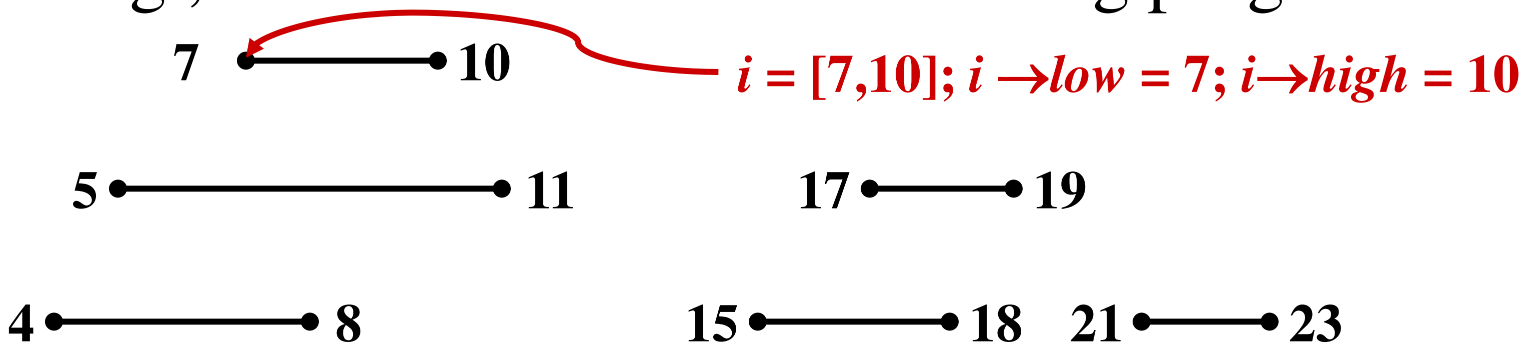
Algorithms

Graph Algorithms

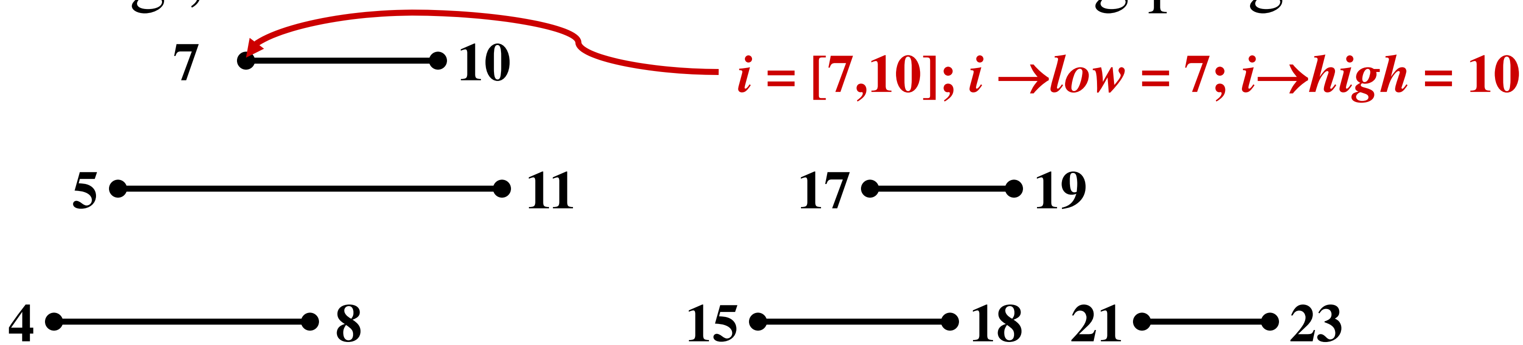
Interval Trees

- The problem: maintain a set of intervals
  - E.g., time intervals for a scheduling program:



Review: Interval Trees

- The problem: maintain a set of intervals
  - E.g., time intervals for a scheduling program:

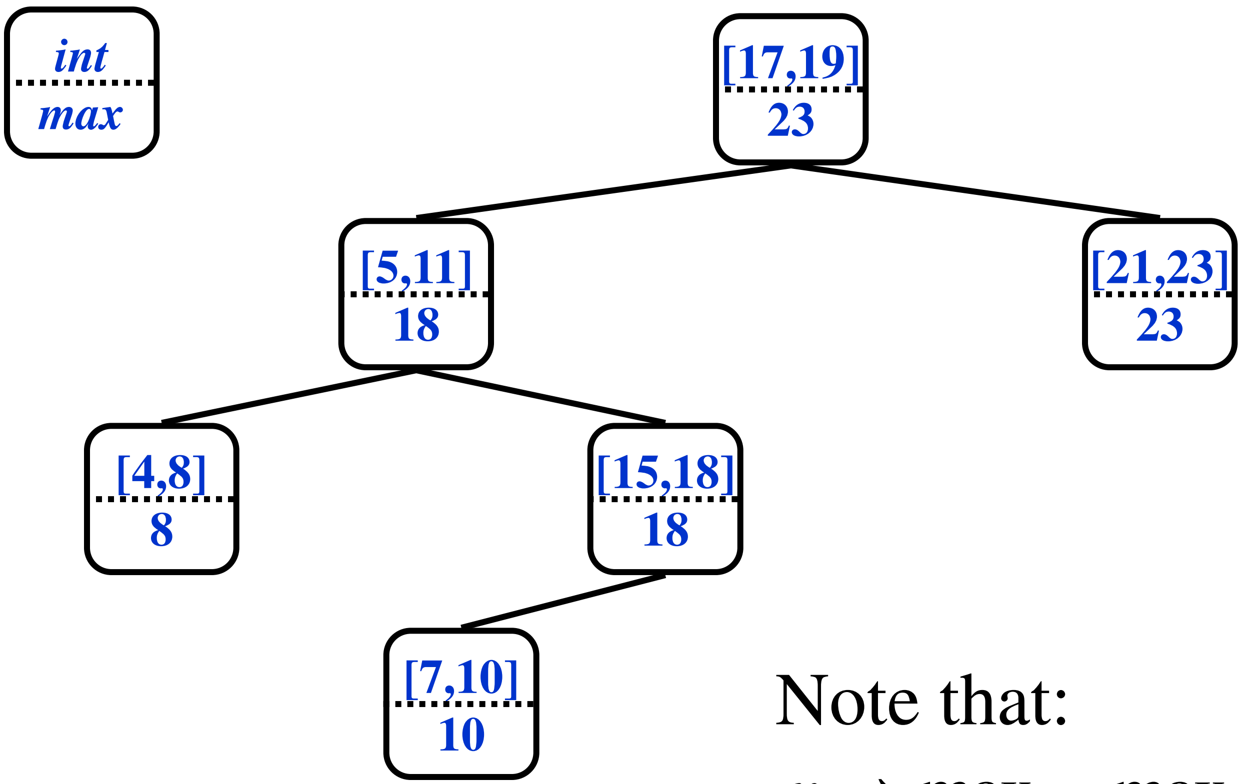


  - Query: find an interval in the set that overlaps a given query interval
    - [14,16] → [15,18]
    - [16,19] → [15,18] or [17,19]
    - [12,14] → NULL

