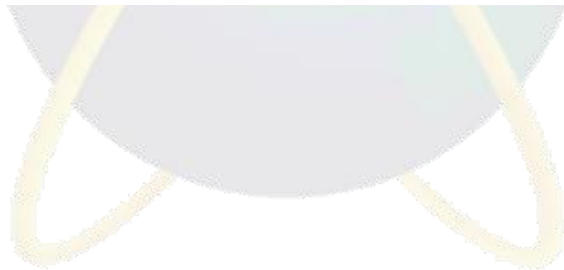
Figure 4.6: The Wheels W_3 , W_4 , W_5 , and W_6

- **Regular Graph:** A graph is regular if every vertex has the same degree.
 - Example: The complete graph K_n is regular of degree $n-1$.
 - Example: A cycle graph is regular of degree 2.



Special Simple Graphs

- **Bipartite Graphs:** A simple graph G is called bipartite if its vertex set V can be partitioned into two disjoint sets V_1 and V_2 such that every edge in the graph connects a vertex in V_1 and a vertex in V_2 *[so that no edges in G connect either two vertices in V_1 or two vertices in V_2].* When this condition holds, we call the pair (V_1, V_2) a bipartition of the vertex set V of G .





Special Simple Graphs

- **Example I:** Is C_3 bipartite?
 - No, because there is no way to partition the vertices into two sets so that there are no edges with both endpoints in the same set.
- **Example2:** Is C_6 bipartite?
 - C_6 is bipartite because its vertex set can be partitioned into the two sets $V_1 = \{v_1, v_3, v_5\}$ and $V_2 = \{v_2, v_4, v_6\}$, and every edge of C_6 connects a vertex in V_1 and a vertex in V_2 .

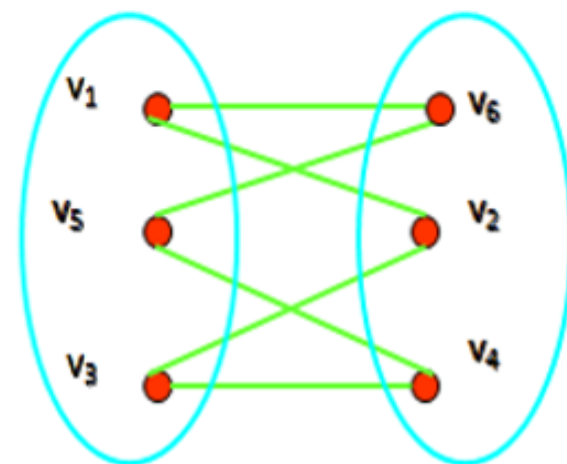
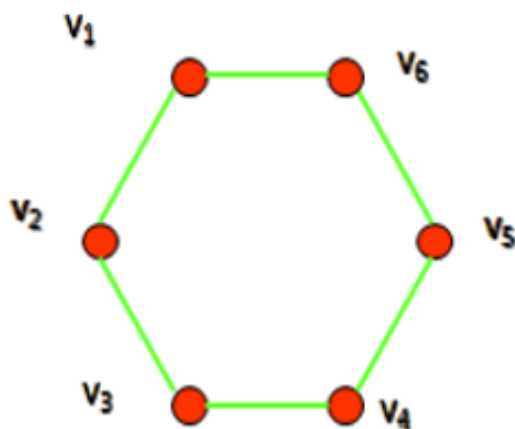


Figure: C_6 change into Bipartite

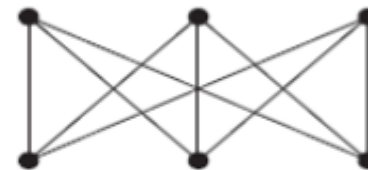


Special Simple Graphs

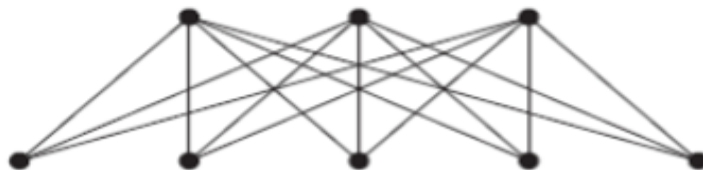
- **Complete Bipartite:** Graphs A complete bipartite graph $K_{m,n}$ is a graph that has its vertex set partitioned into two subsets of m and n vertices, respectively with an edge between two vertices if and only if one vertex is in the first subset and the other vertex is in the second subset.



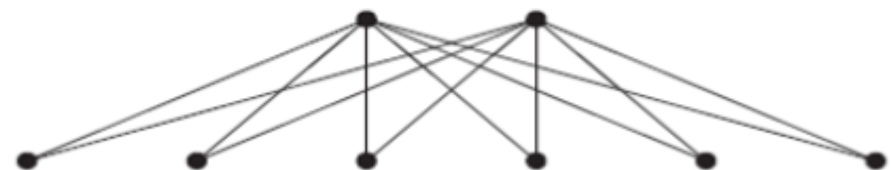
$K_{2,3}$



$K_{3,3}$



$K_{3,5}$



$K_{2,6}$

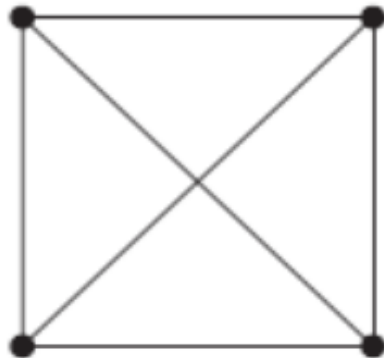
Figure: Complete Bipartite

Planner Graph

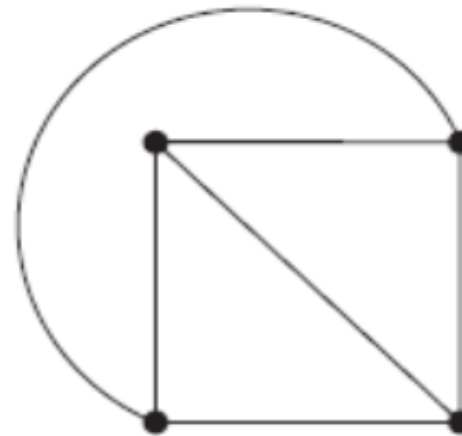


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- **Planar Graph:** A graph is called planar if it can be drawn in the plane without any edges crossing, i.e., it can be drawn on the plane in such a way that its edges intersect only at their endpoints. In other words, it can be drawn in such a way that no edges cross each other.
- *Example 1: Is K_4 planar?*
 - ✓ Solution: K_4 is planar because it can be drawn without crossings, as shown in Figure.



Graph K_4



K_4 drawn with no crossing

Graph Coloring

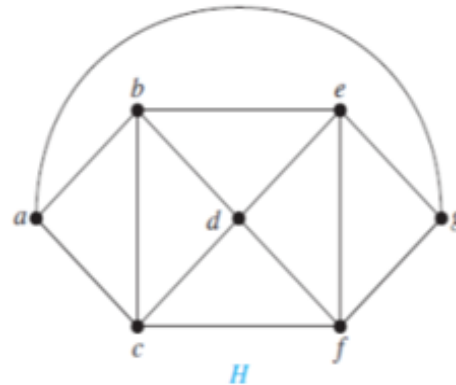
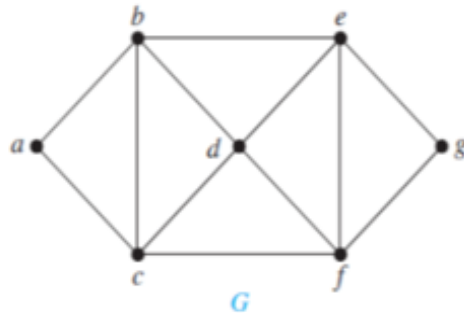
- **Graph Coloring:** A coloring of a simple graph is the assignment of a color to each vertex of the graph so that no two adjacent vertices are assigned the same color.
- **Chromatic number:** The chromatic number of a graph is the least number of colors needed for a coloring of this graph. The chromatic number of a graph G is denoted by $\chi(G)$. (Here χ is the Greek letter chi.)
- **Theorem 1: The Four-Color Theorem:** The chromatic number of a planar graph is no greater than four.



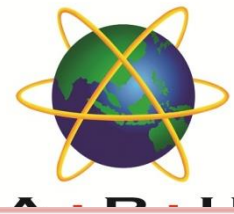


Graph Coloring

- **Example1:** What are the chromatic numbers of the graphs G and H shown in Figure?



- **Solution:** The chromatic number of G is at least three, because the vertices a, b, and c must be assigned different colors. To see if G can be colored with three colors, assign red to a, blue to b, and green to c. Then, d can (and must) be colored red because it is adjacent to b and c. Furthermore, e can (and must) be colored green because it is adjacent only to vertices colored red and blue, and f can (and must) be colored blue because it is adjacent only to vertices colored red and green. Finally, g can (and must) be colored red because it is adjacent only to vertices colored blue and green. This produces a coloring of G using exactly three colors.



Graph Coloring

- The graph H is made up of the graph G with an edge connecting a and g . Any attempt to color H using three colors must follow the same reasoning as that used to color G , except at the last stage, when all vertices other than g have been colored. Then, because g is adjacent (in H) to vertices colored red, blue, and green, a fourth color, say brown, needs to be used. Hence, H has a chromatic number equal to 4.

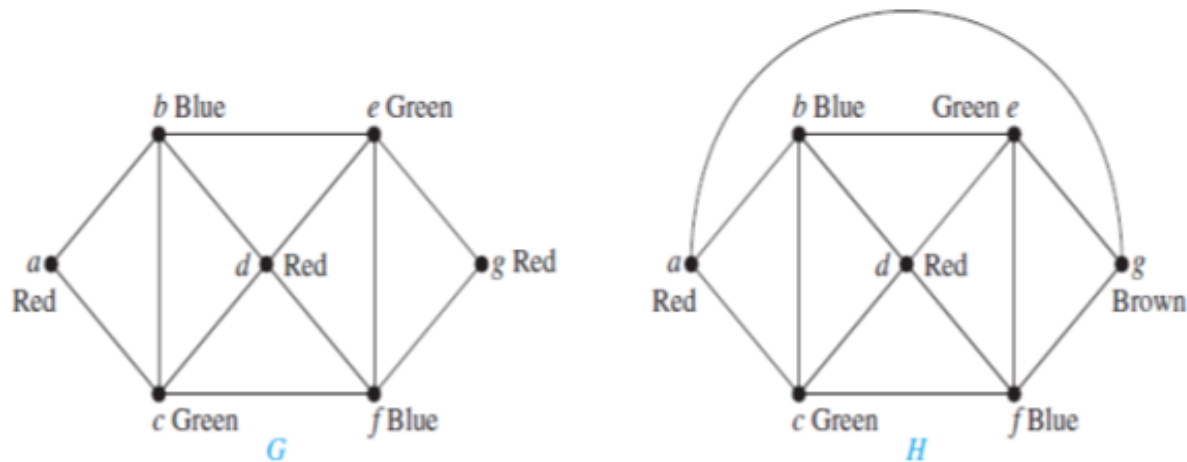


Figure: After Coloring Graph G and H



Graph Coloring

■ Example 2: *What is the chromatic number of K_n ?*

- Solution: A coloring of K_n can be constructed using n colors by assigning a different color to each vertex. No two vertices can be assigned the same color, because every two vertices of this graph are adjacent. Hence, the chromatic number of K_n is n . That is, $\chi(K_n) = n$.

