Theory Lecture 4

Relational Data Structures

Learning Objectives

- Explore some more abstract data types which use links to organise data
- Introduce trees and graphs
- Study the use of trees and their application in other algorithms
- Explore some more algorithms for graphs

Graph Refresher

Graph

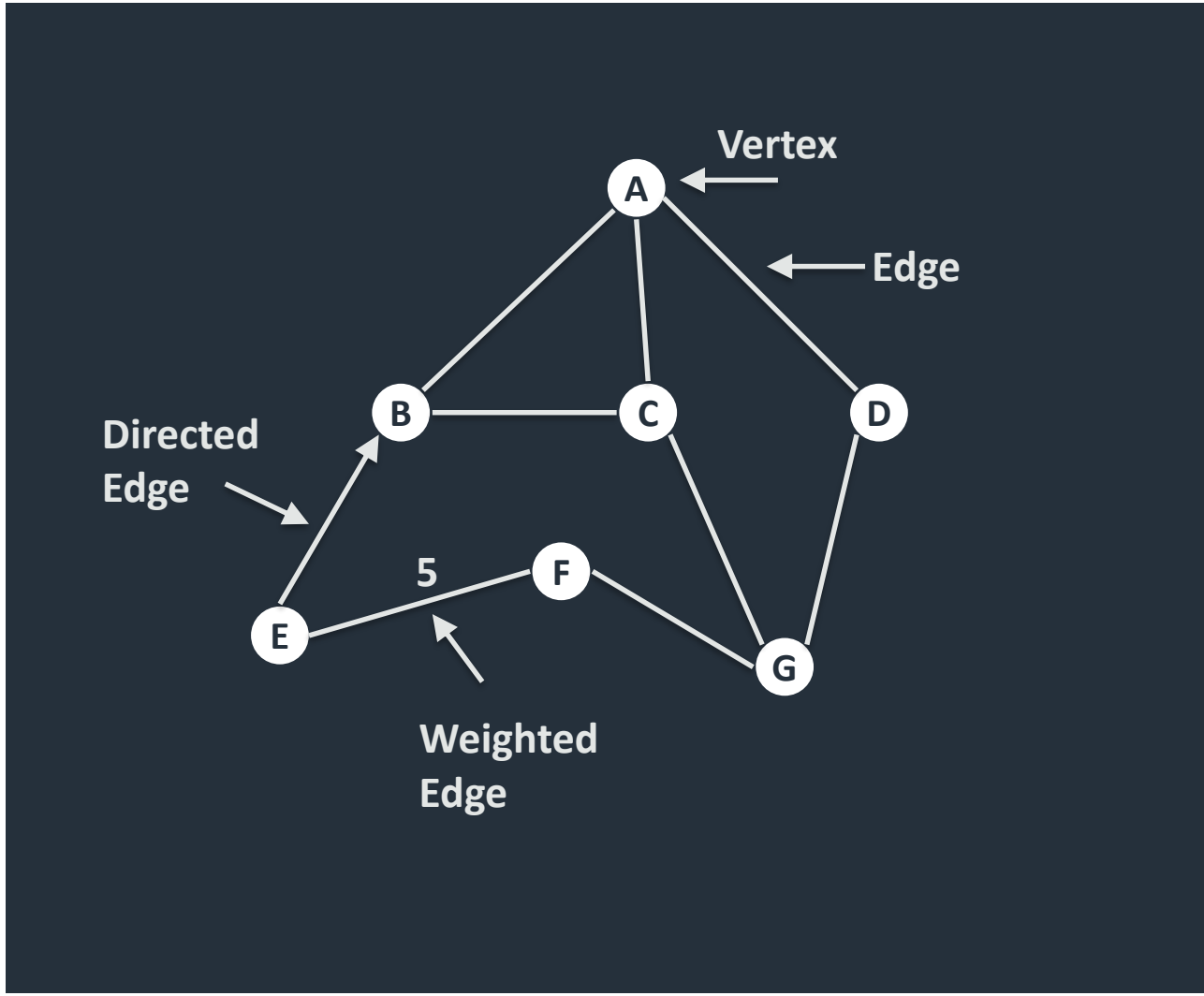
Graphs and their representation were introduced in SOF1 week 08

- They have vertices (nodes) and edges which connect vertices

Edges may be undirected (two-way) or directed (one way)

The edges may be unweighted (no information on them) or weighted (numeric weight attached to edge)

B is adjacent to A if there is an edge connecting A to B



Adjacency matrix representation

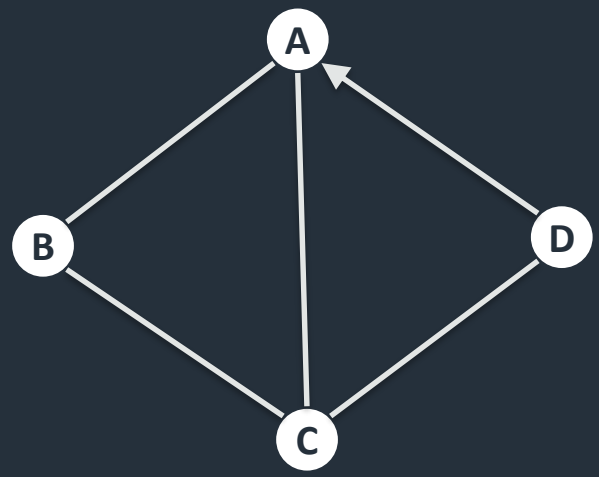
The adjacency matrix is a matrix with one row and one column for each vertex

$$\begin{array}{c} \\ A \\ B \\ C \\ D \end{array} \begin{array}{c} \begin{array}{cccc} A & B & C & D \end{array} \\ \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \end{array}$$

Insert 1 where there is an edge.

We can use the weights instead of 1 for a weighted graph.

The zeros may be replaced by ∞ dependent on the application



Adjacency/Edge list representation

The adjacency list is a list where each entry is a list of adjacent vertices:

A: (B,C)

B: (A,C)

C: (A,B,D)

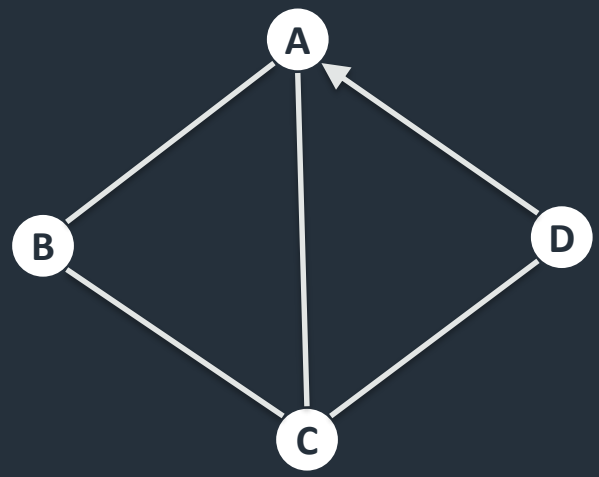
D: (A,C)

The edge list is a list of pairs of nodes indicating where the edges are.

[(A,B),(A,C),(B,A),(B,C),(C,A),(C,B),(C,D),(D,A),(D,C)]

If the graph is known to be undirected, we need only list a pair once, i.e. we would list just (A,B) rather than (A,B),(B,A)

More compact than adjacency matrix.



What is an Tree?

Tree(1)

A tree is a type of graph

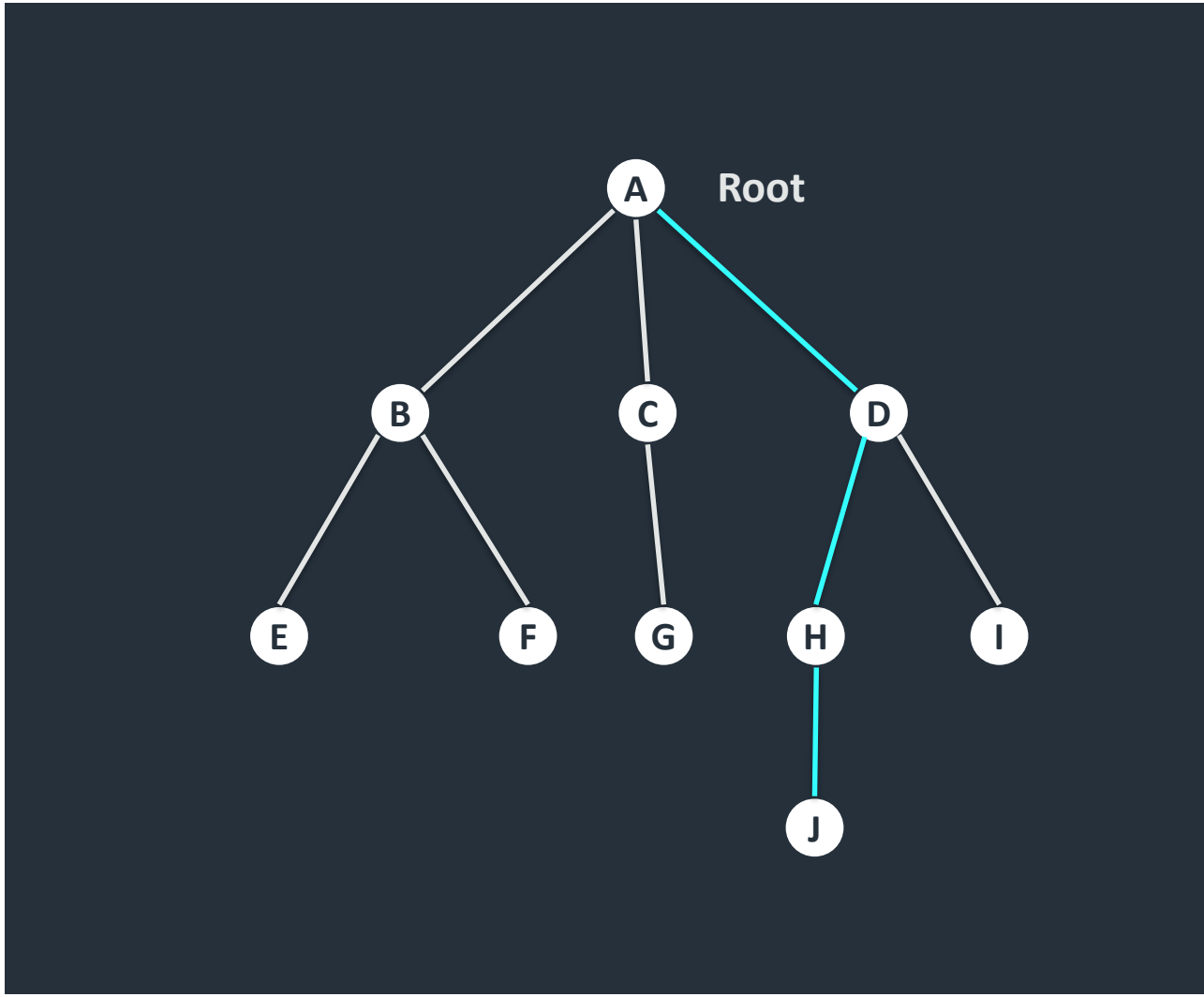
- It has vertices (nodes) and edges which connect vertices

