

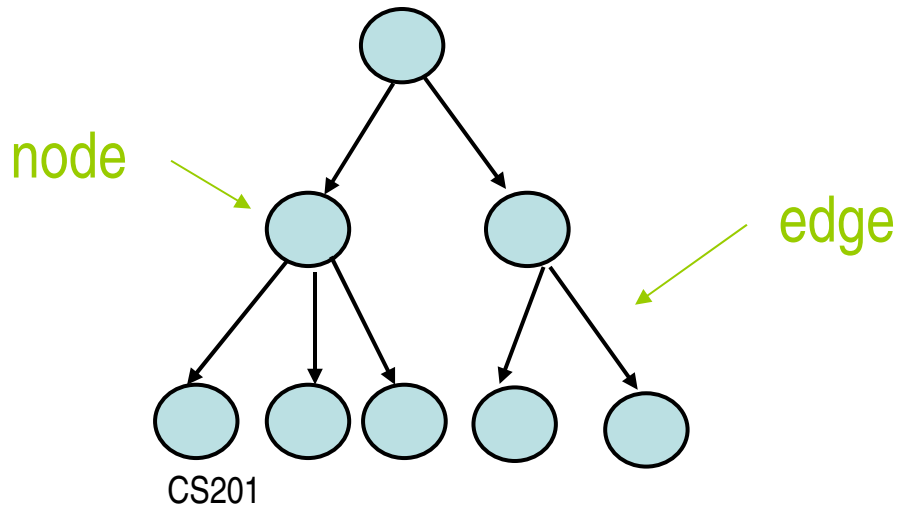
CS201: Data Structures and Discrete Mathematics I

Introduction to trees and graphs

Trees

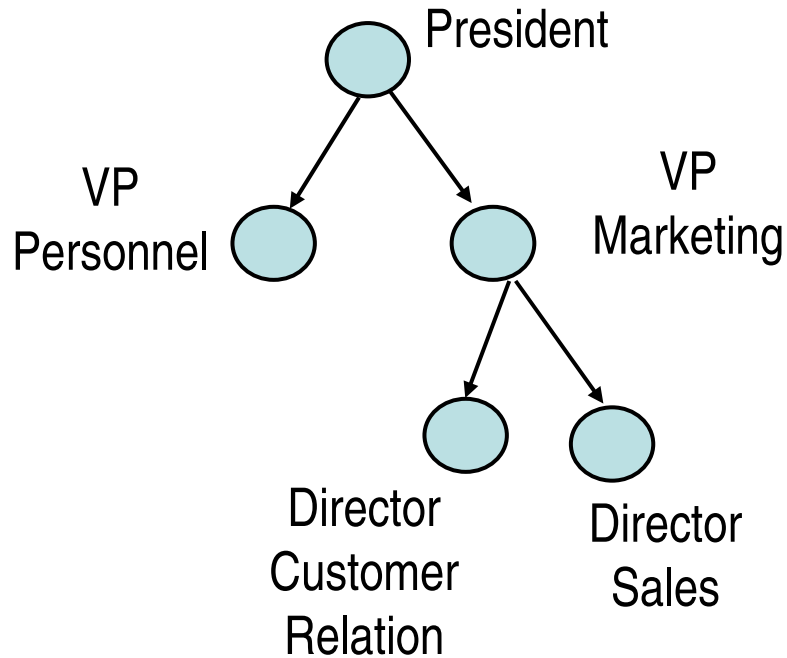
What is a tree?

- Trees are structures used to represent hierarchical relationship
- Each tree consists of nodes and edges
- Each node represents an object
- Each edge represents the relationship between two nodes.

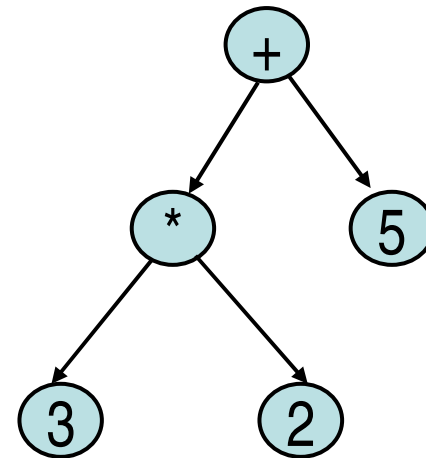


Some applications of Trees

Organization Chart

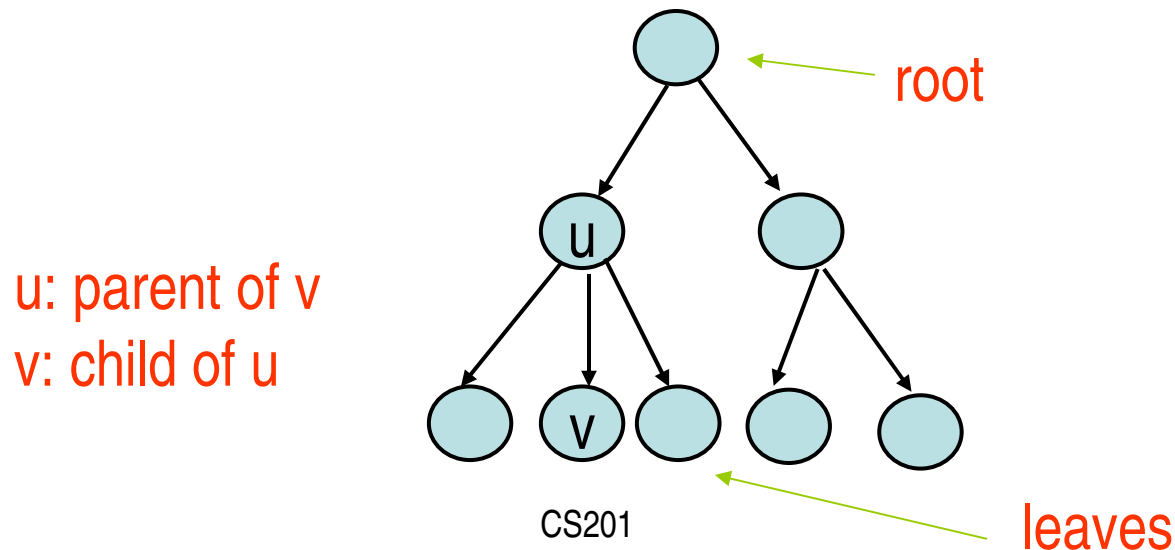


Expression Tree



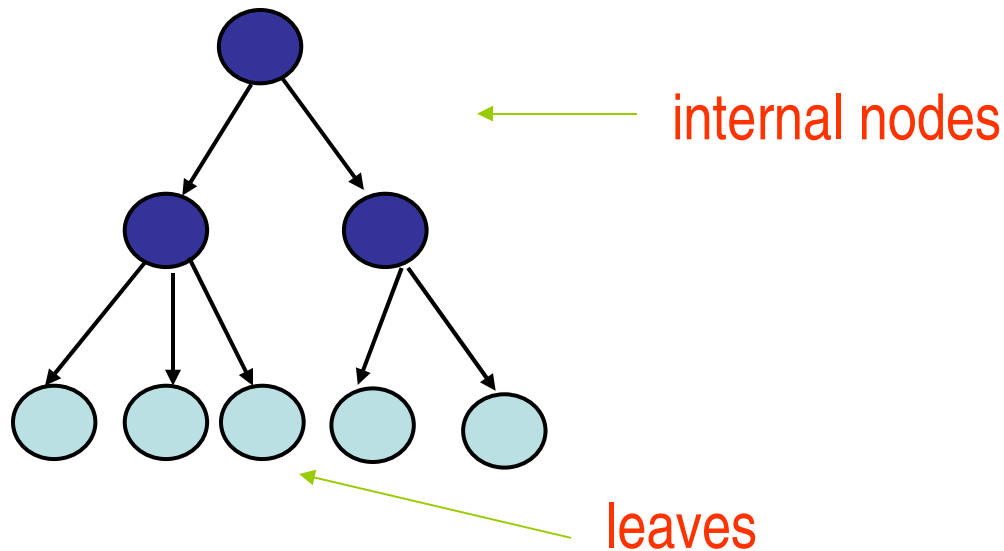
Terminology I

- For any two nodes u and v , if there is an edge pointing from u to v , u is called the **parent** of v while v is called the **child** of u . Such edge is denoted as (u, v) .
- In a tree, there is exactly one node without parent, which is called the **root**. The nodes without children are called **leaves**.



Terminology II

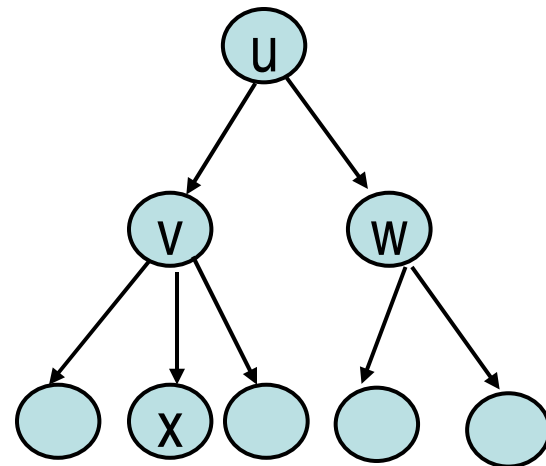
- In a tree, the nodes without children are called **leaves**. Otherwise, they are called **internal nodes**.



Terminology III

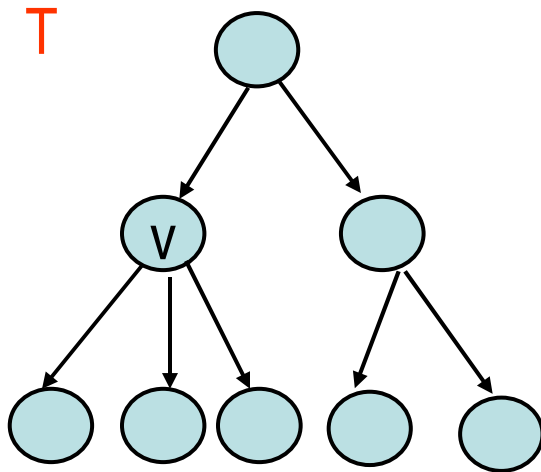
- If two nodes have the same parent, they are **siblings**.
- A node u is an **ancestor** of v if u is parent of v or parent of parent of v or ...
- A node v is a **descendent** of u if v is child of u or child of child of u or ...

v and w are siblings
 u and v are ancestors of x
 v and x are descendants of u

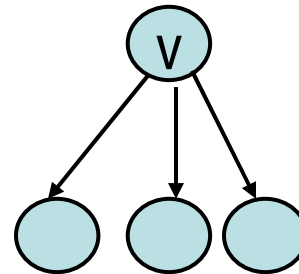


Terminology IV

- A **subtree** is any node together with all its descendants.

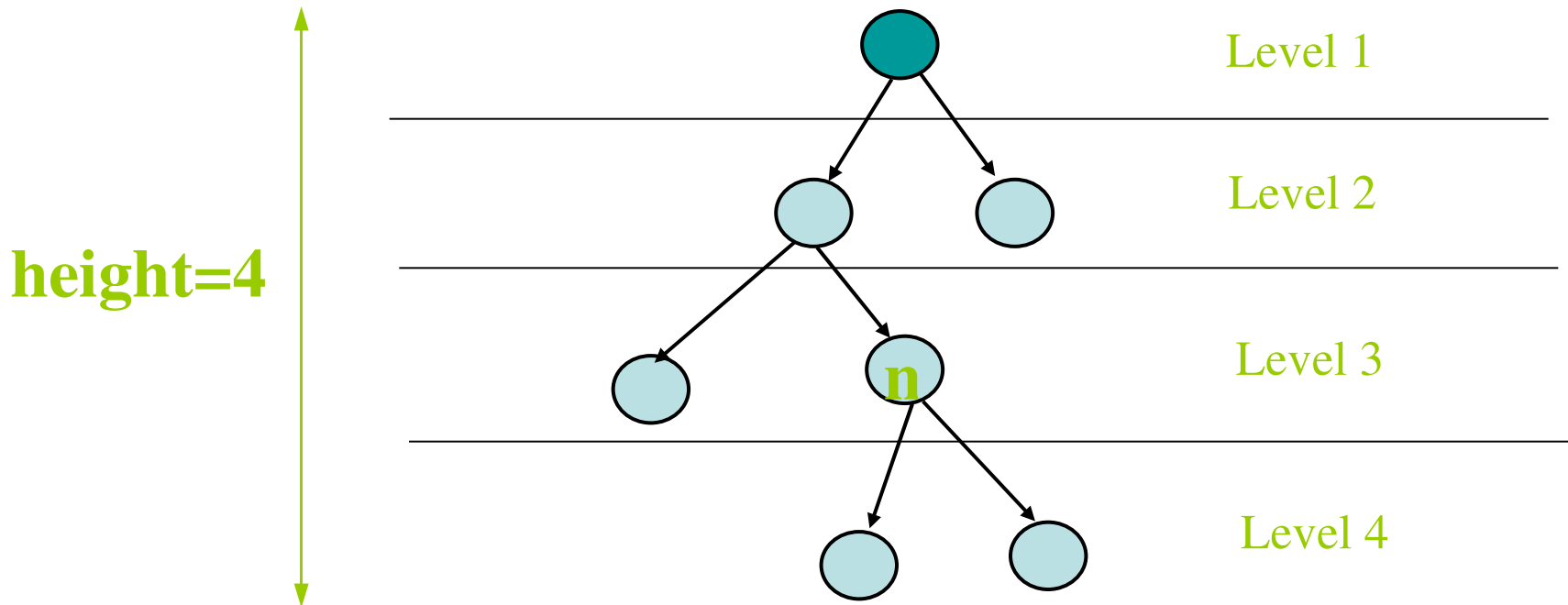


A subtree of T



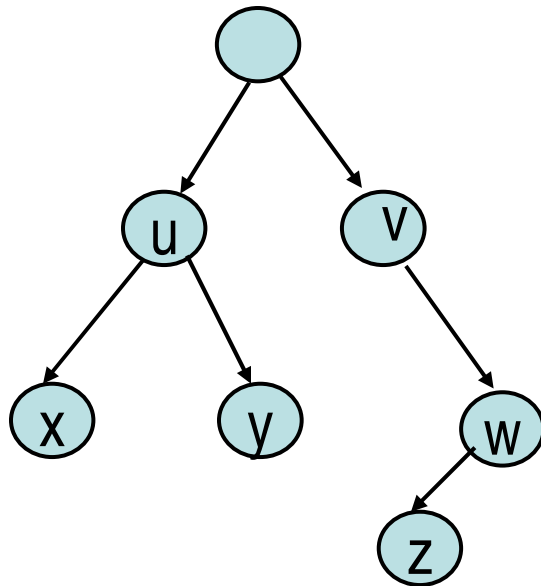
Terminology V

- **Level of a node n :** number of nodes on the path from root to node n
- **Height of a tree:** maximum level among all of its node