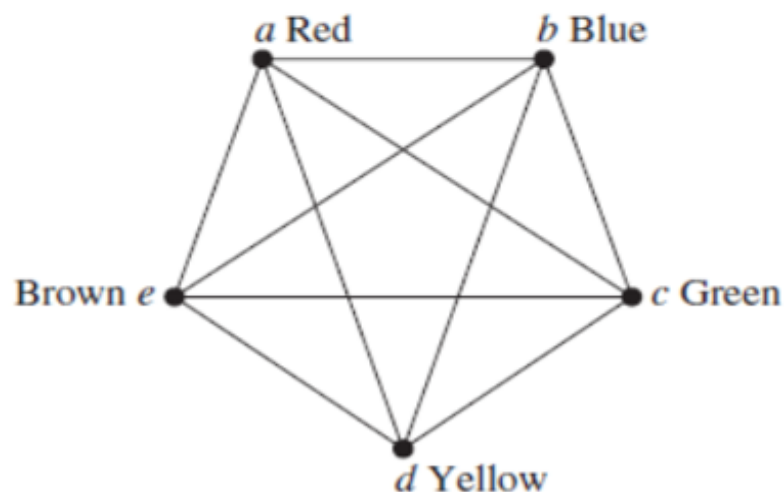


Figure: A Coloring of K_5



Graph Coloring

- **Example 3:** *What is the chromatic number of the complete bipartite graph $K_{m,n}$, where m and n are positive integers?*
 - Solution: The number of colors needed may seem to depend on m and n . Only two colors are needed, because $K_{m,n}$ is a bipartite graph. Hence, $\chi(K_{m,n}) = 2$. This means that we can color the set of m vertices with one color and the set of n vertices with a second color. Because edges connect only a vertex from the set of m vertices and a vertex from the set of n vertices, no two adjacent vertices have the same color.

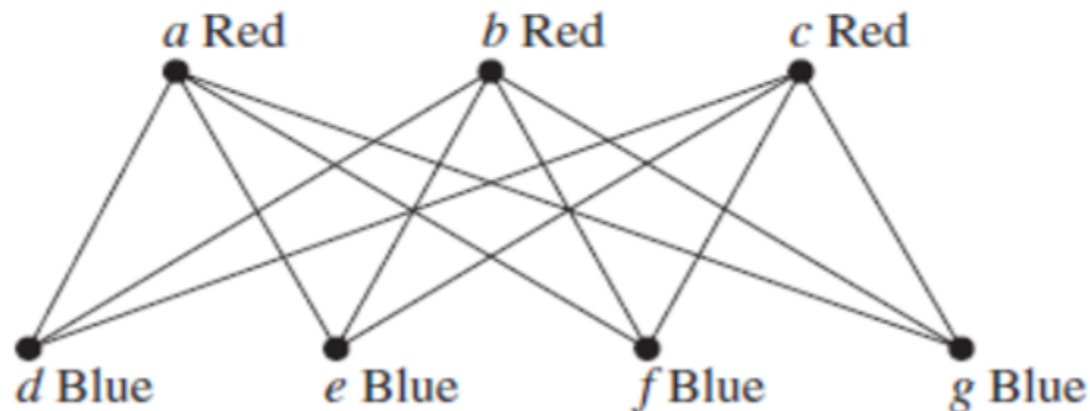


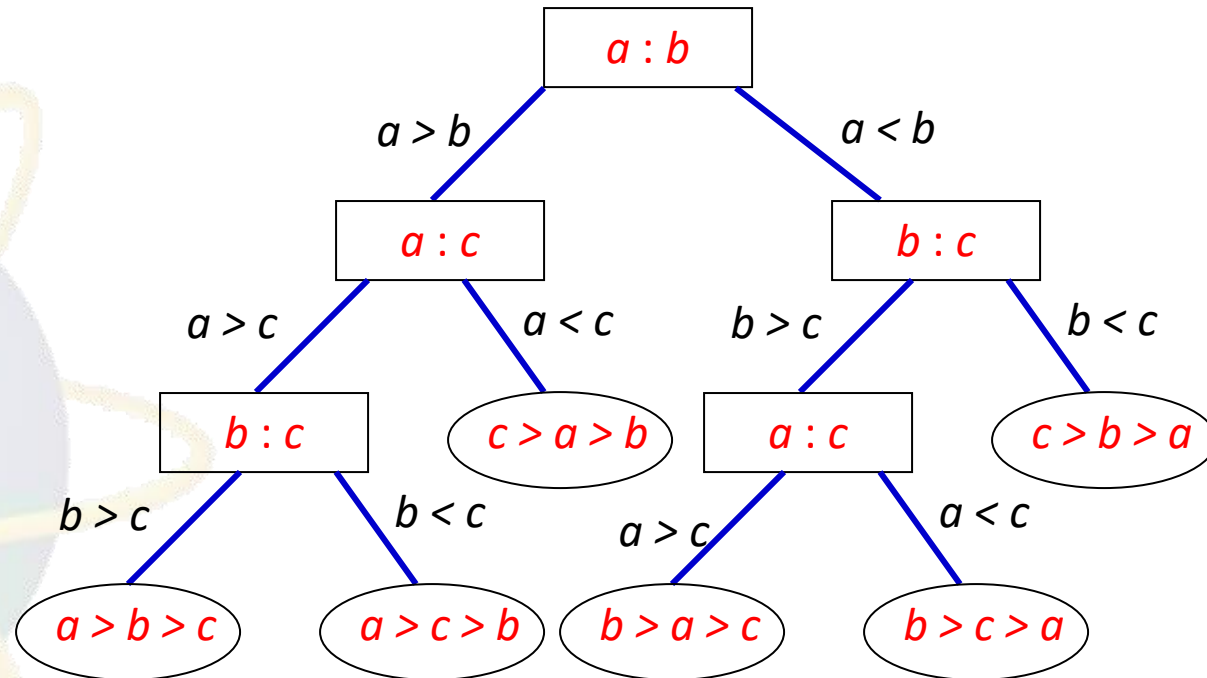
Figure: A Coloring of $K_{3,4}$

Example of Tree: Decision Trees

- A rooted tree in which each internal vertex corresponds to a decision, with a subtree at these vertices for each possible outcome of decision.
- The possible solutions of the problem correspond to the paths to the leaves of this rooted tree.

EXAMPLE

A Decision tree that orders the elements of the list a, b, c



Tree

Definition:

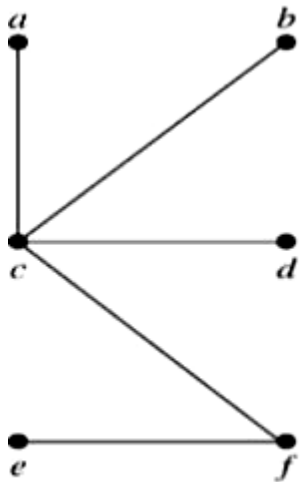
- A tree is a connected undirected graph with no simple circuits.
- Since a tree cannot have a circuit, a tree cannot contain multiple edges or loops.
- Therefore, any tree must be a simple graph.

Theorem:

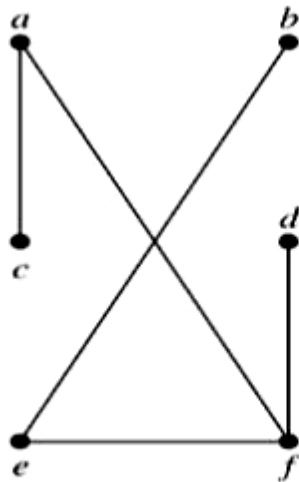
- An undirected graph is a tree if and only if there is a unique simple path between any two of its vertices.
- In general, we use trees to represent hierarchical structures.



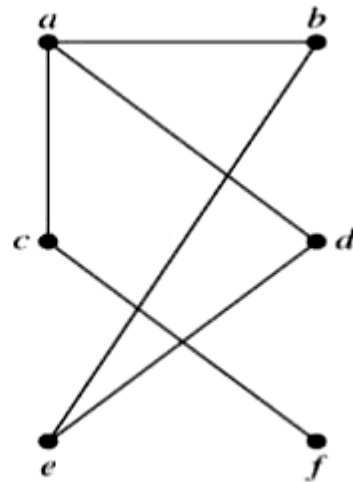
Example 1. Which of the graphs are trees?



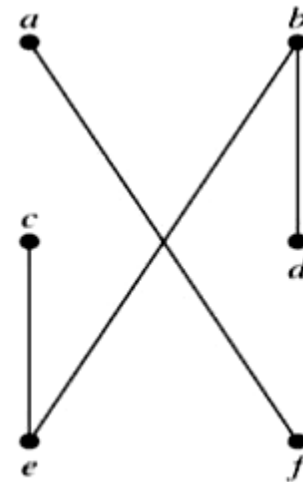
G_1



G_2



G_3



G_4

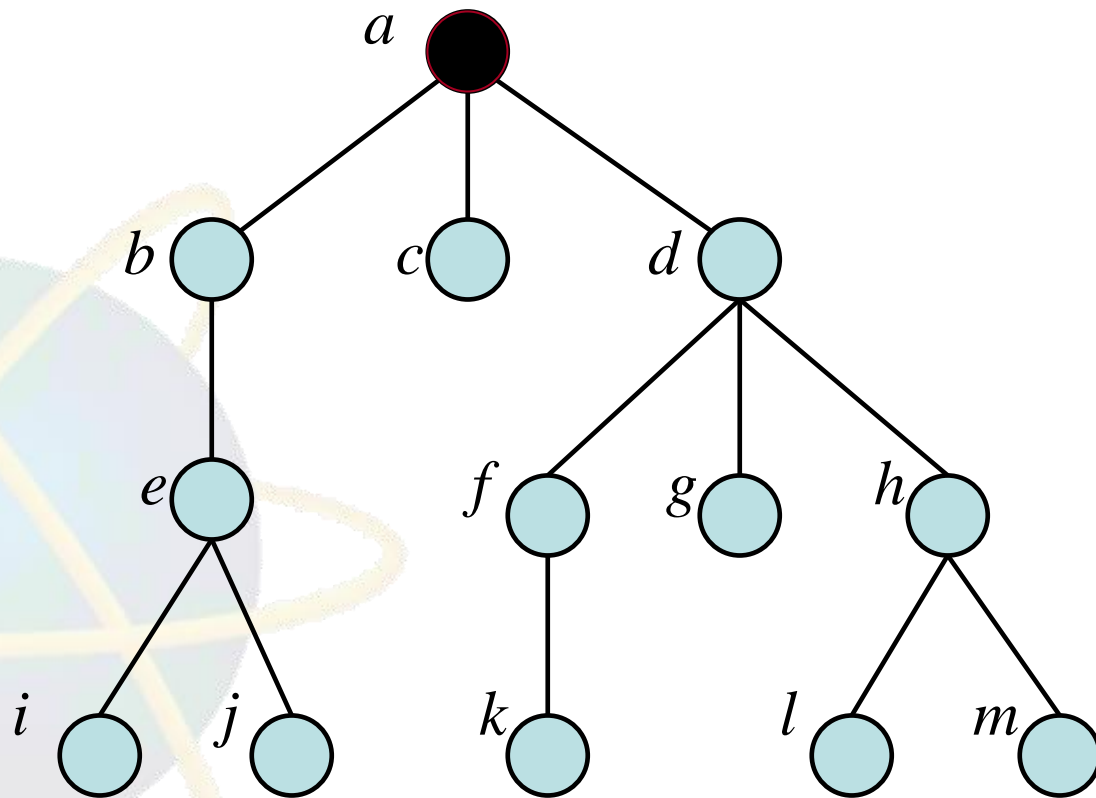
Sol: G_1, G_2

Tree Terminology

- If v is a vertex of tree T other than the root, the **parent** of v is the unique vertex u such that there is a directed edge from u to v .
- When u is the parent of v , v is called the **child** of u .
- If two vertices share the same parent, then they are called **siblings**.