A tree is a graph which has no loops

A rooted tree is a tree which has a specially designated vertex called the root

  All our trees here are rooted and we will just call them trees

There is a unique shortest path from every vertex to the root



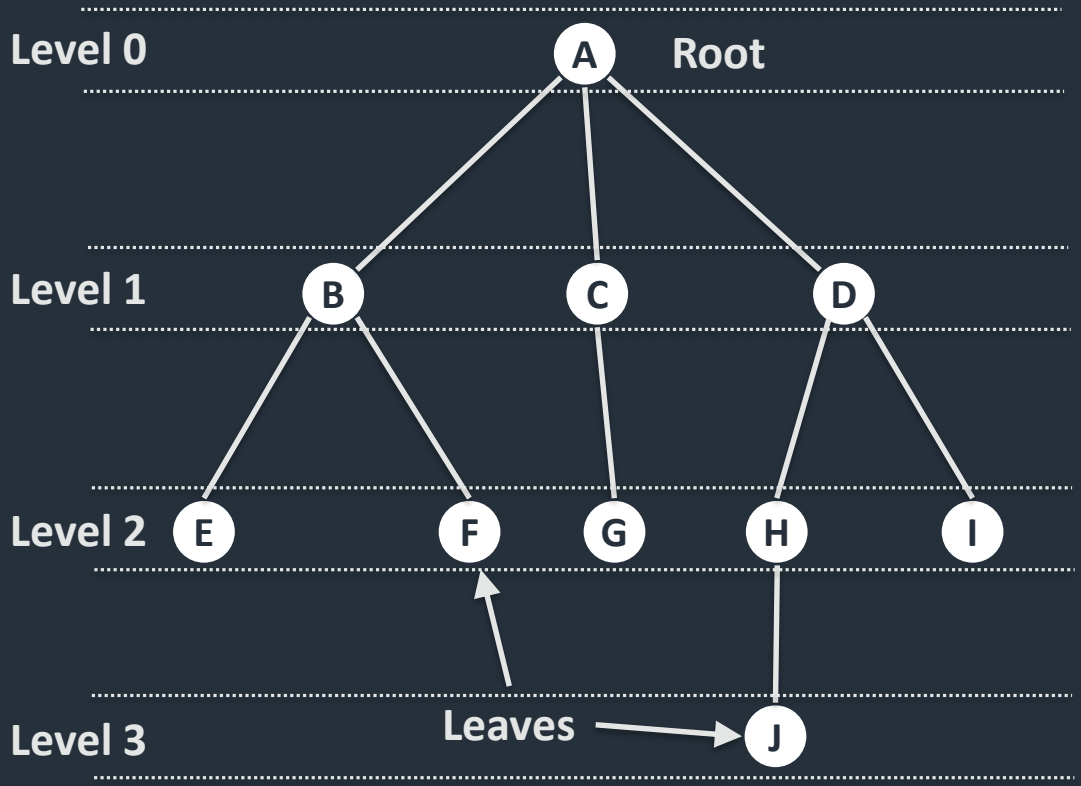
Tree(2)

Two connected vertices are called a **Parent** and **Child**. The parent is closer to the root, the child further away. E is the child of B, B is the parent of E.

The root has no parent.

A **leaf** vertex is one with no children. E,F,G,I,J are leaves (and hence degree 1).

The **height** of a vertex is the length of the path back to the root. J has height 3



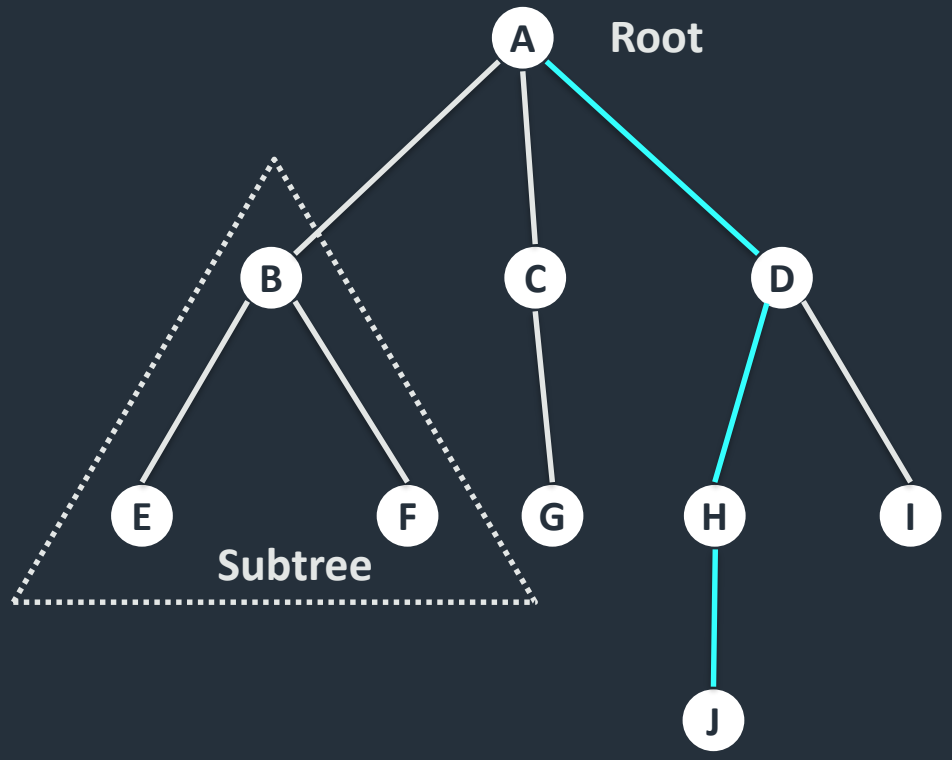
Tree(3)

Two vertices which share a parent are called siblings e.g. H and I

If two vertices X and Y are on the same path to the root, then X is an ancestor of Y (Y is a descendant of X) if X is closer to the root.

D is an ancestor of J.

A subtree is any collection of vertices and edges from the tree which remain a tree.



Vertex order relation

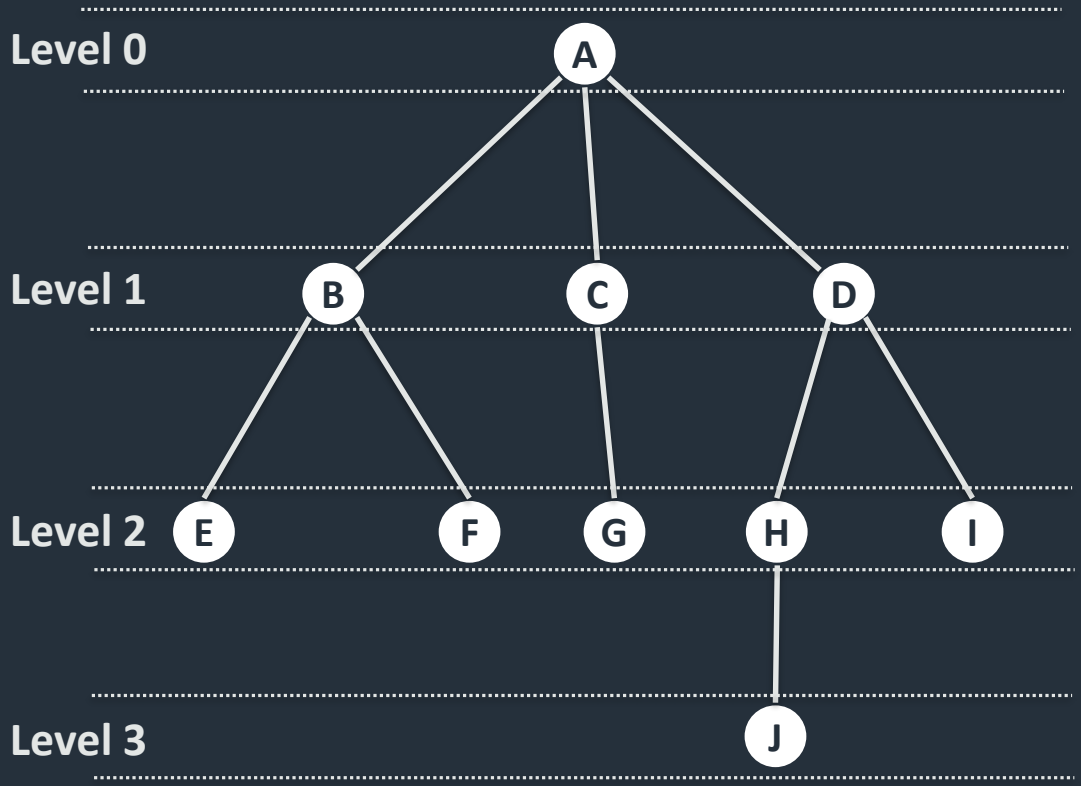
The structure of a tree allows us to define a vertex order using the height.