Binary Tree

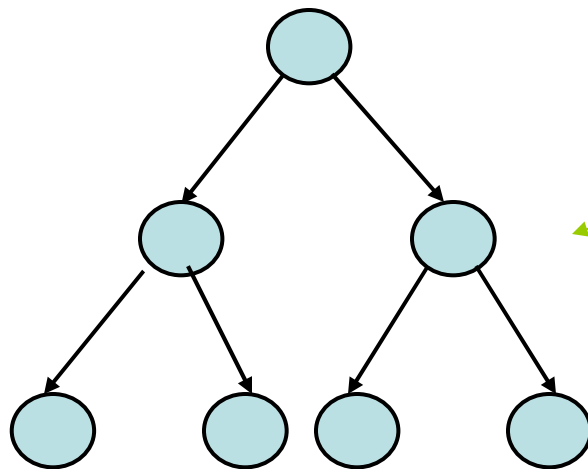
- Binary Tree: Tree in which every node has at most 2 children
- **Left child** of u: the child on the left of u
- **Right child** of u: the child on the right of u



x: left child of u
y: right child of u
w: right child of v
z: left child of w

Full binary tree

- If T is empty, T is a full binary tree of height 0.
- If T is not empty and of height $h > 0$, T is a full binary tree if both subtrees of the root of T are full binary trees of height $h-1$.

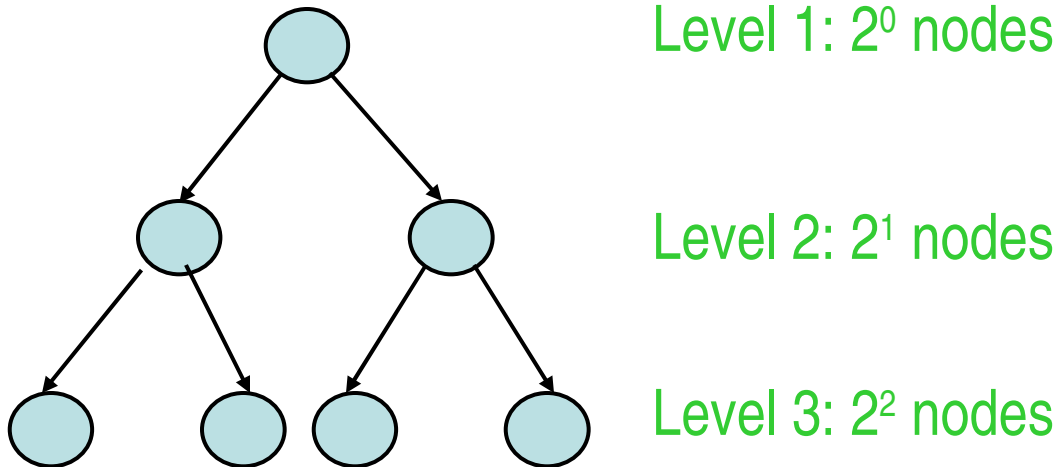


Full binary tree
of height 3

Property of binary tree (I)

- A full binary tree of height h has $2^h - 1$ nodes

$$\begin{aligned}\text{No. of nodes} &= 2^0 + 2^1 + \dots + 2^{(h-1)} \\ &= 2^h - 1\end{aligned}$$



Property of binary tree (II)

- Consider a binary tree T of height h . The number of nodes of $T \leq 2^h - 1$

Reason: you cannot have more nodes than a full binary tree of height h .

Property of binary tree (III)

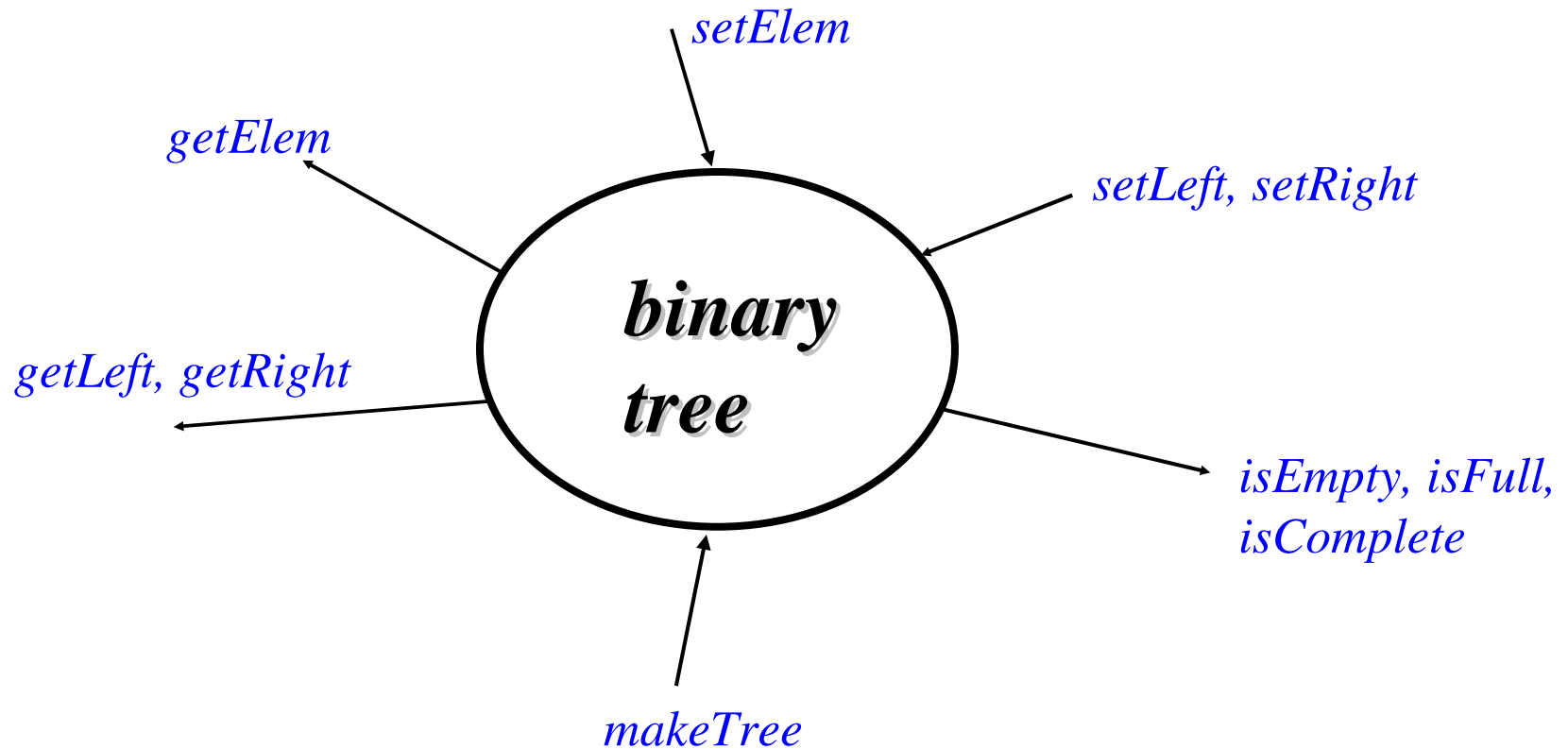
- The minimum height of a binary tree with n nodes is $\log(n+1)$

By property (II), $n \leq 2^h - 1$

Thus, $2^h \geq n+1$

That is, $h \geq \log_2 (n+1)$

Binary Tree ADT

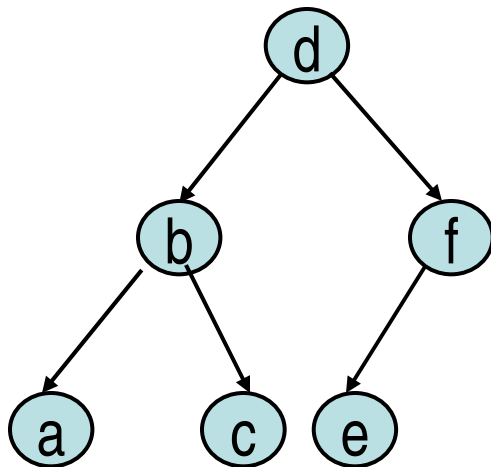


Representation of a Binary Tree

- An array-based representation
- A reference-based representation

An array-based representation

-1: empty tree



nodeNum	item	leftChild	rightChild
0	d	1	2
1	b	3	4
2	f	5	-1
3	a	-1	-1
4	c	-1	-1
5	e	-1	-1
6	?	?	?
7	?	?	?
8	?	?	?
9	?	?	?
...

root

0

free

6

Reference Based Representation

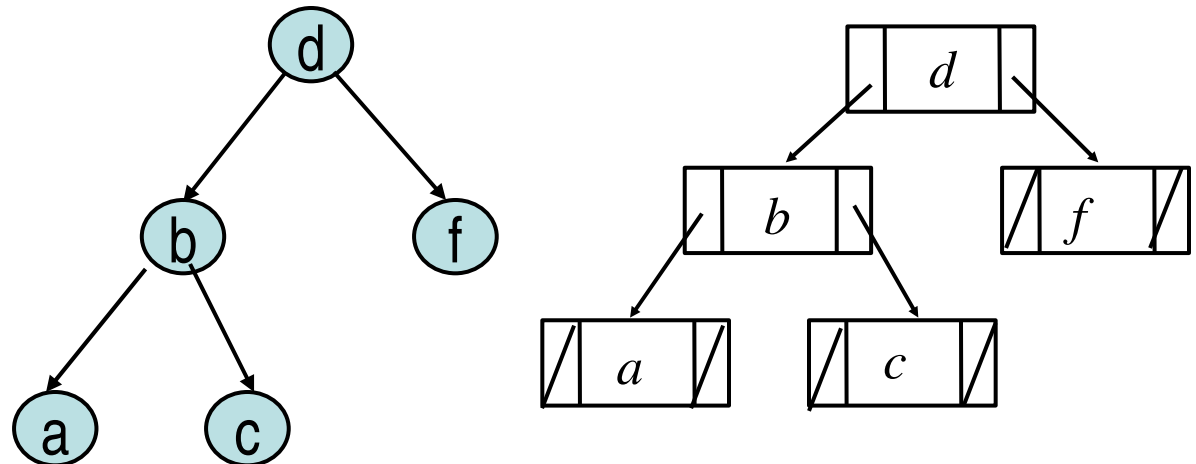
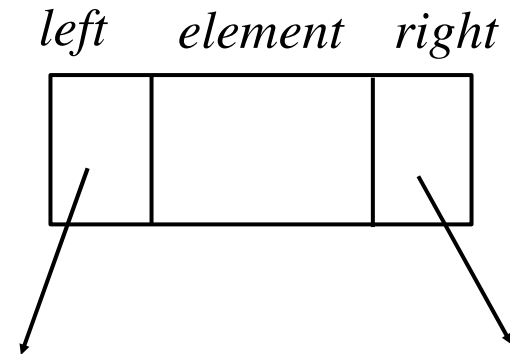
NULL: empty tree

You can code this with a class
of three fields:

Object element;

BinaryNode left;

BinaryNode right;



Tree Traversal

- Given a binary tree, we may like to do some operations on all nodes in a binary tree. For example, we may want to double the value in every node in a binary tree.
- To do this, we need a traversal algorithm which visits every node in the binary tree.

Ways to traverse a tree

- There are three main ways to traverse a tree:
 - Pre-order:
 - (1) visit node, (2) recursively visit left subtree, (3) recursively visit right subtree
 - In-order:
 - (1) recursively visit left subtree, (2) visit node, (3) recursively right subtree
 - Post-order:
 - (1) recursively visit left subtree, (2) recursively visit right subtree, (3) visit node
 - Level-order:
 - Traverse the nodes level by level
- In different situations, we use different traversal algorithm.

