

# Algorithms and Data Structures (II)

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Why did we want dynamic sets to start with ?

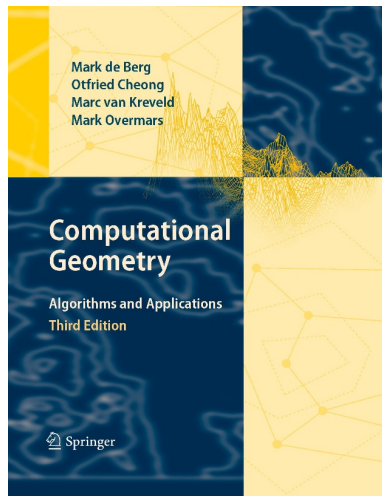
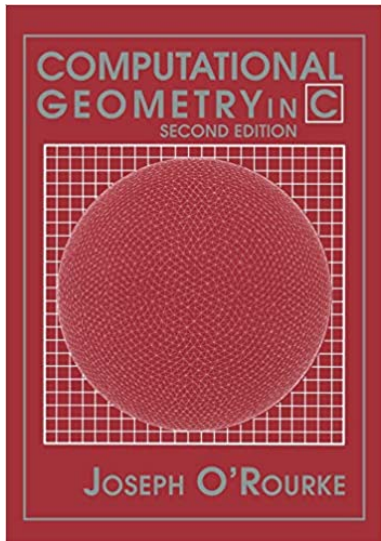
- To improve algorithms.
- Today: brief respite from data structures.
- Computational geometry
- Time permitting: graph algorithms.
- We'll see some algorithms that use stacks, queues, red-black trees.

- Studies algorithms for geometric problems.
- Applications: computer graphics, robotics, VLSI, CAD.
- More applications: protein folding, molecular modeling, GIS.
- Huge area ! Only a sampler.
- Scientific conference: SOCG
- Software: CGAL.

## Caution

- The biggest "enemy" to algorithms in computational geometry: **degeneracy**.
- Three points are collinear, three lines intersect at the same point, etc.
- Algorithms need patching to deal with degenerate situations.
- In the interest of teaching: **Ignore it**.

Want to know more ?



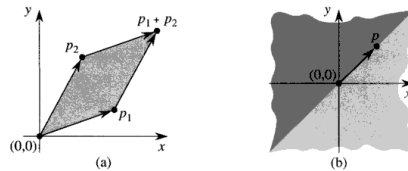
Second book: can LEGALLY download pdf from Springer. See message on the elearning forum for address (or search for it on Google).

- Input: set of points  $\{p_i\}$ ,  $p_i = (x_i, y_i)$ . Example: polygon  $P = (p_0, p_1, \dots, p_n)$ .
- Given  $p_1 = (x_1, y_1)$  and  $p_2 = (x_2, y_2)$ , **convex combination**: any point  $p_3 = (x_3, y_3)$  such that  $x_3 = \lambda x_1 + (1 - \lambda)x_2$ ,  $\lambda \in [0, 1]$ , similarly  $y_3 = \lambda y_1 + (1 - \lambda)y_2$ .

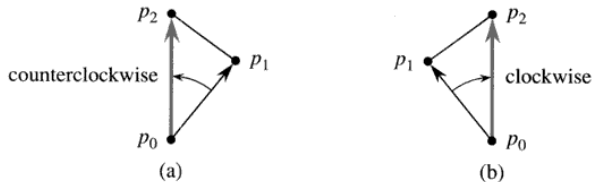
1. Given two directed segments  $\overrightarrow{p_0p_1}$  and  $\overrightarrow{p_0p_2}$ , is  $\overrightarrow{p_0p_1}$  clockwise from  $\overrightarrow{p_0p_2}$  with respect to their common endpoint  $p_0$ ?
2. Given two line segments  $\overline{p_1p_2}$  and  $\overline{p_2p_3}$ , if we traverse  $\overline{p_1p_2}$  and then  $\overline{p_2p_3}$ , do we make a left turn at point  $p_2$ ?
3. Do line segments  $\overline{p_1p_2}$  and  $\overline{p_3p_4}$  intersect?

# Cross products

$$\begin{aligned} p_1 \times p_2 &= \det \begin{pmatrix} x_1 & x_2 \\ y_1 & y_2 \end{pmatrix} \\ &= x_1 y_2 - x_2 y_1 \\ &= -p_2 \times p_1 . \end{aligned}$$



**Figure 33.1** (a) The cross product of vectors  $p_1$  and  $p_2$  is the signed area of the parallelogram. (b) The lightly shaded region contains vectors that are clockwise from  $p$ . The darkly shaded region contains vectors that are counterclockwise from  $p$ .



**Figure 33.2** Using the cross product to determine how consecutive line segments  $\overline{p_0 p_1}$  and  $\overline{p_1 p_2}$  turn at point  $p_1$ . We check whether the directed segment  $\overrightarrow{p_0 p_2}$  is clockwise or counterclockwise relative to the directed segment  $\overrightarrow{p_0 p_1}$ . (a) If counterclockwise, the points make a left turn. (b) If clockwise, they make a right turn.

# Procedures DIRECTION and ON-SEGMENT

DIRECTION( $p_i, p_j, p_k$ )

1 **return**  $(p_k - p_i) \times (p_j - p_i)$

ON-SEGMENT( $p_i, p_j, p_k$ )

1 **if**  $\min(x_i, x_j) \leq x_k \leq \max(x_i, x_j)$  and  $\min(y_i, y_j) \leq y_k \leq \max(y_i, y_j)$

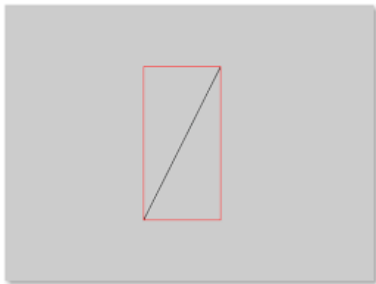
2 **then return** TRUE

3 **else return** FALSE

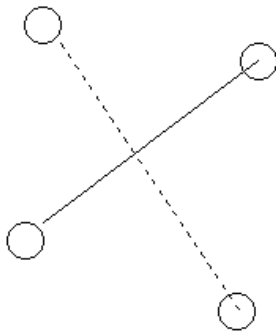


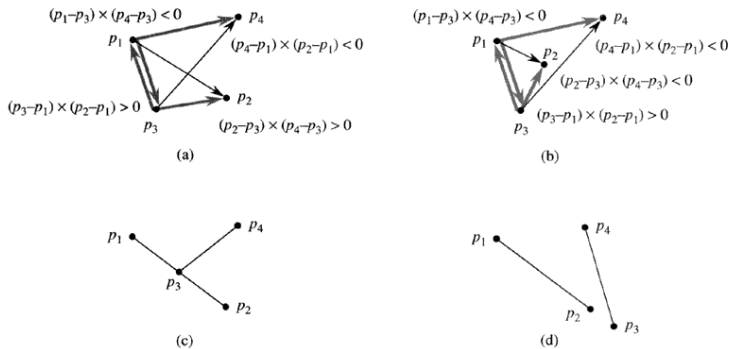
# Testing whether two segments intersect

- QUICK REJECT: two segments cannot intersect if their **BOUNDING BOXES** don't.
- Smallest rectangle containing the segment with sides parallel to the xy axes.
- Bounding box of  $\overline{p_1p_2}$ ,  $p_i = (x_i, y_i)$  is rectangle with corners  $(\min(x_1, x_2), \min(y_1, y_2))$ ,  $(\min(x_1, x_2), \max(y_1, y_2))$ ,  $(\max(x_1, x_2), \max(y_1, y_2))$  and  $(\max(x_1, x_2), \min(y_1, y_2))$ .