$A \leq B$ because $height(A) \leq height(B)$

This is only a **partial order**, it does not allow comparisons of things at the same level.

To get a total order (and sort the vertices) we must arbitrarily define the order of the children of a vertex (e.g. left to right).

The partial order means it is non-linear



Number of edges

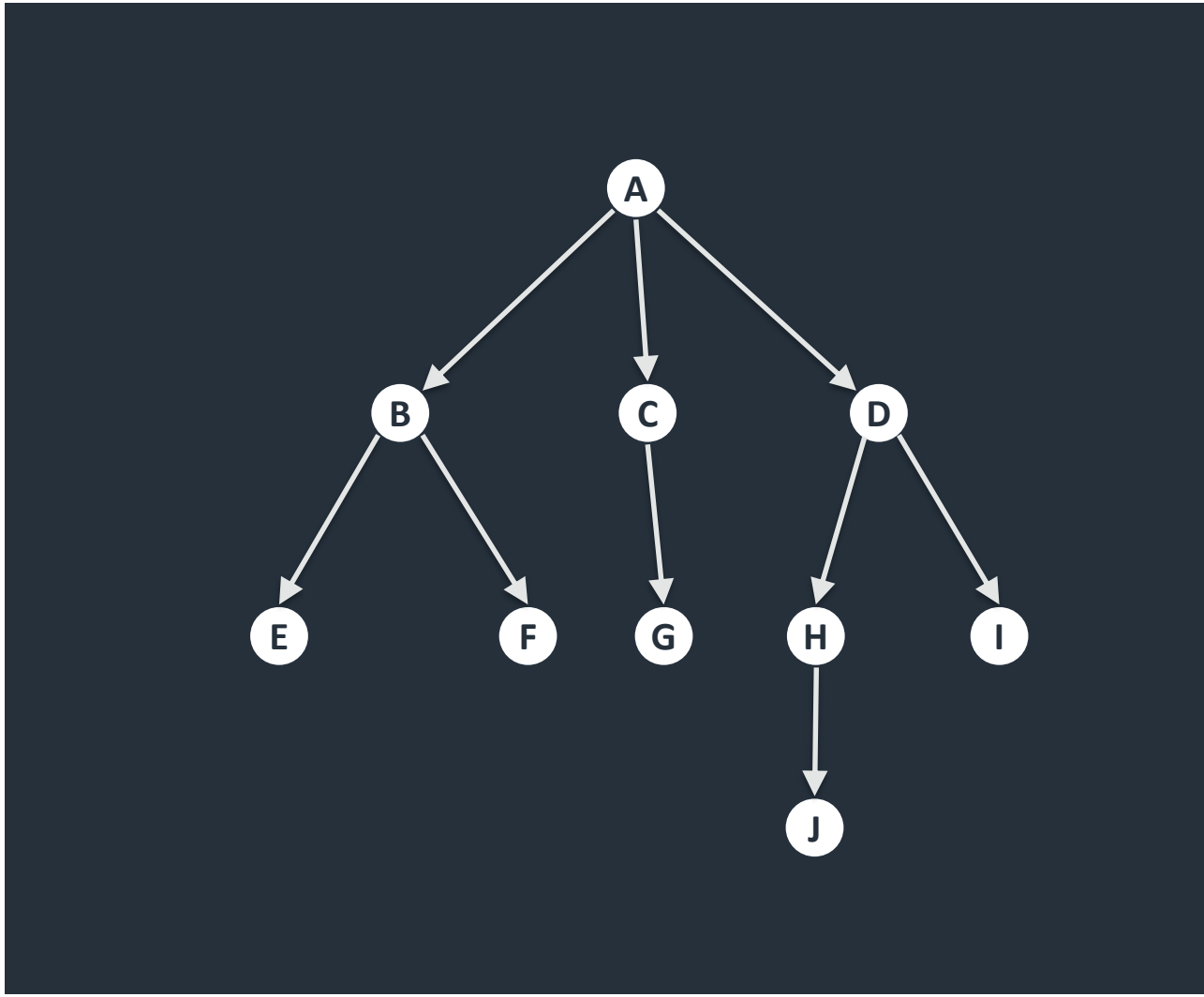
A tree with *n* vertices has *n*-1 edges.

Proof:

Every edge joins a parent to one child. Take the edge joining parent to child and associate it with the child.

Each vertex, except the root, has exactly one edge associated. Hence there are *n*-1 edges.

Trees are **sparse**. They have an average of less than 1 edge per vertex.



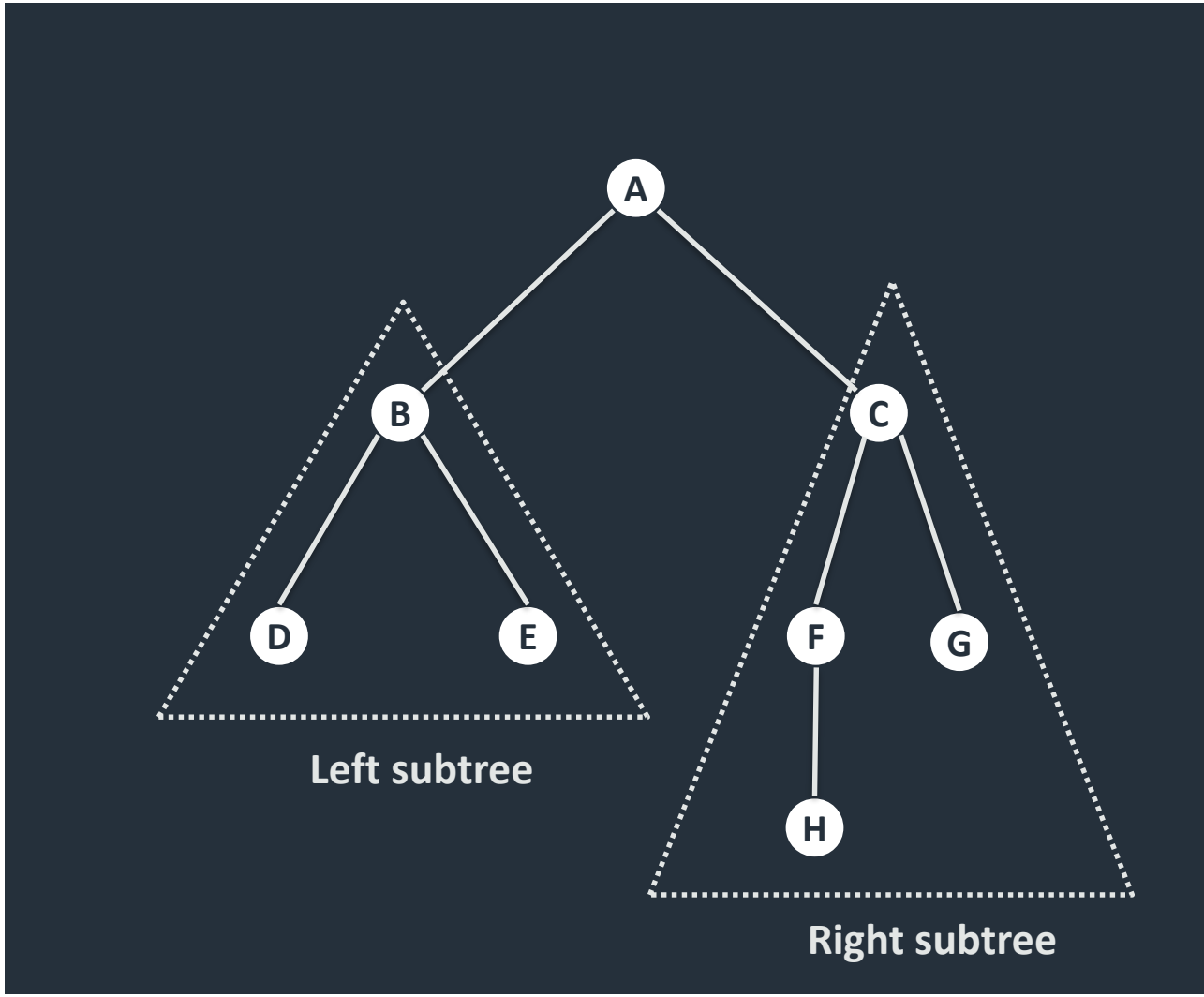
Binary Tree

A binary tree is a tree where each vertex has at most 2 children.