Examples for expression tree

- By pre-order, (prefix)

$+ * 2 3 / 8 4$

- By in-order, (infix)

$2 * 3 + 8 / 4$

- By post-order, (postfix)

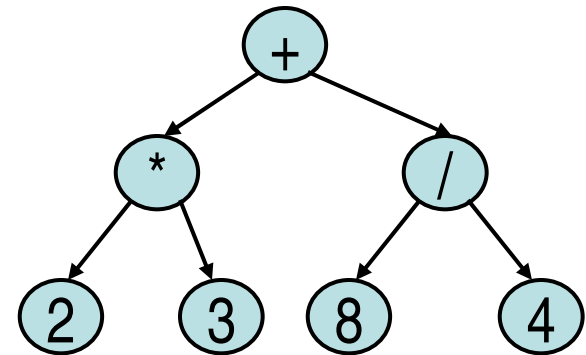
$2 3 * 8 4 / +$

- By level-order,

$+ * / 2 3 8 4$

- Note 1: Infix is what we read!

- Note 2: Postfix expression can be computed efficiently using stack

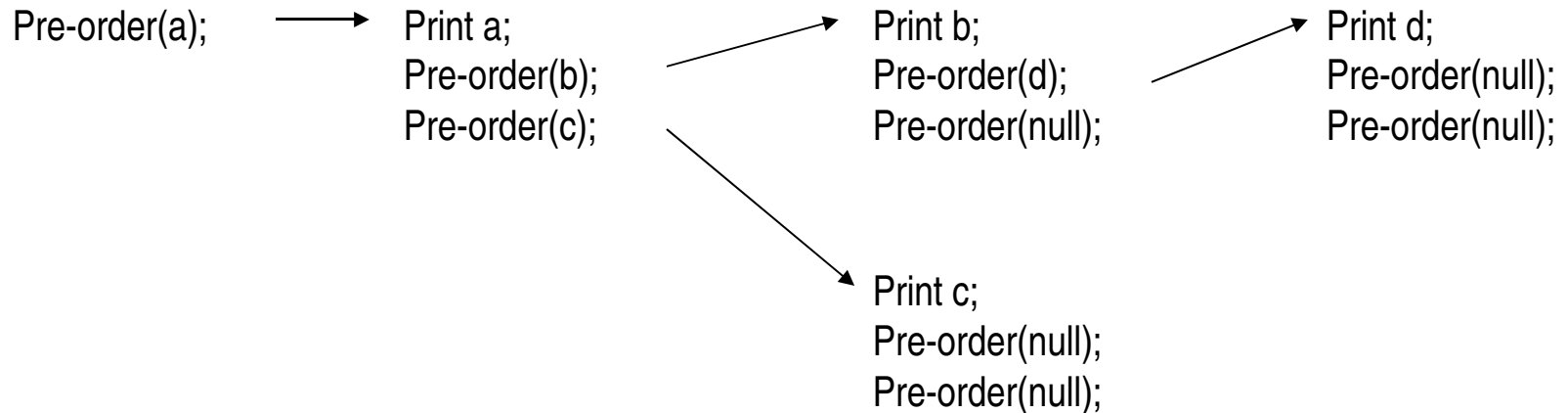


Pre-order

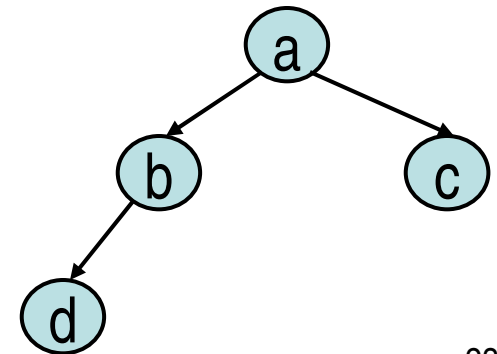
Algorithm pre-order(BTree x)

```
If (x is not empty) {  
    print x.getItem();           // you can do other things!  
    pre-order(x.getLeftChild());  
    pre-order(x.getRightChild());  
}
```

Pre-order example



a b d c



Time complexity of Pre-order Traversal

- For every node x , we will call $\text{pre-order}(x)$ one time, which performs $O(1)$ operations.
- Thus, the total time = $O(n)$.

In-order and post-order

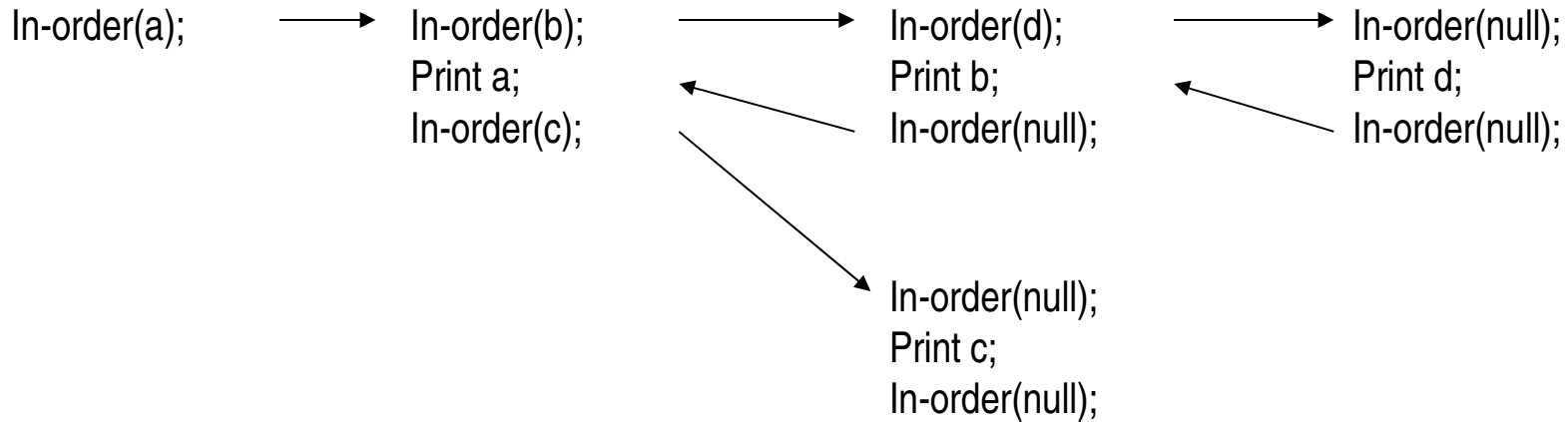
Algorithm in-order(BTree x)

```
If (x is not empty) {  
    in-order(x.getLeftChild());  
    print x.getItem(); // you can do other things!  
    in-order(x.getRightChild());  
}
```

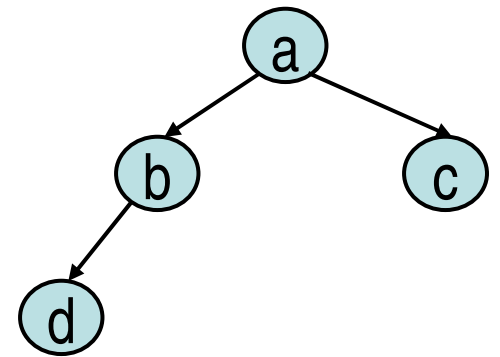
Algorithm post-order(BTree x)

```
If (x is not empty) {  
    post-order(x.getLeftChild());  
    post-order(x.getRightChild());  
    print x.getItem(); // you can do other things!  
}
```

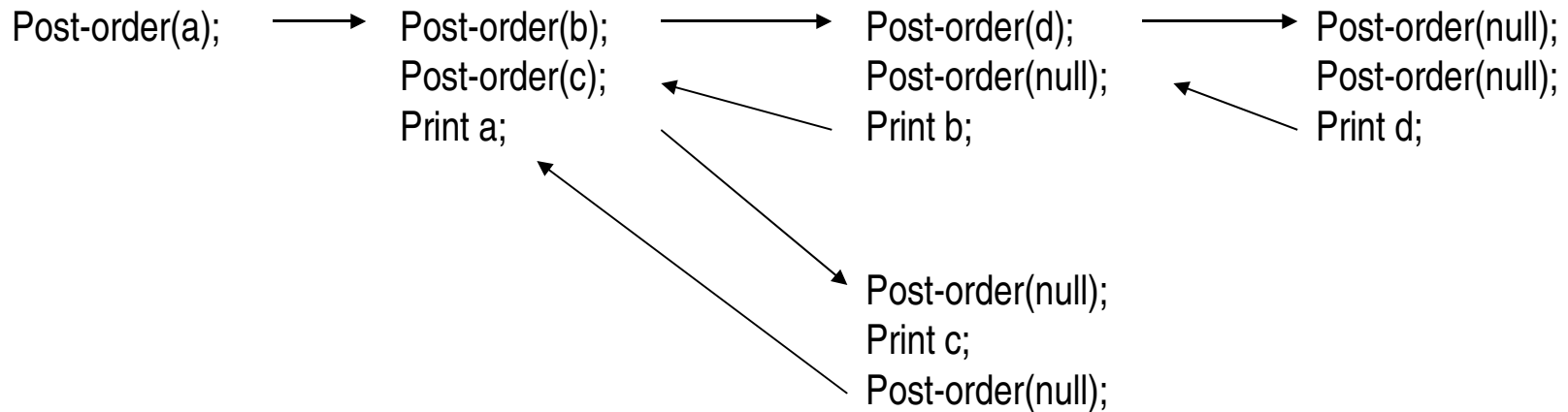
In-order example



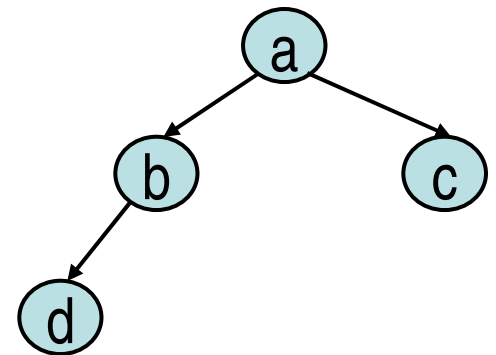
d b a c



Post-order example



d b c a



Time complexity for in-order and post-order

- Similar to pre-order traversal, the time complexity is $O(n)$.

Level-order

- Level-order traversal requires a queue!

Algorithm level-order(BTree t)

```
Queue Q = new Queue();
```

```
BTree n;
```

```
Q.enqueue(t);    // insert pointer t into Q
```

```
while (! Q.empty()){  
    n = Q.dequeue(); //remove next node from the front of Q
```

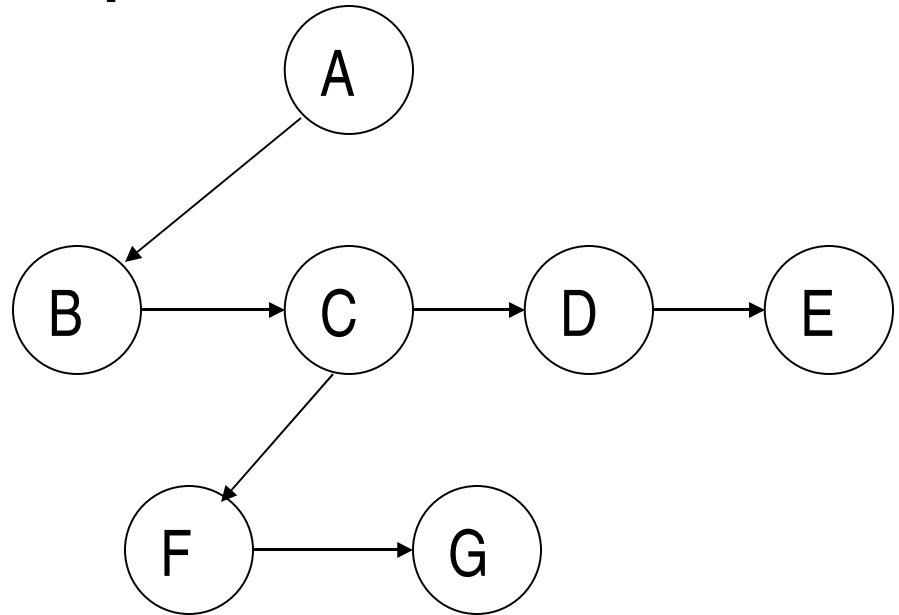
```
    if (!n.isEmpty()){  
        print n.getItem(); // you can do other things  
        Q.enqueue(n.getLeft()); // enqueue left subtree on rear of Q  
        Q.enqueue(n.getRight()); // enqueue right subtree on rear of Q  
    };  
};
```

Time complexity of Level-order traversal

- Each node will enqueue and dequeue one time.
- For each node dequeued, it only does one print operation!
- Thus, the time complexity is $O(n)$.

General tree implementation

```
struct TreeNode
{
    Object    element
    TreeNode *firstChild
    TreeNode *nextsibling
}
```



because we do not know how many children a node has in advance.

- Traversing a general tree is similar to traversing a binary tree

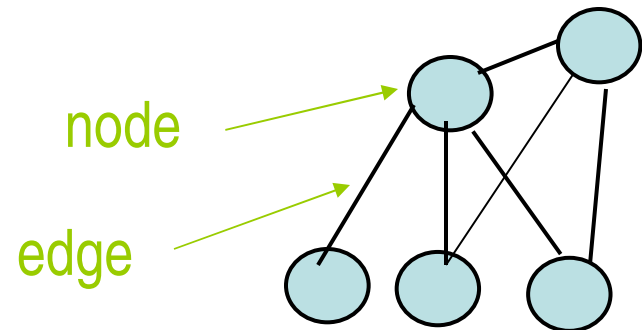
Summary

- We have discussed
 - the tree data-structure.
 - Binary tree vs general tree
 - Binary tree ADT
 - Can be implemented using arrays or references
 - Tree traversal
 - Pre-order, in-order, post-order, and level-order

Graphs

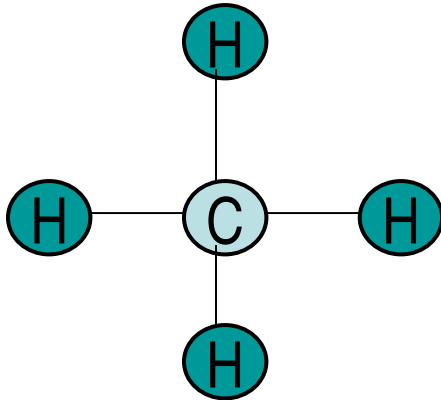
What is a graph?