- Second stage: check whether each segment "straddles" the other.
- A segment  $\overline{p_1p_2}$  straddles a line if point  $p_1$  lies on one side of the line and point  $p_2$  lies on the other side. If  $p_1$  or  $p_2$  lies on the line, then we say that the segment straddles the line. Two line segments intersect if and only if they pass the quick rejection test and each segment straddles the line containing the other.





**Figure 3.3** Cases in the procedure SEGMENTS-INTERSECT. (a) The segments  $\overline{p_1p_2}$  and  $\overline{p_3p_4}$  straddle each other's lines. Because  $\overline{p_3p_4}$  straddles the line containing  $\overline{p_1p_2}$ , the signs of the cross products  $(p_3-p_1) \times (p_2-p_1)$  and  $(p_4-p_1) \times (p_2-p_1)$  differ. Because  $\overline{p_1p_2}$  straddles the line containing  $\overline{p_3p_4}$ , the signs of the cross products  $(p_1-p_3) \times (p_4-p_3)$  and  $(p_2-p_3) \times (p_4-p_3)$  differ. (b) Segment  $\overline{p_3p_4}$  straddles the line containing  $\overline{p_1p_2}$ , but  $\overline{p_1p_2}$  does not straddle the line containing  $\overline{p_3p_4}$ . The signs of the cross products  $(p_1-p_3) \times (p_4-p_3)$  and  $(p_2-p_3) \times (p_4-p_3)$  are the same. (c) Point  $p_3$  is collinear with  $\overline{p_1p_2}$  and is between  $p_1$  and  $p_2$ . (d) Point  $p_3$  is collinear with  $\overline{p_1p_2}$ , but it is not between  $p_1$  and  $p_2$ . The segments do not intersect.

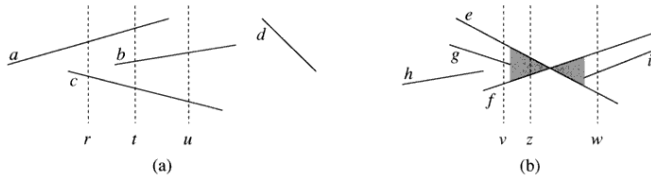
# Testing whether two segments intersect

SEGMENTS-INTERSECT( $p_1, p_2, p_3, p_4$ )

```
1  $d_1 \leftarrow$  DIRECTION( $p_3, p_4, p_1$ )
2  $d_2 \leftarrow$  DIRECTION( $p_3, p_4, p_2$ )
3  $d_3 \leftarrow$  DIRECTION( $p_1, p_2, p_3$ )
4  $d_4 \leftarrow$  DIRECTION( $p_1, p_2, p_4$ )
5 if  $((d_1 > 0$  and  $d_2 < 0)$  or  $(d_1 < 0$  and  $d_2 > 0)$ ) and
    $((d_3 > 0$  and  $d_4 < 0)$  or  $(d_3 < 0$  and  $d_4 > 0))$ 
6   then return TRUE
7 elseif  $d_1 = 0$  and ON-SEGMENT( $p_3, p_4, p_1$ )
8   then return TRUE
9 elseif  $d_2 = 0$  and ON-SEGMENT( $p_3, p_4, p_2$ )
10  then return TRUE
11 elseif  $d_3 = 0$  and ON-SEGMENT( $p_1, p_2, p_3$ )
12  then return TRUE
13 elseif  $d_4 = 0$  and ON-SEGMENT( $p_1, p_2, p_4$ )
14  then return TRUE
15 else return FALSE
```

# Testing whether **any** two segments intersect

- **Given:**  $n$  segments  $v_1, \dots, v_n$ .
- **To test:** do any two segments intersect ?
- Uses technique called **sweeping**.
- Running time:  $O(n \log n)$ . Naive algorithm  $O(n^2)$ .
- **SWEEPING:** an imaginary vertical sweep line passes through the given set of geometric objects, usually from left to right. The spatial dimension that the sweep line moves across, in this case the x-dimension, is treated as a dimension of time.
- Provides method for ordering geometric objects, usually by placing them into a dynamic data structure, and for taking advantage of relationships among them.
- line-segment-intersection algorithm: considers all line-segment endpoints in left-to-right order and checks for an intersection each time it encounters an endpoint.



**Figure 33.4** The ordering among line segments at various vertical sweep lines. (a) We have  $a >_r c$ ,  $a >_t b$ ,  $b >_t c$ ,  $a >_t c$ , and  $b >_u c$ . Segment  $d$  is comparable with no other segment shown. (b) When segments  $e$  and  $f$  intersect, their orders are reversed: we have  $e >_v f$  but  $f >_w e$ . Any sweep line (such as  $z$ ) that passes through the shaded region has  $e$  and  $f$  consecutive in its total order.

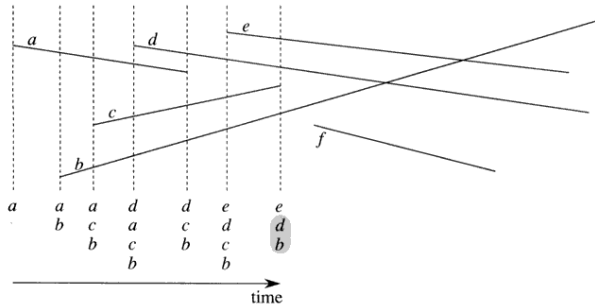
- Sweeping algorithms: maintain two sets of data.
- sweep-line status: gives the relationships among objects intersected by the sweep line.
- event-point schedule: sequence of x-coordinates, ordered from left to right, that defines the halting positions of the sweep line.
- Call each such halting position an event point. Changes to the sweep-line status occur only at event points.
- Sweep-line status: total order  $T$ .
- $INSERT(T, s)$ ,  $DELETE(T, s)$ .
- $ABOVE(T, s)$ : return segment above  $s$  in  $T$ .
- $BELOW(T, s)$ : return segment below  $s$  in  $T$ .
- We can perform each of the above operations in  $O(\log n)$  time using red-black trees.