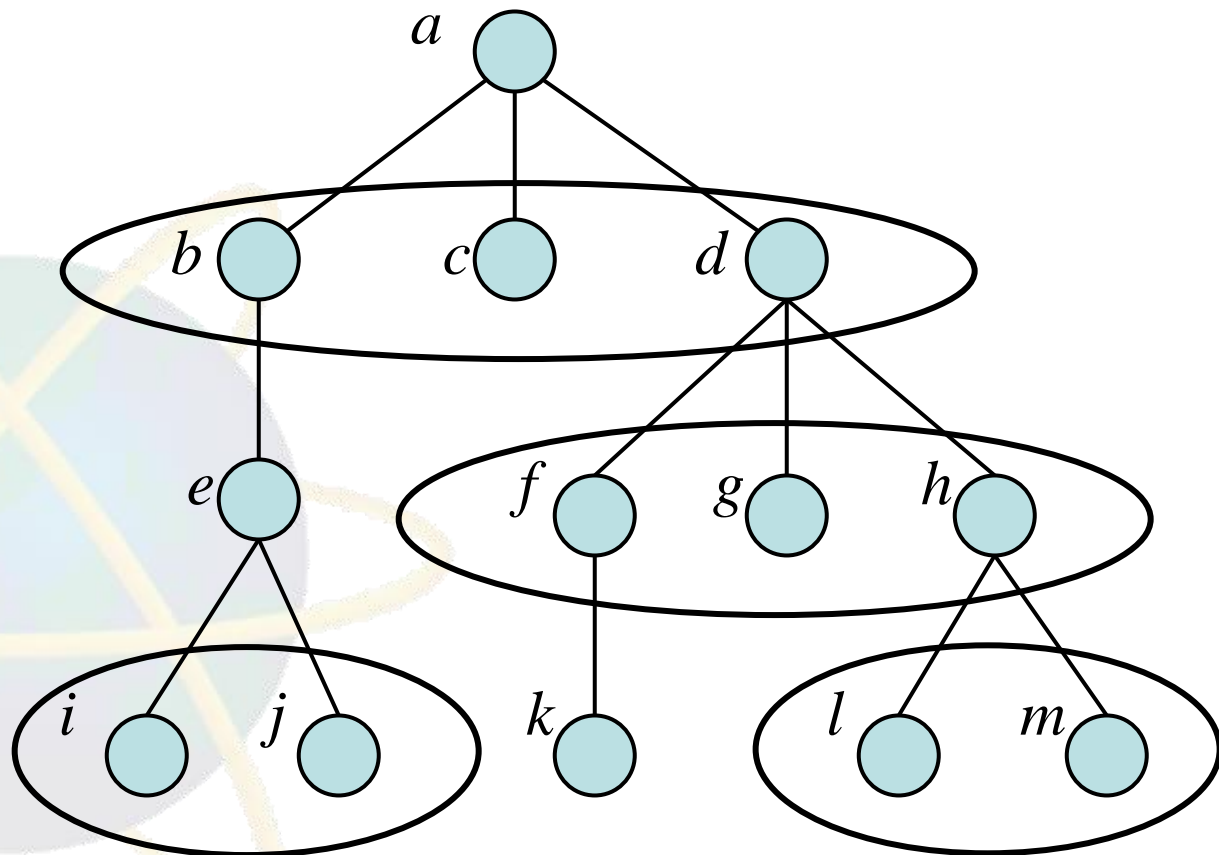
Example

Root



Example

Siblings

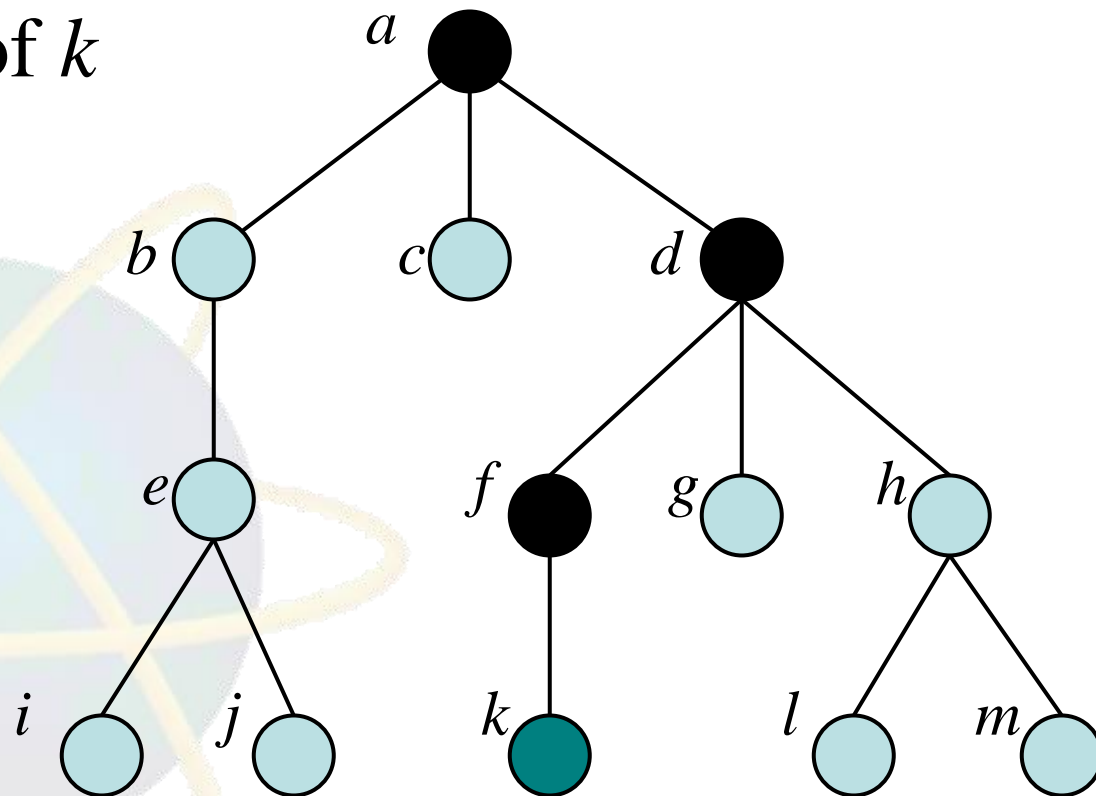


Tree Terminology (Cont.)

- The **ancestors** of a vertex other than the root are the vertices in the path from the root to this vertex, excluding the vertex itself and including the root.
- The **descendants** of a vertex v are those vertices that have v as an ancestor.

