

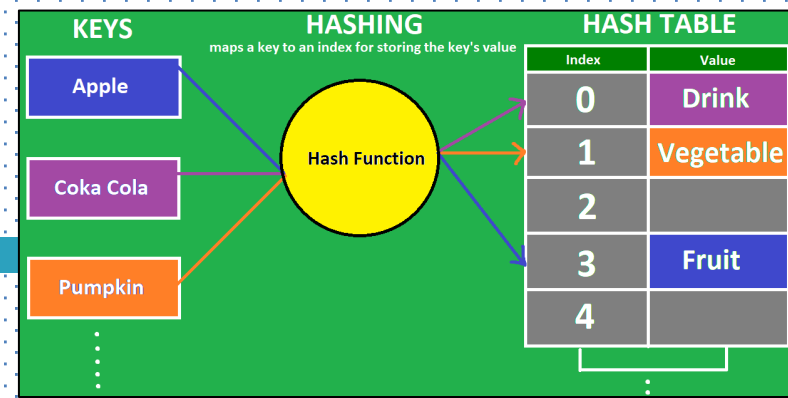
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## Tentative Course Outline

1. Introduction and Overview
2. Arrays ✓
3. Simple Sorting
4. Stack and Queue ✓
5. Linkedlist ✓
6. Arraylist ✓
7. Recursion
8. Sorting
9. Binary Trees ✓
10. Red-Black Trees ✓
11. B+ Trees ✓
12. Hashtable ✓
13. Graph
14. Graph

## Last Week...



- Hash tables are data structures that can provide very fast insertion, search, and deletion performance.
- Hash tables are array based.
- If there is too little data from the length of the array, there may be a loss of space; if there is too much data, there may be a loss of performance.
- If the array is too full, there may be serious performance loss. Elements can be transferred to a larger array, which is a costly operation.
- It is not possible to search the elements sequentially.

## Last Week...

### Collision Resolution Techniques

- When **two keys** map to the **same location (index)** in the hash table, collision occurs.
- We try to avoid it, but **number of keys** exceeds table size.
- Hash tables should support **collision resolution**.

There are two broad ways of collision resolution:

1. **Open Addressing:** Array-based implementation.
  - (i) Linear probing (linear search)
  - (ii) Quadratic probing (nonlinear search)
  - (iii) Double hashing (uses two hash functions)
2. **Separate Chaining:** An array of linked list implementation.

## Last Week...

### Collision Resolution Techniques

#### 1. Open Addressing

- When a **second element** is assigned to the **same index**, an **empty position** is searched in the same array **for the new element**.
- The new element is placed in the first position found.

This process can be done in three different ways:

- ✓ Linear Probing
- ✓ Quadratic Probing
- ✓ Double Hashing

## Last Week...

### Linear Probing

The linear probe function  
 $(h(\text{key}) + f(i)) \% \text{TableSize}$

A common technique is linear probing:  
 $f(i) = i$

So probe sequence is:

0<sup>th</sup> probe:  $h(\text{key}) \% \text{TableSize}$

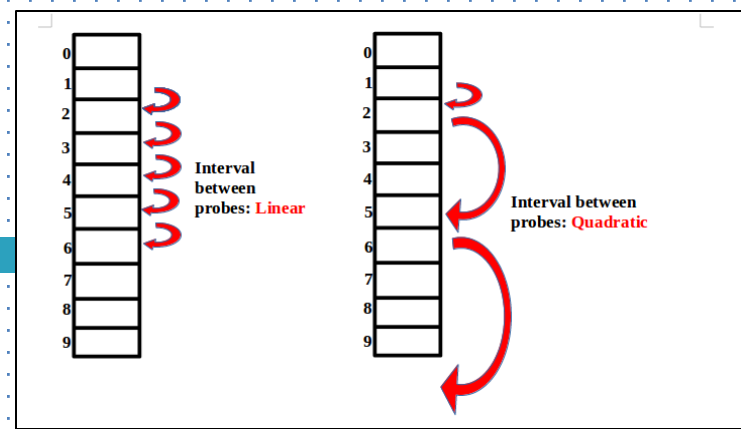
1<sup>st</sup> probe:  $(h(\text{key}) + 1) \% \text{TableSize}$

2<sup>nd</sup> probe:  $(h(\text{key}) + 2) \% \text{TableSize}$

3<sup>rd</sup> probe:  $(h(\text{key}) + 3) \% \text{TableSize}$

...

$i^{\text{th}}$  probe:  $(h(\text{key}) + i) \% \text{TableSize}$



Intuition: **Quadratic probing** moves increasingly far away. Probes quickly “leave the neighborhood”.

### Quadratic Probing

We can avoid primary clustering by changing the probe function  
 $(h(\text{key}) + f(i)) \% \text{TableSize}$

A common technique is quadratic probing:

$$f(i) = i^2$$

So probe sequence is:

0<sup>th</sup> probe:  $h(\text{key}) \% \text{TableSize}$

1<sup>st</sup> probe:  $(h(\text{key}) + 1) \% \text{TableSize}$

2<sup>nd</sup> probe:  $(h(\text{key}) + 4) \% \text{TableSize}$

3<sup>rd</sup> probe:  $(h(\text{key}) + 9) \% \text{TableSize}$

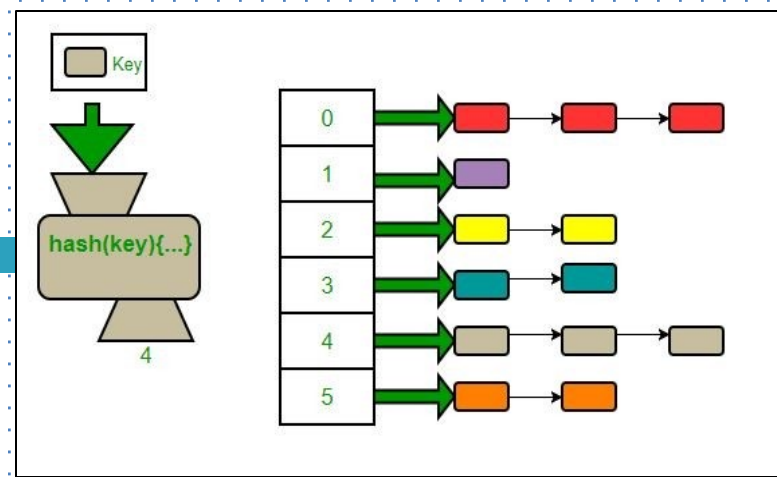
...

$i^{\text{th}}$  probe:  $(h(\text{key}) + i^2) \% \text{TableSize}$

Last Week...

## Collision Resolution Techniques

### 2: Closed Addressing (Separate Chaining)



- Chaining allows for **multiple objects** to reside **within the same array location**.
- The array is changed to be an **array of lists** or some other data structure, allowing us to **store multiple items per index**.
- We often use an array of **linked lists**, hence the name “chaining.”

## Outline



1. Graph Terminology
2. Graph Algorithms



# 1. Graph Terminology

Graph: a data structure containing

- a set of vertices  $V$

- a set of edges  $E$ , where an edge represents a connection between 2 vertices

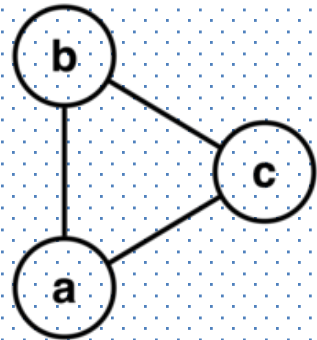
- edge is a pair  $(v, w)$  where  $v, w$  in  $V$

Denote graph as  $G = (V, E)$

Example:

$G = (V, E)$  where

$V = \{a, b, c\}$  and  $E = \{(a, b), (b, c), (c, a)\}$



# 1. Graph Terminology

## Airline Routes



Nodes = cities

Edges = direct flights

# 1. Graph Terminology

**Cycle:** path from one node back to itself

Example:  $\{V, X, Y, W, U, V\}$

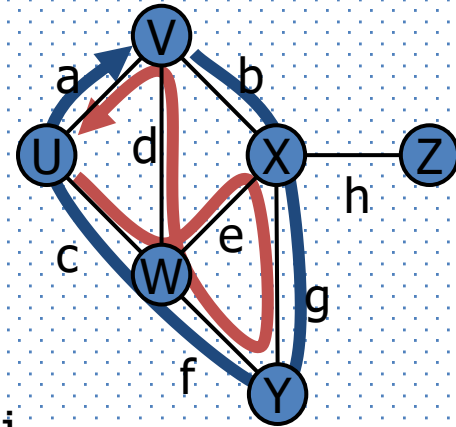
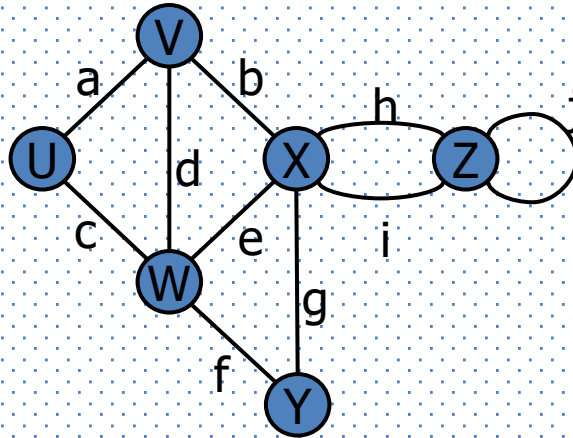
**Loop:** edge directly from node to itself

Many graphs don't allow loops

**Degree:** number of edges touching a vertex

Example: W has degree 4  
What is the degree of X?  
of Z?

**Adjacent vertices:** vertices connected directly by an edge



## 1. Graph Terminology

**Path:** a path from vertex A to B is a sequence of edges that can be followed starting from A to reach B

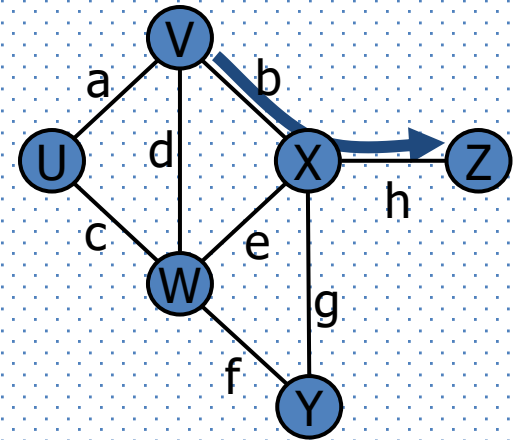
Can be represented as vertices visited or edges taken

Example: path from V to Z: {b, h} or {(v,x), (x,z)} or {V, X, Z}

**Reachability:**  $v_2$  is reachable from  $v_1$  if a path exists from  $v_1$  to  $v_2$

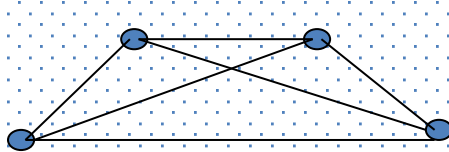
**Connected graph:** one in which it is possible to reach any node from any other

Is this graph connected?