ANY-SEGMENTS-INTERSECT( $S$ )

```
1   $T \leftarrow \emptyset$ 
2  sort the endpoints of the segments in  $S$  from left to right,
   breaking ties by putting left endpoints before right endpoints
   and breaking further ties by putting points with lower
   y-coordinates first
3  for each point  $p$  in the sorted list of endpoints
4      do if  $p$  is the left endpoint of a segment  $s$ 
5          then INSERT( $T, s$ )
6              if (ABOVE( $T, s$ ) exists and intersects  $s$ )
                   or (BELOW( $T, s$ ) exists and intersects  $s$ )
7                  then return TRUE
8      if  $p$  is the right endpoint of a segment  $s$ 
9          then if both ABOVE( $T, s$ ) and BELOW( $T, s$ ) exist
                   and ABOVE( $T, s$ ) intersects BELOW( $T, s$ )
10                 then return TRUE
11                 DELETE( $T, s$ )
12 return FALSE
```



# Algorithm: example



**Figure 33.5** The execution of ANY-SEGMENTS-INTERSECT. Each dashed line is the sweep line at an event point, and the ordering of segment names below each sweep line is the total order  $T$  at the end of the **for** loop in which the corresponding event point is processed. The intersection of segments  $d$  and  $b$  is found when segment  $c$  is deleted.

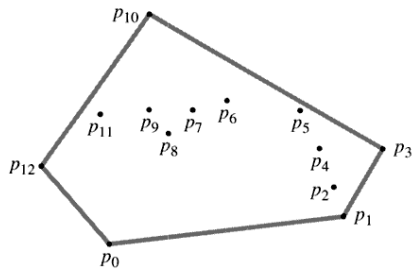
## Algorithm: correctness/performance

- Can only fail by not reporting intersecting segments.
- $p$  = leftmost intersection point, breaking ties by choosing the one with the lowest  $y$ -coordinate.  $a$  and  $b$  = the segments that intersect at  $p$ .
- No intersections occur to the left of  $p \Rightarrow$  the order given by  $T$  is correct at all points to the left of  $p$ .
- no three segments intersect at the same point  $\Rightarrow$  there exists a sweep line  $z$  at which  $a$  and  $b$  become consecutive in the total order.
- $z$  is to the left of  $p$  or goes through  $p$ .
- There exists segment endpoint  $q$  on  $z$  that is the event point at which  $a$  and  $b$  become consecutive.
- If  $p$  is on  $z$ , then  $q = p$ . If  $p$  is not on  $z$ , then  $q$  is to the left of  $p$ . In either case, the order given by  $T$  is correct just before  $q$  is processed.

## Algorithm: correctness/performance

- Either  $a$  or  $b$  is inserted into  $T$ , and the other segment is above or below it in the total order. Lines 4-7 detect this case.
- Segments  $a$  and  $b$  are already in  $T$ , and a segment between them in the total order is deleted, making  $a$  and  $b$  become consecutive. Lines 8-11.
- In either case, the intersection  $p$  is found.
- $2n$  insert/delete/tests. Taking  $O(\log n)$  time.

- **Convex hull of a set of points:** smallest convex polygon that contains the set of points.
- place elastic rubber band around set of points and let it shrink.
- Two algorithms: Graham's Scan  $O(n \log n)$ .
- Jarvis's March  $O(n \cdot h)$ ,  $h$  the number of points on the convex hull.
- Other algorithms:
- **Incremental:** points sorted from left to right forming sequence  $p_1, \dots, p_n$ . At stage  $i$  add  $p_i$  to convex hull  $CH(p_1, \dots, p_{i-1})$ , forming  $CH(p_1, \dots, p_i)$ .
- **Divide-and-conquer:** divide into leftmost  $n/2$  points and rightmost  $n/2$  points. Compute convex hulls and combine them.
- **Prune-and-search method.**



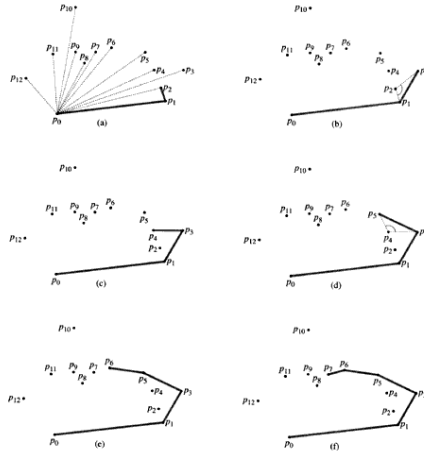
**Figure 33.6** A set of points  $Q = \{p_0, p_1, \dots, p_{12}\}$  with its convex hull  $\text{CH}(Q)$  in gray.

- Maintains a stack  $S$  of candidate points.
- Each point of  $Q$  is pushed onto the stack.
- Points not in  $CH(Q)$  eventually popped from the stack.
- $TOP(S)$ ,  $NEXT - TO - TOP(S)$ : stack functions, do not change its contents.
- Stack returned by the algorithm: points of  $CH(Q)$  in counterclockwise order.

GRAHAM-SCAN( $Q$ )

- 1 let  $p_0$  be the point in  $Q$  with the minimum  $y$ -coordinate,  
or the leftmost such point in case of a tie
- 2 let  $\langle p_1, p_2, \dots, p_m \rangle$  be the remaining points in  $Q$ ,  
sorted by polar angle in counterclockwise order around  $p_0$   
(if more than one point has the same angle, remove all but  
the one that is farthest from  $p_0$ )
- 3 PUSH( $p_0, S$ )
- 4 PUSH( $p_1, S$ )
- 5 PUSH( $p_2, S$ )
- 6 **for**  $i \leftarrow 3$  **to**  $m$
- 7     **do while** the angle formed by points NEXT-TO-TOP( $S$ ), TOP( $S$ ),  
and  $p_i$  makes a nonleft turn
- 8         **do** POP( $S$ )
- 9         PUSH( $p_i, S$ )
- 10 **return**  $S$

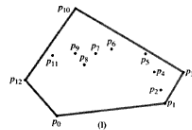
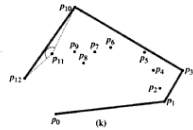
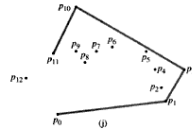
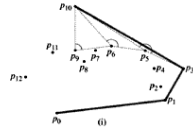
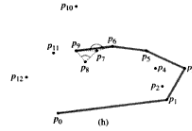
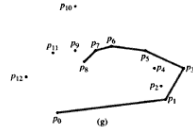
# Graham's Scan: Example



**Figure 33.7** The execution of GRAHAM-SCAN on the set  $Q$  of Figure 33.6. The current convex hull contained in stack  $S$  is shown in gray at each step. (a) The sequence  $(p_1, p_2, \dots, p_{12})$  of points numbered in order of increasing polar angle relative to  $p_0$ , and the initial stack  $S$  containing  $p_0, p_1$ , and  $p_2$ . (b)–(k) Stack  $S$  after each iteration of the **for** loop of lines 6–9. Dashed lines show nonleft turns, which cause points to be popped from the stack. In part (b), for example, the right turn at angle  $\angle p_1 p_2 p_0$  causes  $p_4$  to be popped, and then the right turn at angle  $\angle p_0 p_1 p_2$  causes  $p_1$  to be popped. (f) The convex hull returned by the procedure, which matches that of Figure 33.6.