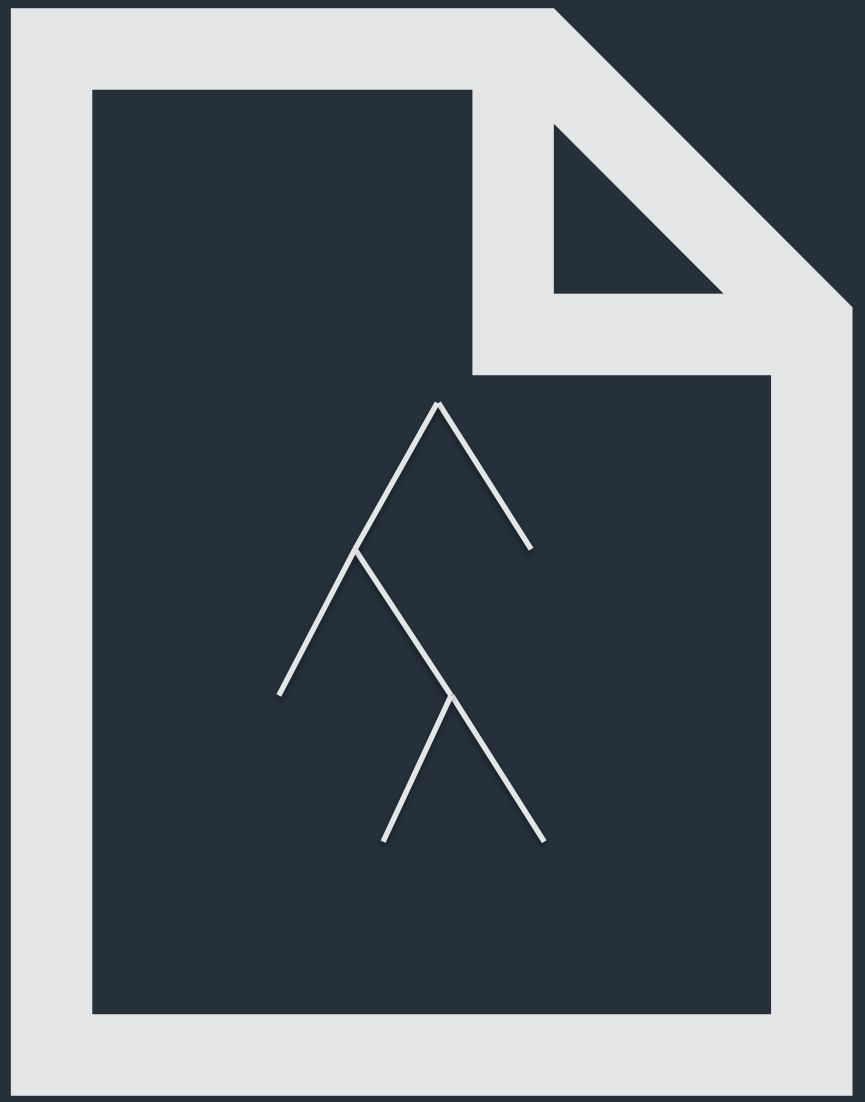
The 2 children are referred to as the left child and right child.

B and all its descendants is called the left subtree.

Similarly the tree starting at C is the right subtree.



Representation of Tree



Adjacency List(1)

You have already looked at the representation of graphs in SOF1 (week 08)

- Adjacency matrix and edge list

Trees are sparse. Since there are n vertices and n-1 edges, the data is of size $O(n)$.

The adjacency matrix is of size n^2 and so highly redundant and not often used for trees.

The adjacency list is a map from the vertices to the children of that vertex.

Adjacency List(2)

Example:

A (B, C, D)

B (E, F)

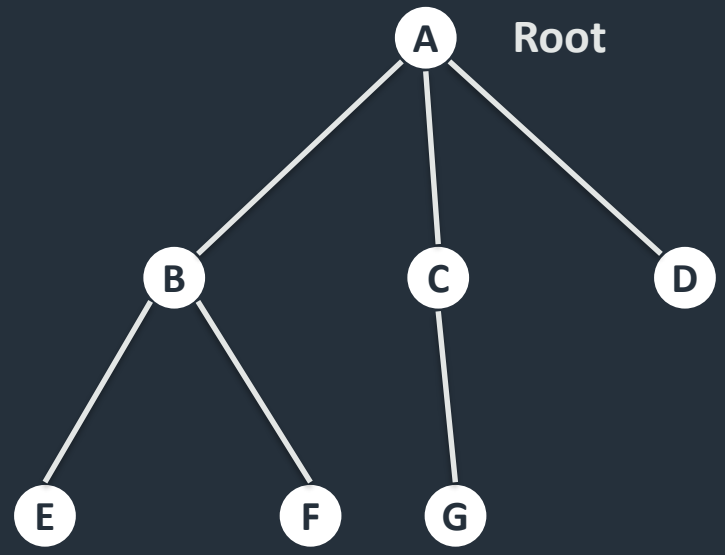
C (G)

D ()

E ()

F ()

G ()

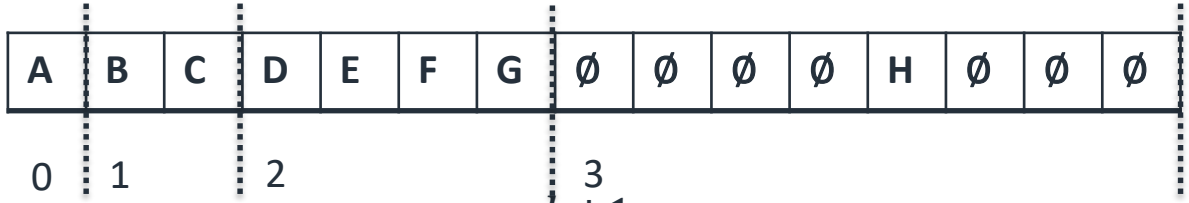


List of lists.

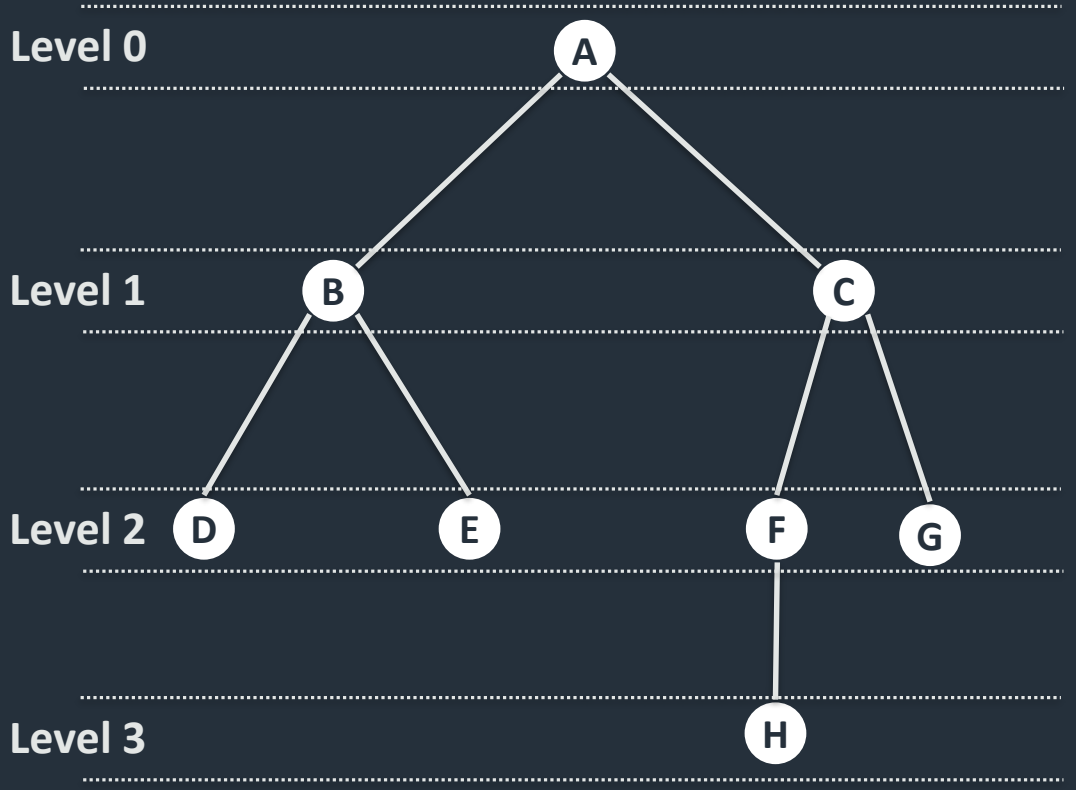
As with a doubly-linked list, can also link each vertex to its parent.

Binary Tree Representation

For a binary tree we can have a compact array representation. At each level *k*, there are at most 2^k vertices



Requires array size $2^{h+1} - 1$ where h is the height of the tree.



Heap

Heaps and Priority Queues

In some problems we have data where the ordering $\leq$ represents a priority. The highest priority item is the min w.r.t. $\leq$.

We would like to represent this data with an efficient data structure that allows us to recover the minimum item (i.e. highest priority), and insert new data.

This is the purpose of a **heap**

Heap Data Structure

Organization

Binary Tree

Common operations

`Insert(v)`	Insert element v
`ExtractMin()`	Remove and return the minimum element

Heap as a Binary Tree

We can represent a heap efficiently by a special binary tree.