Review: Interval Trees

- Following the methodology:
  - Pick underlying data structure
    - Red-black trees will store intervals, keyed on $i \rightarrow low$
  - Decide what additional information to store
    - Store the maximum endpoint in the subtree rooted at i
  - Figure out how to maintain the information
    - Update max as traverse down during insert
    - Recalculate max after delete with a traversal up the tree
    - Update during rotations
  - Develop the desired new operations

Review: Interval Trees



Note that:

$$x \to \max = \max \begin{cases} x \to high \\ x \to left \to \max \\ x \to right \to \max \end{cases}$$

Review: Searching Interval Trees

```
IntervalSearch(T, i)
{
    x = T->root;
    while (x != NULL && !overlap(i, x->interval))
        if (x->left != NULL && x->left->max ≥ i->low)
            x = x->left;
        else
            x = x->right;
    return x
}
```

- *What will be the running time?*

Review: Correctness of IntervalSearch()

- Key idea: need to check only 1 of node's 2 children
  - Case 1: search goes right
    - Show that ∃ overlap in right subtree, or no overlap at all
  - Case 2: search goes left
    - Show that ∃ overlap in left subtree, or no overlap at all

Correctness of IntervalSearch()

- Case 1: if search goes right, ∃ overlap in the right subtree or no overlap in either subtree
  - If ∃ overlap in right subtree, we're done
  - Otherwise:
    - $x \rightarrow left = NULL$, or $x \rightarrow left \rightarrow max < x \rightarrow low$ (*Why?*)
    - Thus, no overlap in left subtree!

```
while (x != NULL && !overlap(i, x->interval))
        if (x->left != NULL && x->left->max ≥ i->low)
            x = x->left;
        else
            x = x->right;
    return x;
```

Review: Correctness of IntervalSearch()

- Case 2: if search goes left, ∃ overlap in the left subtree or no overlap in either subtree
  - If ∃ overlap in left subtree, we're done
  - Otherwise:
    - i →low ≤ x →left →max, by branch condition
    - x →left →max = y →high for some y in left subtree
    - Since i and y don't overlap and i →low ≤ y →high, i →high < y →low
    - Since tree is sorted by low's, i →high < any low in right subtree
    - Thus, no overlap in right subtree

```
while (x != NULL && !overlap(i, x->interval))
        if (x->left != NULL && x->left->max ≥ i->low)
            x = x->left;
        else
            x = x->right;
    return x;
```

Next Up: Graph Algorithms

- Going to skip some advanced data structures
  - B-Trees
    - Balanced search tree designed to minimize disk I/O
  - Fibonacci heaps
    - Heap structure that supports efficient "merge heap" op
    - Requires amortized analysis techniques
- Will hopefully return to these
- Meantime: graph algorithms
  - Should be largely review, easier for exam

Graphs

- A graph G = (V, E)
  - V = set of vertices
  - E = set of edges = subset of $V \times V$
  - Thus $|E| = O(|V|^2)$

Graph Variations

- Variations:
  - A *connected graph* has a path from every vertex to every other
  - In an *undirected graph:*
    - Edge (u,v) = edge (v,u)
    - No self-loops
  - In a *directed* graph:
    - Edge (u,v) goes from vertex u to vertex v, notated u→v

Graph Variations

- More variations:
  - A *weighted graph* associates weights with either the edges or the vertices
    - E.g., a road map: edges might be weighted w/ distance
  - A *multigraph* allows multiple edges between the same vertices
    - E.g., the call graph in a program (a function can get called from multiple points in another function)

Graphs

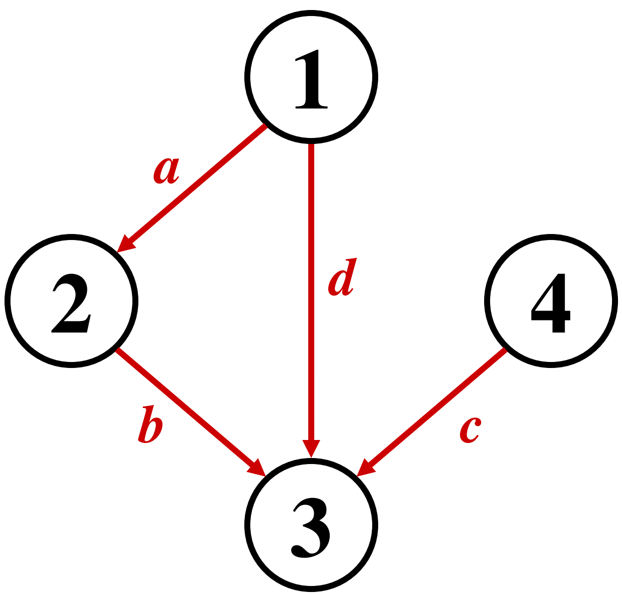
- We will typically express running times in terms of |E| and |V| (often dropping the |'s)
  - If $|E| \approx |V|^2$ the graph is *dense*
  - If $|E| \approx |V|$ the graph is *sparse*
- If you know you are dealing with dense or sparse graphs, different data structures may make sense

Representing Graphs

- Assume V = $\{1, 2, \ldots, n\}$
- An *adjacency matrix* represents the graph as a n x n matrix A:
  - A[i, j] = 1 if edge (i, j) $\in$ E (or weight of edge)
    = 0 if edge (i, j) $\notin$ E

Graphs: Adjacency Matrix

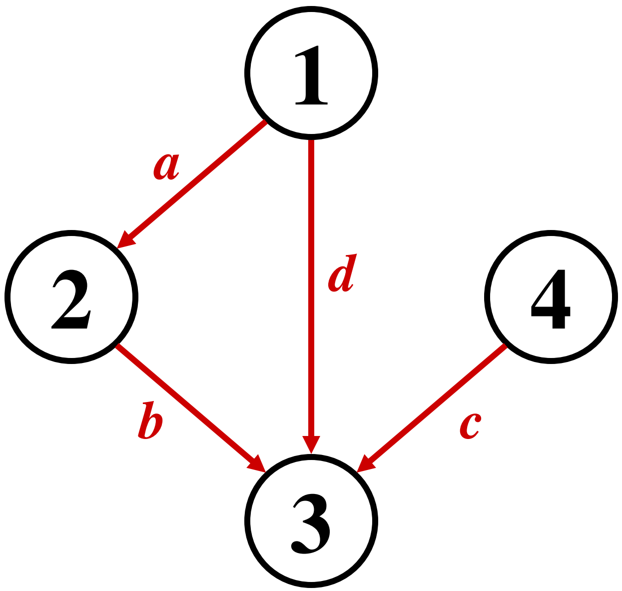
- Example:



A	1	2	3	4
1				
2				
3			??	
4				

Graphs: Adjacency Matrix

- Example:



A	1	2	3	4
1	0	1	1	0
2	0	0	1	0
3	0	0	0	0
4	0	0	1	0

Graphs: Adjacency Matrix

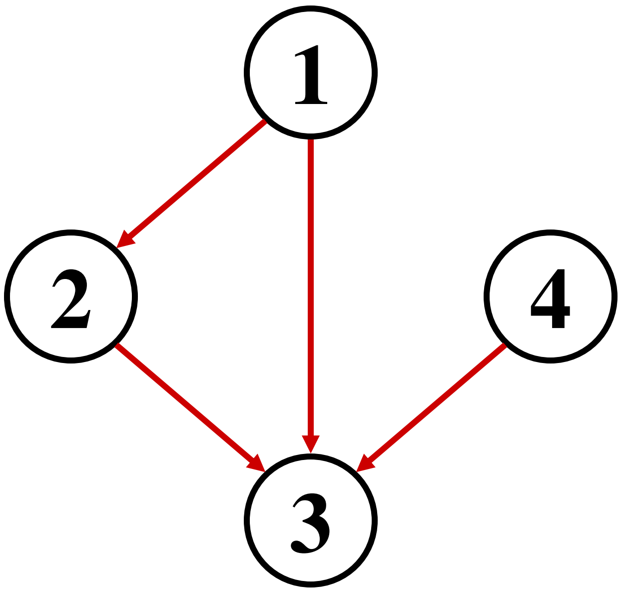
- *How much storage does the adjacency matrix require?*
- A: $O(V^2)$
- *What is the minimum amount of storage needed by an adjacency matrix representation of an undirected graph with 4 vertices?*
- A: 6 bits
  - Undirected graph → matrix is symmetric
  - No self-loops → don't need diagonal

Graphs: Adjacency Matrix

- The adjacency matrix is a dense representation
  - Usually too much storage for large graphs
  - But can be very efficient for small graphs
- Most large interesting graphs are sparse
  - E.g., planar graphs, in which no edges cross, have $|E| = O(|V|)$ by Euler's formula
  - For this reason the *adjacency list* is often a more appropriate respresentation

Graphs: Adjacency List

- Adjacency list: for each vertex $v \in V$, store a list of vertices adjacent to v
- Example:
  - Adj[1] = {2,3}
  - Adj[2] = {3}
  - Adj[3] = {}
  - Adj[4] = {3}



- Variation: can also keep a list of edges coming *into* vertex

Graphs: Adjacency List

- How much storage is required?
  - The *degree* of a vertex v = # incident edges
    - Directed graphs have in-degree, out-degree
  - For directed graphs, # of items in adjacency lists is

    $$\Sigma \text{ out-degree}(v) = |E|$$

    takes $\Theta(V + E)$ storage (*Why?*)
  - For undirected graphs, # items in adj lists is

    $$\Sigma \text{ degree}(v) = 2\,|E| \quad (\textit{handshaking lemma})$$

    also $\Theta(V + E)$ storage
- So: Adjacency lists take O(V+E) storage

Graph Searching

- Given: a graph G = (V, E), directed or undirected
- Goal: methodically explore every vertex and every edge
- Ultimately: build a tree on the graph
  - Pick a vertex as the root
  - Choose certain edges to produce a tree
  - Note: might also build a *forest* if graph is not connected

Breadth-First Search

- "Explore" a graph, turning it into a tree
  - One vertex at a time
  - Expand frontier of explored vertices across the *breadth* of the frontier
- Builds a tree over the graph
  - Pick a *source vertex* to be the root
  - Find ("discover") its children, then their children, etc.

Breadth-First Search

- Again will associate vertex "colors" to guide the algorithm
  - White vertices have not been discovered
    - All vertices start out white
  - Grey vertices are discovered but not fully explored
    - They may be adjacent to white vertices
  - Black vertices are discovered and fully explored
    - They are adjacent only to black and gray vertices
- Explore vertices by scanning adjacency list of grey vertices

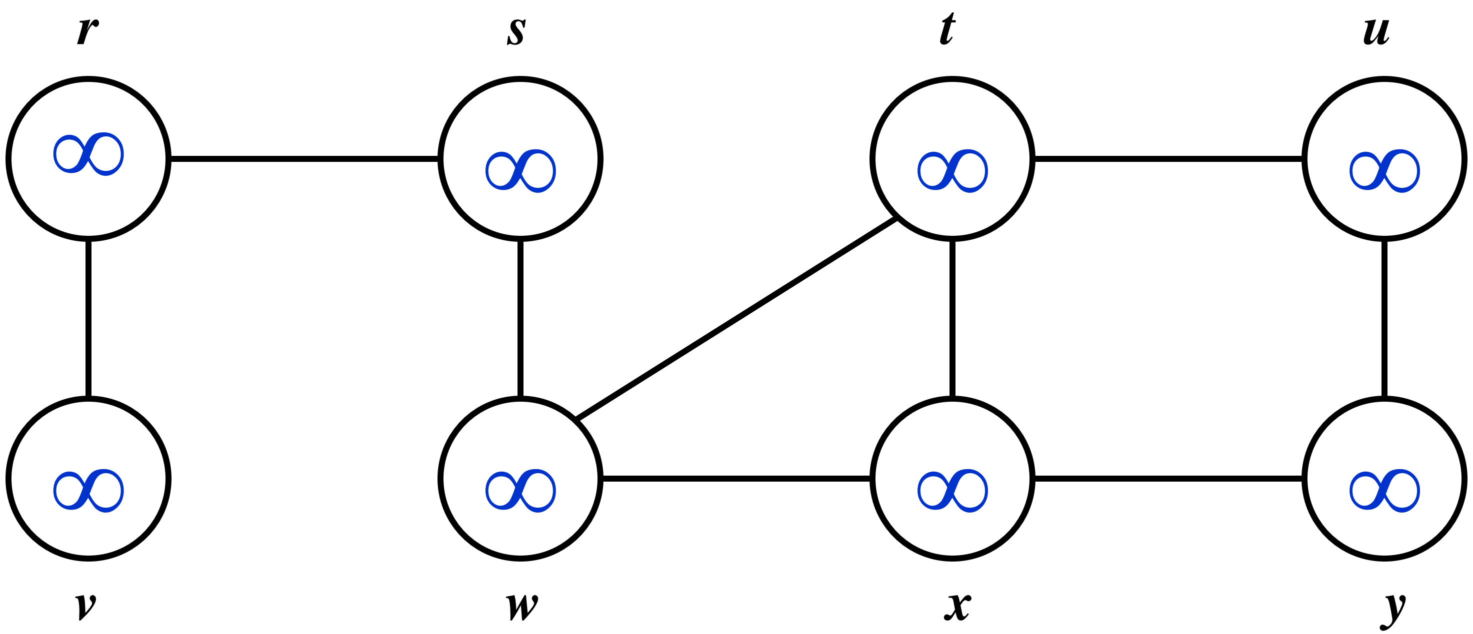
Breadth-First Search

```
BFS(G, s) {
    initialize vertices;
    Q = {s};        // Q is a queue (duh); initialize to s
    while (Q not empty) {
        u = RemoveTop(Q);
        for each v ∈ u->adj {
            if (v->color == WHITE)
                v->color = GREY;
                v->d = u->d + 1;
                v->p = u;
                Enqueue(Q, v);
        }
        u->color = BLACK;
    }
}
```