- Graphs represent the relationships among data items
- A graph G consists of
 - a set V of nodes (vertices)
 - a set E of edges: each edge connects two nodes
- Each node represents an item
- Each edge represents the relationship between two items

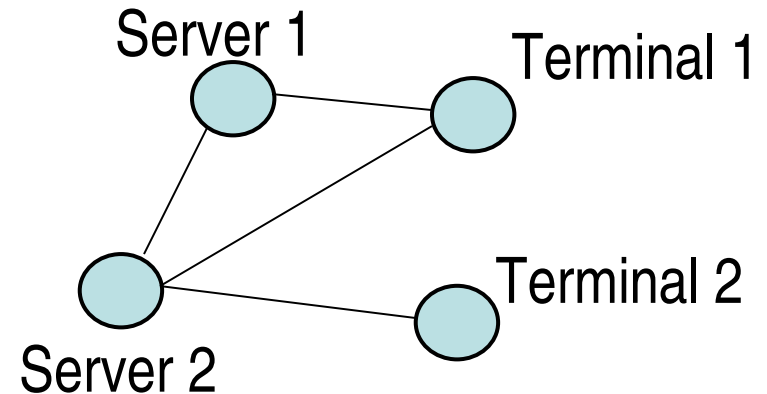


Examples of graphs

Molecular Structure



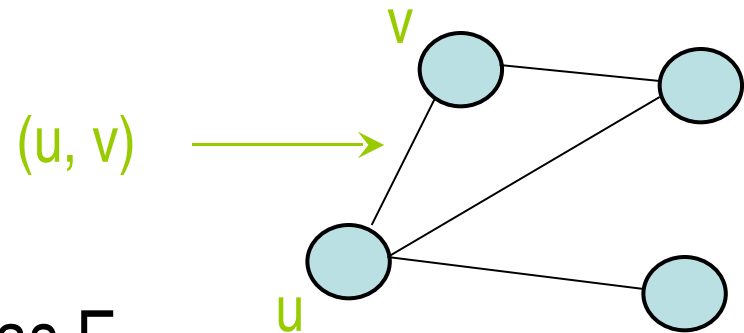
Computer Network



Other examples: electrical and communication networks, airline routes, flow chart, graphs for planning projects

Formal Definition of graph

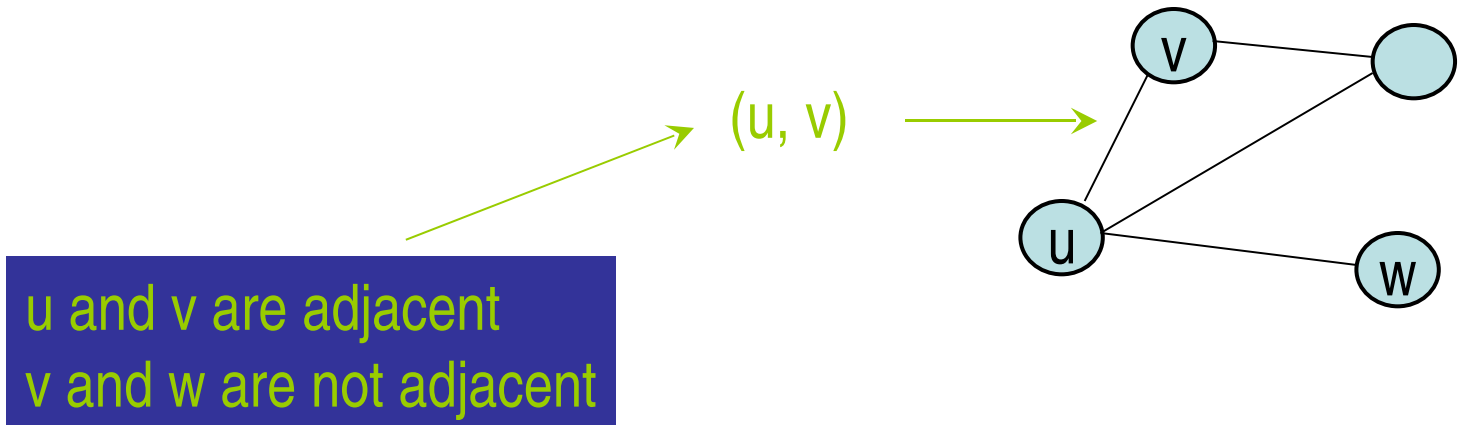
- The set of nodes is denoted as V
- For any nodes u and v , if u and v are connected by an edge, such edge is denoted as (u, v)



- The set of edges is denoted as E
- A graph G is defined as a pair (V, E)

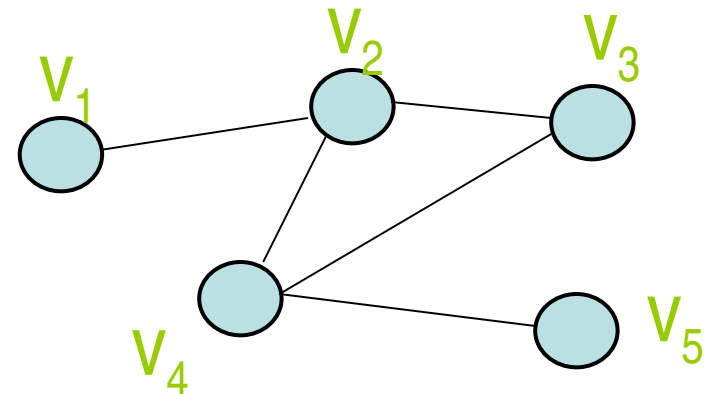
Adjacent

- Two nodes u and v are said to be **adjacent** if $(u, v) \in E$



Path and simple path

- A **path** from v_1 to v_k is a sequence of nodes v_1, v_2, \dots, v_k that are connected by edges $(v_1, v_2), (v_2, v_3), \dots, (v_{k-1}, v_k)$
- A path is called a **simple path** if every node appears at most once.

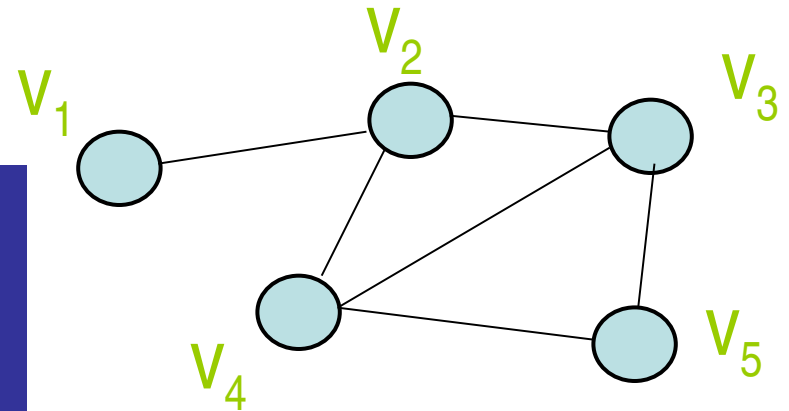


- v_2, v_3, v_4, v_2, v_1 is a path
- v_2, v_3, v_4, v_5 is a path, also it is a simple path

Cycle and simple cycle

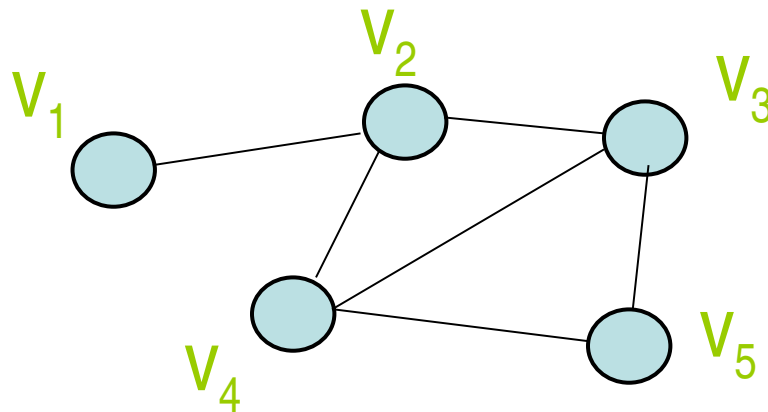
- A **cycle** is a path that begins and ends at the same node
- A **simple cycle** is a cycle if every node appears at most once, except for the first and the last nodes

- $v_2, v_3, v_4, v_5, v_3, v_2$ is a cycle
- v_2, v_3, v_4, v_2 is a cycle, it is also a simple cycle



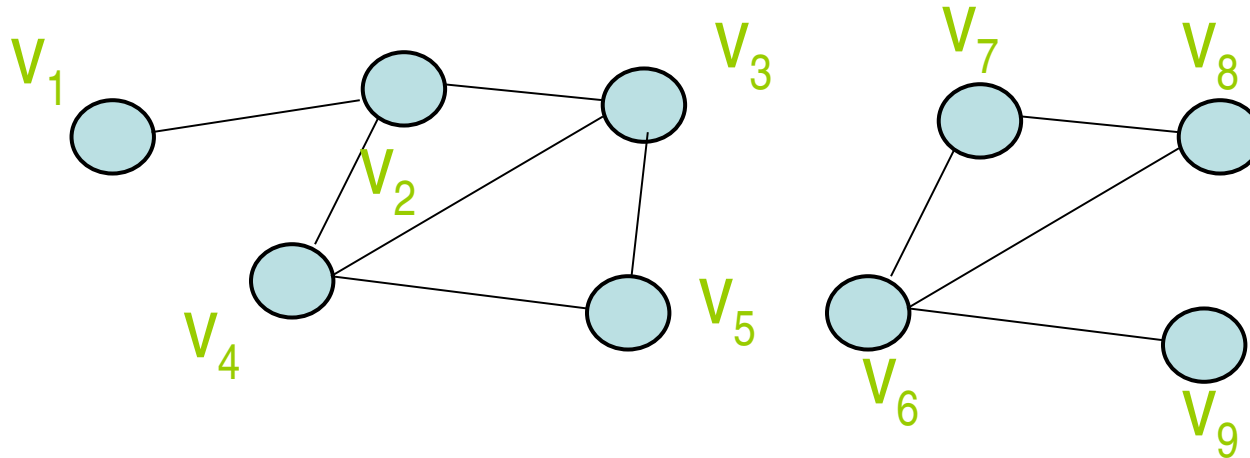
Connected graph

- A graph G is **connected** if there exists path between every pair of distinct nodes; otherwise, it is **disconnected**



This is a connected graph because there exists path between every pair of nodes

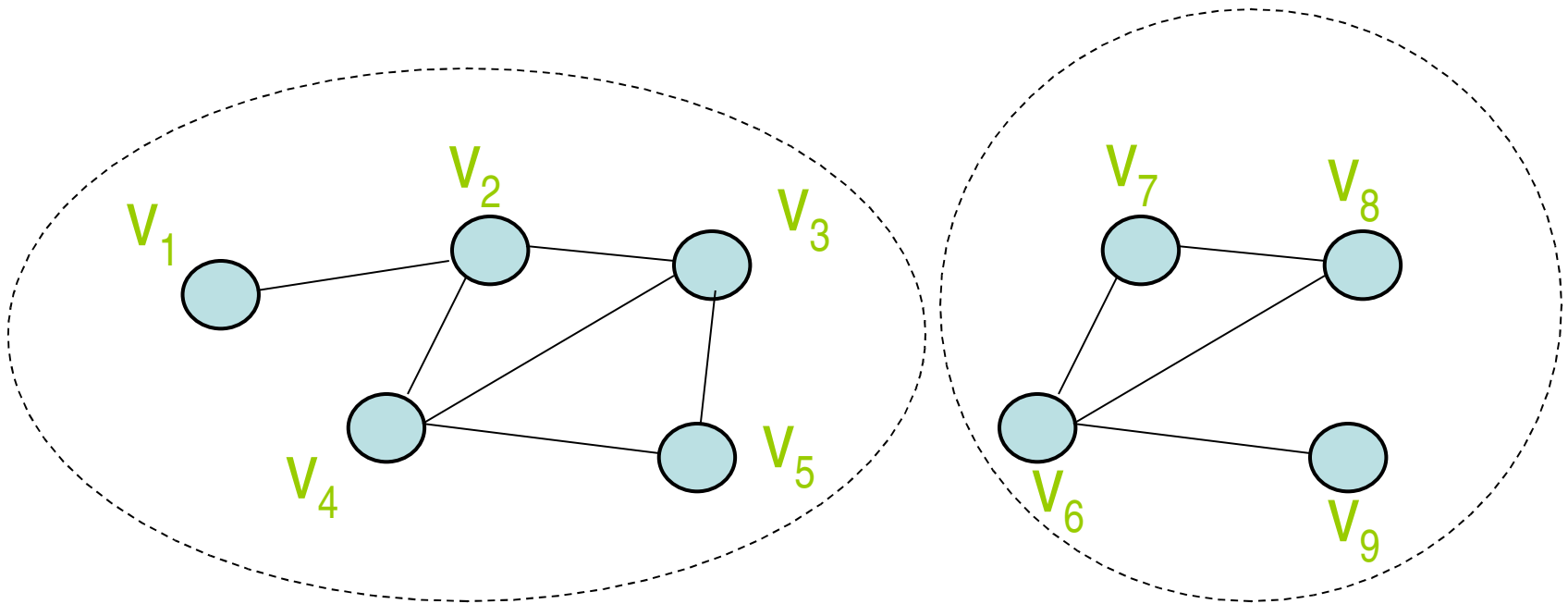
Example of disconnected graph



This is a disconnected graph because there does not exist path between some pair of nodes, says, v_1 and v_7

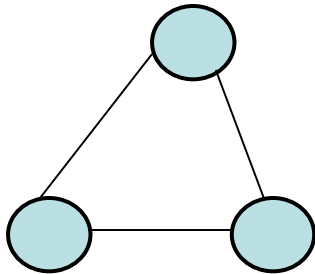
Connected component

- If a graph is disconnect, it can be partitioned into a number of graphs such that each of them is connected. Each such graph is called a **connected component**.