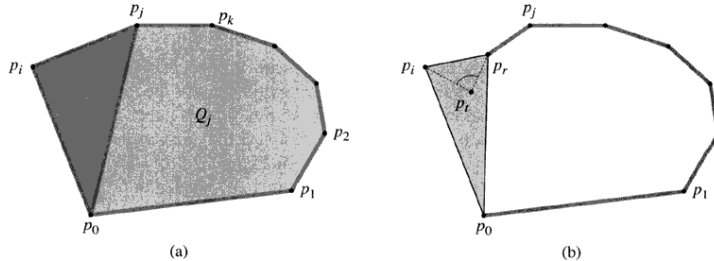
# Graham's Scan: Example



# Graham's Scan: Correctness and Performance

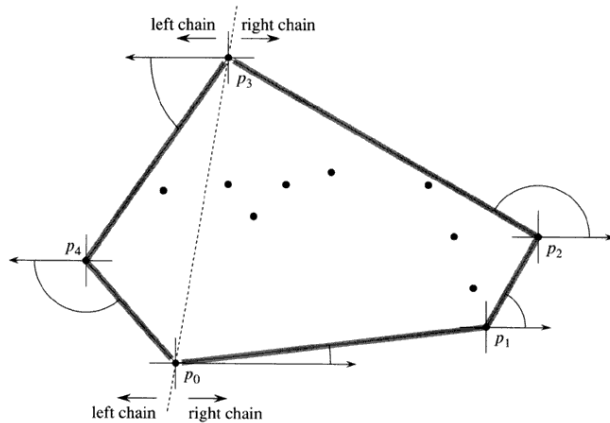
- Invariant: at the beginning of each iteration of the for loop stack  $S$  contains (from bottom to top) exactly the vertices of  $CH(Q_{i-1})$  in counterclockwise order.
- Line 1:  $\theta(n)$  time.
- Sorting  $\theta(n \log n)$  time.
- Testing for left/right turn: vector product  $\theta(1)$  time.
- The rest of the algorithm  $O(n)$  time.

# Graham's Scan: Correctness



**Figure 33.8** The proof of correctness of GRAHAM-SCAN. (a) Because  $p_i$ 's polar angle relative to  $p_0$  is greater than  $p_j$ 's polar angle, and because the angle  $\angle p_k p_j p_i$  makes a left turn, adding  $p_i$  to  $\text{CH}(Q_j)$  gives exactly the vertices of  $\text{CH}(Q_j \cup \{p_i\})$ . (b) If the angle  $\angle p_r p_t p_i$  makes a nonleft turn, then  $p_t$  is either in the interior of the triangle formed by  $p_0, p_r$ , and  $p_i$  or on a side of the triangle, and it cannot be a vertex of  $\text{CH}(Q_j)$ .

- uses a technique known as **gift wrapping**.
- Simulates wrapping a piece of paper around set  $Q$ .
- Start at the same point  $p_0$  as in Graham's scan.
- **Pull the paper to the right, then higher until it touches a point. This point is a vertex in the convex hull. Continue this way until we come back to  $p_0$ .**
- Formally: start at  $p_0$ . Choose  $p_1$  as the point with the smallest polar angle from  $p_0$ . Choose  $p_2$  as the point with the smallest polar angle from  $p_1$  . . .
- . . . until we reached the highest point  $p_k$ .
- We have constructed the **right chain**.
- Construct **the left chain** by starting from  $p_k$  and measuring polar angles **with respect to the negative x-axis**.



**Figure 33.9** The operation of Jarvis's march. The first vertex chosen is the lowest point  $p_0$ . The next vertex,  $p_1$ , has the smallest polar angle of any point with respect to  $p_0$ . Then,  $p_2$  has the smallest polar angle with respect to  $p_1$ . The right chain goes as high as the highest point  $p_3$ . Then, the left chain is constructed by finding smallest polar angles with respect to the negative  $x$ -axis.

# Finding closest points

- W.r.t. euclidean distance.
- Brute force:  $\theta(n^2)$ .
- Divide and conquer algorithm with  $O(n \log n)$  complexity.

## Finding closest points: Idea

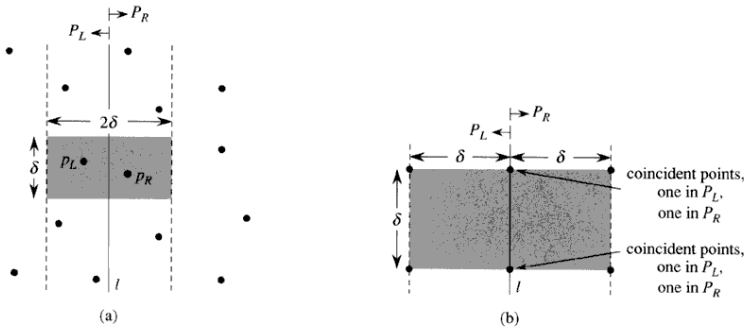
- Each iteration: subset  $P \subseteq Q$ , arrays  $X$  and  $Y$ .
- Points in  $X$  are sorted in increasing order of their  $x$  coordinates.
- Points in  $Y$  are sorted in increasing order of their  $y$  coordinates.
- To maintain upper bound cannot afford to sort in each iteration.
- $|P| \leq 3$ : brute force. Otherwise recursive divide-and-conquer.
- **Divide:** Find a vertical line  $l$  that bisects set  $P$  into two sets  $P_L$  and  $P_R$  such that  $|P_L| = \lceil |P|/2 \rceil$ ,  $|P_R| = \lfloor |P|/2 \rfloor$ , all points of  $P_L$  to the left, all points of  $P_R$  to the right.
- $X_L$ : subarray that contains point of  $P_L$ ,  $X_R$ : subarray that contains point of  $P_R$ .
- Similarly for  $Y$ .

## Finding closest points (III)

- **Conquer.** Recursive calls:  $P_L, X_L, Y_L$  and  $P_R, X_R, Y_R$ . Returns smallest distances  $\delta_L$  and  $\delta_R$ .
- **Combine.**  $\delta = \min\{\delta_L, \delta_R\}$ .
- Have to test whether some point in  $P_L$  is at distance  $< \delta$  from some point in  $P_R$ .
- Both such points, if they exist, are within the  $2\delta$ -wide strip around  $l$ .
- Create an array  $Y'$  which is  $Y$  with all points not in the  $2\delta$ -wide strip around  $l$  removed, sorted by  $y$ -coordinate.
- **For each point  $p$  in  $Y'$**  try to find points in  $Y'$  at distance less than  $\delta$ .
- Only the 7 points that follow  $p$  need to be considered.
- Compute smallest such distance  $\delta'$ . If  $\delta' < \delta$  we found a better pair. Otherwise  $\delta$  is the smallest distance.
- Correctness, implementation nontrivial.



# Finding closest points (IV)



**Figure 33.11** Key concepts in the proof that the closest-pair algorithm needs to check only 7 points following each point in the array  $Y'$ . **(a)** If  $p_L \in P_L$  and  $p_R \in P_R$  are less than  $\delta$  units apart, they must reside within a  $\delta \times 2\delta$  rectangle centered at line  $l$ . **(b)** How 4 points that are pairwise at least  $\delta$  units apart can all reside within a  $\delta \times \delta$  square. On the left are 4 points in  $P_L$ , and on the right are 4 points in  $P_R$ . There can be 8 points in the  $\delta \times 2\delta$  rectangle if the points shown on line  $l$  are actually pairs of coincident points with one point in  $P_L$  and one in  $P_R$ .