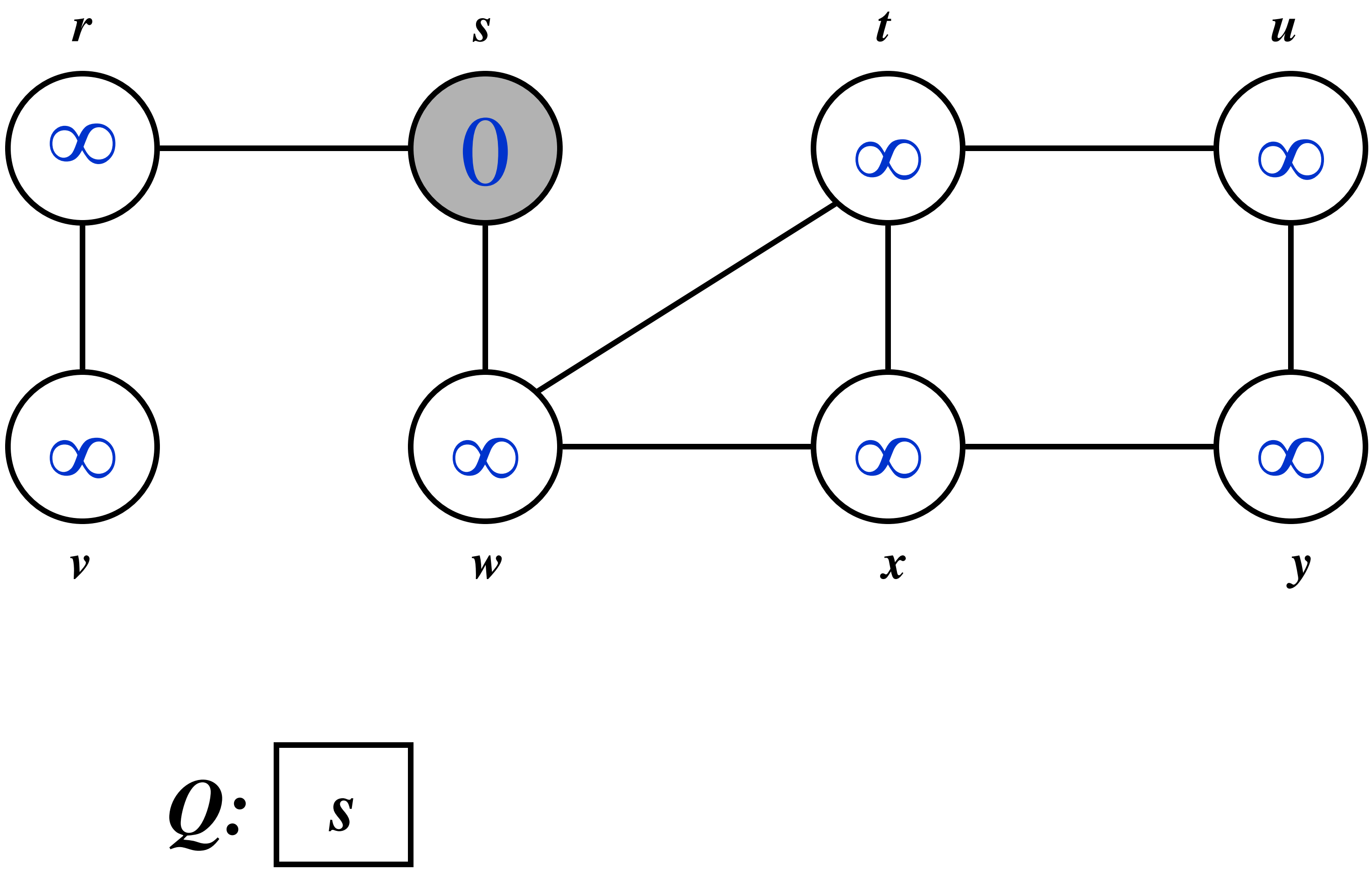
What does `v->d` *represent?*

What does `v->p` *represent?*

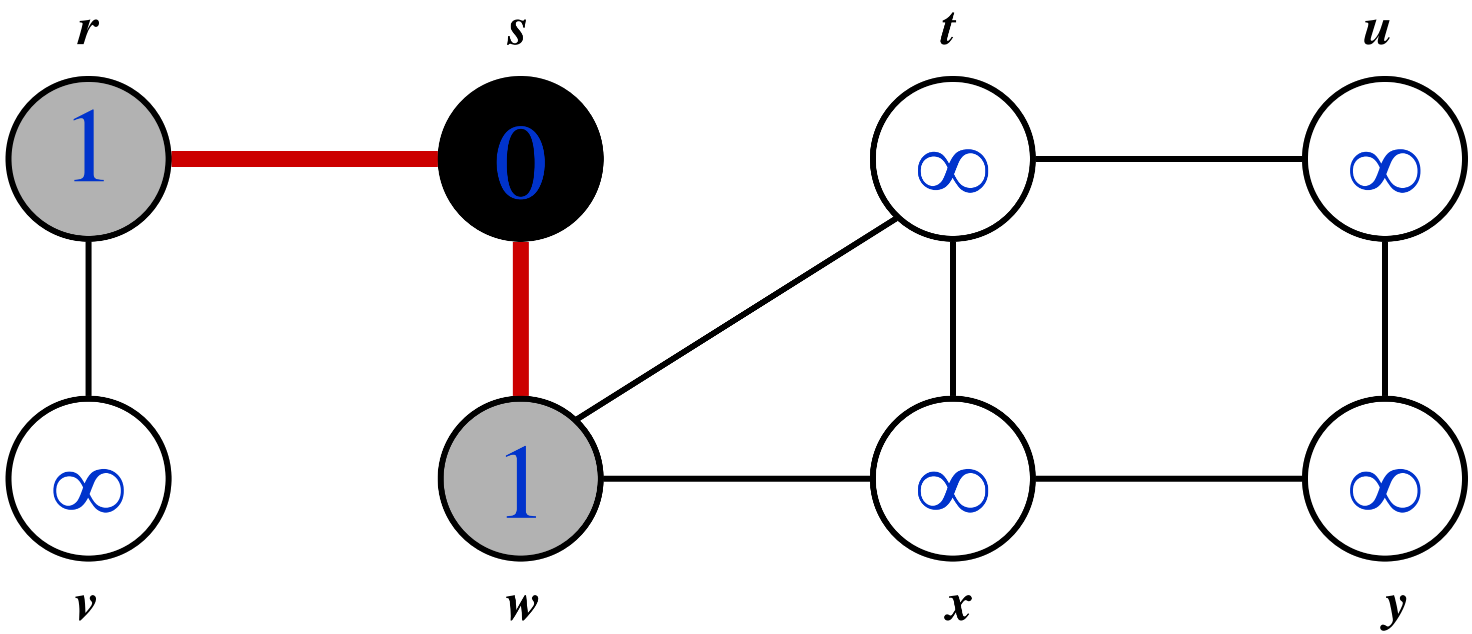
Breadth-First Search: Example

