

505 22240 / ESOE 2012 Data Structures: Lecture 10

Binary Search Trees and Graphs

§ Binary Search Trees (continue)

© Operations

★ Define *Entry* class:

```
template <typename K, typename V>
class Entry {
public:
    K k;
    V v;
    !
};
```

① `Entry find(const K& k);`

```
Entry find(const K& k) {
    BinaryTreeNode* node = root;
    while (node != NULL) {
        int comp = k.compareTo(node->entry.key());
        // induce a total order on the keys (e.g., alphabetical order)
        if (comp < 0) {
            node = node->left;
        } else if (comp > 0) {
            node = node->right;
        } else {
            return node->entry; // exact match
        }
    }
}
```

```
    }
}
return NULL;
}
```

★ How to find the smallest key $\geq k$?

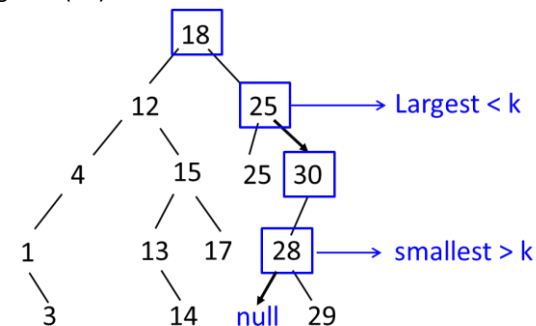
or the largest key $\leq k$?

⇒ When searching down tree for a key k that is not in tree, we encounter both:

(a) node containing the smallest key $> k$, and

(b) node containing the largest key $< k$.

• e.g. `find(27)`



• `smallestKeyNotSmaller(const K& k)`: search for k , just like in `find()`, keep track of the smallest key not smaller than k .

• `largestKeyNotLarger(const K& k)`: similar manner.

② `Entry first();` → minimum

`Entry last();` → maximum

• `first()`: If tree is empty, return null. Otherwise, start at root. Repeatedly go to left child until you reach a node with no left child. That node has minimum key.

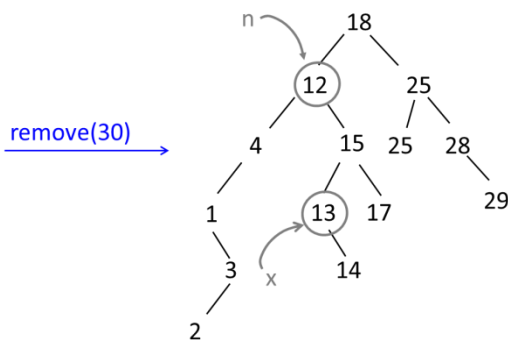
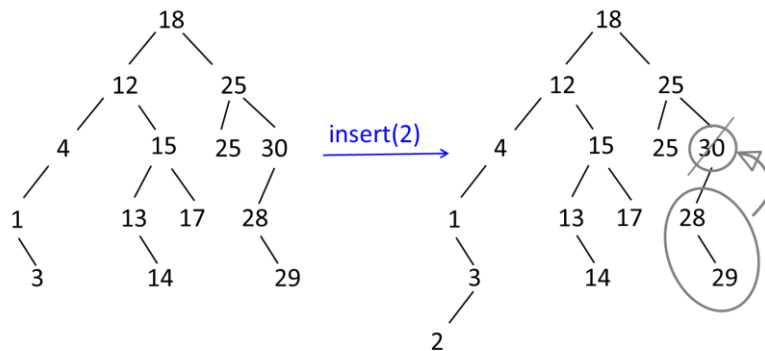
• `last()` is the same, except you repeatedly go to the right child.

③ Entry insert (const K& k, const V& v);

- Follow the same path through tree as find(). When you reach null reference, replace null with new node with Entry(k, v).
- Duplicate keys allowed. Puts new entry in left subtree of old one.

④ Entry remove(const K& k);

- Find a node n with key k, as in find(). Return null if k is not in the tree.
- If n has no children, detach it from parent.
- If n has one child, move n's child up to take n's place. Dispose of n.
- e.g.