## Correctness & complexity

- For each point: Consider the  $\delta \times 2\delta$  rectangle centered at line  $l$ .
- At most 8 points within this rectangle.
- Assuming  $\delta_L$  lower than  $\delta_R$ , it follows that  $\delta_R$  among the next 7 points following  $\delta_L$ .
- $O(n \log n)$  bound from recurrence  $T(n) = 2T(n/2) + O(n)$ .
- Main difficulty: making sure that  $X_L, X_R, Y_L, Y_R, Y'$  sorted by appropriate coordinate.
- Key observation: in each call we wish to form a sorted subset of a sorted array.
- Splitting the array into two halves.
- Can be viewed as the inverse of the operation *MERGE* in *MERGESORT*.
- How to get sorted arrays in the first place? presort.  $\theta(n \log n)$ .

## Splitting: Pseudocode

```
length[YL] = length[YR] = 0;
for i = 1 to length[Y]
  if (Y[i] ∈ PL)
  {
    length[YL]++;
    YL[length[YL]] = Y[i];
  }
  else
  {
    length[YR] ++;
    YR[length[YR]] = Y[i];
  }
}
```

**And now for something totally different ...**

Graph algorithms.

We live in a highly connected world ...



**... and that's important.**

A certain disease from Wuhan, China has dramatic effects all over the planet ...

A software bug in the alarm system at the control room of FirstEnergy, in Akron, Ohio knocks out the power grid in the whole Northeast United States (2003).



How do real networks look like ?

How do network properties impact **the processes** that take place on them ?

# Some real networks

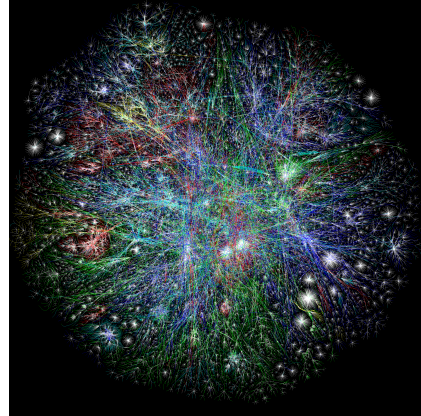
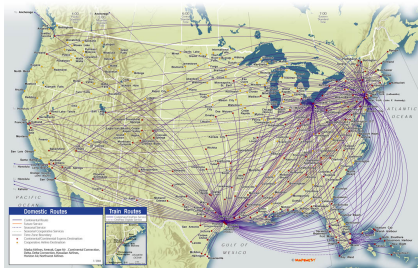
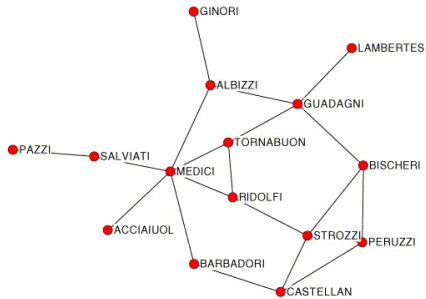


Figure: (a). Air traffic map of the U.S. (b). Physical Internet

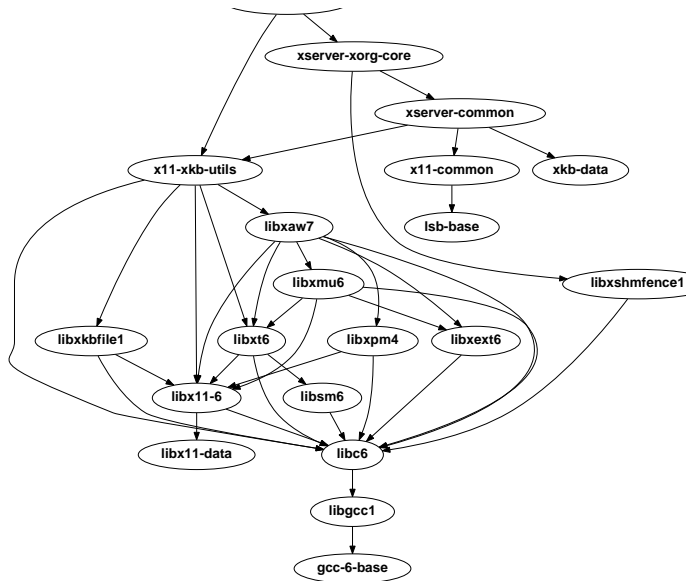


# Marriage Networks of important families in Medieval Florence.



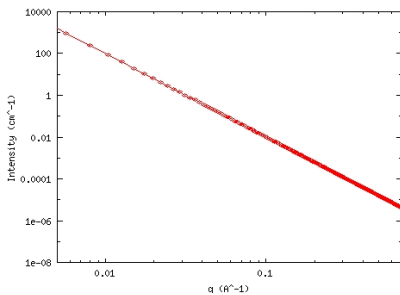
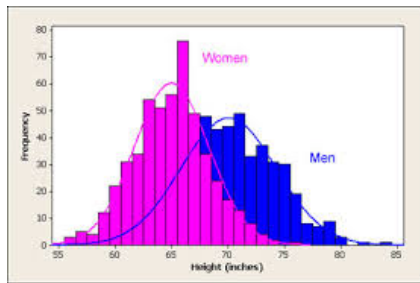


... or even ...



# What's so interesting about networks ?

Small worlds: everyone is "not very far from everyone".



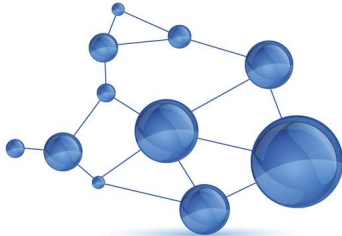
- (a). Distribution of heights in the U.S. population.
- (b). Degree distribution (approximately) power law. Few "tall" people, "many" well connected people

Want to read something interesting ?

# LINKED

NOUA ȘTIINȚĂ A REȚELOR

Despre cum orice lucru este conectat cu oricare altul și ce reprezintă asta pentru afaceri, știință și viața cotidiană



Albert-László Barabási

"LINKED ne-ar putea schimba modul în care gândim orice rețea care ne afectează viața" – *The New York Times*

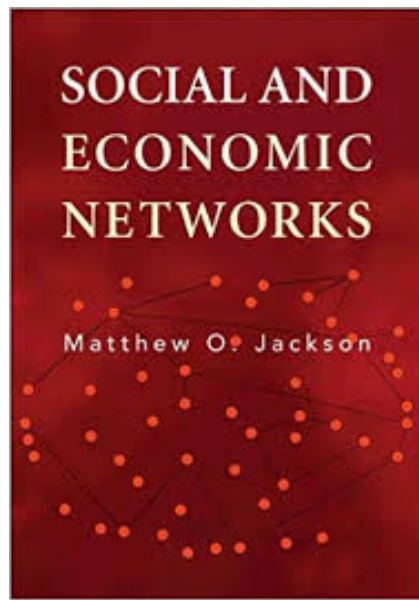
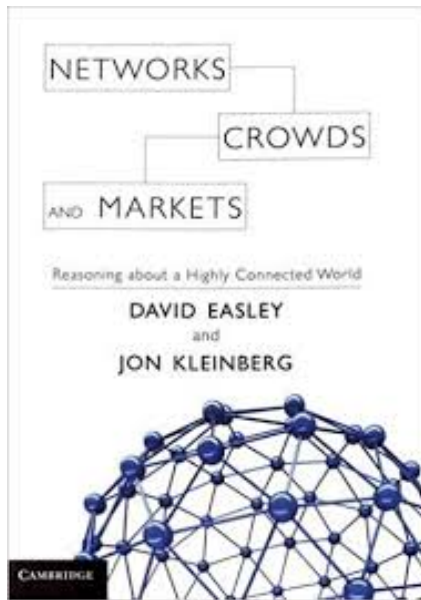
BRUMAR



By the way, not only in America ...