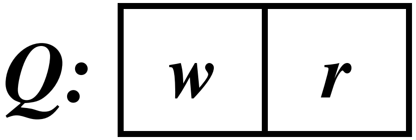


Breadth-First Search: Example

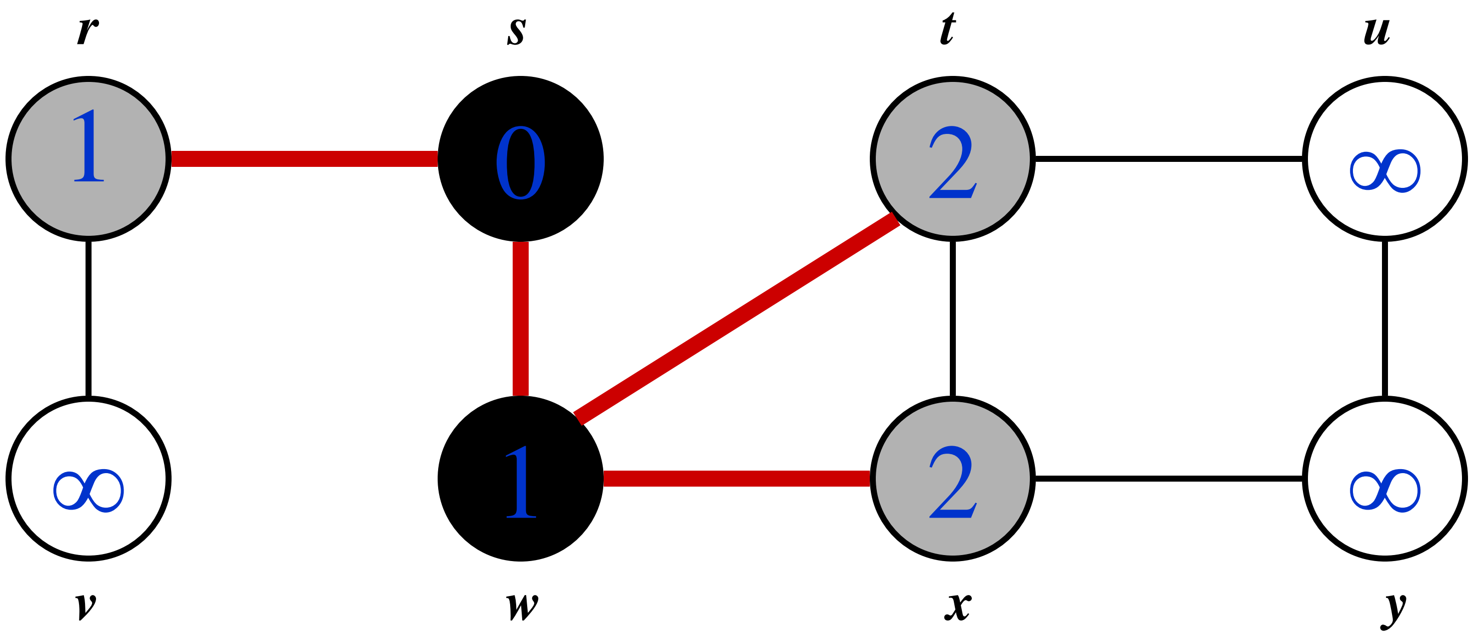


Breadth-First Search: Example