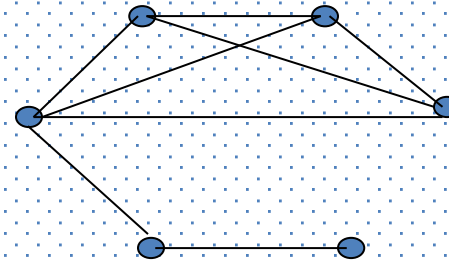


## 1. Graph Terminology

An graph is said to be *connected* if there is a path between every pair of nodes. Otherwise, the graph is *disconnected*.



Disconnected



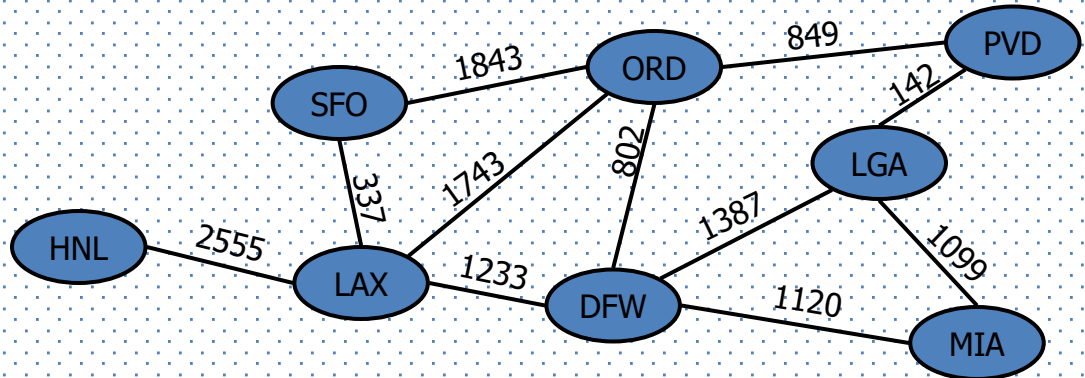
Connected

# 1. Graph Terminology

## Weighted graphs

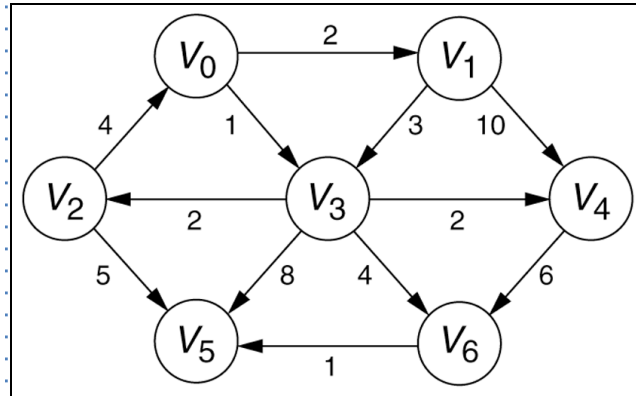
**Weight:** (optional) cost associated with a given edge.

Example: graph of airline flights



## 1. Graph Terminology

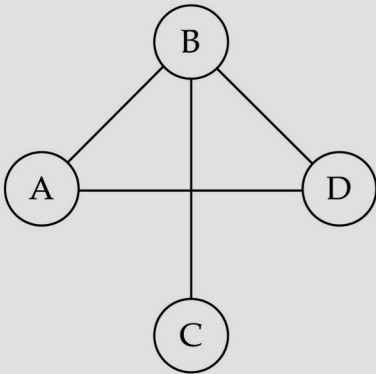
Directed graph (digraph): edges are one-way connections between vertices  
If graph is directed, a vertex has a separate in/out degree



## 1. Graph Terminology

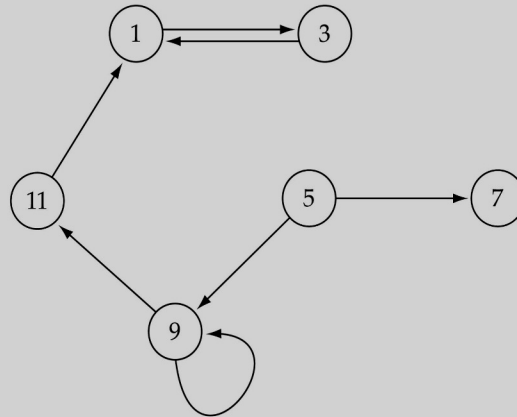
### Directed vs. undirected graphs

When the edges in a graph have no direction, the graph is called undirected.



$V(\text{Graph1}) = \{ A, B, C, D \}$   
 $E(\text{Graph1}) = \{ (A, B), (A, D), (B, C), (B, D) \}$

When the edges in a graph have a direction, the graph is called directed (or digraph).





## 1. Graph Terminology

- In undirected graphs, edges have no specific direction. Edges are always "two-way". Thus,  $(u, v) \in E$  implies  $(v, u) \in E$ .
- Only one of these edges needs to be in the set.