Want to read something even more interesting ?



Can you study large networks  
without good algorithms ?



## To conclude: Many Models and Applications

- Social networks: *who knows who*
- The Web graph: *which page links to which*
- The Internet graph: *which router links to which*
- Citation graphs: *who references whose papers*
- Planar graphs: *which country is next to which*
- Well-shaped meshes: *pretty pictures with triangles*
- Geometric graphs: *who is near who*

- A *graph*

$$G = (V, E)$$

- $V$  is the set of *vertices* (also called *nodes*)
- $E$  is the set of *edges*

- A **graph**

$$G = (V, E)$$

- $V$  is the set of **vertices** (also called **nodes**)

- $E$  is the set of **edges**

- ▶  $E \subseteq V \times V$ , i.e.,  $E$  is a **relation between vertices**
- ▶ an edge  $e = (u, v) \in E$  is a pair of vertices  $u \in V$  and  $v \in V$

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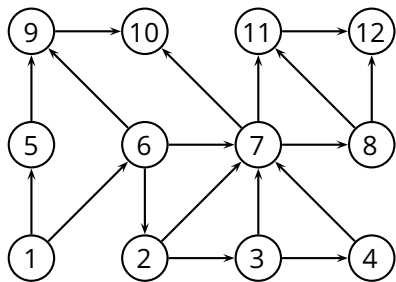
- An **undirected** graph is characterized by a **symmetric** relation between vertices

- ▶ an edge is a set  $e = \{u, v\}$  of two vertices

- How do we represent a graph  $G = (E, V)$  in a computer?

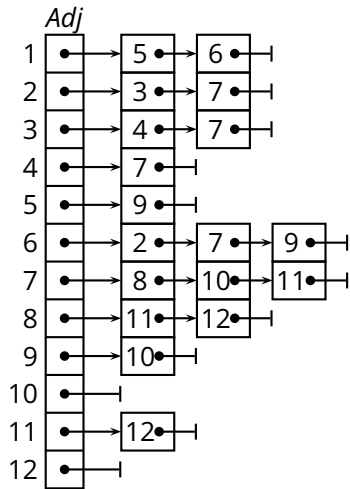
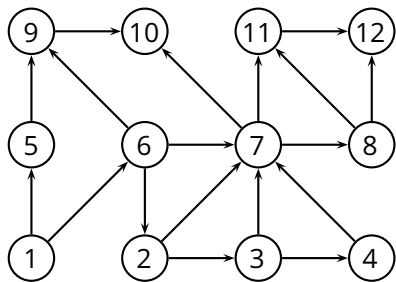
- How do we represent a graph  $G = (E, V)$  in a computer?
- *Adjacency-list representation*
- $V = \{1, 2, \dots, |V|\}$
- $G$  consists of an array  $Adj$
- A vertex  $u \in V$  is represented by an element in the array  $Adj$

- How do we represent a graph  $G = (E, V)$  in a computer?
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- $V = \{1, 2, \dots, |V|\}$
- $G$  consists of an array  $Adj$
- A vertex  $u \in V$  is represented by an element in the array  $Adj$
- $Adj[u]$  is the **adjacency list** of vertex  $u$ 
  - ▶ the list of the vertices that are adjacent to  $u$
  - ▶ i.e., the list of all  $v$  such that  $(u, v) \in E$

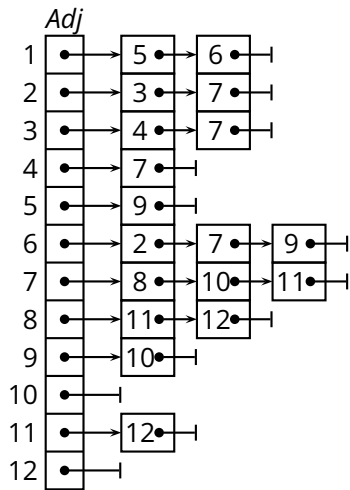




# Example



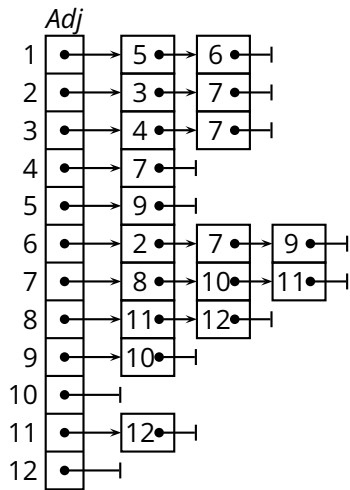
# Using the Adjacency List



# Using the Adjacency List

- Accessing a vertex  $u$ ?

✓.

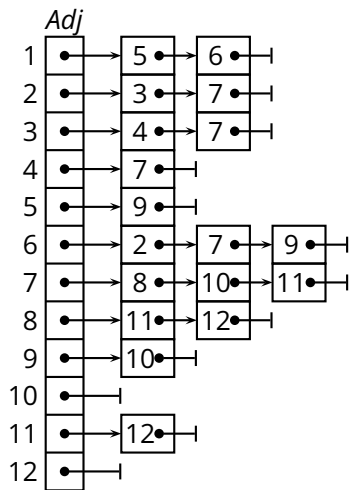


# Using the Adjacency List

■ Accessing a vertex  $u$ ?

- ▶ optimal ✓

$O(1)$  ✓.



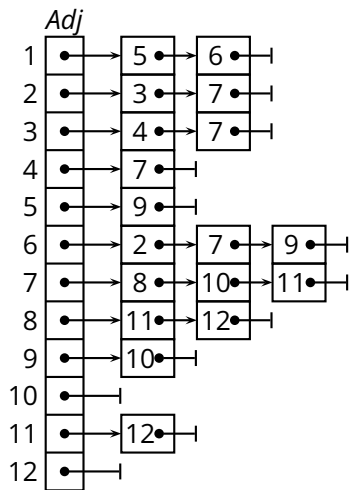
# Using the Adjacency List

- Accessing a vertex  $u$ ?

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- Iteration through  $V$ ?