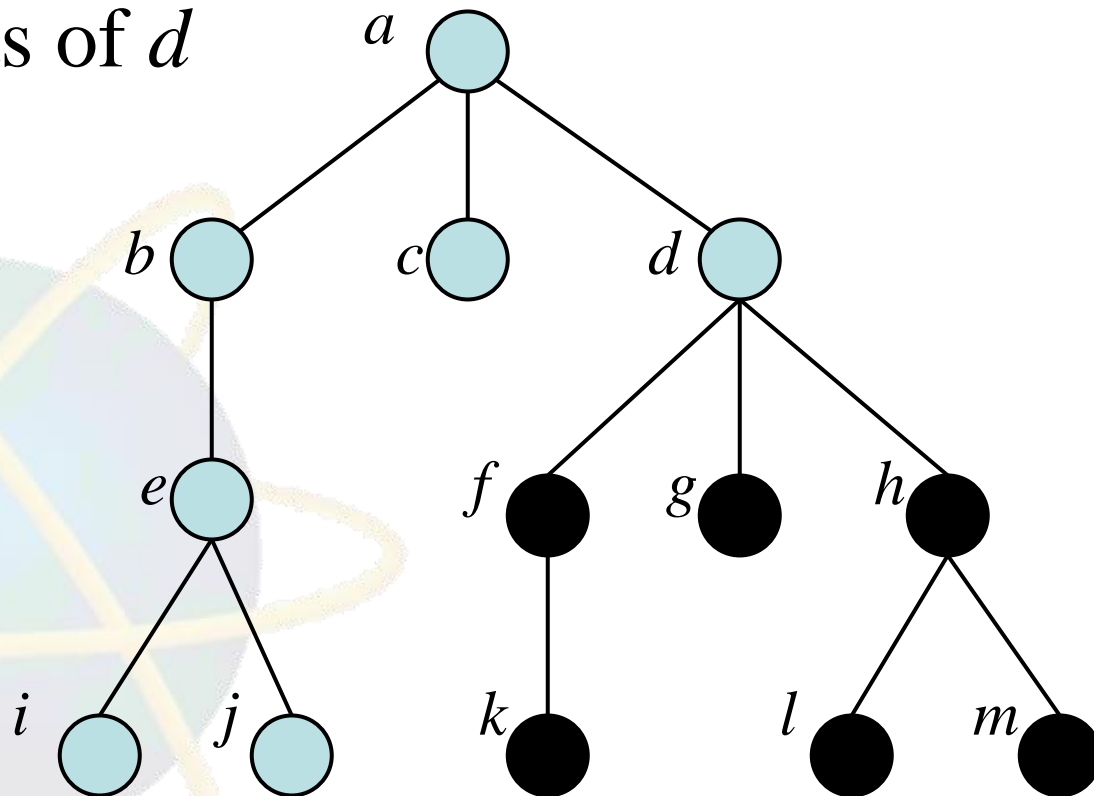
Example

Ancestors of k



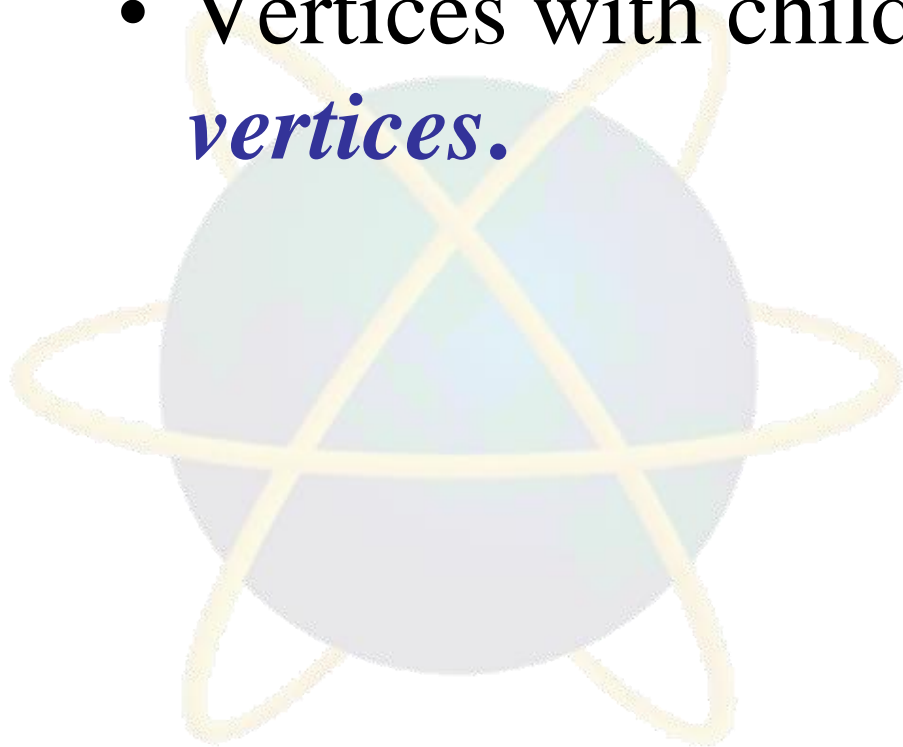
Example

Descendants of d



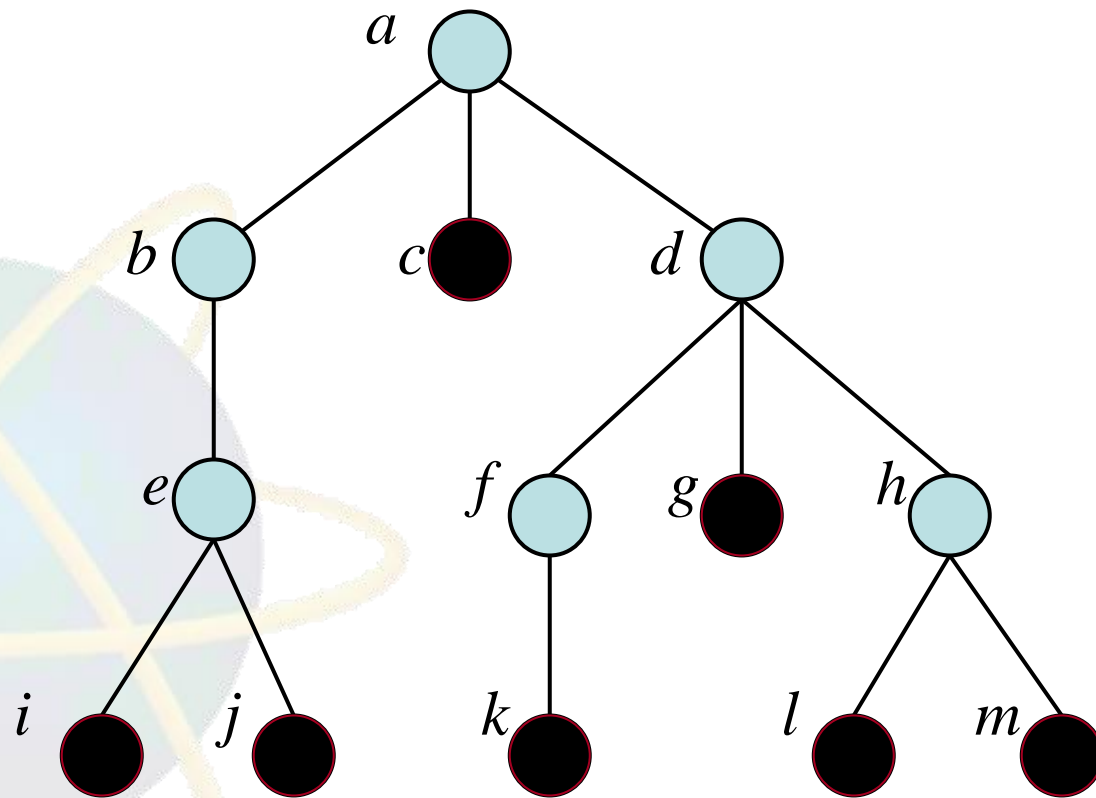
Tree Terminology (Cont.)

- A vertex with no children is called a **leaf**.
- Vertices with children are called ***internal vertices***.



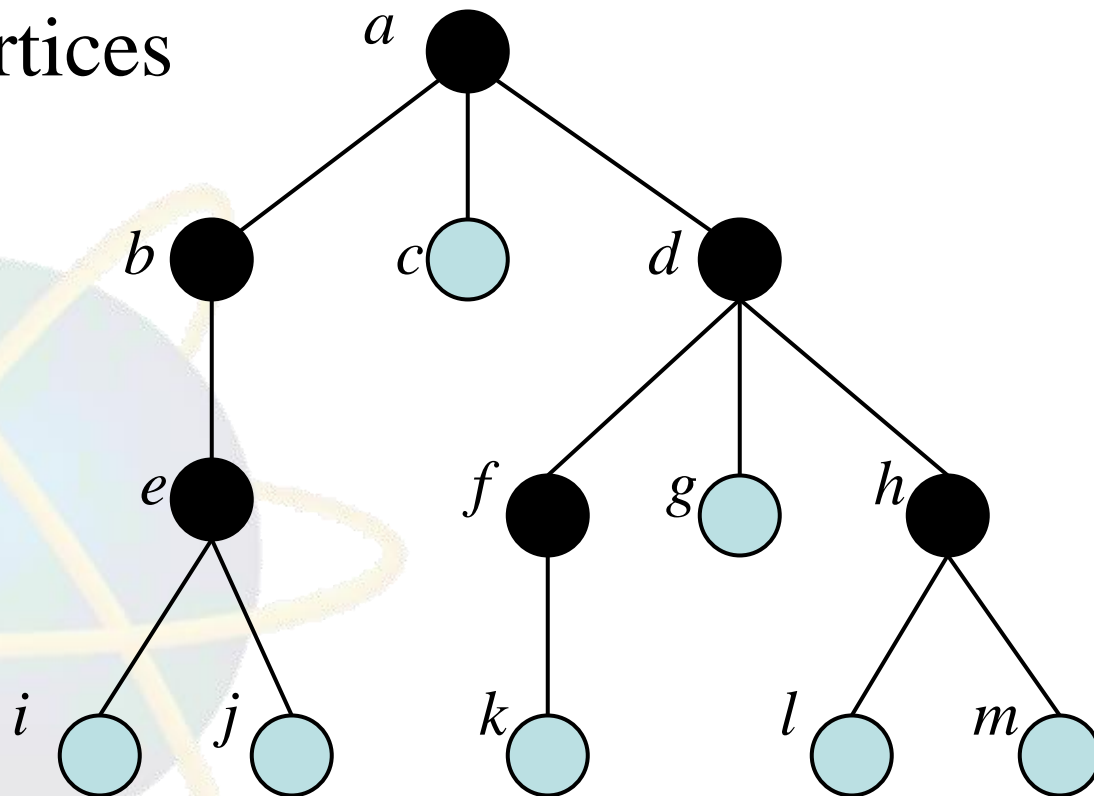
Example

Leaves



Example

Internal vertices



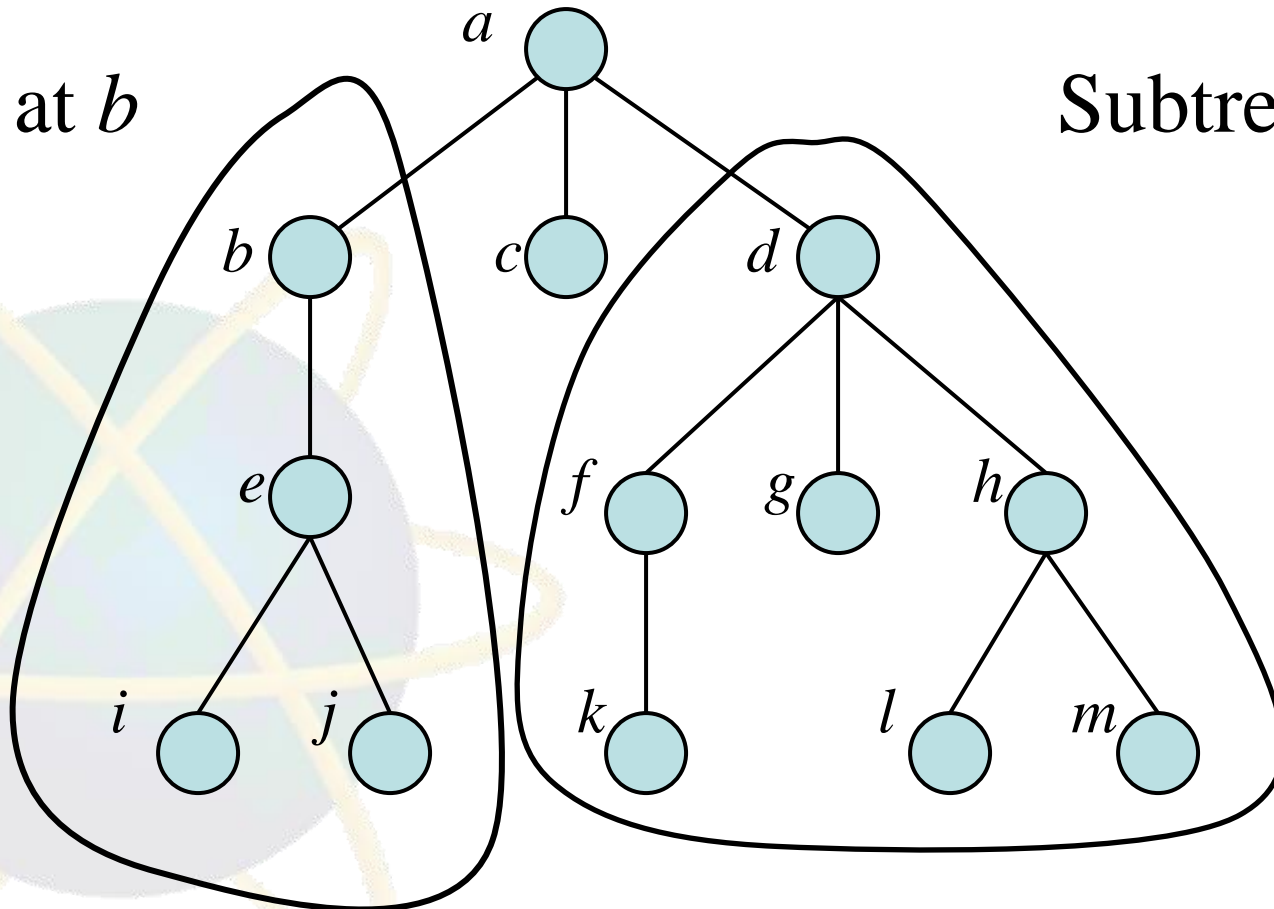
Tree Terminology (Cont.)

- If a is a vertex in a tree, the **subtree** with a as its root is:
 - the subgraph of the tree consisting of a and its descendants, and
 - all edges incident to these descendants.