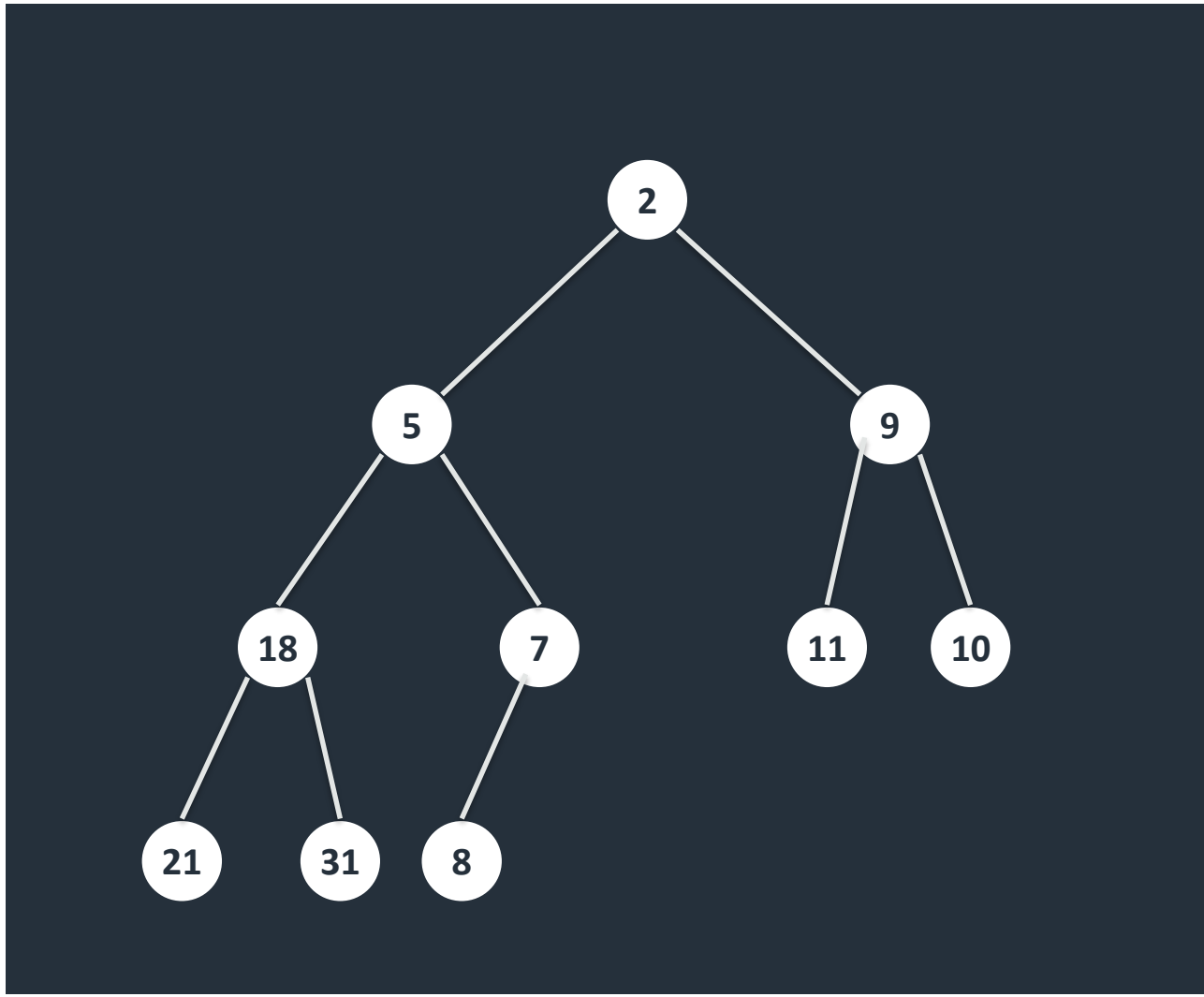
The tree has the following structure

It is **complete** – every level is full except for (possibly) the last one. Items on the last row are left-justified.

Each vertex represents one item of data

The value on a vertex is no more than that of any of its descendants

Therefore, any subtree is also a heap

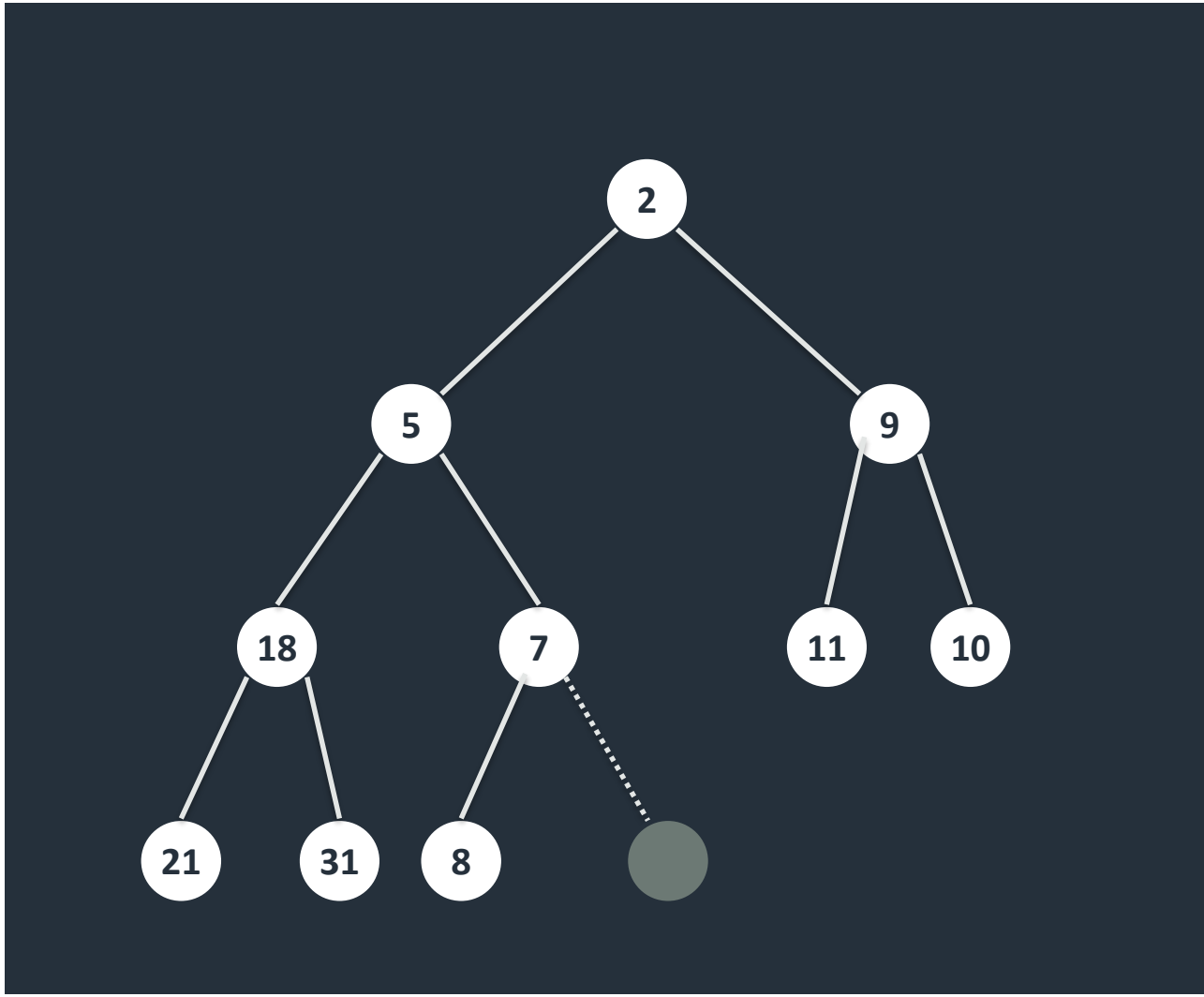


Properties of Binary Heaps

Since the tree is binary and complete, we can represent it efficiently with an array with $2^{h+1} - 1$, with $h = O(\log_2 n)$ (the number of items)

The root is the smallest element (highest priority). We can find this value in O(1) time.

A new item is inserted on the next position in the final row. Using an array, this can be done in O(1) time.



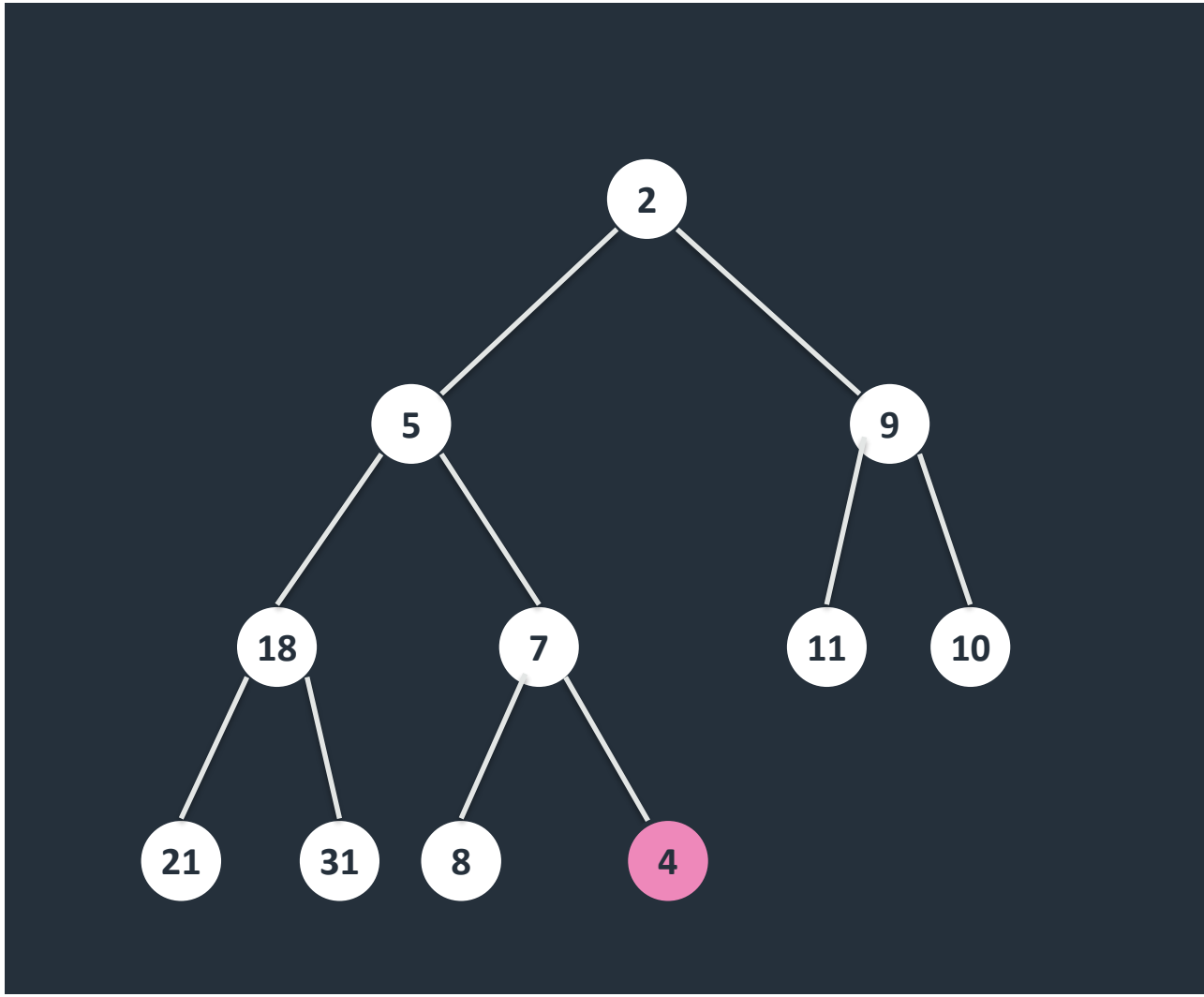
Insertion(1)

When we insert a new item, the tree loses its heap property and we must restore it.