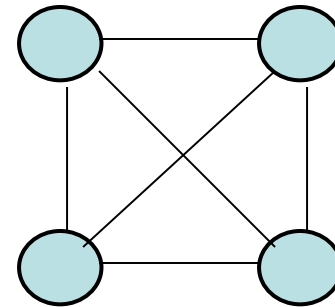


Complete graph

- A graph is **complete** if each pair of distinct nodes has an edge



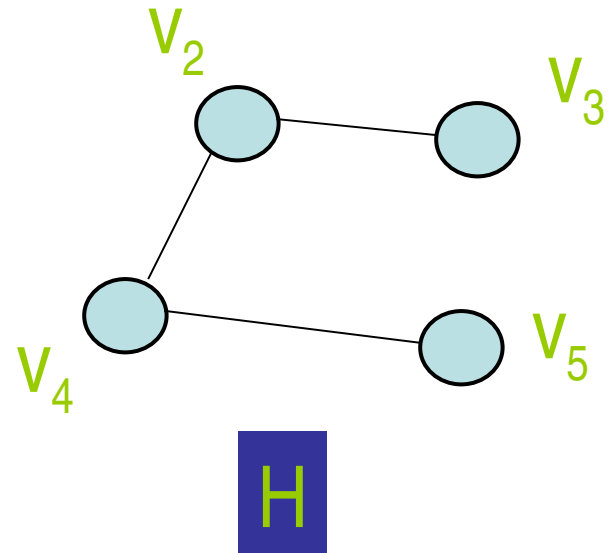
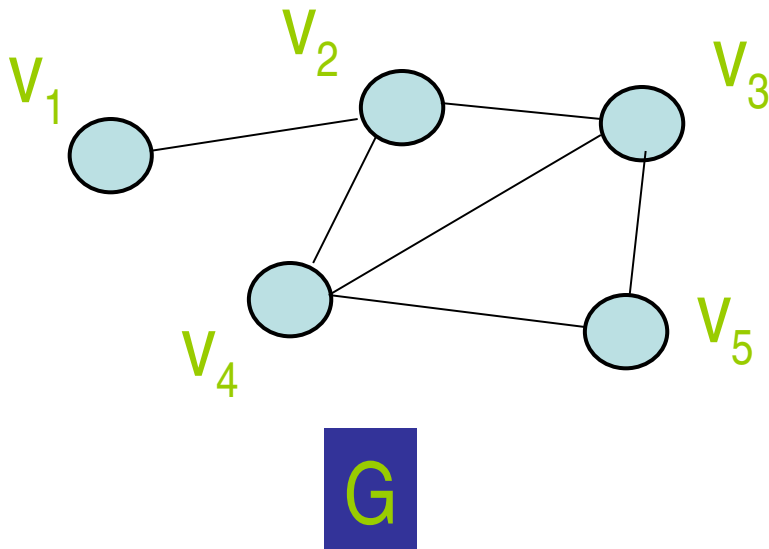
Complete graph
with 3 nodes



Complete graph
with 4 nodes

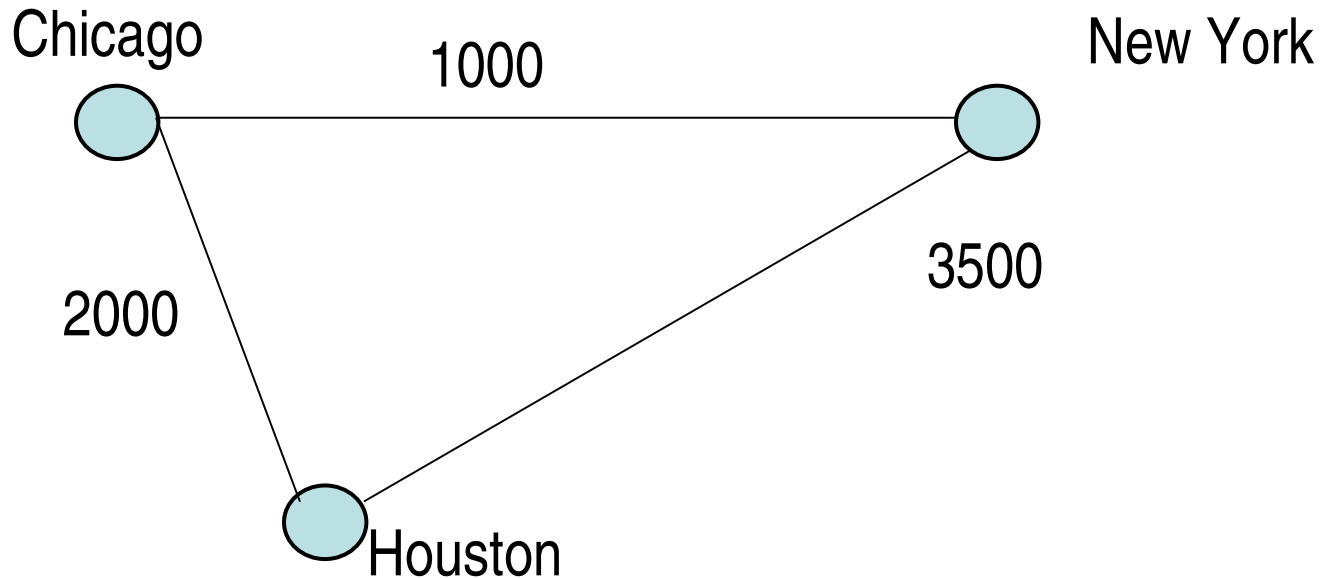
Subgraph

- A **subgraph** of a graph $G = (V, E)$ is a graph $H = (U, F)$ such that $U \subseteq V$ and $F \subseteq E$.



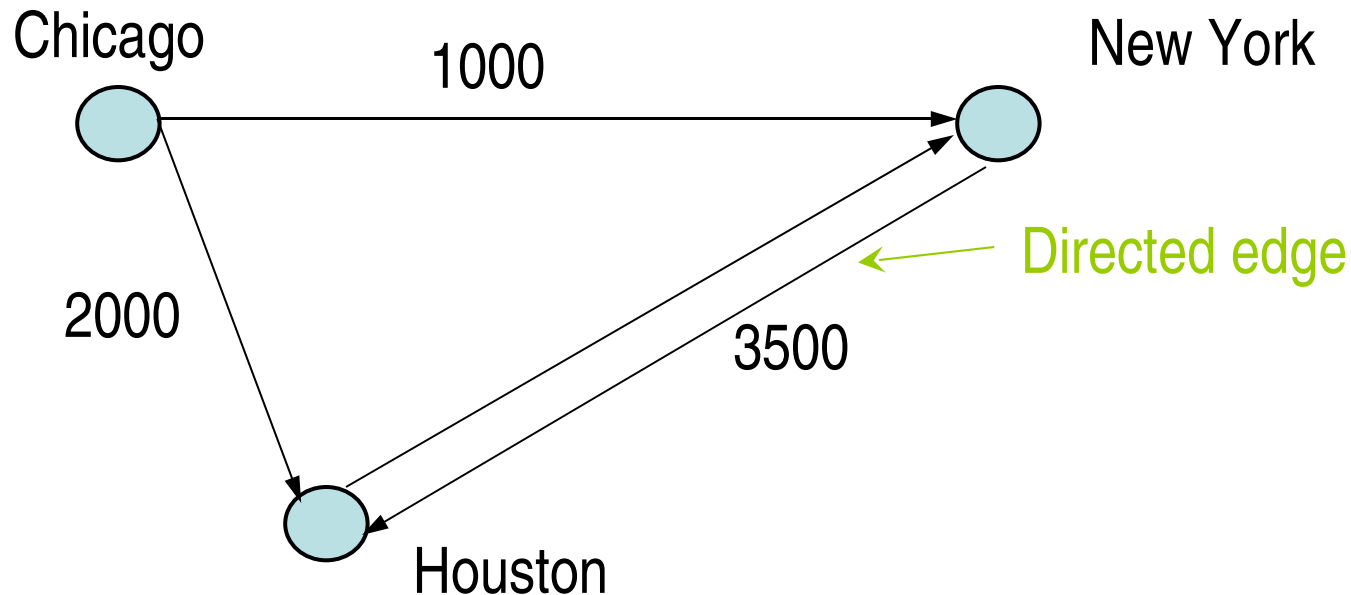
Weighted graph

- If each edge in G is assigned a weight, it is called a **weighted graph**

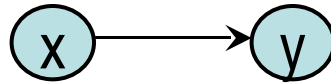


Directed graph (digraph)

- All previous graphs are **undirected graph**
- If each edge in E has a direction, it is called a **directed edge**
- A directed graph is a graph where every edges is a **directed edge**



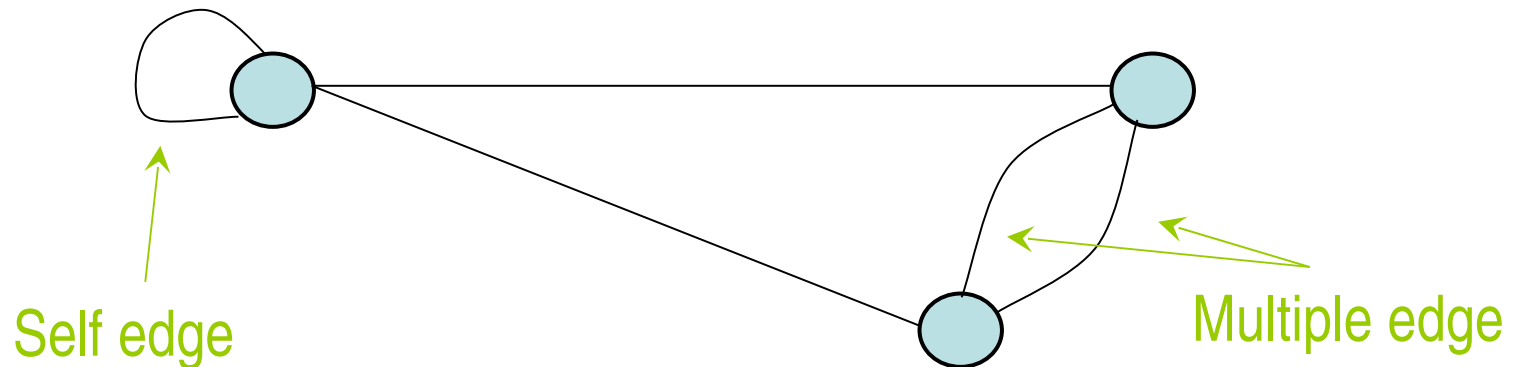
More on directed graph



- If (x, y) is a directed edge, we say
 - y is **adjacent** to x
 - y is **successor** of x
 - x is **predecessor** of y
- In a directed graph, **directed path**, **directed cycle** can be defined similarly

Multigraph

- A graph cannot have duplicate edges.
- Multigraph allows **multiple edges** and **self edge** (or **loop**).



Property of graph

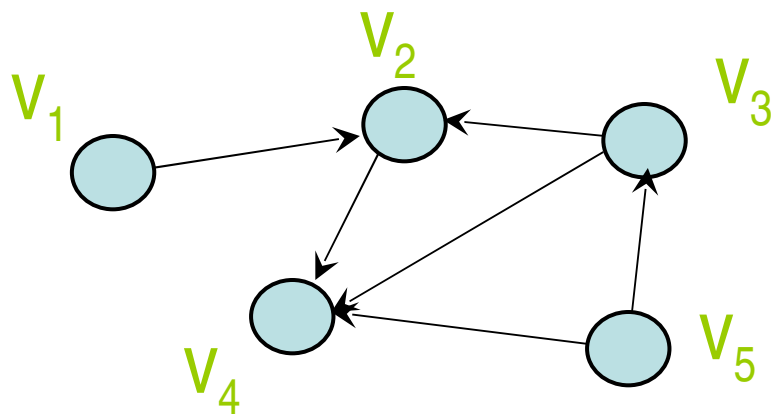
- A undirected graph that is connected and has no cycle is a tree.
- A tree with n nodes have exactly $n-1$ edges.
- A connected undirected graph with n nodes must have at least $n-1$ edges.