Example

Subtree at b

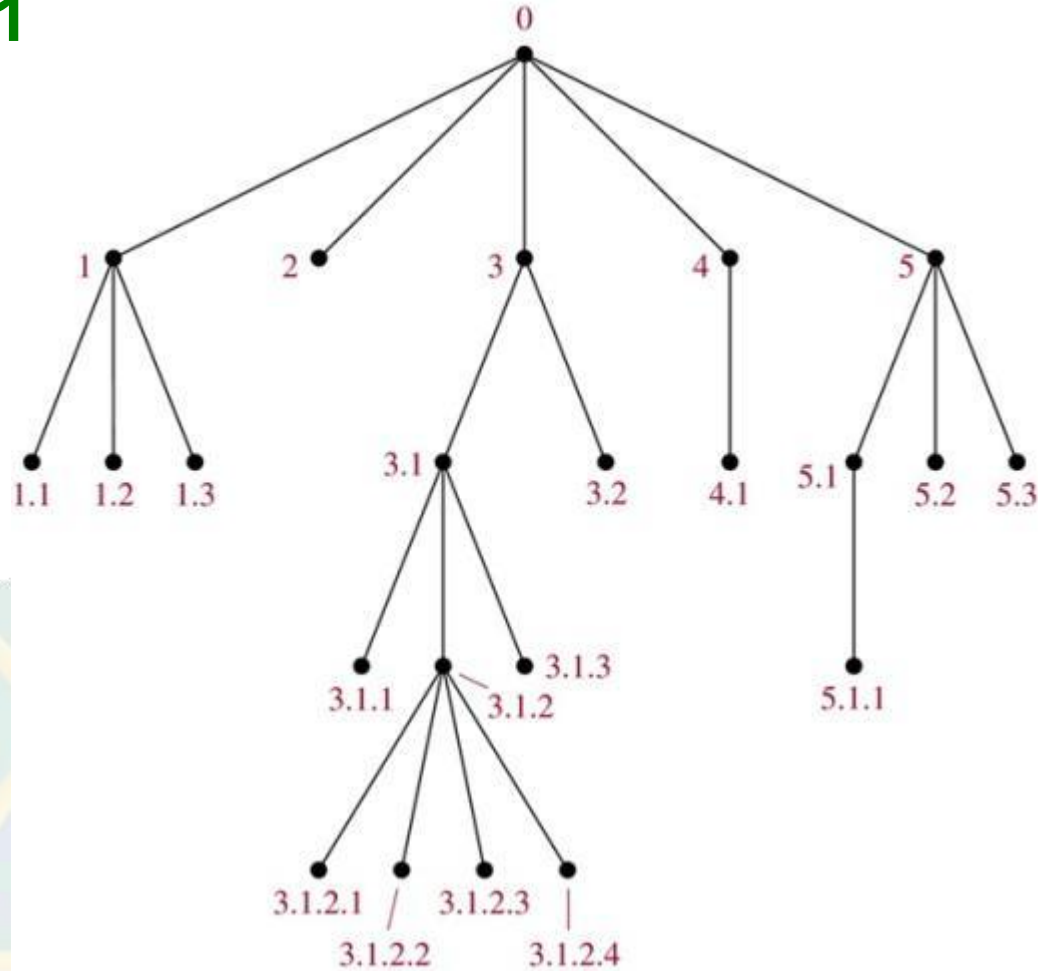
Subtree at d



Tree Traversal

- Ordered trees are often used to restore data/info.
- Tree traversal is a procedure for systematically **visiting each vertex** of an ordered rooted tree to access data.
- Tree traversal algorithm
 - Preorder, inorder and postorder traversal

Example 1

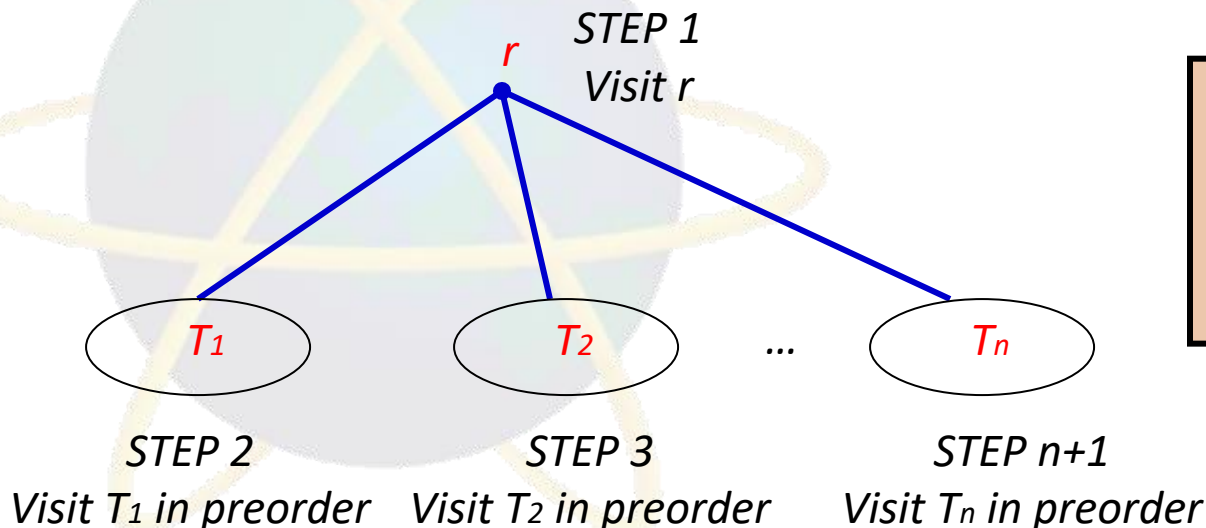


The lexicographic ordering is:

$0 < 1 < 1.1 < 1.2 < 1.3 < 2 < 3 < 3.1 < 3.1.1 < 3.1.2 < 3.1.2.1 < 3.1.2.2 < 3.1.2.3 < 3.1.2.4 < 3.1.3 < 3.2 < 4 < 4.1 < 5 < 5.1 < 5.1.1 < 5.2 < 5.3$

Preorder Traversal

- Let T be an ordered rooted tree with root r .
 - If T consists only of r , then r is the **preorder** traversal of T .
 - If T_1, T_2, \dots, T_n are subtrees at r from left to right in T , then the preorder traversal begins by visiting r , continues by traversing T_1 in preorder, then T_2 in preorder, and so on until T_n is traversed in preorder.



TIPS

Preorder Traversal:
Visit root, visit
subtrees left to right

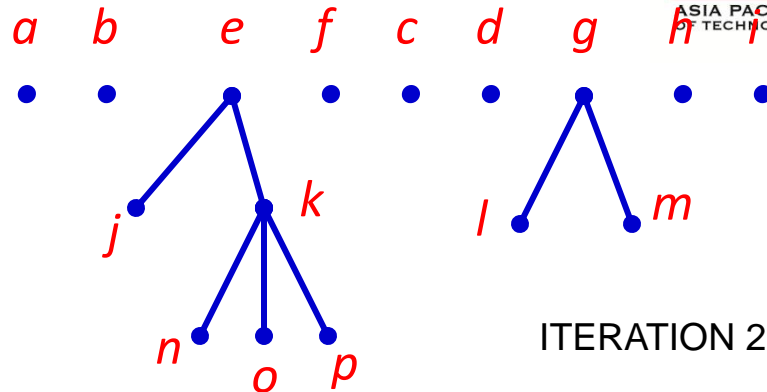
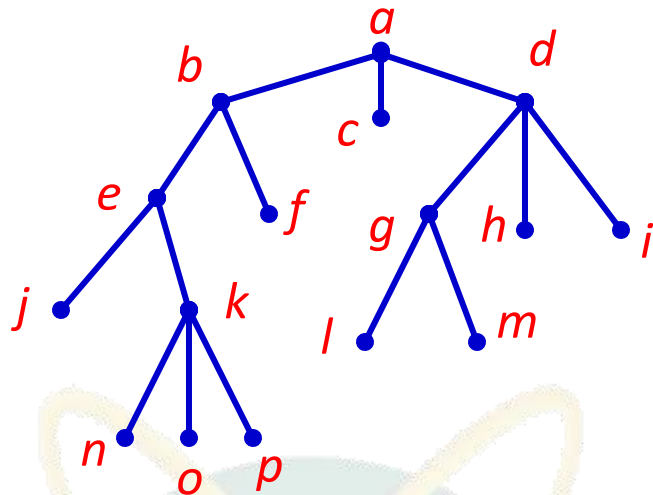


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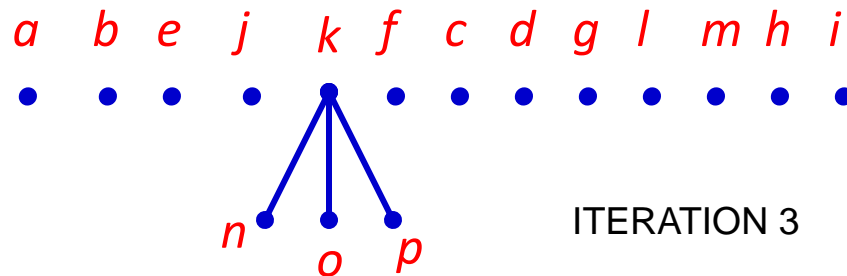
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EXAMPLE: Preorder Traversal

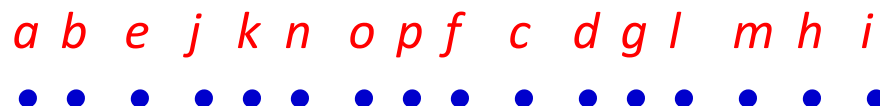
T



ITERATION 2



ITERATION 3



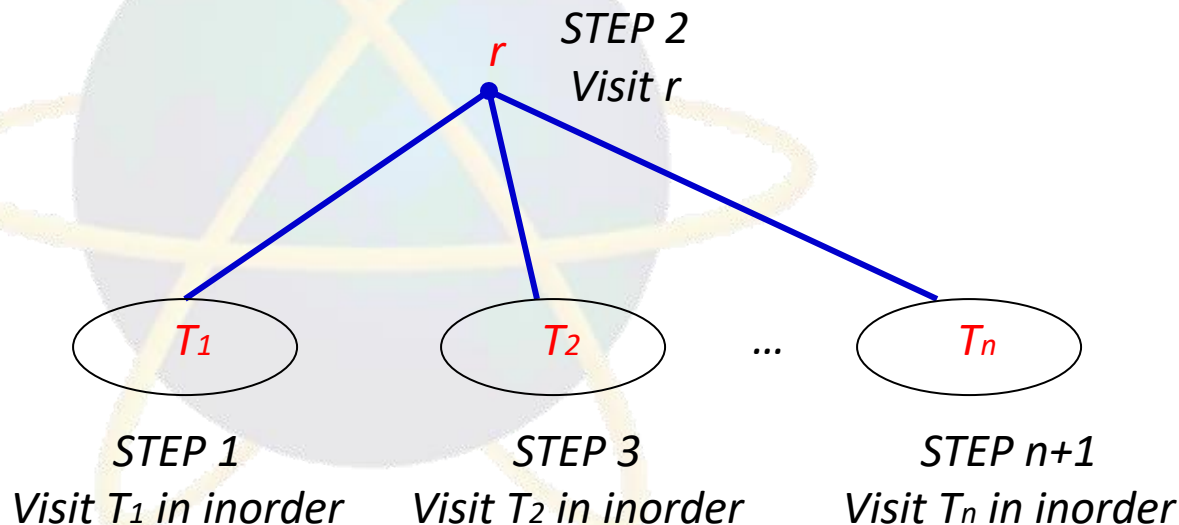
ITERATION 4

The preorder traversal of T

ITERATION 1

Inorder Traversal

- Let T be an ordered rooted tree with root r .
 - If T consists only of r , then r is the *inorder* traversal of T .
 - If T_1, T_2, \dots, T_n are subtrees at r from left to right in T , then the inorder traversal begins by traversing T_1 in inorder, then visiting r , continues by traversing T_2 in inorder, and so on until T_n is traversed in inorder.



TIPS

Inorder Traversal:
Visit leftmost
subtree, Visit root,
Visit other subtrees
left to right.