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# Using the Adjacency List

## ■ Accessing a vertex $u$ ?

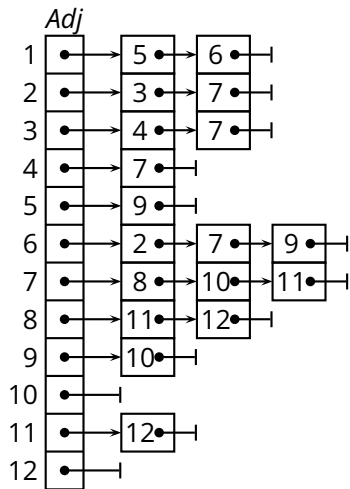
- ▶ optimal ✓

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## ■ Iteration through $V$ ?

- ▶ optimal ✓

$\Theta(|V|)$



# Using the Adjacency List

- Accessing a vertex  $u$ ?

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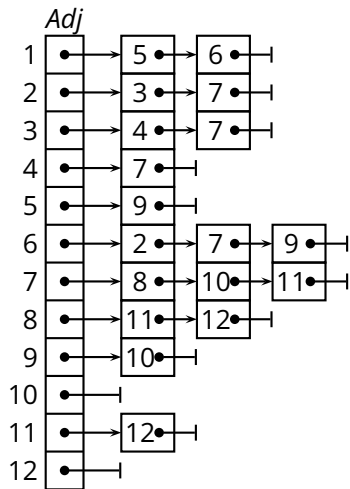
- Iteration through  $V$ ?

- ▶ optimal ✓

- Iteration through  $E$ ?

$O(1)$  ✓.

$\Theta(|V|)$



# Using the Adjacency List

■ Accessing a vertex  $u$ ?

- ▶ optimal ✓

$O(1)$  ✓.

■ Iteration through  $V$ ?

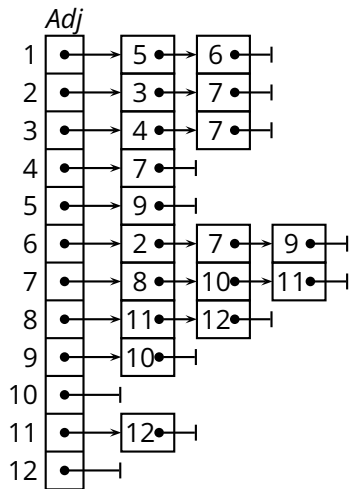
- ▶ optimal ✓

$\Theta(|V|)$

■ Iteration through  $E$ ?

- ▶ okay (not optimal)

$\Theta(|V| + |E|)$





# Using the Adjacency List

■ Accessing a vertex  $u$ ?

▶ optimal ✓

■ Iteration through  $V$ ?

▶ optimal ✓

■ Iteration through  $E$ ?

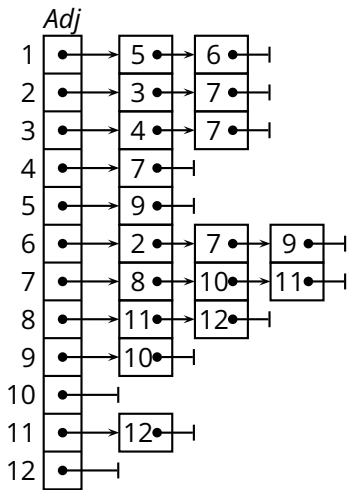
▶ okay (not optimal)

■ Checking  $(u, v) \in E$ ?

$O(1)$  ✓.

$\Theta(|V|)$

$\Theta(|V| + |E|)$





# Using the Adjacency List

■ Accessing a vertex  $u$ ?

- ▶ optimal ✓

$O(1)$  ✓.

■ Iteration through  $V$ ?

- ▶ optimal ✓

$\Theta(|V|)$

■ Iteration through  $E$ ?

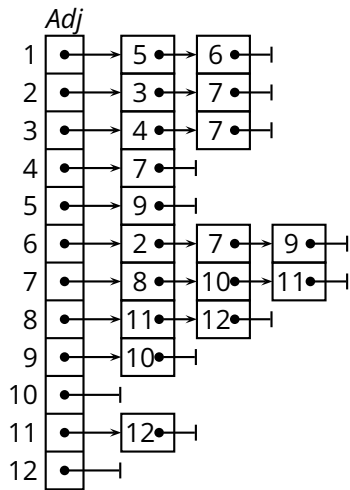
- ▶ okay (not optimal)

$\Theta(|V| + |E|)$

■ Checking  $(u, v) \in E$ ?

- ▶ bad ✗

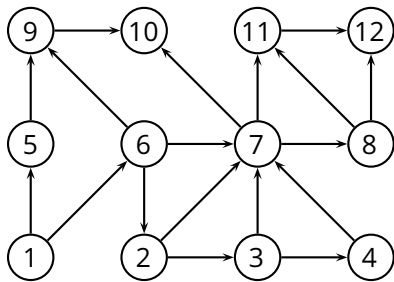
$O(|V|)$



## Graph Representation (2)

- *Adjacency-matrix representation*
- $V = \{1, 2, \dots, |V|\}$
- $G$  consists of a  $|V| \times |V|$  matrix  $A$
- $A = (a_{ij})$  such that

$$a_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } (i, j) \in E \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

































- Adjacency-list representation

- Adjacency-list representation

$$\Theta(|V| + |E|)$$

- Adjacency-list representation

$$\Theta(|V| + |E|)$$

optimal .

- Adjacency-list representation

$$\Theta(|V| + |E|)$$

optimal .

- Adjacency-matrix representation

- Adjacency-list representation

$$\Theta(|V| + |E|)$$

optimal .

- Adjacency-matrix representation

$$\Theta(|V|^2)$$



- Adjacency-list representation

$$\Theta(|V| + |E|)$$

optimal .

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$$\Theta(|V|^2)$$

possibly very bad ✗.

- Adjacency-list representation

$$\Theta(|V| + |E|)$$

optimal .

- Adjacency-matrix representation

$$\Theta(|V|^2)$$

possibly very bad ✗.

- When is the adjacency-matrix “very bad”?

# Choosing a Graph Representation

## ■ Adjacency-list representation

- ▶ generally good, especially for its optimal space complexity
- ▶ bad for *dense* graphs and algorithms that require random access to edges
- ▶ preferable for *sparse* graphs or graphs with *low degree*

# Choosing a Graph Representation

## ■ Adjacency-list representation

- ▶ generally good, especially for its optimal space complexity
- ▶ bad for **dense** graphs and algorithms that require random access to edges
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## ■ Adjacency-matrix representation

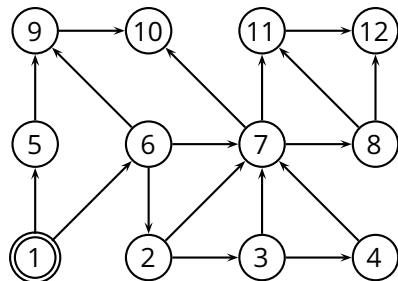
- ▶ suffers from a bad space complexity
- ▶ good for algorithms that require random access to edges
- ▶ preferable for **dense** graphs

- One of the simplest but fundamental algorithms

- One of the simplest but fundamental algorithms
- *Input:*  $G = (V, E)$  and a vertex  $s \in V$ 
  - ▶ explores the graph, touching all vertices that are reachable from  $s$
  - ▶ iterates through the vertices at increasing distance (edge distance)
  - ▶ computes the distance of each vertex from  $s$
  - ▶ produces a ***breadth-first tree*** rooted at  $s$
  - ▶ works on both *directed* and *undirected* graphs