Compare the new item with its parent.

If it is less, swap them.

$4 < 7$, so swap them.

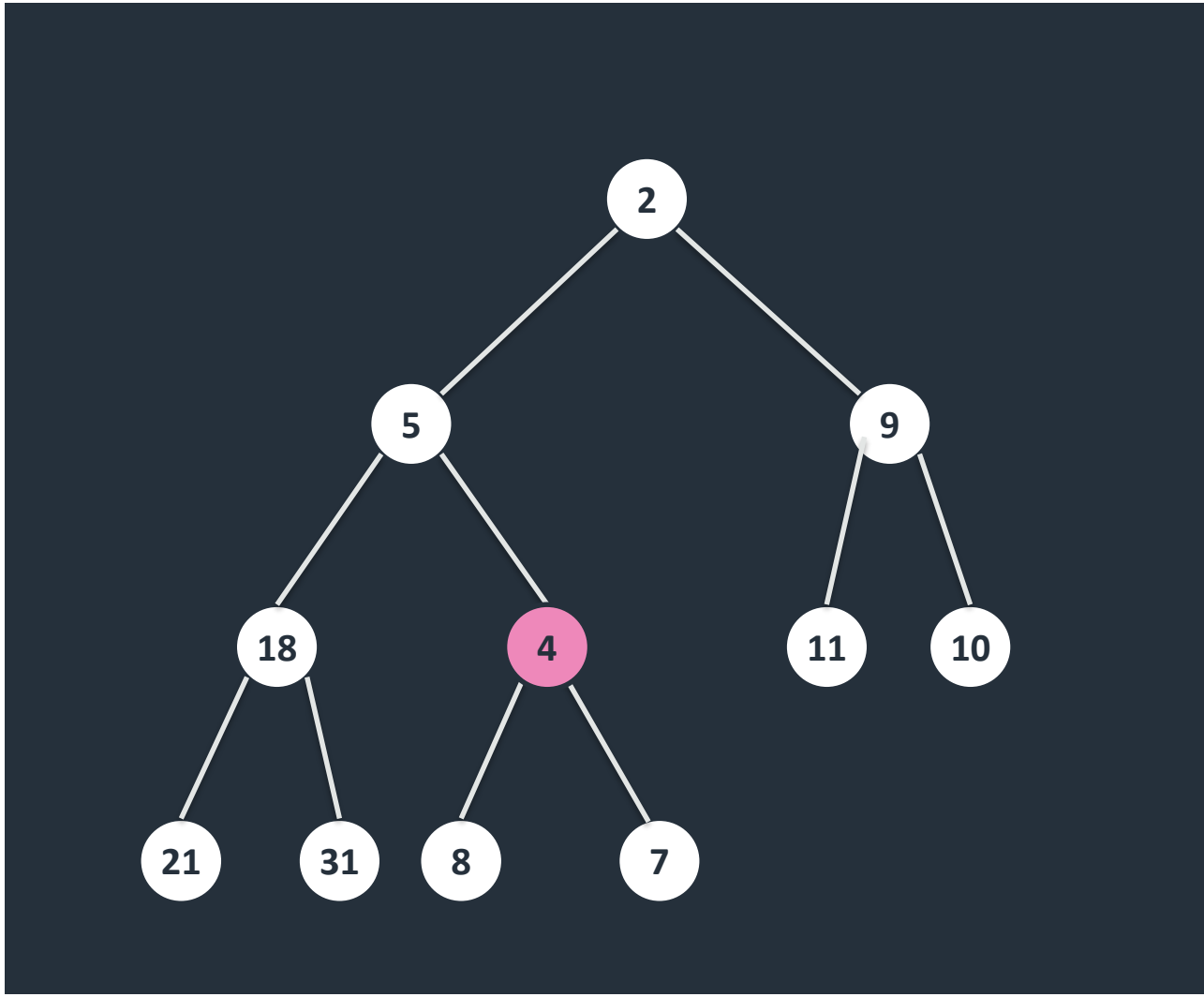


Insertion(2)

When we insert a new item, the tree loses its heap property and we must restore it.

Continue comparing the new item with its parent

$4<5$, so swap them.

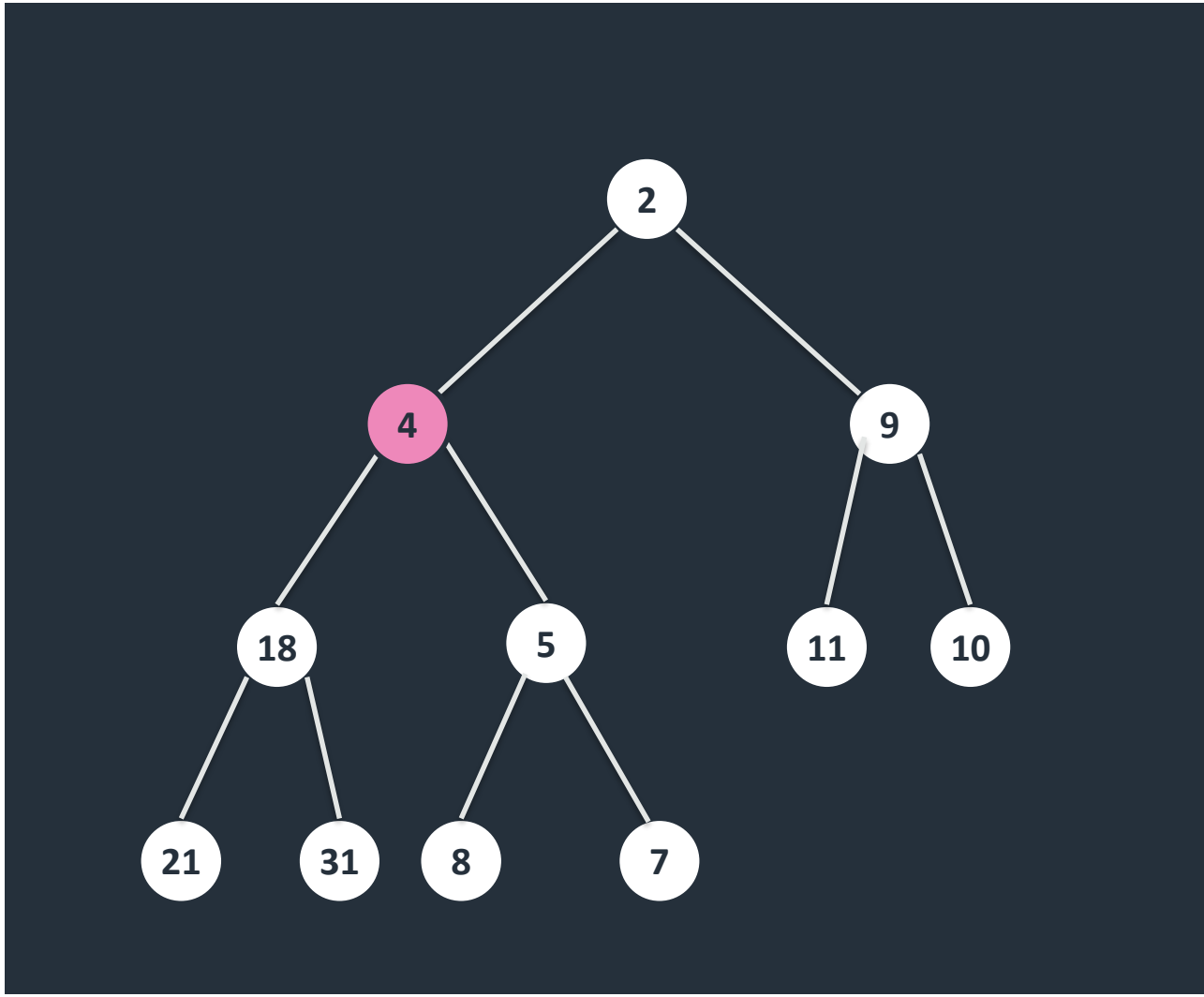


Insertion(3)

When we insert a new item, the tree loses its heap property and we must restore it.

Continue comparing the new item with its parent

$4<5$, so swap them.



Insertion(4)

When we insert a new item, the tree loses its heap property and we must restore it.