Implementing Graph

- Adjacency matrix
 - Represent a graph using a two-dimensional array
- Adjacency list
 - Represent a graph using n linked lists where n is the number of vertices

Adjacency matrix for directed graph

Matrix[i][j] = 1 if $(v_i, v_j) \in E$
 0 if $(v_i, v_j) \notin E$

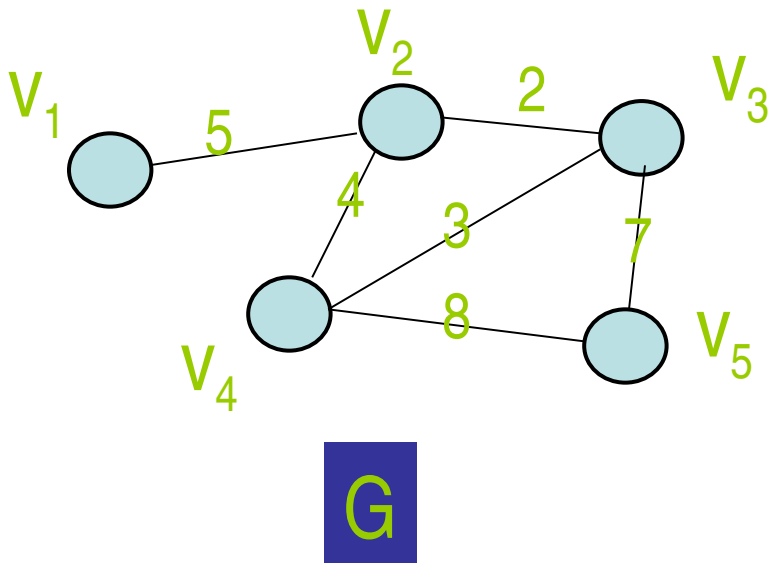


G

		1	2	3	4	5
		v_1	v_2	v_3	v_4	v_5
1	v_1	0	1	0	0	0
2	v_2	0	0	0	1	0
3	v_3	0	1	0	1	0
4	v_4	0	0	0	0	0
5	v_5	0	0	1	1	0

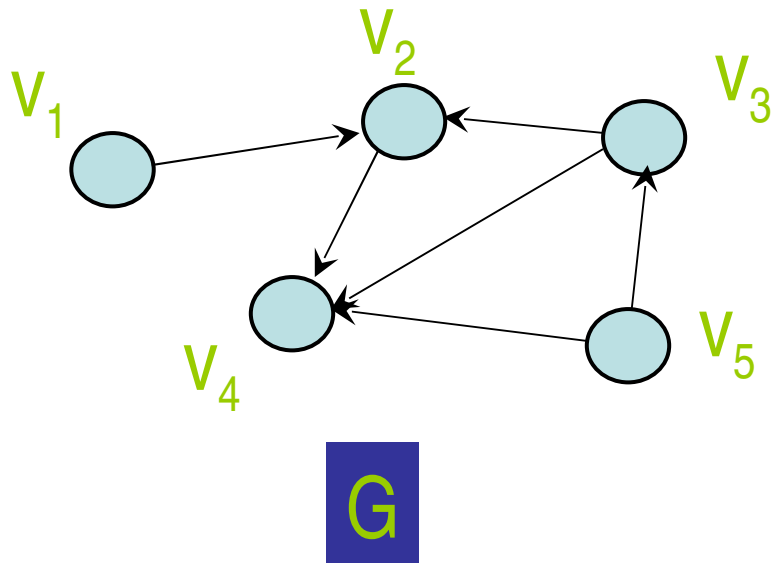
Adjacency matrix for weighted undirected graph

Matrix[i][j] = $w(v_i, v_j)$ if $(v_i, v_j) \in E$ or $(v_j, v_i) \in E$
 ∞ otherwise



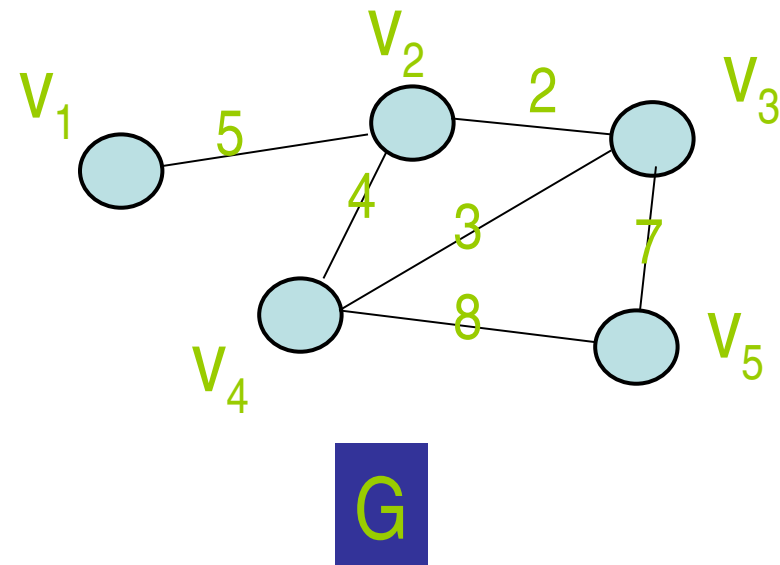
		1	2	3	4	5
		v_1	v_2	v_3	v_4	v_5
1	v_1	∞	5	∞	∞	∞
2	v_2	5	∞	2	4	∞
3	v_3	0	2	∞	3	7
4	v_4	∞	4	3	∞	8
5	v_5	∞	∞	7	8	∞

Adjacency list for directed graph



1	v_1	\rightarrow	v_2
2	v_2	\rightarrow	v_4
3	v_3	\rightarrow	$v_2 \rightarrow v_4$
4	v_4		
5	v_5	\rightarrow	$v_3 \rightarrow v_4$

Adjacency list for weighted undirected graph



1	v_1	—	$v_2(5)$	
2	v_2	—	$v_1(5)$	$\rightarrow v_3(2) - v_4(4)$
3	v_3	—	$v_2(2)$	$\rightarrow v_4(3) - v_5(7)$
4	v_4	—	$v_2(4)$	$\rightarrow v_3(3) - v_5(8)$
5	v_5	—	$v_3(7)$	$\rightarrow v_4(8)$

Pros and Cons

- Adjacency matrix
 - Allows us to determine whether there is an edge from node i to node j in $O(1)$ time
- Adjacency list
 - Allows us to find all nodes adjacent to a given node j efficiently
 - If the graph is sparse, adjacency list requires less space

Problems related to Graph

- Graph Traversal
- Topological Sort
- Spanning Tree
- Minimum Spanning Tree
- Shortest Path

Graph Traversal Algorithm

- To traverse a tree, we use tree traversal algorithms like pre-order, in-order, and post-order to visit all the nodes in a tree
- Similarly, **graph traversal algorithm** tries to visit all the nodes it can reach.
- If a graph is disconnected, a graph traversal that begins at a node v will visit only a subset of nodes, that is, the **connected component** containing v .

Two basic traversal algorithms

- Two basic graph traversal algorithms:
 - Depth-first-search (DFS)
 - After visit node v , DFS strategy proceeds along a path from v as deeply into the graph as possible before backing up
 - Breadth-first-search (BFS)
 - After visit node v , BFS strategy visits every node adjacent to v before visiting any other nodes

Depth-first search (DFS)

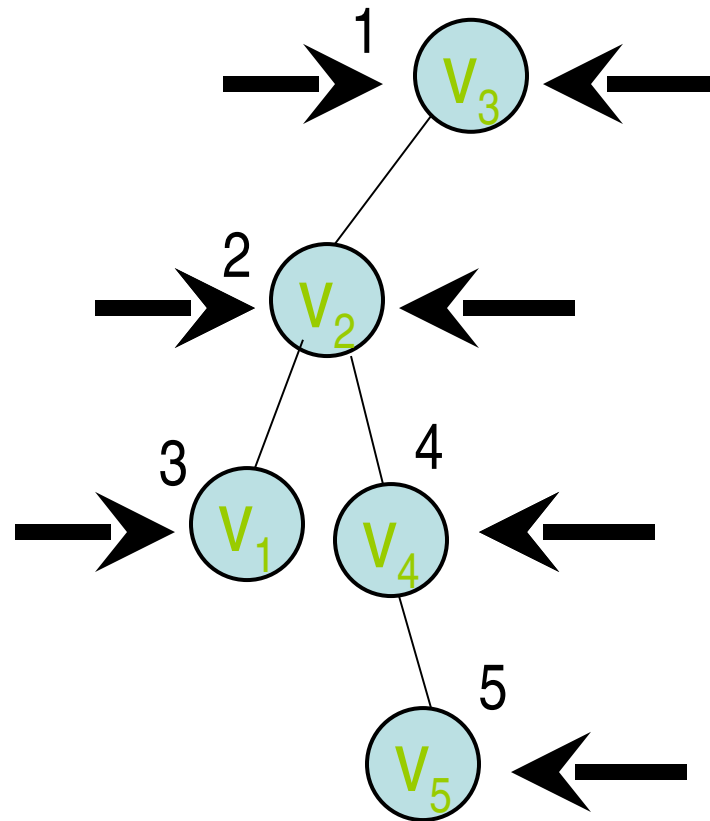
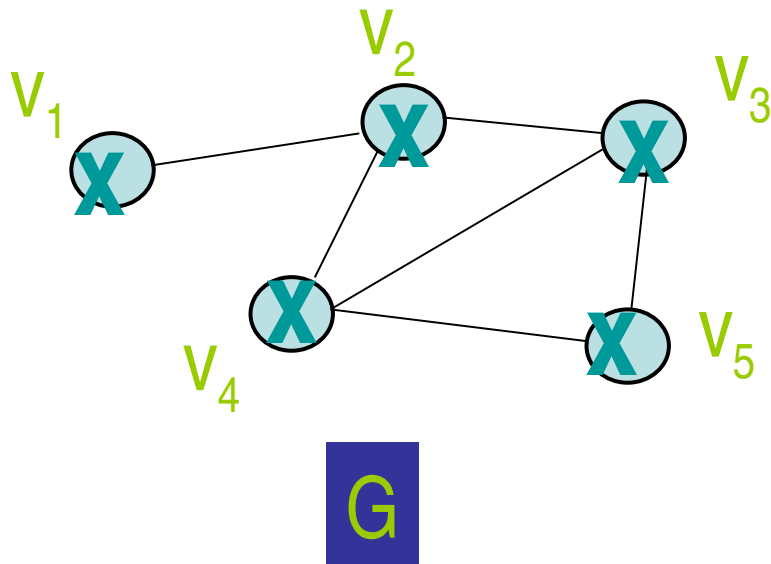
- DFS strategy looks similar to pre-order. From a given node v , it first visits itself. Then, recursively visit its unvisited neighbours one by one.
- DFS can be defined recursively as follows.

Algorithm `dfs(v)`

```
print v; // you can do other things!  
mark v as visited;  
for (each unvisited node u adjacent to v)  
    dfs(u);
```

DFS example

- Start from v_3



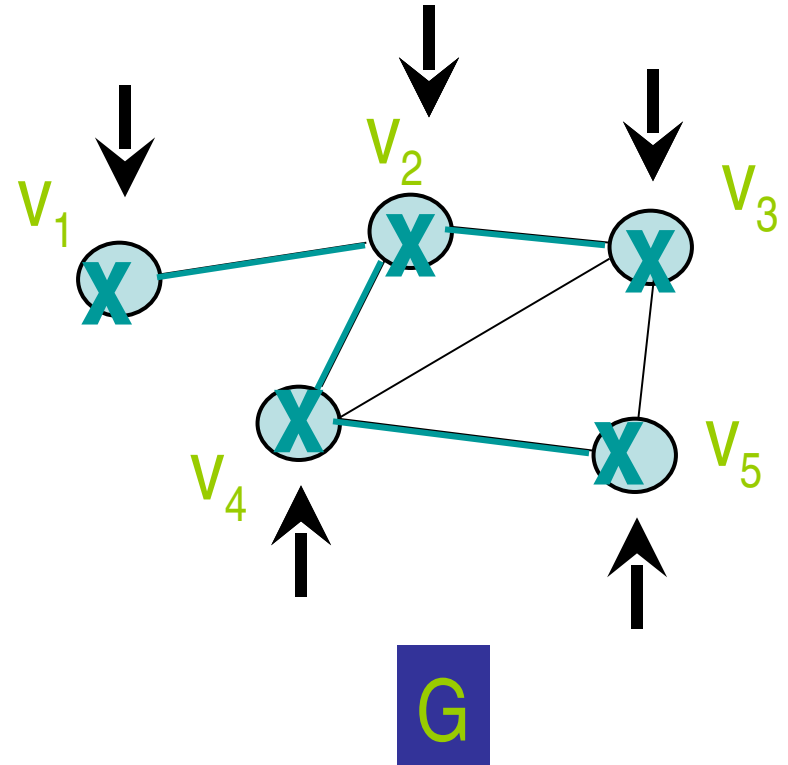
Non-recursive version of DFS algorithm

Algorithm dfs(v)

```
s.createStack();
s.push(v);
mark v as visited;
while (!s.isEmpty()) {
    let x be the node on the top of the stack s;
    if (no unvisited nodes are adjacent to x)
        s.pop(); // backtrack
    else {
        select an unvisited node u adjacent to x;
        s.push(u);
        mark u as visited;
    }
}
```

Non-recursive DFS example

	visit	stack
→	v_3	v_3
→	v_2	v_3, v_2
→	v_1	v_3, v_2, v_1
→	backtrack	v_3, v_2
→	v_4	v_3, v_2, v_4
→	v_5	v_3, v_2, v_4, v_5
→	backtrack	v_3, v_2, v_4
→	backtrack	v_3, v_2
→	backtrack	v_3
→	backtrack	empty



Breadth-first search (BFS)

- BFS strategy looks similar to level-order. From a given node v , it first visits itself. Then, it visits every node adjacent to v before visiting any other nodes.
 - 1. Visit v
 - 2. Visit all v 's neighbours
 - 3. Visit all v 's neighbours' neighbours
 - ...
- Similar to level-order, BFS is based on a queue.