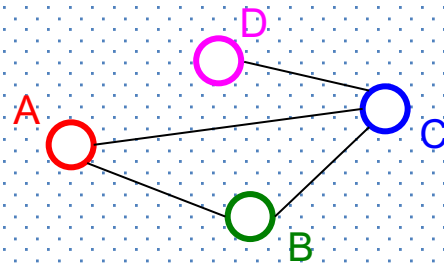
Degree of a vertex: number of edges containing that vertex (the number of adjacent vertices)

$$\text{Deg}(A) = 2$$

$$\text{Deg}(B) = 2$$

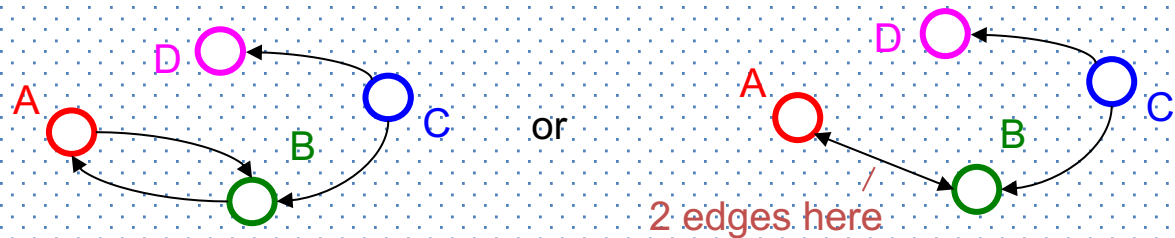
$$\text{Deg}(C) = 3$$

$$\text{Deg}(D) = 1$$



## 1. Graph Terminology

In directed graphs (or digraphs), edges have direction



Thus,  $(u, v) \in E$  does not imply  $(v, u) \in E$ .

Let  $(u, v) \in E$  mean  $u \rightarrow v$

Call  $u$  the **source** and  $v$  the **destination**.

In-Degree of a vertex: number of in-bound edges (edges where the vertex is the destination)

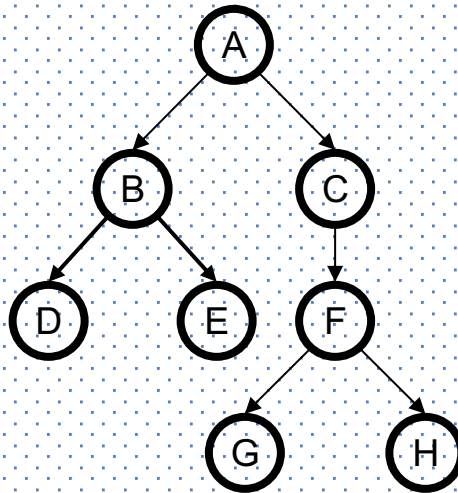
Out-Degree of a vertex: number of out-bound edges (edges where the vertex is the source)

# 1. Graph Terminology

## Trees as Graphs

Every tree is a graph with some restrictions:

- The tree is directed
- There is exactly one directed path from the root to every node.



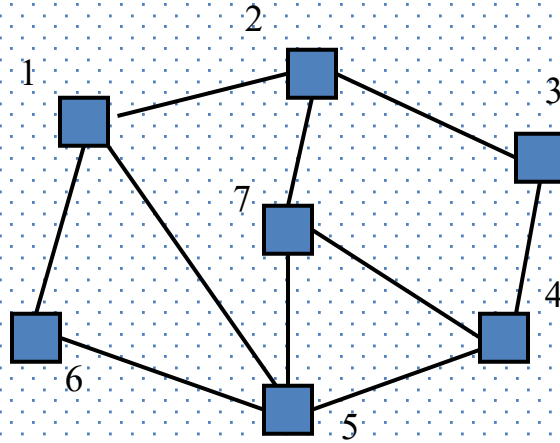
# 1. Graph Terminology

## Implementing a Graph

To program a graph data structure, what information would we need to store?

For each vertex?

For each edge?



# 1. Graph Terminology

## Implementing a Graph

What kinds of questions would we want to be able to answer about a graph  $G$ ?

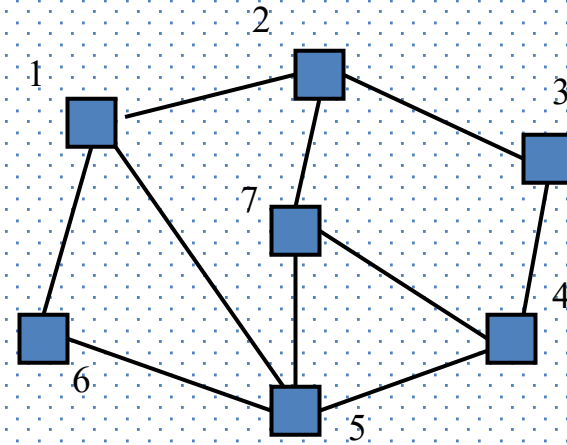
Which vertices are adjacent to vertex  $v$ ?

What edges touch vertex  $v$ ?

What are the edges of  $G$ ?

What are the vertices of  $G$ ?

What is the degree of vertex  $v$ ?