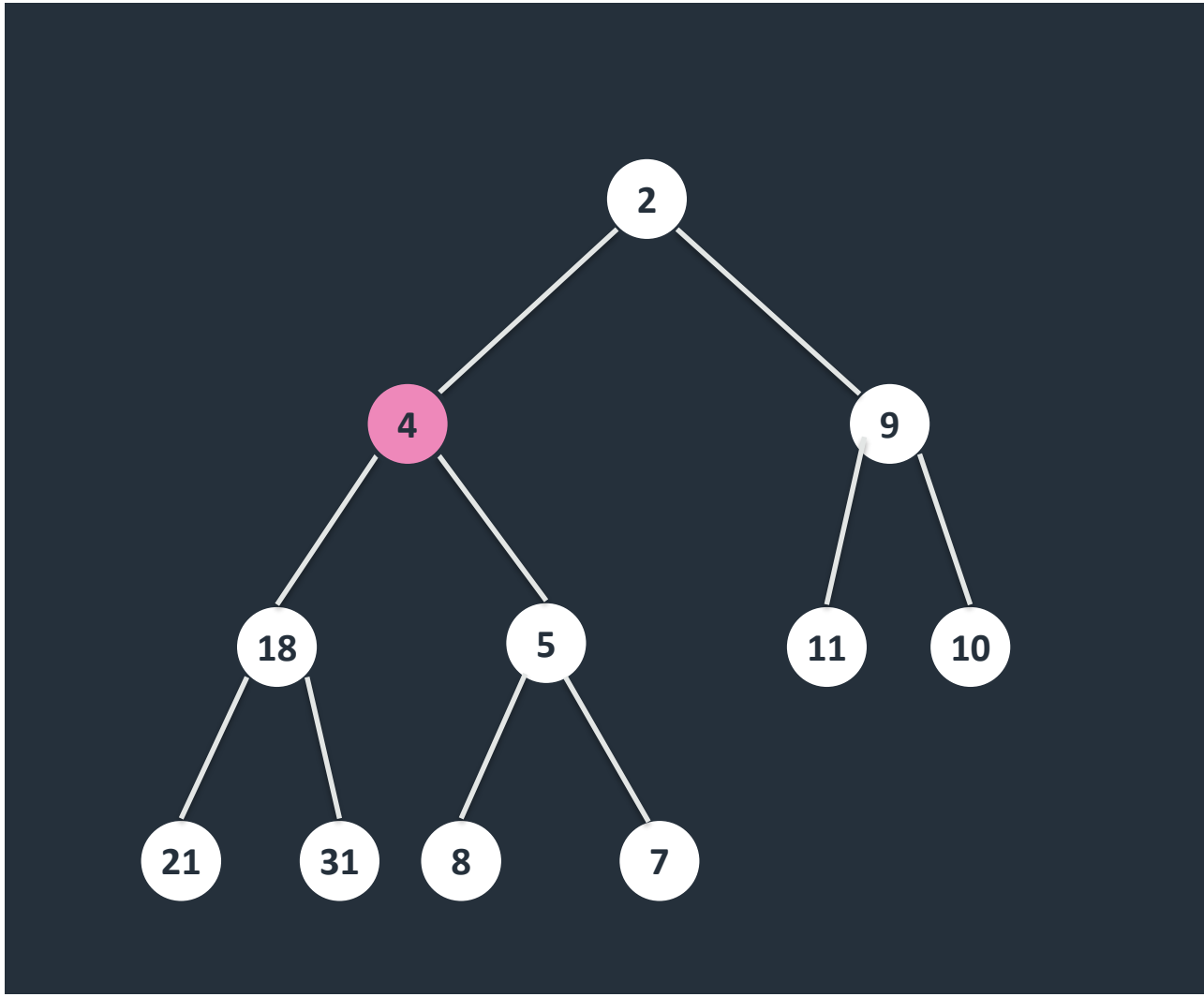
$4 > 2$, so the heap property is restored.

Adding the item initially takes O(1)

Each swap takes O(1)

The maximum number of swaps is the tree height, so O(log *n*)

Insertion takes O(log *n*)

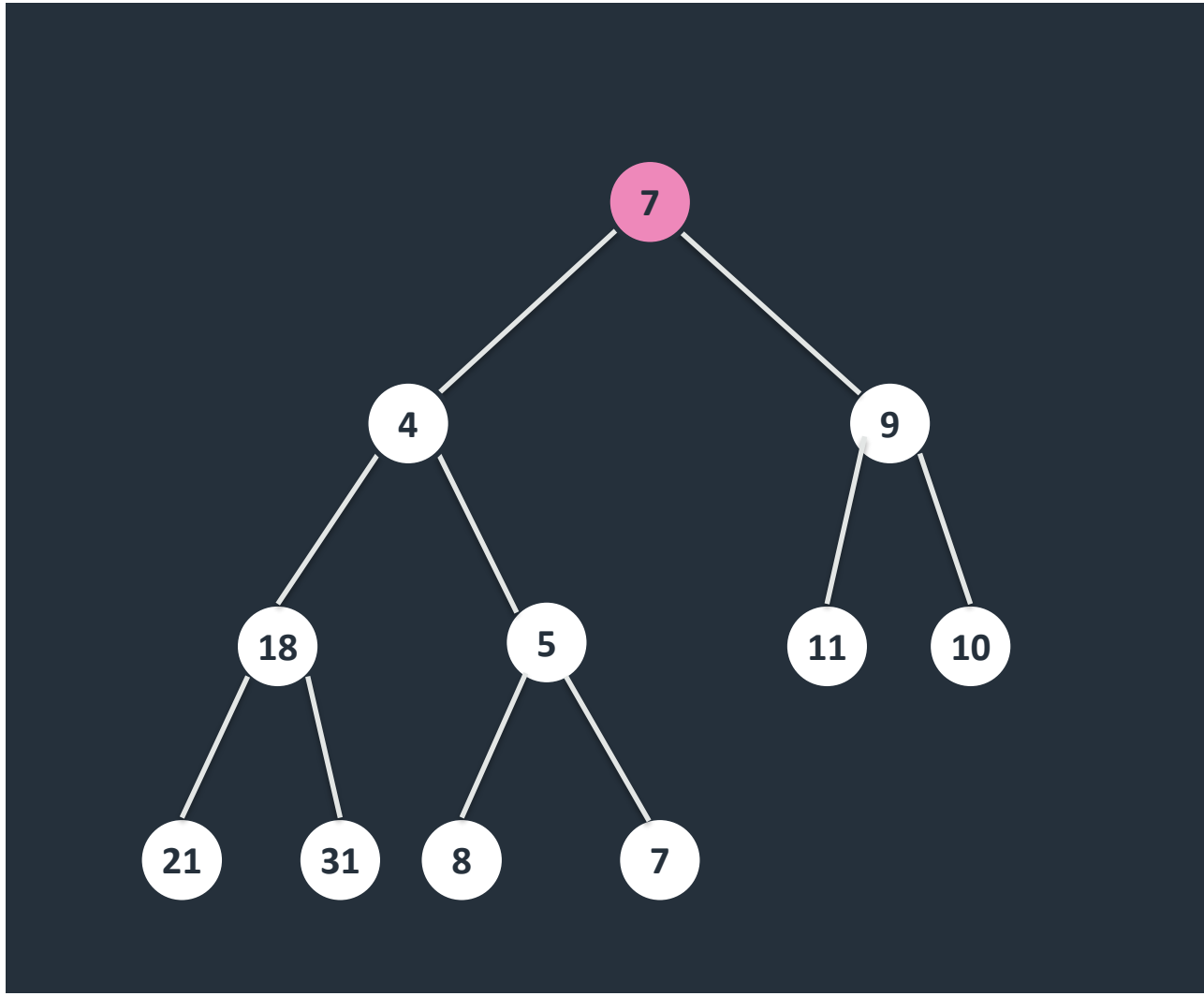


Extract Minimum(1)

The minimum item is at the top of the tree. Access is O(1). To remove, we replace it with the last item in the tree.

Again, the heap property must be restored, this time downwards.

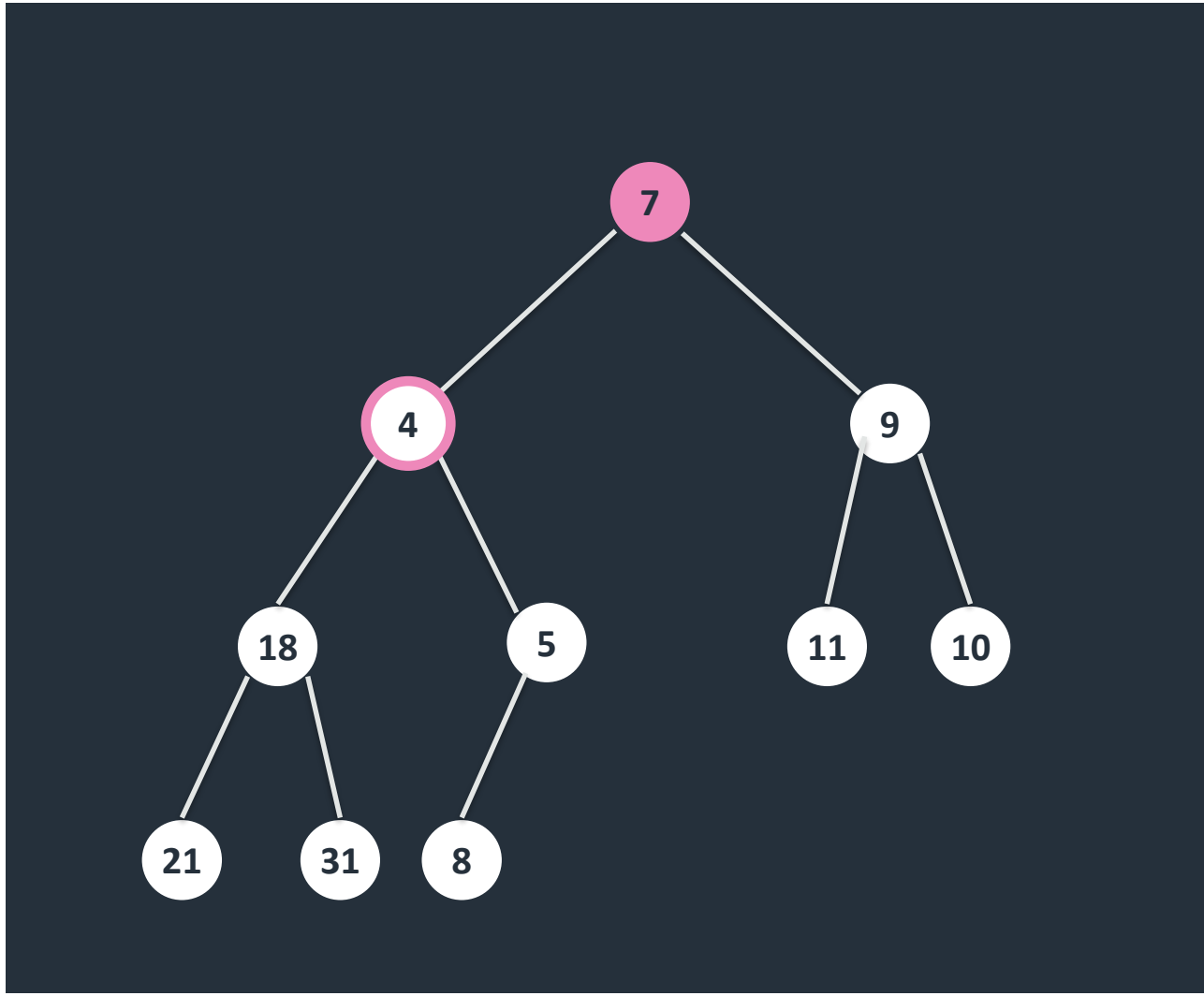
Compare with the smallest child and swap if necessary.