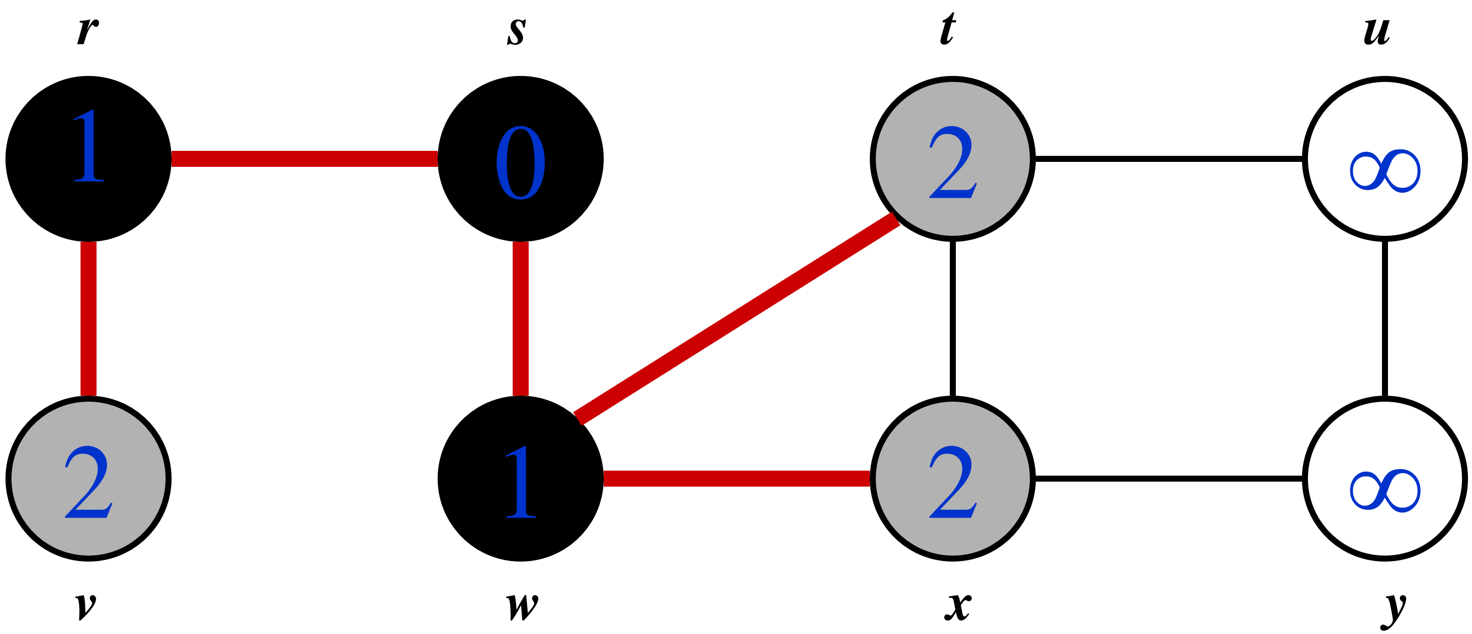


Breadth-First Search: Example



Q: | *r* | *t* | *x* |

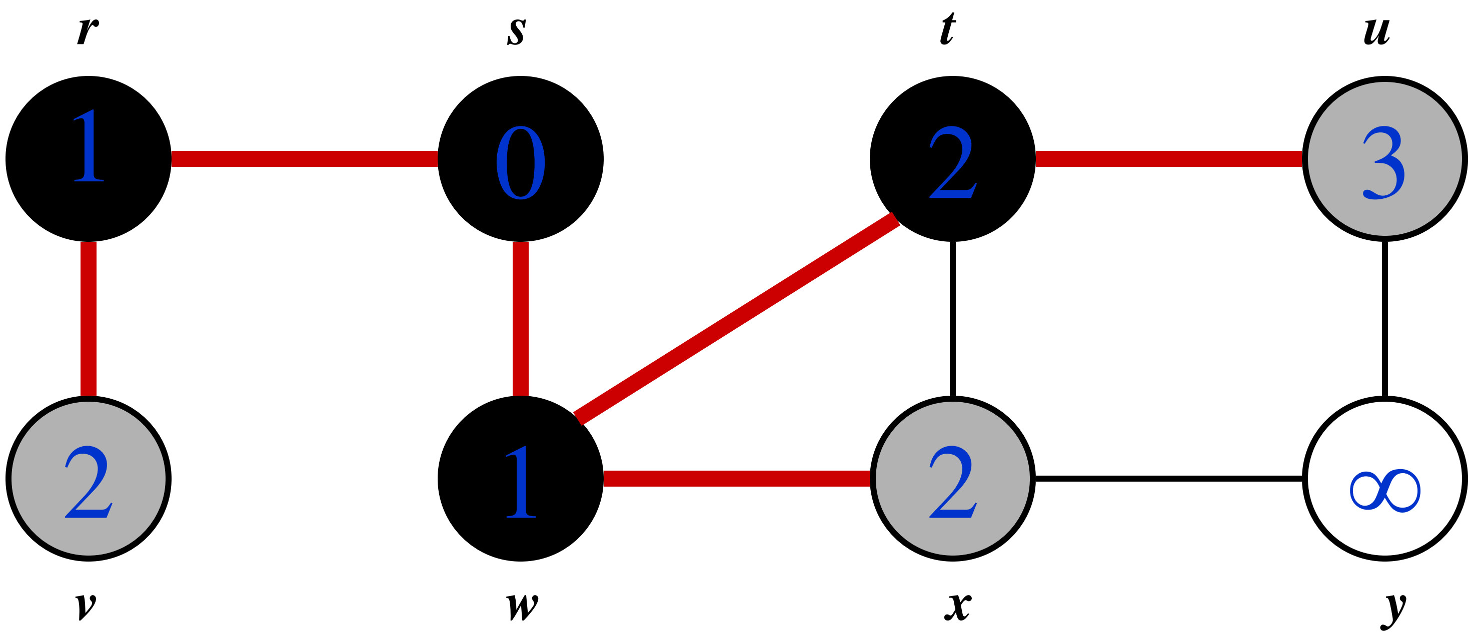
Breadth-First Search: Example



Q:

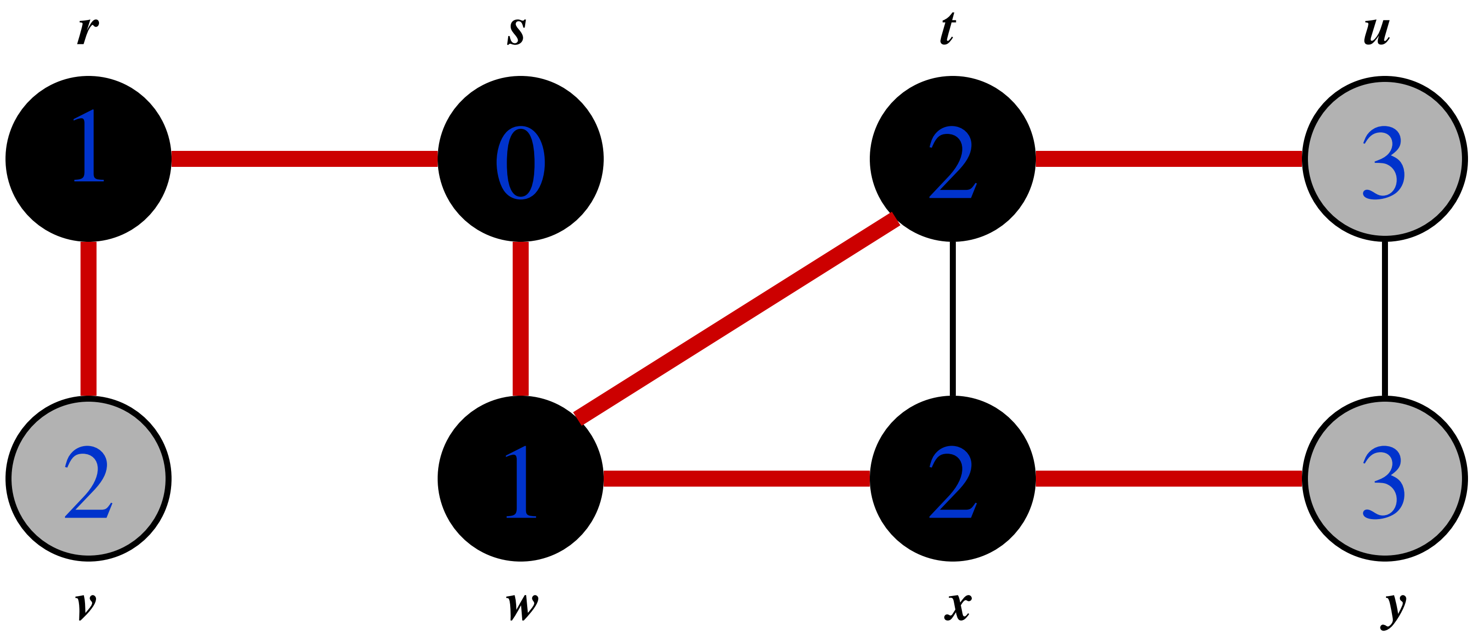
t	*x*	*v*

Breadth-First Search: Example



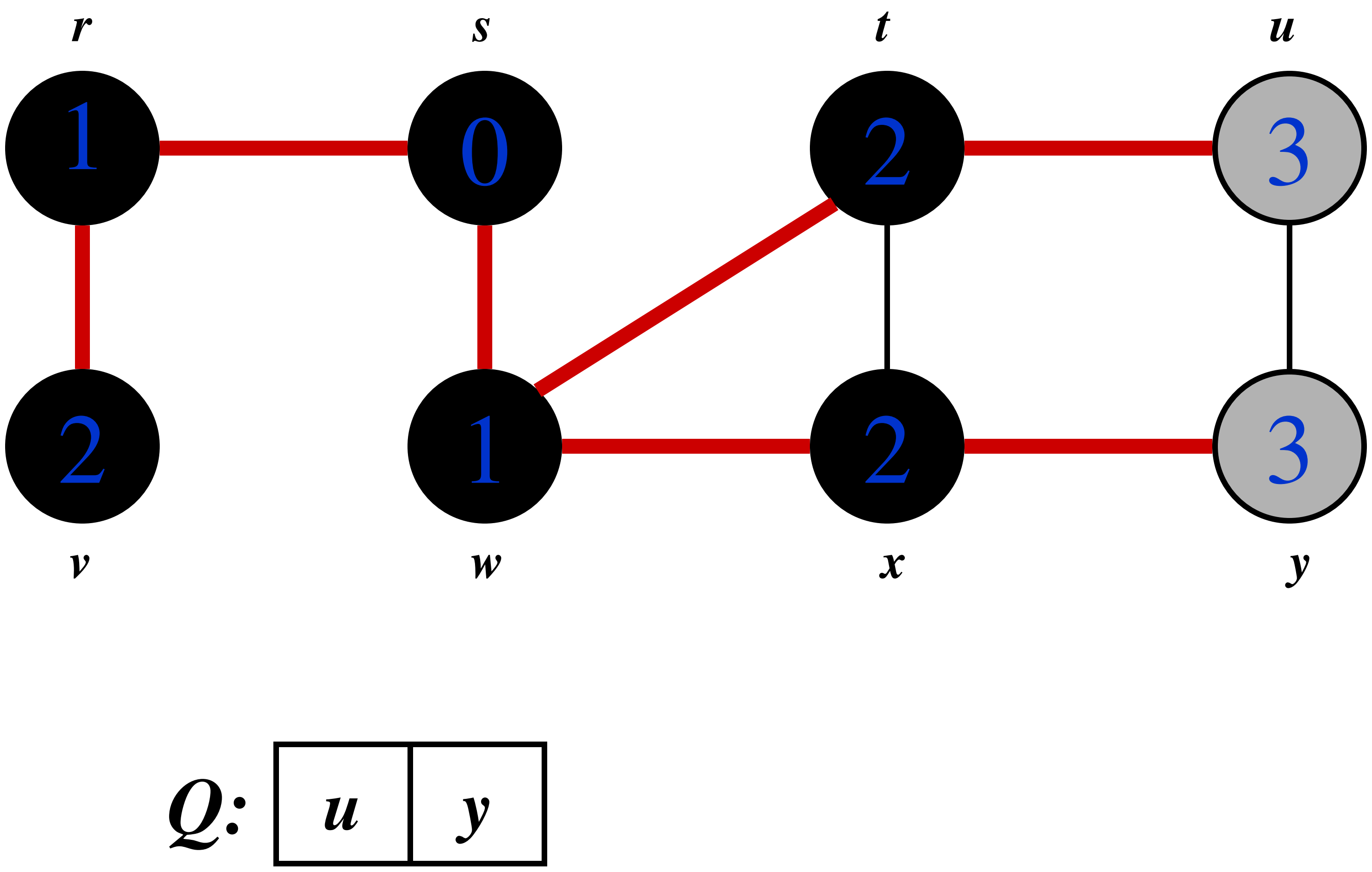
Q: | *x* | *v* | *u* |

Breadth-First Search: Example



Q: | *v* | *u* | *y* |

Breadth-First Search: Example



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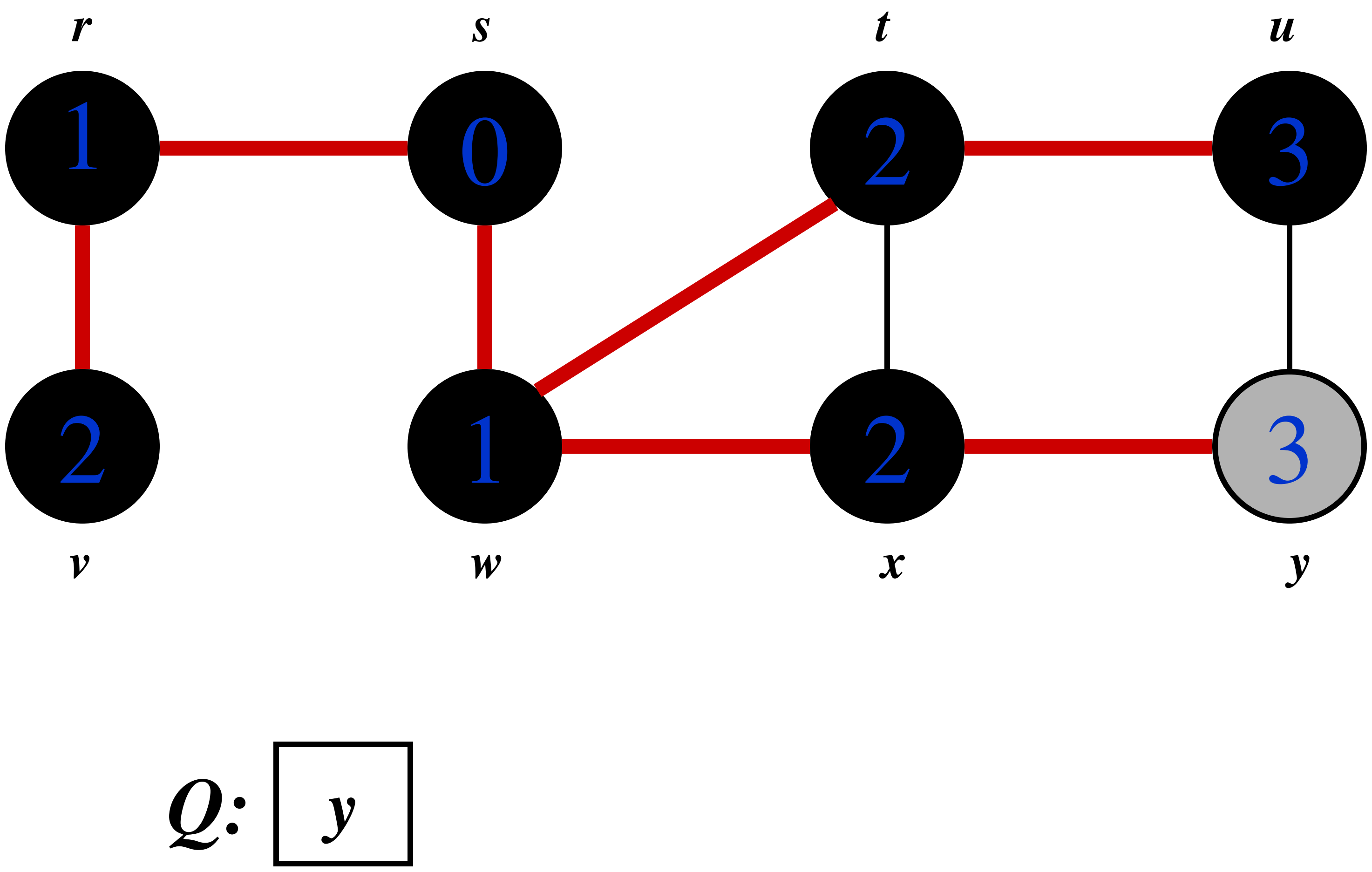

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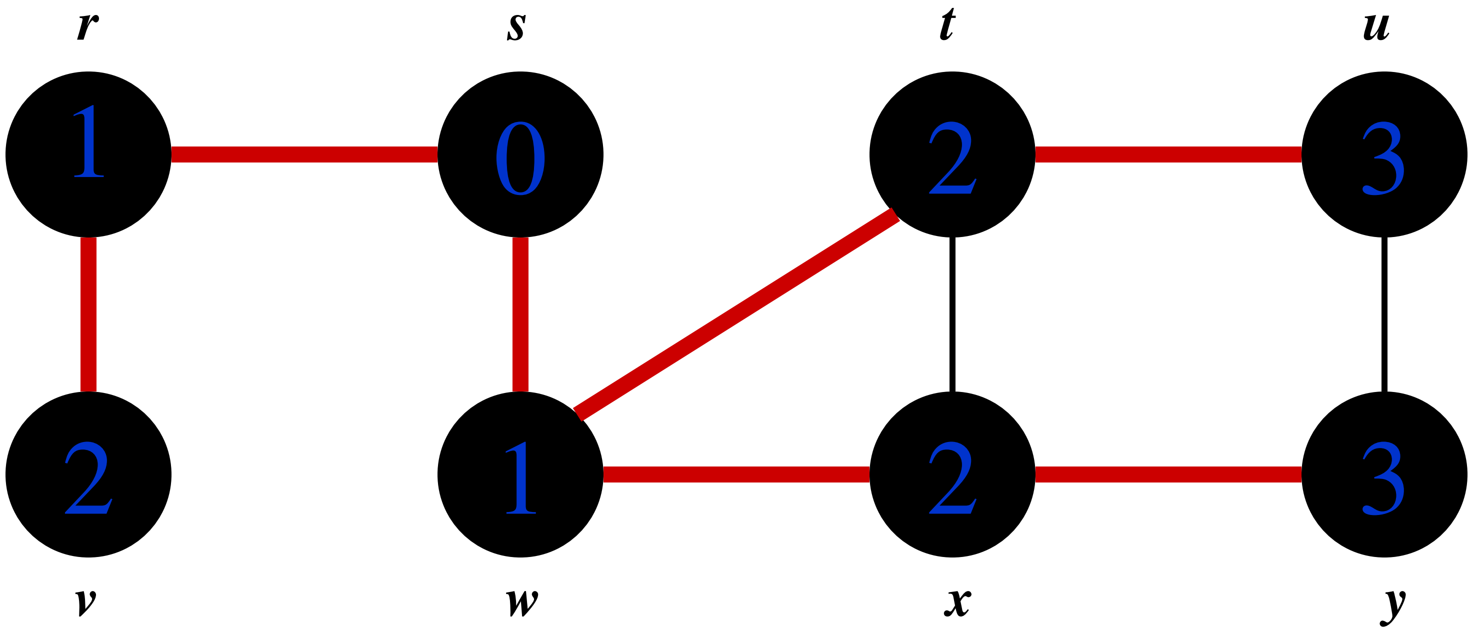

Q: Ø

BFS: The Code Again

```
BFS(G, s) {
    initialize vertices;
    Q = {s};
    while (Q not empty) {
        u = RemoveTop(Q);
        for each v ∈ u->adj {
            if (v->color == WHITE)
                v->color = GREY;
                v->d = u->d + 1;
                v->p = u;
                Enqueue(Q, v);
        }
        u->color = BLACK;
    }
}
```

Touch every vertex: O(V)

u = every vertex, but only once

(Why?)

So v = every vertex that appears in some other vert's adjacency list

What will be the running time?

Total running time: O(V+E)

BFS: The Code Again

```
BFS(G, s) {
    initialize vertices;
    Q = {s};
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        u = RemoveTop(Q);
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                v->p = u;
                Enqueue(Q, v);
        }
        u->color = BLACK;
    }
}
```

What will be the storage cost in addition to storing the tree?

Total space used: O(max(degree(v))) = O(E)

Breadth-First Search: Properties

- BFS calculates the *shortest-path distance* to the source node
  - Shortest-path distance $\delta(s,v)$ = minimum number of edges from s to v, or ∞ if v not reachable from s
  - Proof given in the book (p. 472-5)
- BFS builds *breadth-first tree*, in which paths to root represent shortest paths in G
  - Thus can use BFS to calculate shortest path from one vertex to another in O(V+E) time