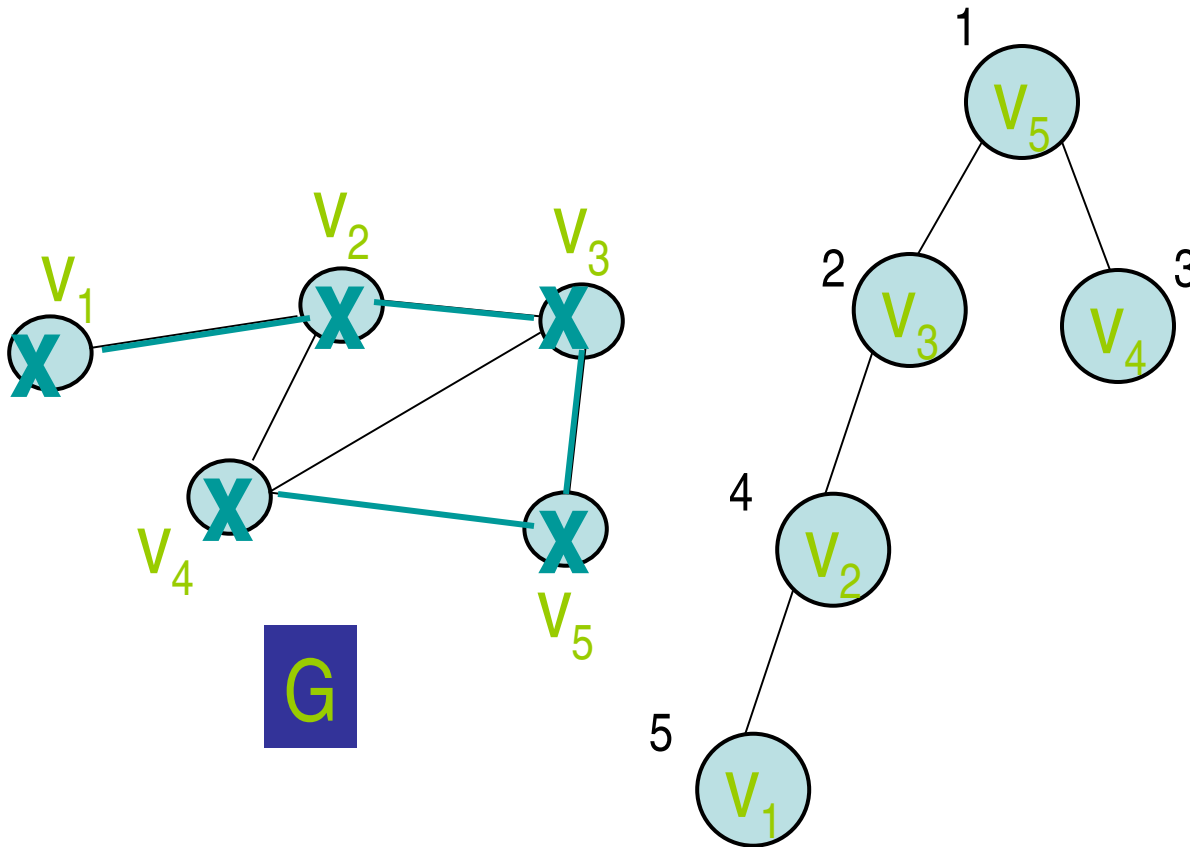
Algorithm for BFS

Algorithm bfs(v)

```
q.createQueue();
q.enqueue(v);
mark v as visited;
while(!q.isEmpty()) {
    w = q.dequeue();
    for (each unvisited node u adjacent to w) {
        q.enqueue(u);
        mark u as visited;
    }
}
```


BFS example

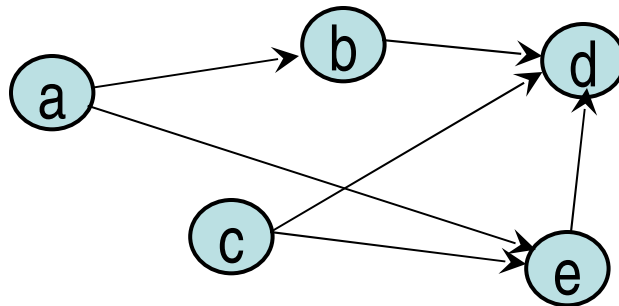
- Start from v_5



Visit	Queue (front to back)
v_5	v_5
	empty
v_3	v_3
v_4	v_3, v_4
	v_4
v_2	v_4, v_2
	v_2
	empty
v_1	v_1
	empty

Topological order

- Consider the prerequisite structure for courses:



- Each node x represents a course x
- (x, y) represents that course x is a prerequisite to course y
- Note that this graph should be a directed graph without cycles (called a **directed acyclic graph**).
- A linear order to take all 5 courses while satisfying all prerequisites is called a **topological order**.
- E.g.
 - a, c, b, e, d
 - c, a, b, e, d

Topological sort

- Arranging all nodes in the graph in a topological order

Algorithm topSort

$n = |V|;$

for $i = 1$ to n {

 select a node v that has no successor;

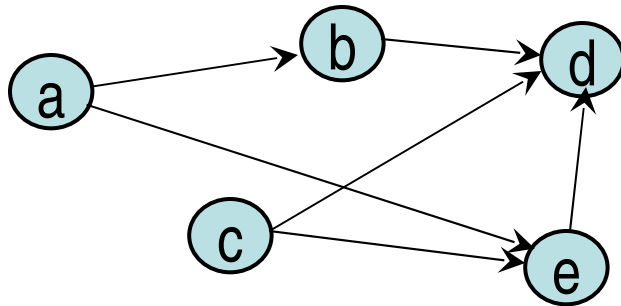
$aList.add(1, v);$

 delete node v and its edges from the graph;

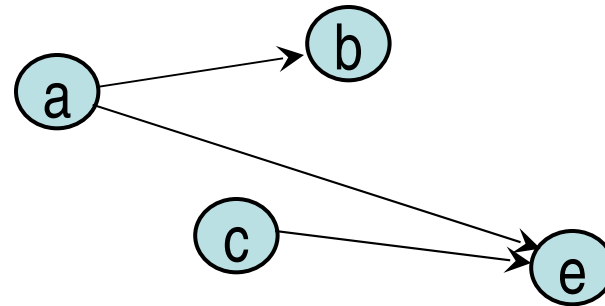
}

return $aList;$

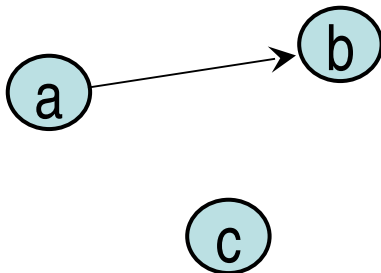
Example



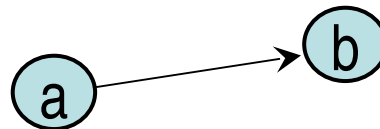
1. d has no successor!
Choose d!



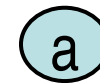
1. Both b and e have no successor!
Choose e!



1. Both b and c have no successor!
Choose c!



1. Only b has no successor!
Choose b!



1. Choose a!
The topological order is
a,b,c,e,d

Topological sort algorithm 2

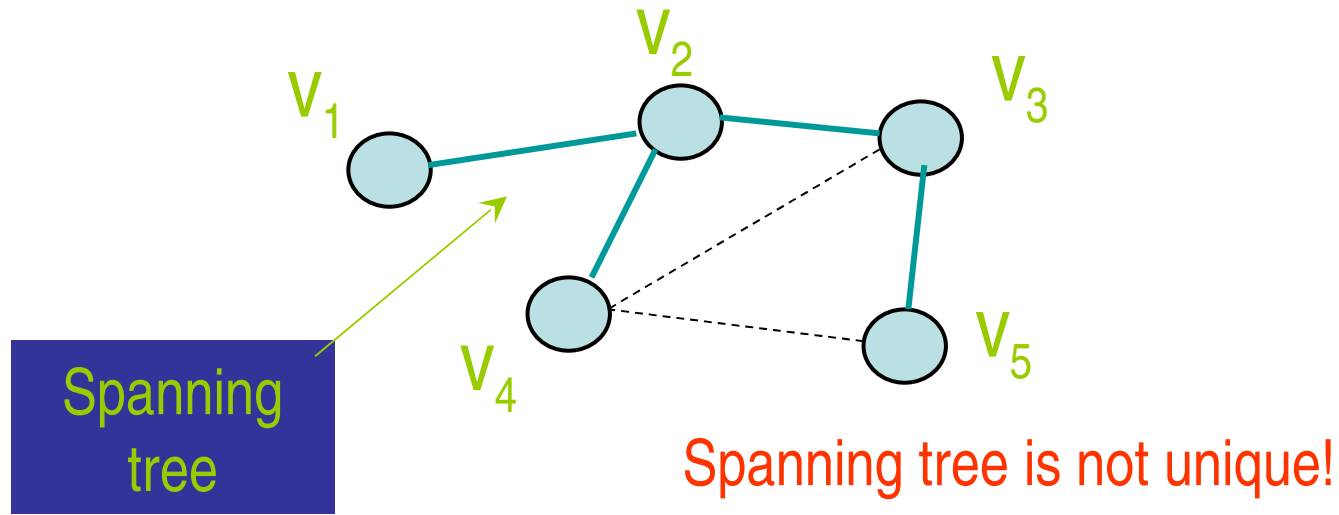
- This algorithm is based on DFS

Algorithm topSort2

```
s.createStack();
for (all nodes v in the graph) {
    if (v has no predecessors) {
        s.push(v);
        mark v as visited;
    }
}
while (!s.isEmpty()) {
    let x be the node on the top of the stack s;
    if (no unvisited nodes are adjacent to x) { // i.e. x has no unvisited successor
        aList.add(1, x);
        s.pop(); // backtrack
    } else {
        select an unvisited node u adjacent to x;
        s.push(u);
        mark u as visited;
    }
}
return aList;
```

Spanning Tree

- Given a connected undirected graph G , a **spanning tree** of G is a subgraph of G that contains all of G 's nodes and enough of its edges to form a tree.



DFS spanning tree

- Generate the spanning tree edge during the DFS traversal.

Algorithm dfsSpanningTree(v)

mark v as visited;

for (each unvisited node u adjacent to v) {

 mark the edge from u to v;

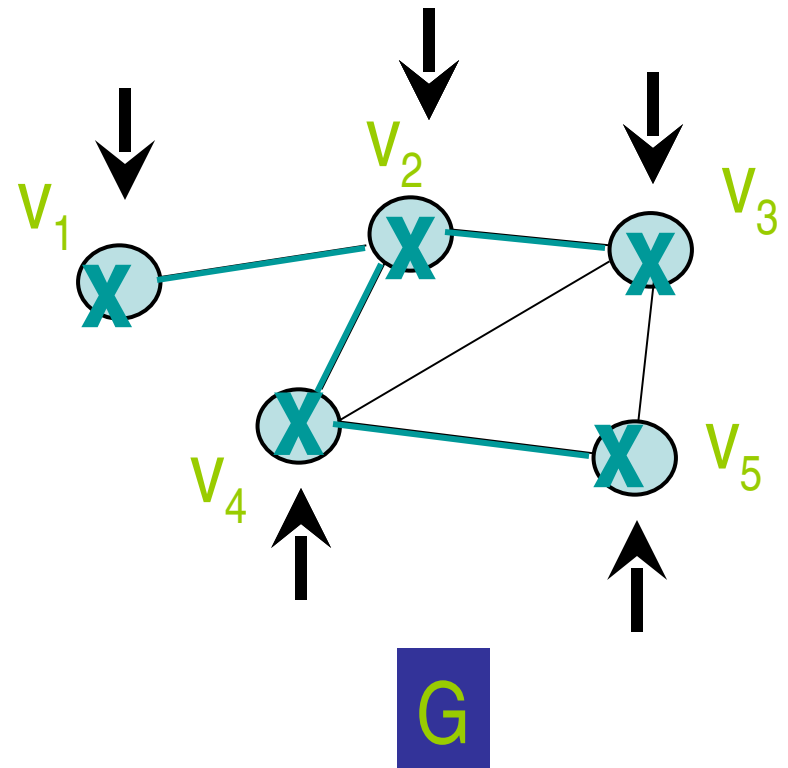
 dfsSpanningTree(u);

}

- Similar to DFS, the spanning tree edges can be generated based on BFS traversal.