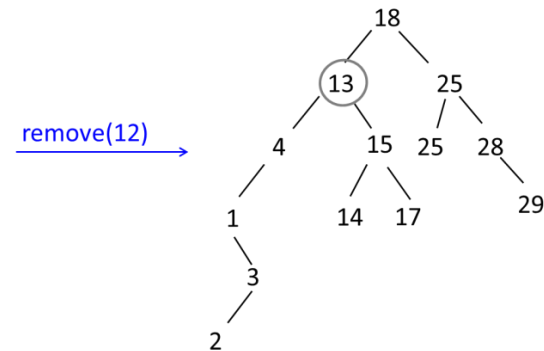


- If n has 2 children:

Let x be the node in n's right subtree with the smallest key.

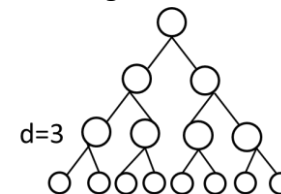
Remove x → x has no left child and is easily removed.

Replace n's key with x's key.



- x has the closest key to k that isn't smaller than k, the binary search tree invariant holds.

◎Running Time



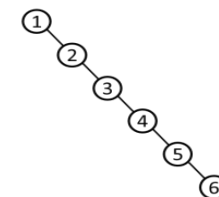
Perfectly balanced binary tree with depth d,

of nodes = $2^{d+1} - 1 = n$

No node has depth $> \log_2 n$

- Running times of insert(), find(), and remove() proportional to the depth of the deepest node visited. $\Rightarrow O(\log n)$: worst-case time on a perfectly balanced tree.

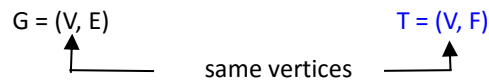
- e.g. Bad situations



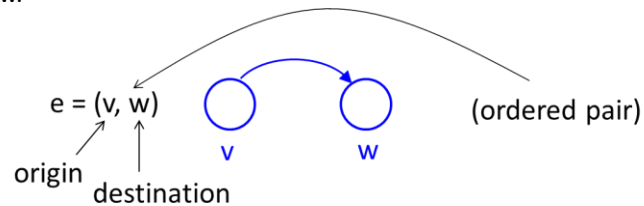
All operations on binary search trees have $\Theta(n)$ worst-case running time.

§ Graphs

- A graph G is a set V of vertices (nodes) and a set E of edges (arcs) that connect vertices.

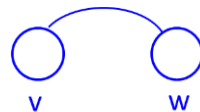


- Two types: directed & undirected.
- Digraph (directed graph): every edge e is directed from some vertex v to some other vertex w .

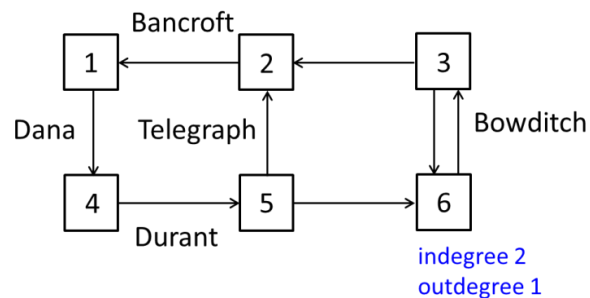


- Undirected: e is an unordered pair.

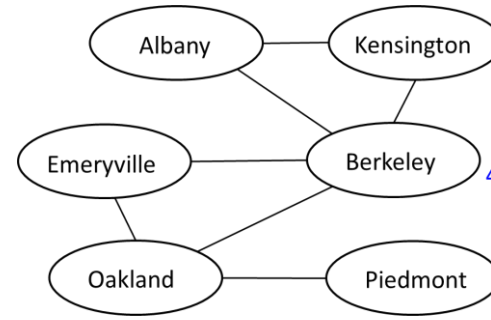
$\Rightarrow (v, w) = (w, v)$



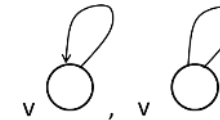
- e.g. digraph (street vs. block map)



- e.g. undirected graph (city adjacency map)



- Multiple copies of an edge are forbidden.
- Digraphs can have both (v, w) & (w, v) .