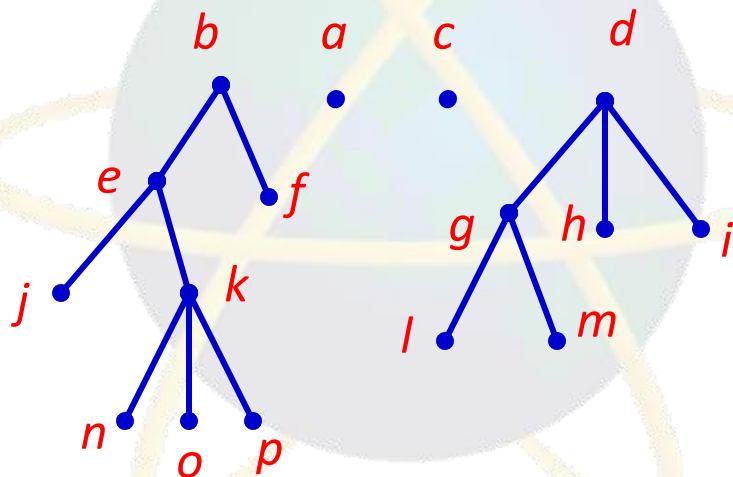
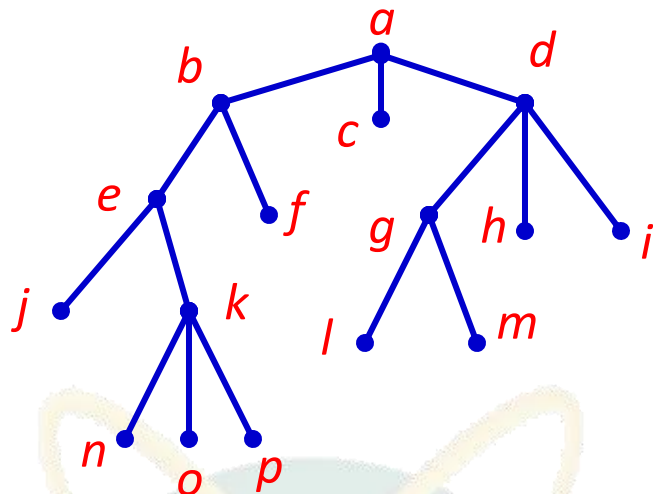
EXAMPLE: Inorder Traversal



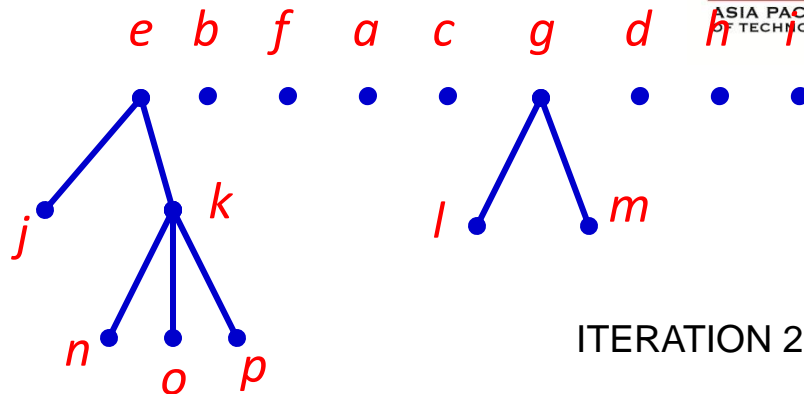
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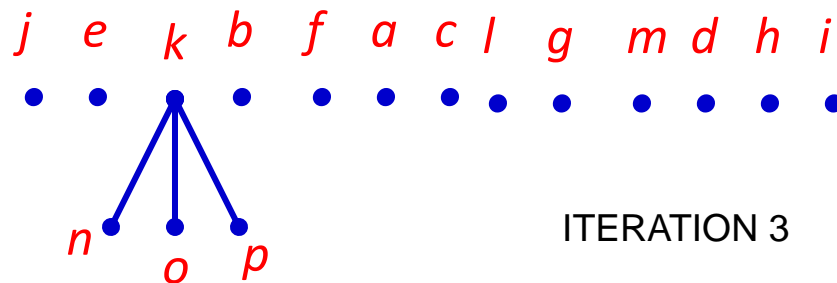
T



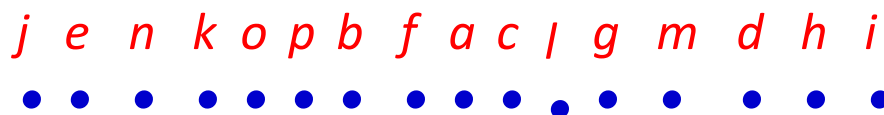
ITERATION 1



ITERATION 2



ITERATION 3

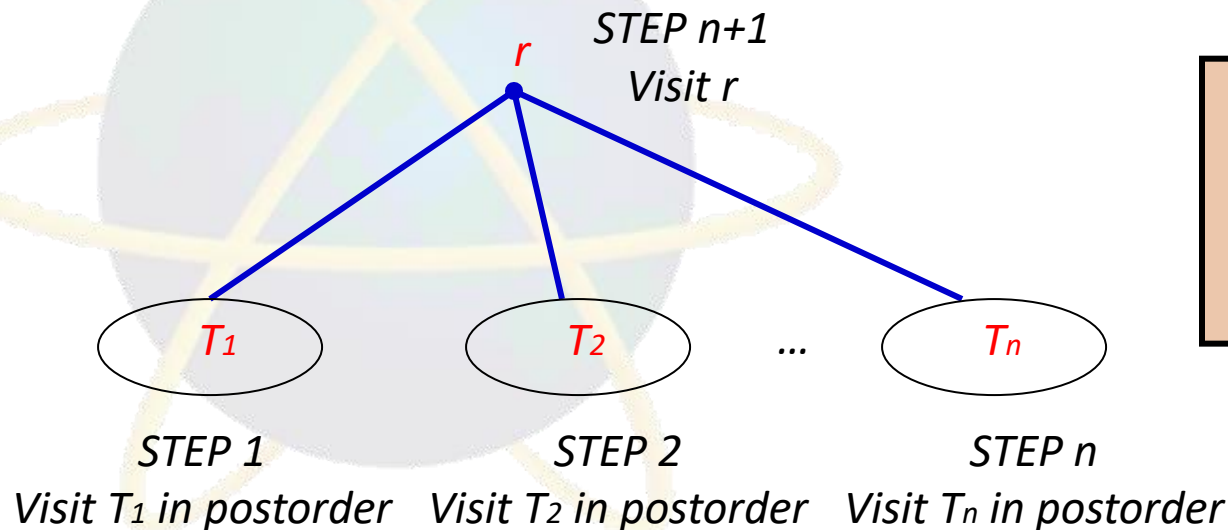


ITERATION 4

The inorder traversal of T

Postorder Traversal

- Let T be an ordered rooted tree with root r .
 - If T consists only of r , then r is the *postorder* traversal of T .
 - If T_1, T_2, \dots, T_n are subtrees at r from left to right in T , then the preorder traversal begins by traversing T_1 in postorder, then T_2 in postorder, and so on until T_n is traversed in postorder and ends by visiting r .



TIPS

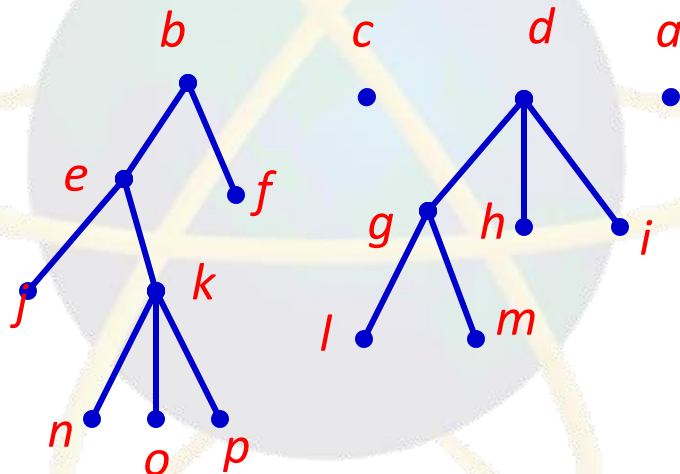
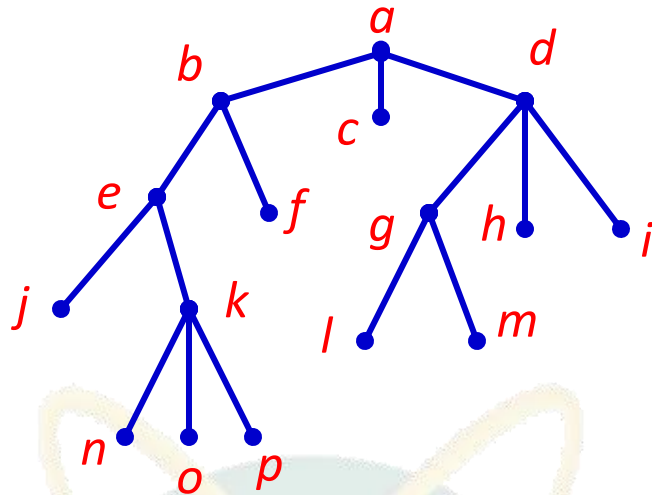
Postorder Traversal:
Visit subtrees left to
right, Visit root.

EXAMPLE: Postorder Traversal

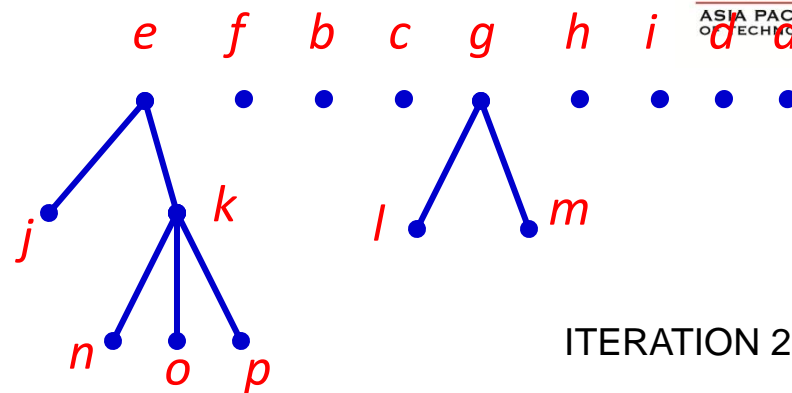


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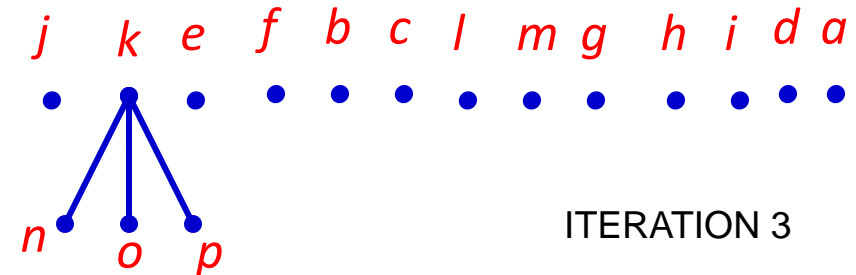
T



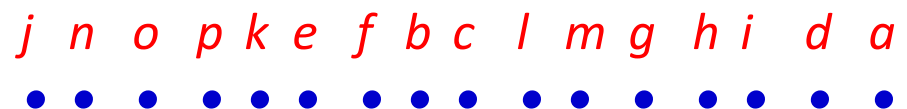
ITERATION 1



ITERATION 2



ITERATION 3



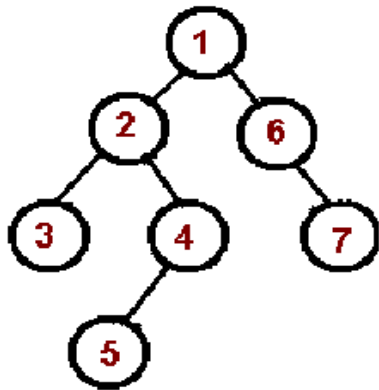
ITERATION 4

The postorder traversal of T

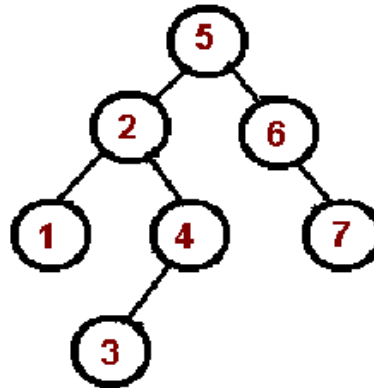


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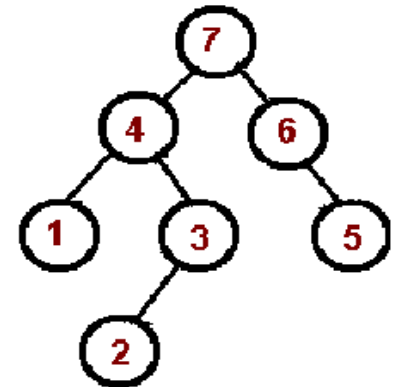
Summary