## Graph Implementation Strategies

1. Edge List
2. Adjacency Matrix
3. Adjacency List

# 1. Graph Terminology

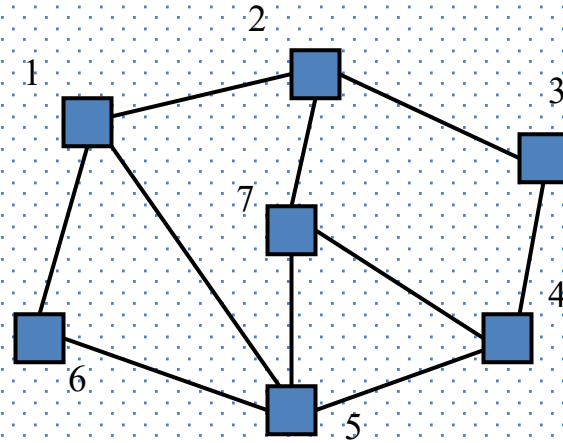
## Implementing a Graph

### 1. Edge List

**Edge List:** an unordered list of all edges in the graph.

\* This is NOT an array

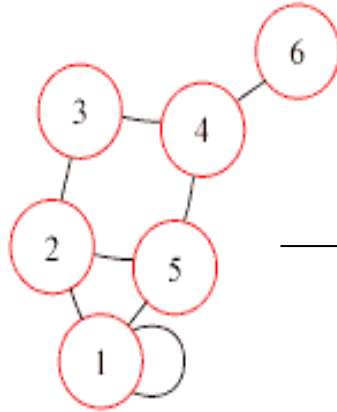
1	1	1	2	2	3	5	5	5	7
2	5	6	7	3	4	6	7	4	4



## 1. Graph Terminology

### Implementing a Graph

#### 2. Adjacency Matrix



$$\begin{pmatrix} 2 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

**Adjacency Matrix:** an  $n \times n$  matrix where:

- the nondiagonal entry  $a_{ij}$  is the number of edges joining vertex  $i$  and vertex  $j$  (or the weight of the edge joining vertex  $i$  and vertex  $j$ )
- the diagonal entry  $a_{ii}$  corresponds to the number of loops (self-connecting edges) at vertex  $i$ .

# 1. Graph Terminology

## Implementing a Graph

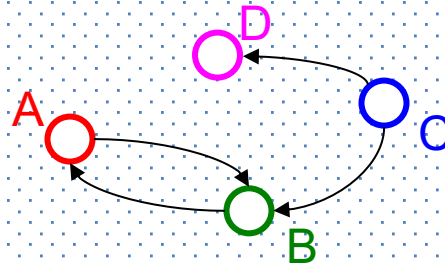
### 2. Adjacency Matrix

#### *Advantages*

- fast to tell whether edge exists between any two vertices  $i$  and  $j$  (and to get its weight)

#### *Disadvantages*

- consumes a lot of memory on sparse graphs (ones with few edges)
- redundant information for undirected graphs



	A	B	C	D
A	F	T	F	F
B	T	F	F	F
C	F	T	F	T
D	F	F	F	F



# 1. Graph Terminology

## Implementing a Graph

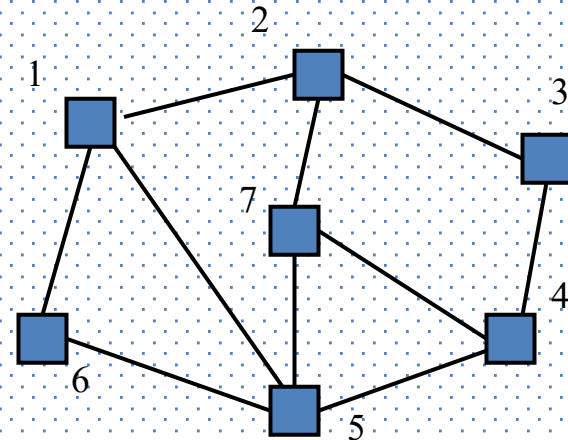
### 2. Adjacency Matrix

How do we figure out the degree of a given vertex?

How do we find out whether an edge exists from A to B?

How could we look for loops in the graph?

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	0	1	0	0	1	1	0
2	1	0	1	0	0	0	1
3	0	1	0	1	0	0	0
4	0	0	1	0	1	0	1
5	1	0	0	1	0	1	1
6	1	0	0	0	1	0	0
7	0	1	0	1	1	0	0

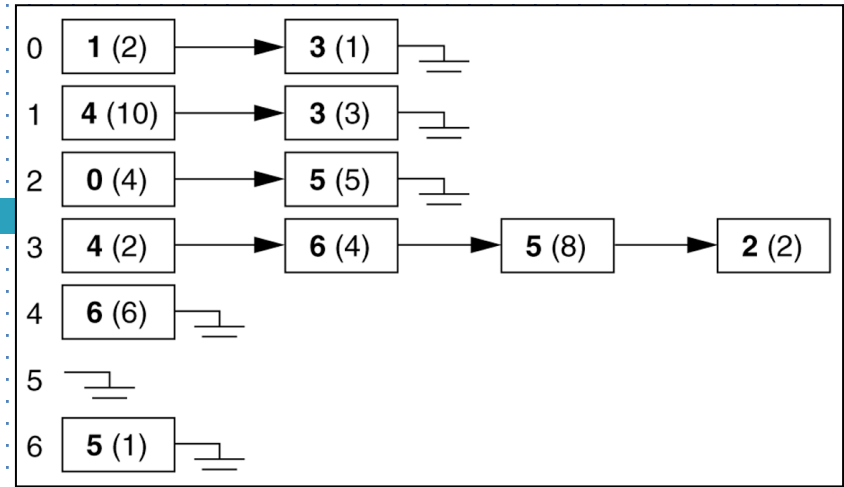
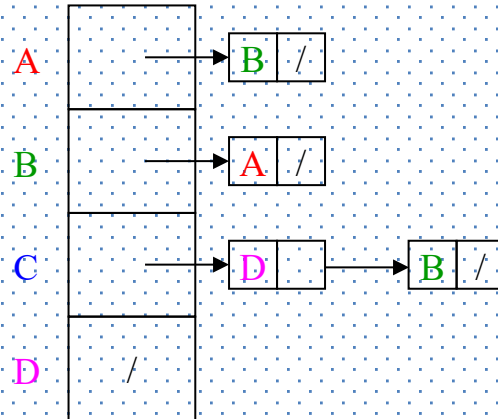
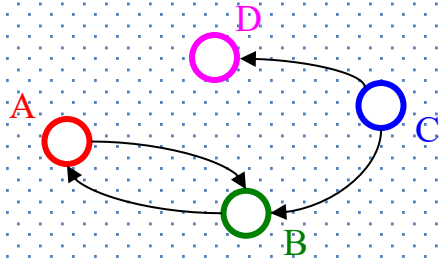