- Self-edge: (v, v)
- Path: a sequence of vertices with each adjacent pair of vertices connected by an edge.

If graph is directed, edges must be aligned with direction of path.

- Length of path: # of edges in path.

$\langle 4, 5, 6, 3 \rangle$: length of_path = 3.

$\langle 2 \rangle$: length 0.

- Strongly connected: there's a path from any vertex to any other vertex (This is just called connected in undirected graph).

\Rightarrow Both graphs above are strongly connected.

- Degree of a vertex: # of edges incident on vertex. (self-edges count as one)

\Rightarrow Berkeley has degree 4, and Piedmont has degree 1.

★ Digraphs:

- indegree: # of edges directed toward vertex.

- outdegree: # of edges directed away vertex.

\Rightarrow Intersection 6 above has indegree 2 and outdegree 1.

© Graph Representations

① Adjacency matrix: $|V|$ - by - $|V|$ array of booleans.

• e.g. directed

	1	2	3	4	5	6
1	-	-	-	T	-	-
2	T	-	-	-	-	-
3	-	T	-	-	-	T
4	-	-	-	-	T	-
5	-	T	-	-	-	T
6	-	-	T	-	-	-

• Each row and column represents a vertex of the graph.

• Set the value at row i , column j to true if (i, j) is an edge of the graph.

• e.g. undirected

	Alb	Ken	Eme	Ber	Oak	Pie
Albany	-	T	-	T	-	-
Kensington	T	-	-	T	-	-
Emeryville	-	-	-	T	T	-
Berkeley	T	T	T	-	T	-
Oakland	-	-	T	T	-	T
Piedmont	-	-	-	-	T	-

Symmetric array

• Maximum possible edge is: $|V|^2$ (diagraph).

• Mostly, # of edges is much less than $\Theta(|V|^2)$.

• Planar graphs (graphs that can be drawn without edges crossing) have $O(|V|)$ edges.

• Sparse graph: has far fewer edges than maximum possible.

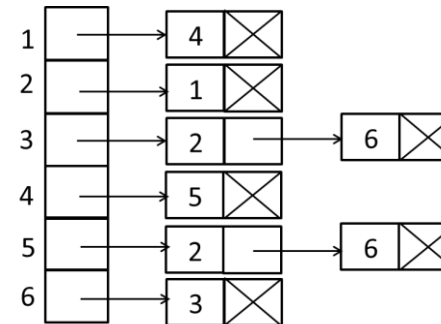
⇒ memory waste with adjacency matrix representation.

② Adjacency lists: more memory-efficient data structure for sparse graphs.

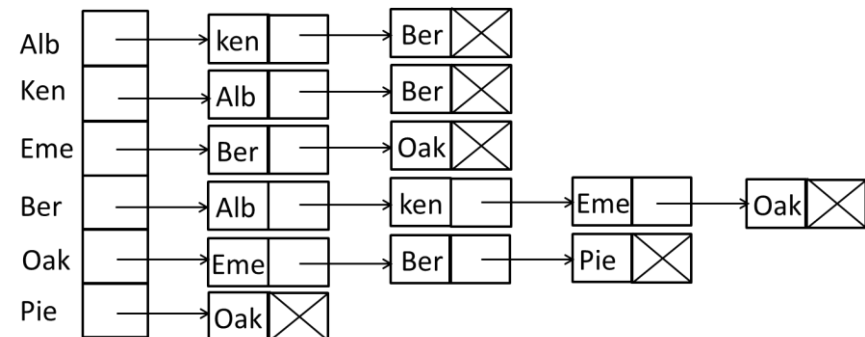
• Collection of lists

• Each vertex v has a linked list of edges out from v .

• e.g.



• e.g.



• Memory used: $\Theta(|V| + |E|)$

• If vertices are consecutive integers, use array of list.

- If vertices have names (e.g., “Albany”), use hash table to map string (or any object) to list

{ key: vertex name
value: list object

- Adjacency list is more space- and time- efficient for a sparse graph, but less efficient for a complete graph.
- Complete graph: a graph having every possible edge, i.e., for every vertex u and every vertex v , (u, v) is an edge of the graph.