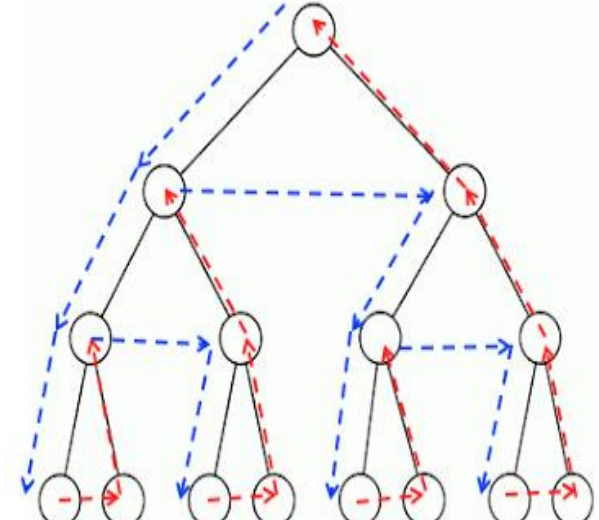
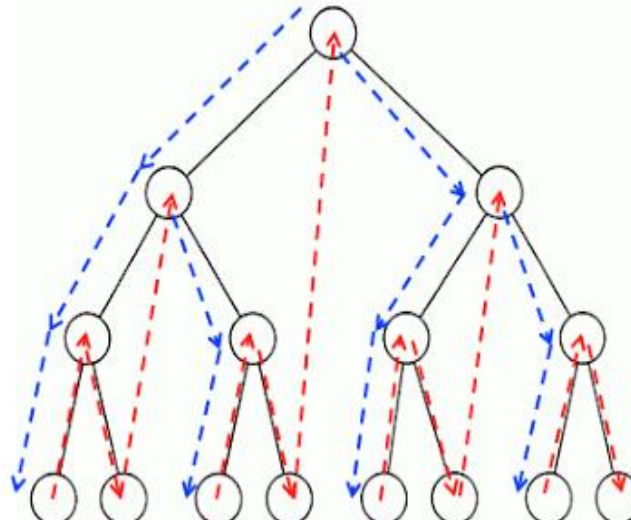
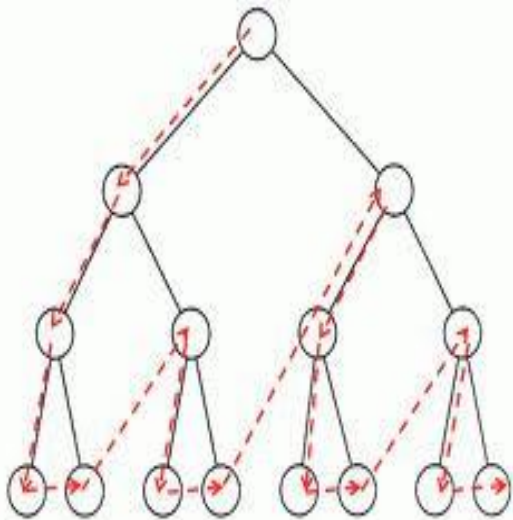
preorder



inorder



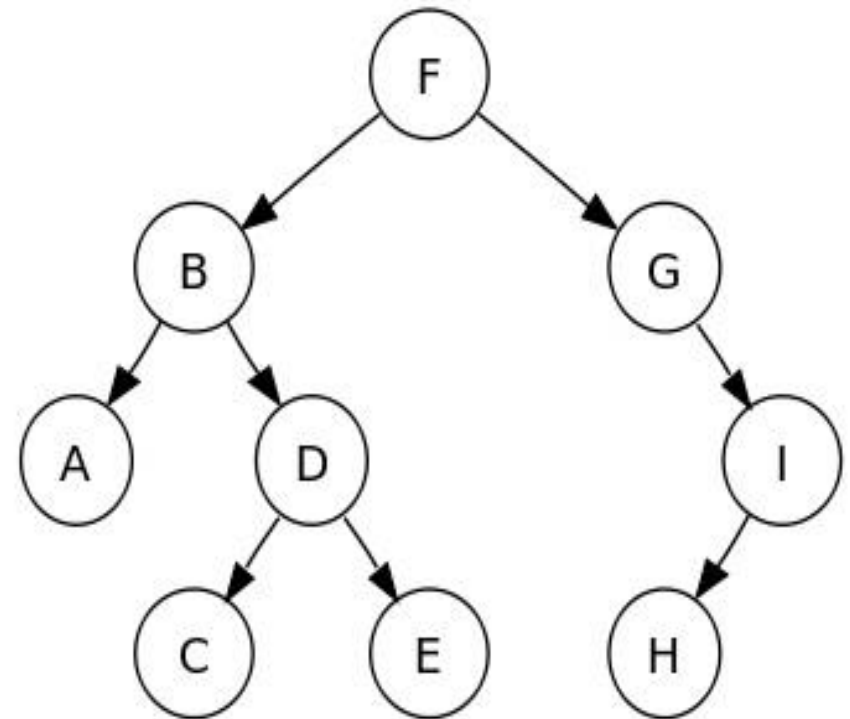
postorder



Exercise

In which order does
a) preorder traversal
b) inorder traversal
c) postorder traversal
visit the vertices in the ordered
rooted tree?

Binary tree:



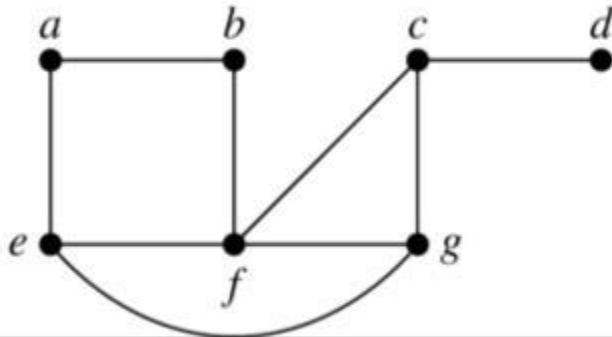
- Preorder traversal sequence: F, B, A, D, C, E, G, I, H (root, left, right)
- Inorder traversal sequence: A, B, C, D, E, F, G, H, I (left, root, right)
- Postorder traversal sequence: A, C, E, D, B, H, I, G, F (left, right, root)

Spanning Trees

Introduction

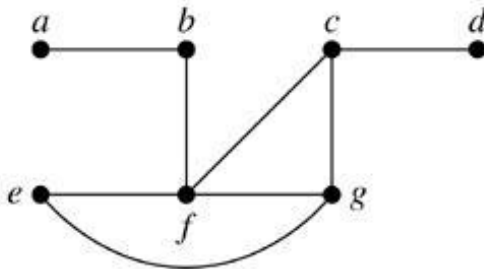
Def. Let G be a simple graph. A **spanning tree** of G is a subgraph of G that is a tree containing every vertex of G .

Example 1 Find a spanning tree of G .



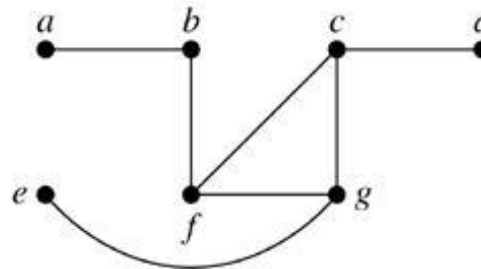
Sol.

Remove an edge from any circuit.
(repeat until no circuit exists)



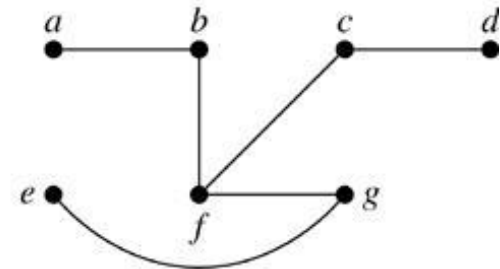
Edge removed: $\{a, e\}$

(a)



$\{e, f\}$

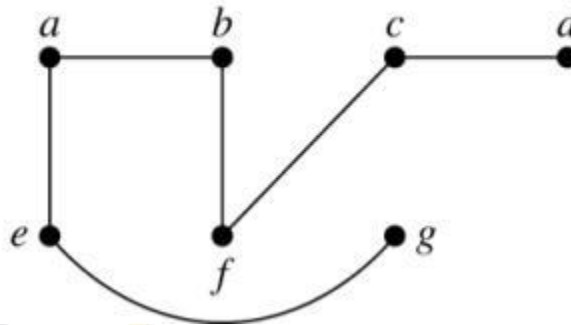
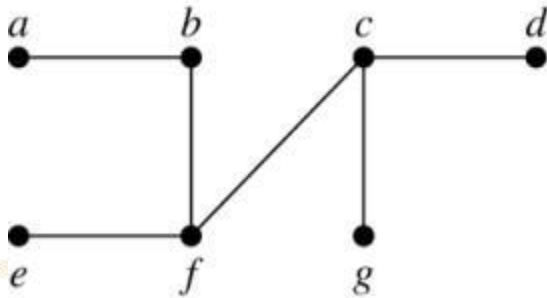
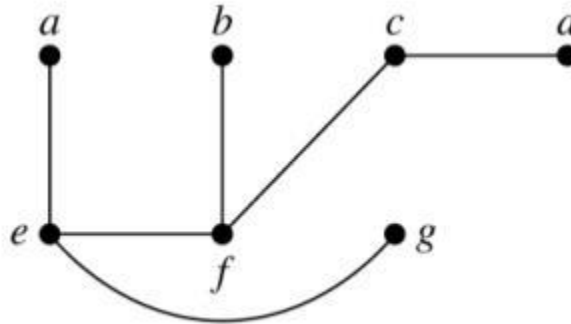
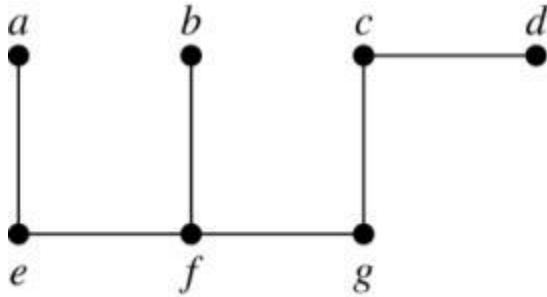
(b)



$\{c, g\}$

(c)

Four spanning trees of G :



Thm 1 A simple graph is connected if and only if it has a spanning tree.

Spanning Trees

- **Spanning Tree:** Let G be a simple graph. A spanning tree of G is a subgraph of G that is a tree containing every vertex of G .
- A simple graph is connected if and only if it has a spanning tree.

Properties of spanning tree

1. Connected graph G can have more than one spanning tree.
2. All possible spanning trees of graph G have the same number of edges and vertices.
3. A spanning tree does not have any cycle.
4. A complete undirected graph can have maximum n^{n-2} number of spanning trees, where n is the number of nodes. In above graph G , $4^{4-2} = 4^2 \Rightarrow 16$ spanning trees are possible.
5. Spanning tree must include every vertex of graph G .
6. A spanning tree can't be disconnected. That means it is minimally connected.
7. A spanning tree has n vertices and $n - 1$ edges.