# 1. Graph Terminology

## Implementing a Graph

### 3. Adjacency List

**Adjacency List:** stores edges as individual linked lists of references to each vertex's neighbors.



# 1. Graph Terminology

## Implementing a Graph

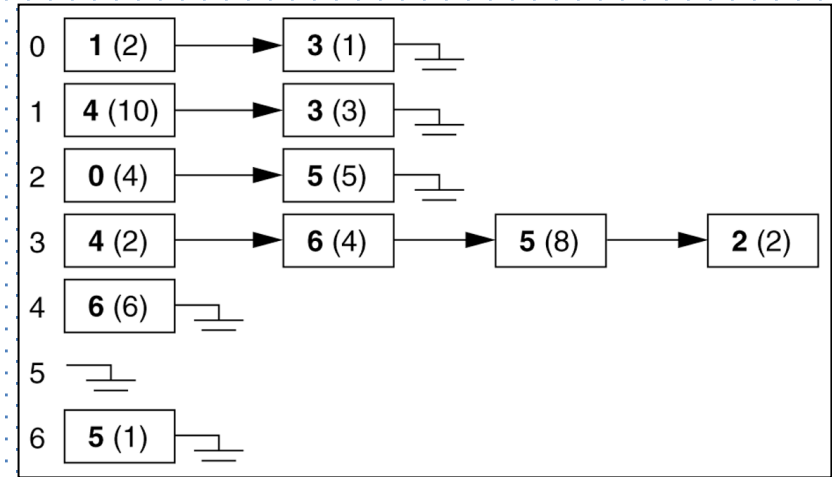
### 3. Adjacency List

#### *Advantages:*

- new nodes can be added easily
- new nodes can be connected with existing nodes easily
- "who are my neighbors" easily answered

#### *Disadvantages:*

- determining whether an edge exists between two nodes:  $O(\text{average degree})$



# 1. Graph Terminology

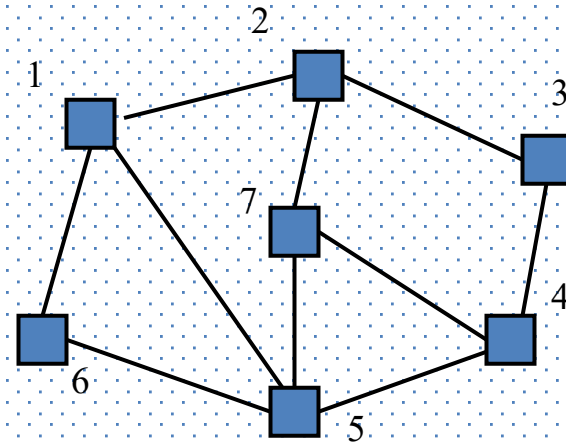
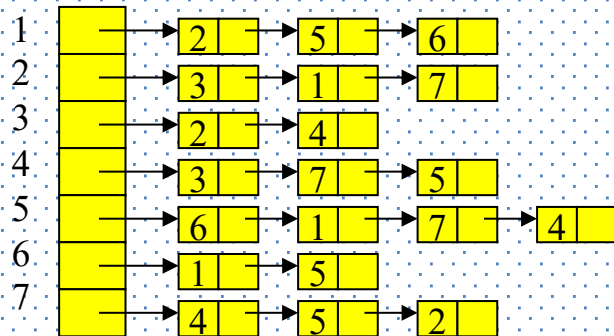
## Implementing a Graph

### 3. Adjacency List

How do we figure out the degree of a given vertex?

How do we find out whether an edge exists from A to B?

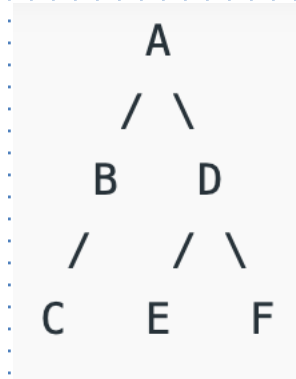
How could we look for loops in the graph?



## 2. Graph Algorithms

### Depth-First Search

- DFS is an edge-based technique.
- It uses the Stack data structure and performs two stages:
  - first : visited vertices are pushed into the stack
  - second : if there are no vertices then visited vertices are popped.