Example of generating spanning tree based on DFS

	stack
V_3	V_3
V_2	V_3, V_2
V_1	V_3, V_2, V_1
backtrack	V_3, V_2
V_4	V_3, V_2, V_4
V_5	V_3, V_2, V_4, V_5
backtrack	V_3, V_2, V_4
backtrack	V_3, V_2
backtrack	V_3
backtrack	empty

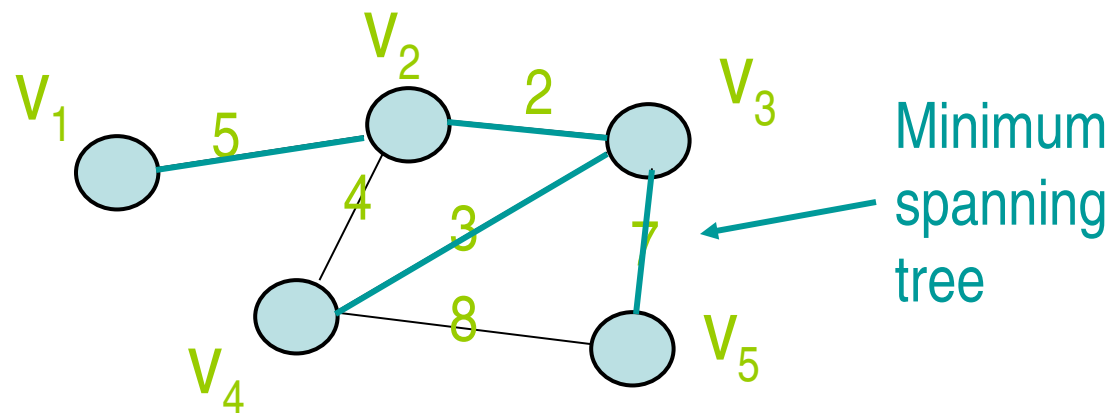


Minimum Spanning Tree

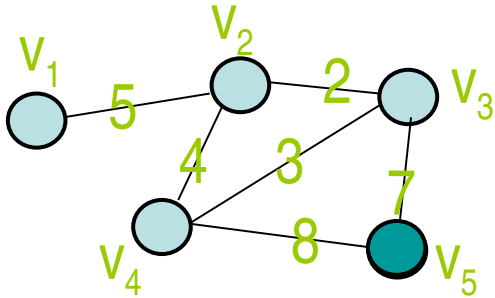
- Consider a connected undirected graph where
 - Each node x represents a country x
 - Each edge (x, y) has a number which measures the cost of placing telephone line between country x and country y
- **Problem:** connecting all countries while minimizing the total cost
- **Solution:** find a spanning tree with minimum total weight, that is, **minimum spanning tree**

Formal definition of minimum spanning tree

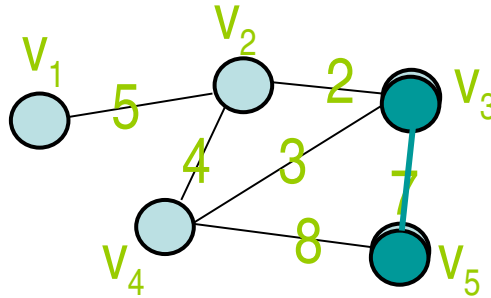
- Given a connected undirected graph G .
- Let T be a spanning tree of G .
- $\text{cost}(T) = \sum_{e \in T} \text{weight}(e)$
- The minimum spanning tree is a spanning tree T which minimizes $\text{cost}(T)$



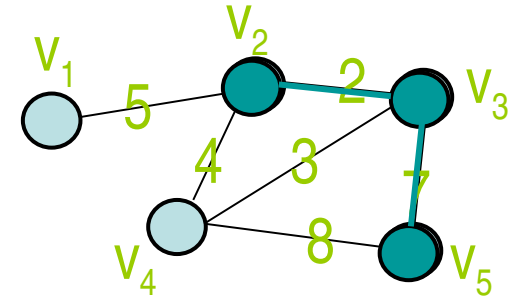
Prim's algorithm (I)



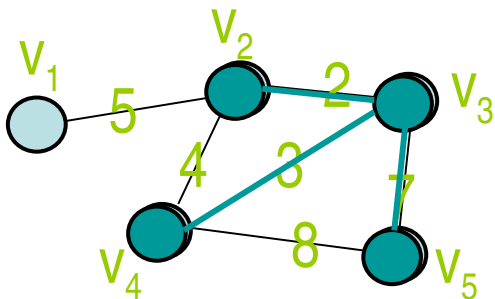
Start from v_5 , find the minimum edge attach to v_5



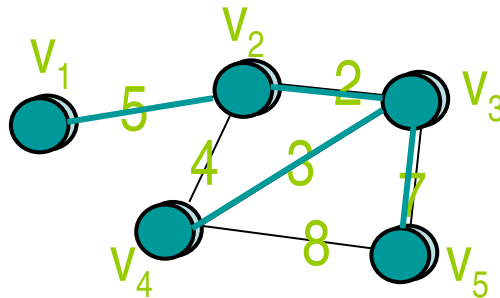
Find the minimum edge attach to v_3 and v_5



Find the minimum edge attach to v_2, v_3 and v_5



Find the minimum edge attach to v_2, v_3, v_4 and v_5



Prim's algorithm (II)

Algorithm PrimAlgorithm(v)

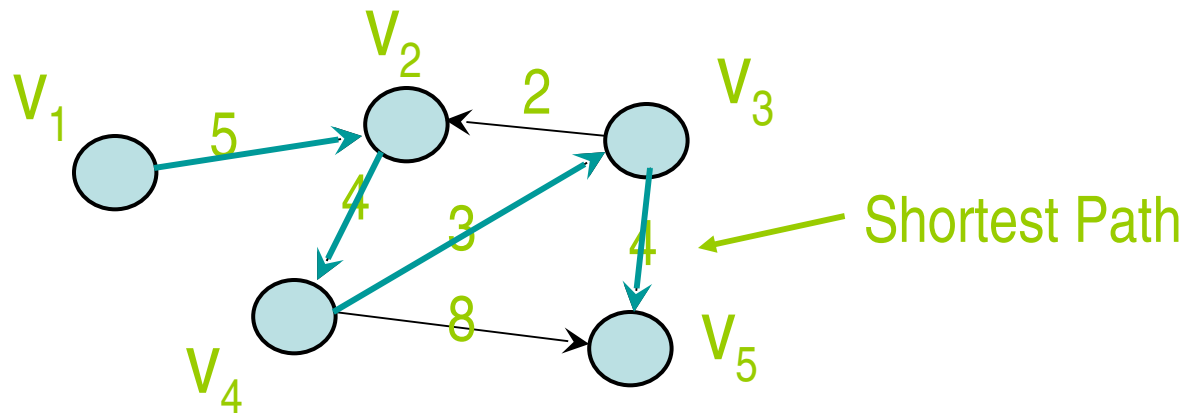
- Mark node v as visited and include it in the minimum spanning tree;
- while (there are unvisited nodes) {
 - find the minimum edge (v, u) between a visited node v and an unvisited node u ;
 - mark u as visited;
 - add both v and (v, u) to the minimum spanning tree;}

Shortest path

- Consider a weighted directed graph
 - Each node x represents a city x
 - Each edge (x, y) has a number which represent the cost of traveling from city x to city y
- **Problem**: find the minimum cost to travel from city x to city y
- **Solution**: find the **shortest path** from x to y

Formal definition of shortest path

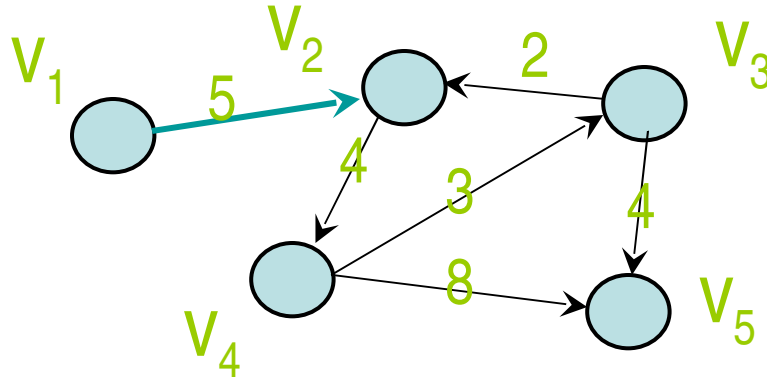
- Given a weighted directed graph G .
- Let P be a path of G from x to y .
- $\text{cost}(P) = \sum_{e \in P} \text{weight}(e)$
- The shortest path is a path P which minimizes $\text{cost}(P)$



Dijkstra's algorithm

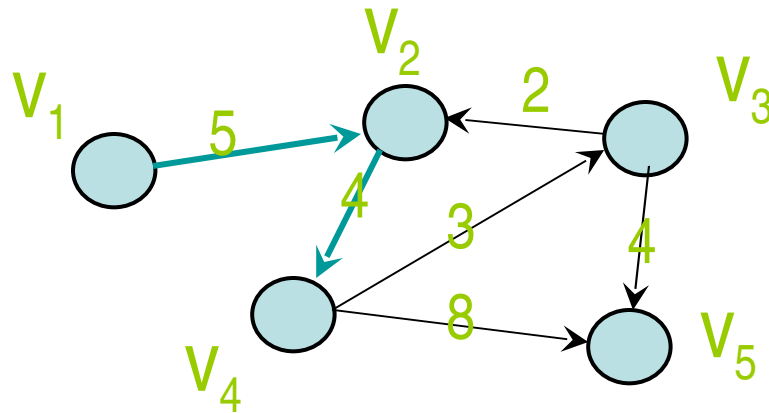
- Consider a graph G , each edge (u, v) has a weight $w(u, v) > 0$.
- Suppose we want to find the shortest path starting from v_1 to any node v_i
- Let VS be a subset of nodes in G
- Let $\text{cost}[v_i]$ be the weight of the shortest path from v_1 to v_i that passes through nodes in VS only.

Example for Dijkstra's algorithm



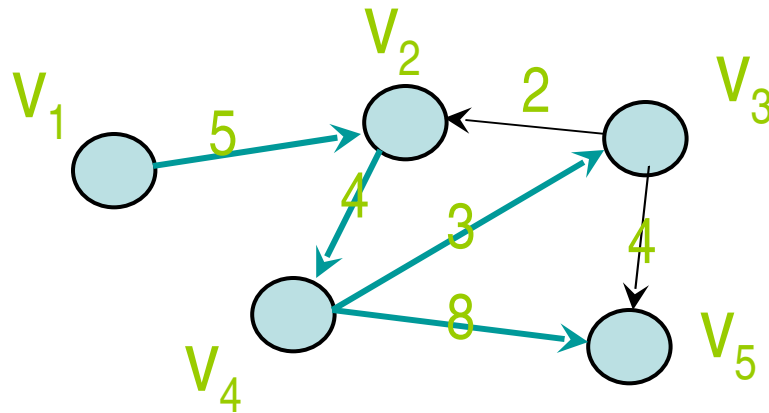
	v	VS	cost[v ₁]	cost[v ₂]	cost[v ₃]	cost[v ₄]	cost[v ₅]
1		[v ₁]	0	5	∞	∞	∞

Example for Dijkstra's algorithm



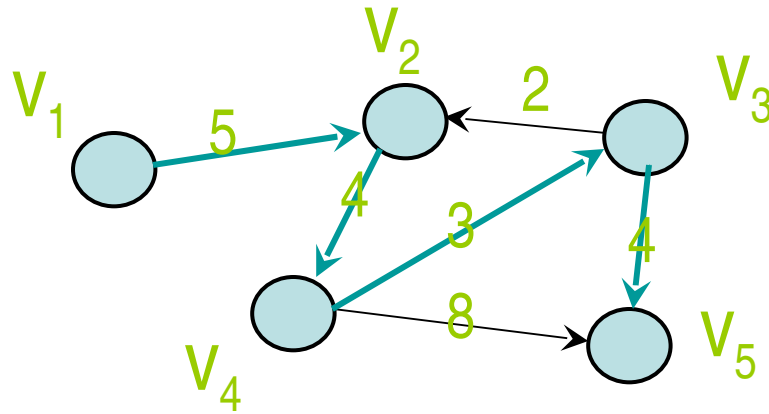
	v	VS	cost[v ₁]	cost[v ₂]	cost[v ₃]	cost[v ₄]	cost[v ₅]
1		[v ₁]	0	5	∞	∞	∞
2	v ₂	[v ₁ , v ₂]	0	5	∞	9	∞

Example for Dijkstra's algorithm



	v	VS	cost[v ₁]	cost[v ₂]	cost[v ₃]	cost[v ₄]	cost[v ₅]
1		[v ₁]	0	5	∞	∞	∞
2	v ₂	[v ₁ , v ₂]	0	5	∞	9	∞
3	v ₄	[v ₁ , v ₂ , v ₄]	0	5	12	9	17

Example for Dijkstra's algorithm



	v	VS	cost[v ₁]	cost[v ₂]	cost[v ₃]	cost[v ₄]	cost[v ₅]
1		[v ₁]	0	5	∞	∞	∞
2	v ₂	[v ₁ , v ₂]	0	5	∞	9	∞
3	v ₄	[v ₁ , v ₂ , v ₄]	0	5	12	9	17
4	v ₃	[v ₁ , v ₂ , v ₄ , v ₃]	0	5	12	9	16
5	v ₅	[v ₁ , v ₂ , v ₄ , v ₃ , v ₅]	0	5	12	9	16

Dijkstra's algorithm

Algorithm shortestPath()

```
n = number of nodes in the graph;
for i = 1 to n
    cost[vi] = w(v1, vi);
VS = { v1 };
for step = 2 to n {
    find the smallest cost[vj] s.t. vj is not in VS;
    include vj to VS;
    for (all nodes vj not in VS) {
        if (cost[vj] > cost[vi] + w(vi, vj))
            cost[vj] = cost[vi] + w(vi, vj);
    }
}
```

Summary

- Graphs can be used to represent many real-life problems.
- There are numerous important graph algorithms.
- We have studied some basic concepts and algorithms.
 - Graph Traversal
 - Topological Sort
 - Spanning Tree
 - Minimum Spanning Tree
 - Shortest Path