Spanning Trees

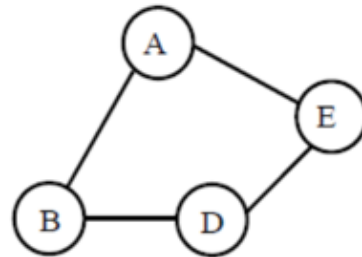
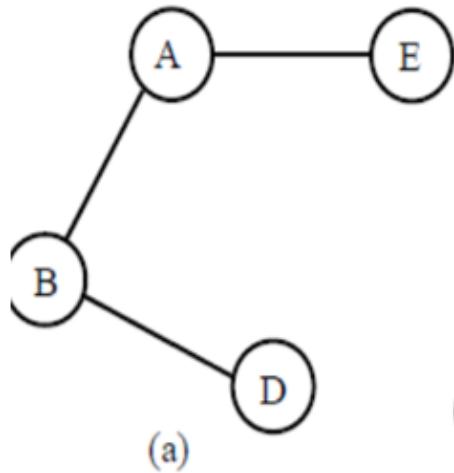
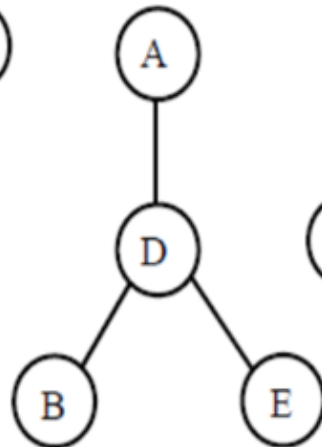


Figure: Graph G

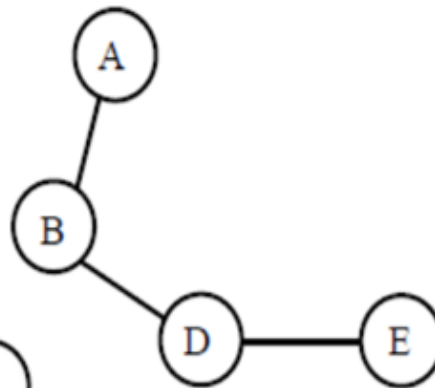
- Find the spanning tree of graph G



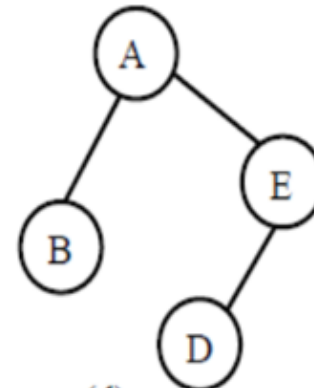
(a)



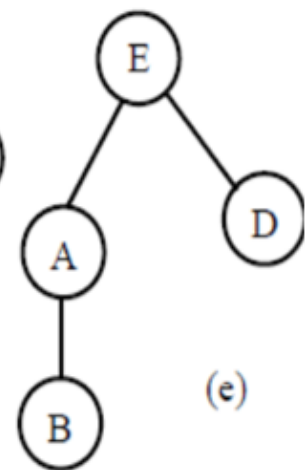
(b)



(c)



(d)

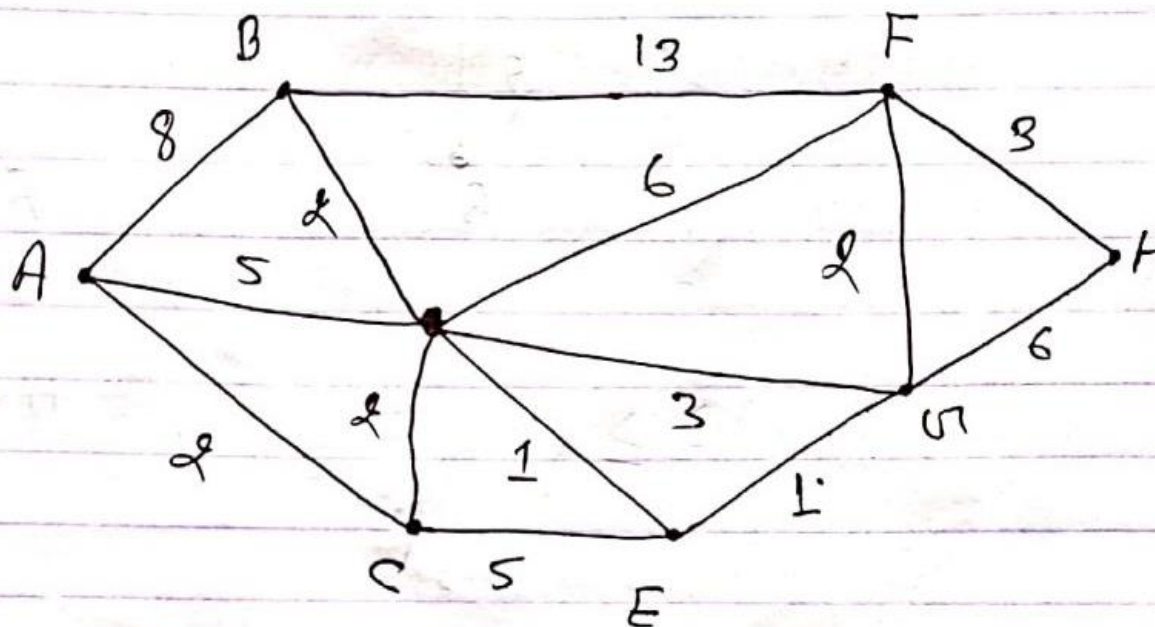


(e)



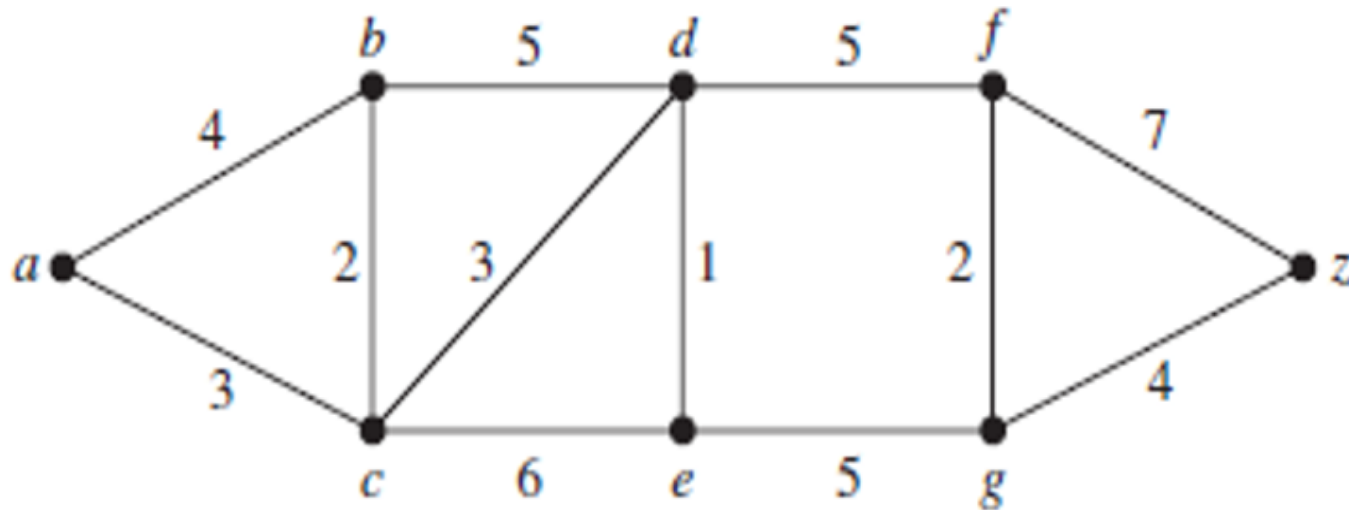
\Rightarrow Shortest path Algorithm : Dijkstra's Algorithm

Example: use Dijkstra's algorithm to find the length of a shortest path between the vertices A to H in the weighted graph.



Dijkstra's Algorithm

- Class work:** Find a shortest path between a and z in each of the following weighted graph



Represent Expression by Rooted Tree

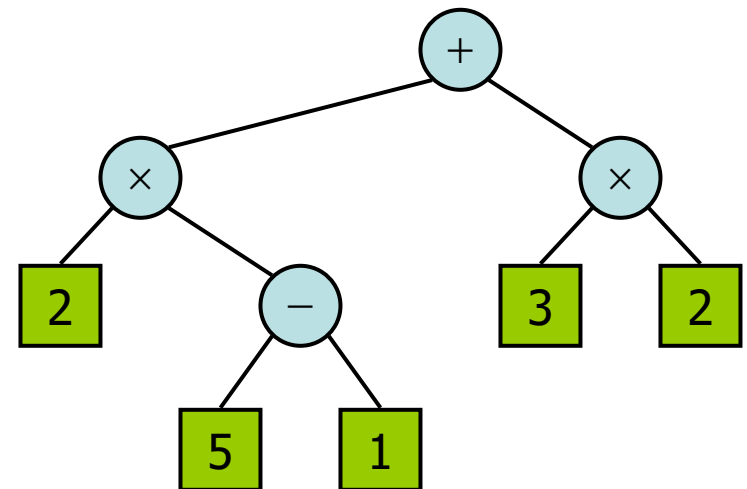
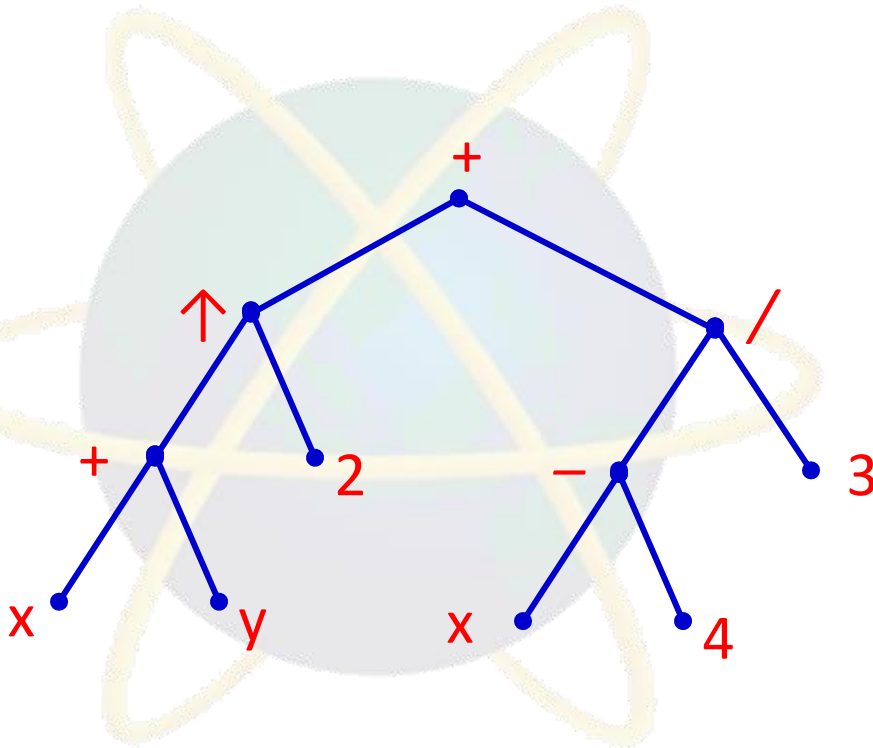
- We can represent complicated expression (propositions, sets, arithmetic) using ordered rooted trees.
- Binary tree for an arithmetic expression
 - internal nodes: operators
 - leaves: operands

Example

A binary tree representing

i) $((x + y) \uparrow 2) + ((x - 4) / 3)$

ii) $((2 \times (5 - 1)) + (3 \times 2))$



Question and Answer Session

Q & A