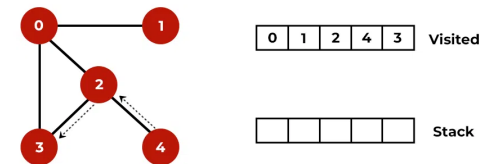
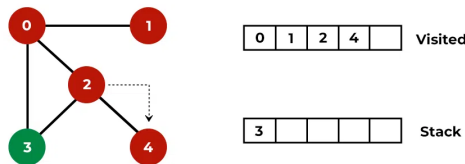
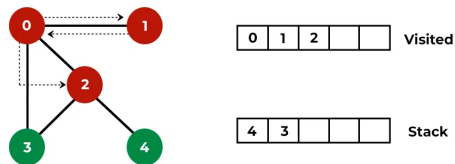
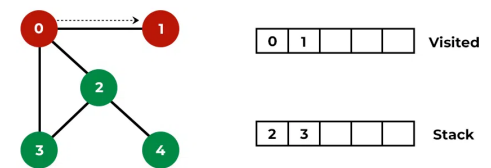
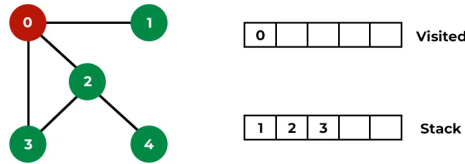
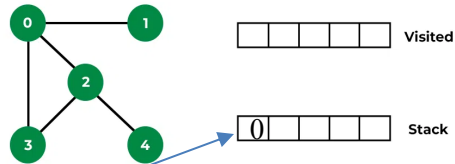
A, B, C, D, E, F

## 2. Graph Algorithms

### Depth-First Search

```

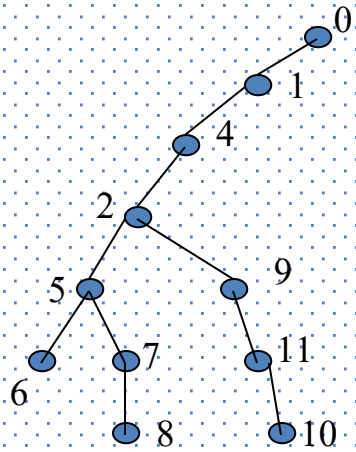
DFS(G,v)  ( v is the vertex where the search starts )
Stack S := {};  ( start with an empty stack )
for each vertex u, set visited[u] := false;
push S, v;
while (S is not empty) do
  u := pop S;
  if (not visited[u]) then
    visited[u] := true;
    for each unvisited neighbour w of u
      push S, w;
  end if
end while
END DFS()
    
```



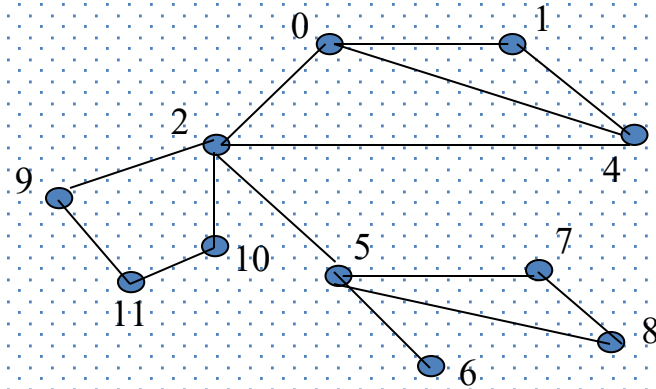
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## 2. Graph Algorithms

### Illustration of DFS



DFS Tree

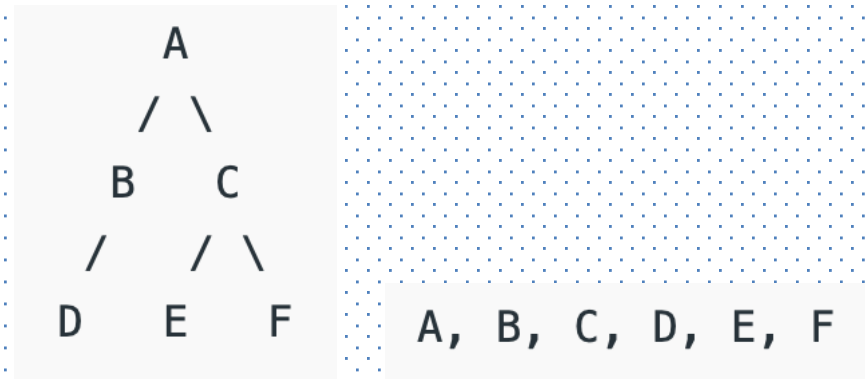


Graph G

## 2. Graph Algorithms

### Breadth-First Search

- **BFS** is a vertex-based technique.
- It uses a Queue data structure that follows first in first out.
- In BFS, one vertex is selected at a time when it is visited and marked then its adjacent are visited and stored in the queue.
- It is slower than DFS.