Extract Minimum(2)

4 is the smallest child.

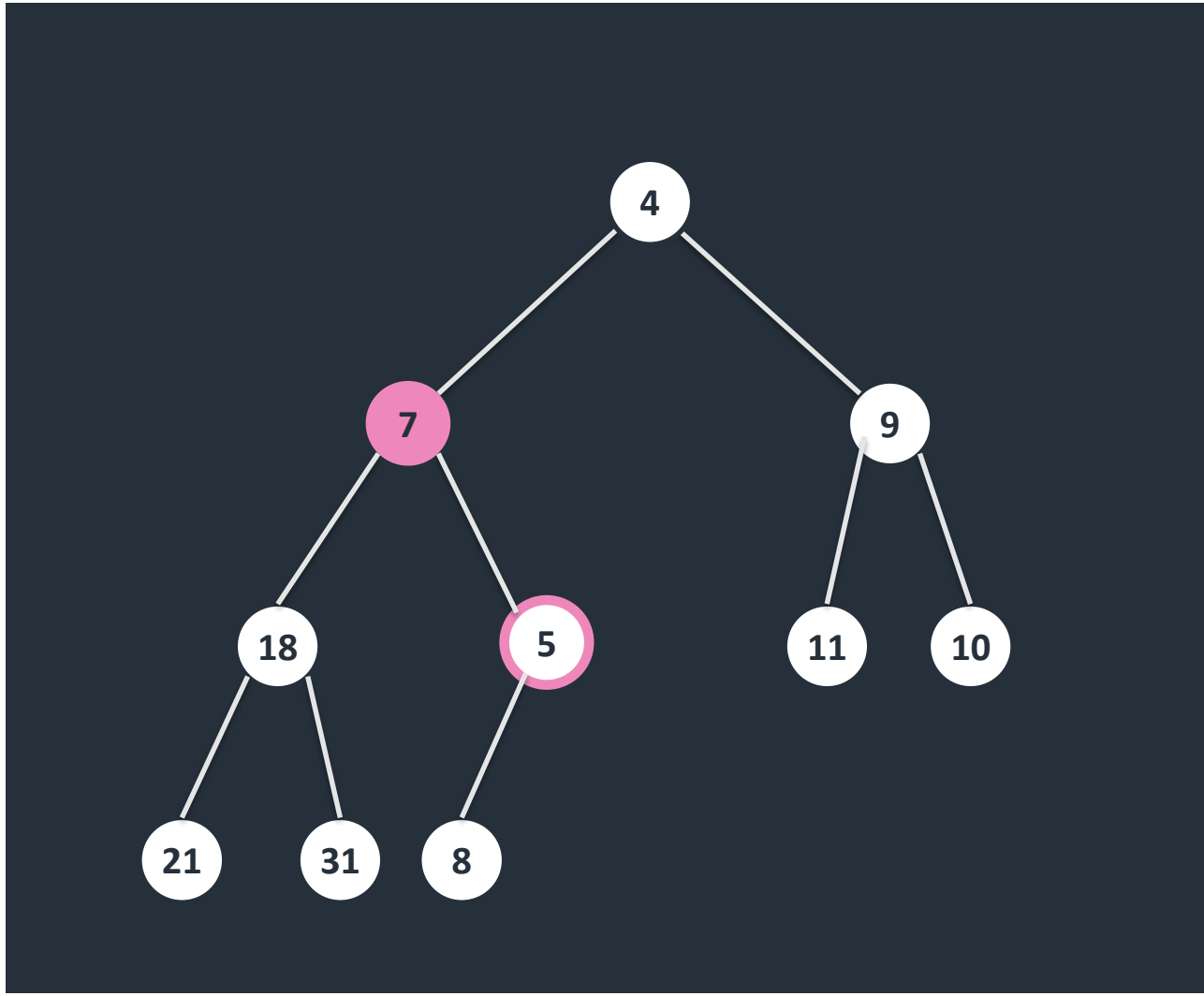
4<7, so swap



Extract Minimum(3)

5 is the smallest child

5<7, so swap



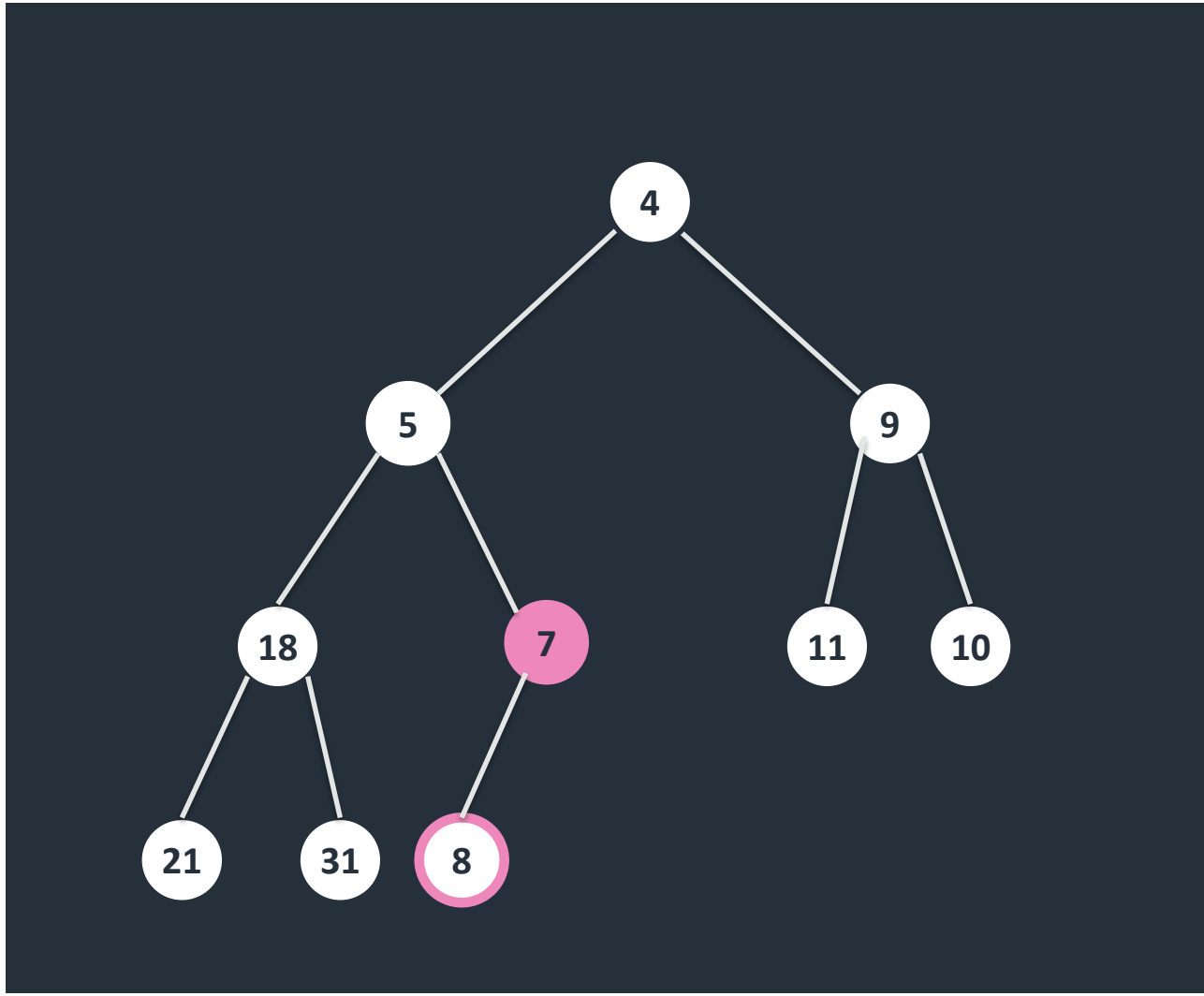
Extract Minimum(3)

8 is the smallest child

8≥7, so procedure complete.

The maximum number of swaps is the tree height, so the ExtractMin operation is $O(\log n)$

The heap data structure can represent a priority queue with both operations $O(\log n)$



Summary

Understand:

- Trees and their terminology
- Two ways of representing trees
- Binary trees
- Heaps using binary trees

Read

- Revise SOF1 week 7
- Skiena, Sections 3.5, 4.3.1-4.3.3

Next

- More on sorting