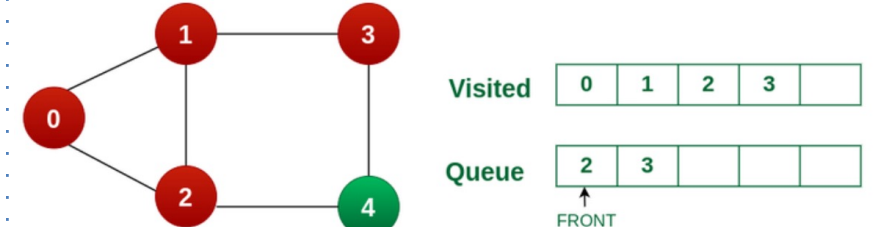
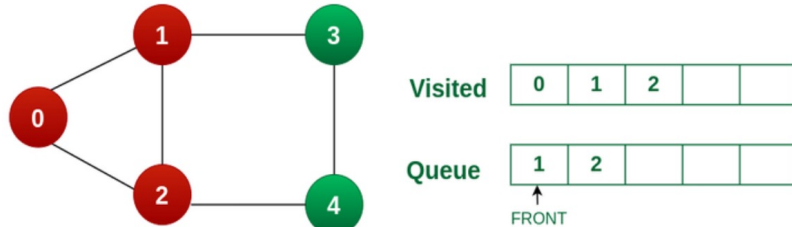
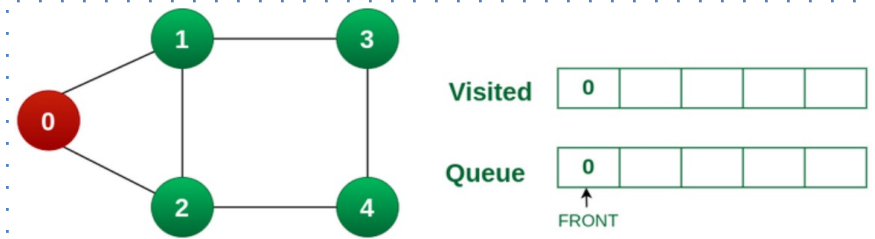
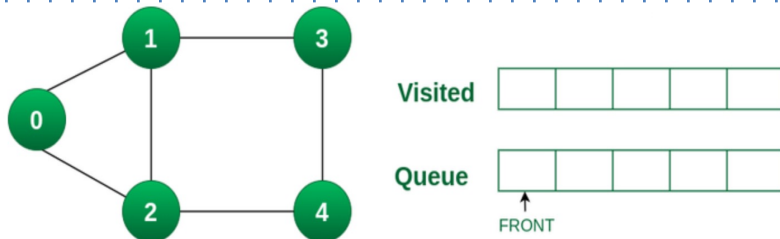




## 2. Graph Algorithms

### Breadth-First Search

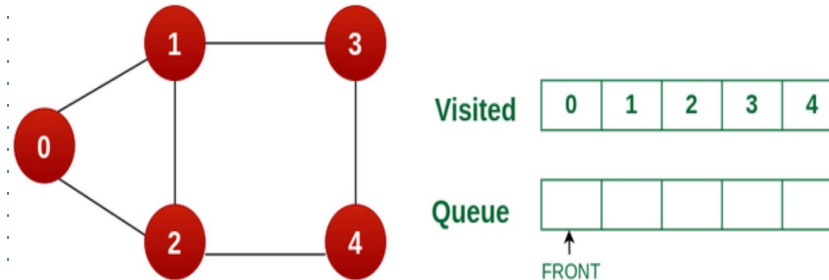
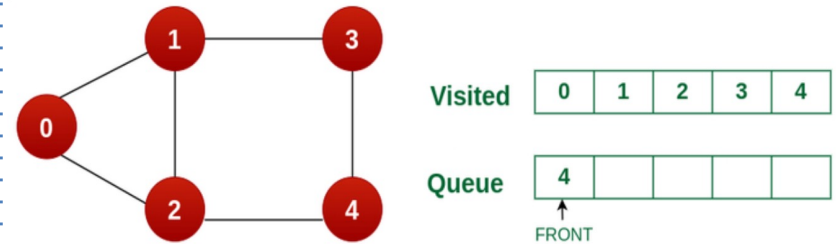
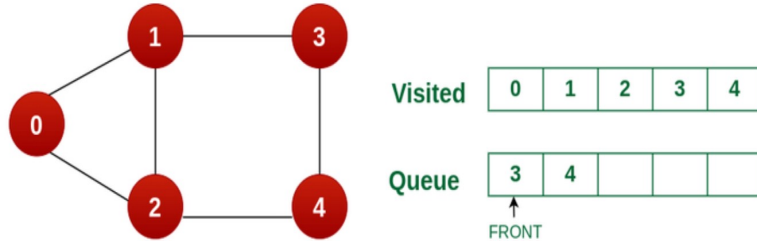
```
BFS(startV) {  
  Push startV to Queue  
  Add startV to visited  
  
  while ( Queue is not empty )  
    currentV = Pop Queue  
    Print or Output currentV  
    for each vertex adjV adjacent to currentV  
      if ( adjV is not visited )  
        Push adjV to Queue  
        Add adjV to visited  
}
```



## 2. Graph Algorithms

### Breadth-First Search

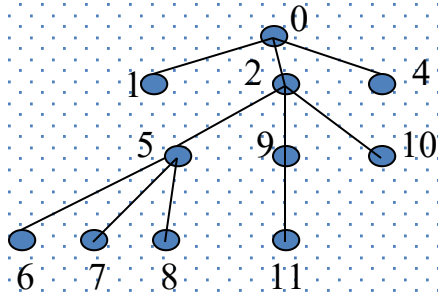
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    for each vertex adjV adjacent to currentV  
      if ( adjV is not visited )  
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}
```



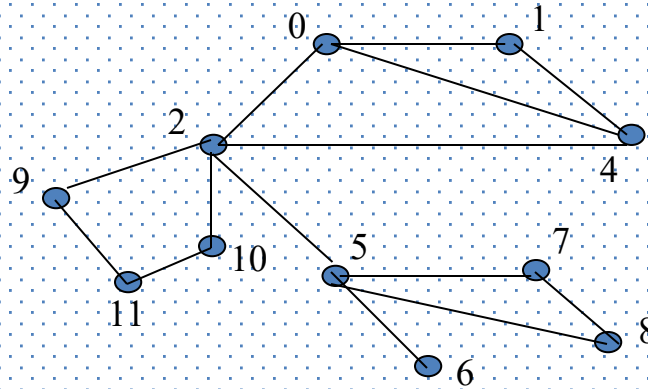
Queue becomes empty, So,  
terminate these process of iteration.

## 2. Graph Algorithms

### Illustration of BFS



BFS Tree



Graph G

# Data Structures and Algorithms