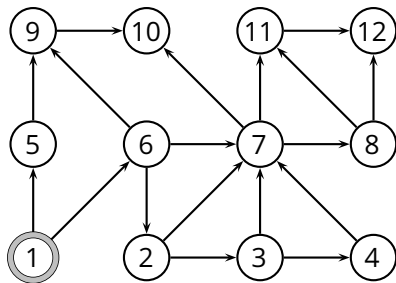
# BFS Algorithm

```
BFS( $G, s$ )
1  for each vertex  $u \in V(G) \setminus \{s\}$ 
2       $color[u] = \text{WHITE}$ 
3       $d[u] = \infty$ 
4       $\pi[u] = \text{NIL}$ 
5   $color[s] = \text{GRAY}$ 
6   $d[s] = 0$ 
7   $\pi[s] = \text{NIL}$ 
8   $Q = \emptyset$ 
9  ENQUEUE( $Q, s$ )
10 while  $Q \neq \emptyset$ 
11      $u = \text{DEQUEUE}(Q)$ 
12     for each  $v \in \text{Adj}[u]$ 
13         if  $color[v] == \text{WHITE}$ 
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15              $d[v] = d[u] + 1$ 
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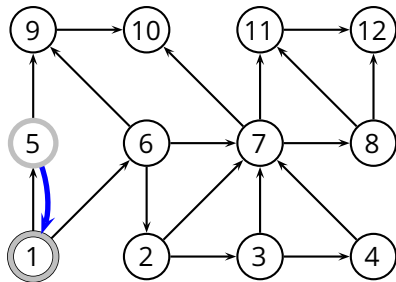
$u = 1$

$Q = \emptyset$



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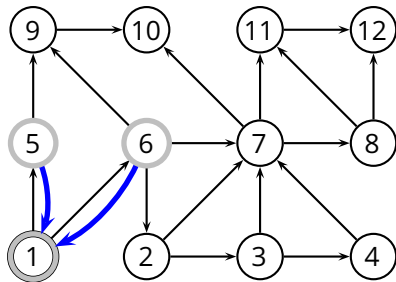


$u = 1$

$Q = \{5\}$

# BFS Algorithm

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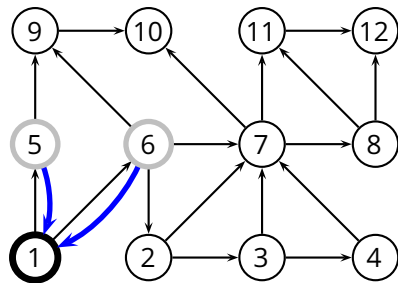


$u = 1$

$Q = \{5, 6\}$

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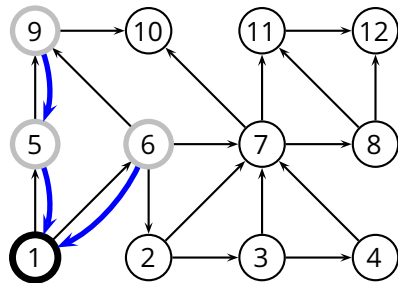


$u = 5$

$Q = \{6\}$

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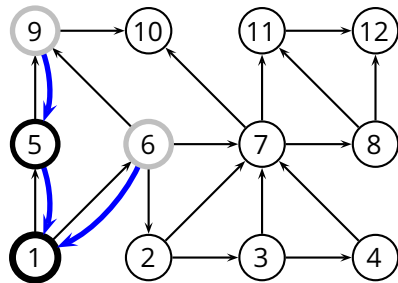


$u = 5$

$Q = \{6, 9\}$

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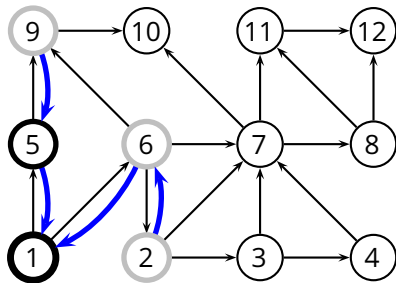


$u = 6$

$Q = \{9\}$

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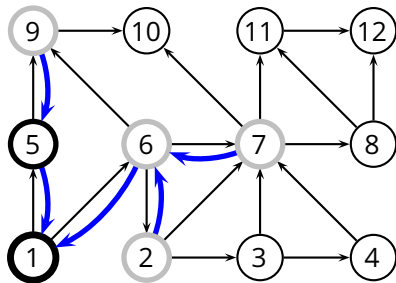


$u = 6$

$Q = \{9, 2, 7\}$

# BFS Algorithm

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BFS( $G, s$ )
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```



$u = 6$

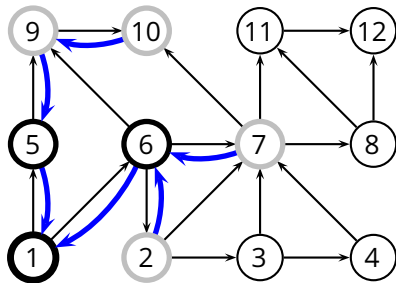
$Q = \{9, 2, 7\}$





# BFS Algorithm

```
BFS( $G, s$ )
1  for each vertex  $u \in V(G) \setminus \{s\}$ 
2       $color[u] = \text{WHITE}$ 
3       $d[u] = \infty$ 
4       $\pi[u] = \text{NIL}$ 
5   $color[s] = \text{GRAY}$ 
6   $d[s] = 0$ 
7   $\pi[s] = \text{NIL}$ 
8   $Q = \emptyset$ 
9  ENQUEUE( $Q, s$ )
10 while  $Q \neq \emptyset$ 
11      $u = \text{DEQUEUE}(Q)$ 
12     for each  $v \in \text{Adj}[u]$ 
13         if  $color[v] == \text{WHITE}$ 
14              $color[v] = \text{GRAY}$ 
15              $d[v] = d[u] + 1$ 
16              $\pi[v] = u$ 
17             ENQUEUE( $Q, v$ )
18      $color[u] = \text{BLACK}$ 
```

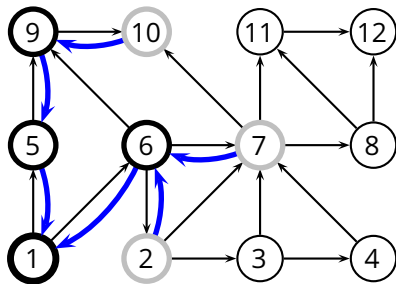


$u = 9$

$Q = \{2, 7, 10\}$

# BFS Algorithm

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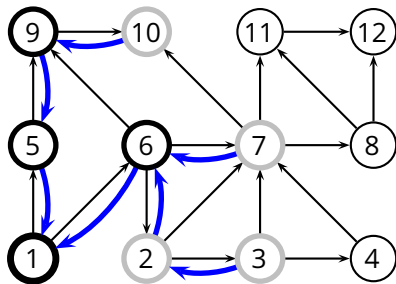


$u = 2$

$Q = \{7, 10\}$

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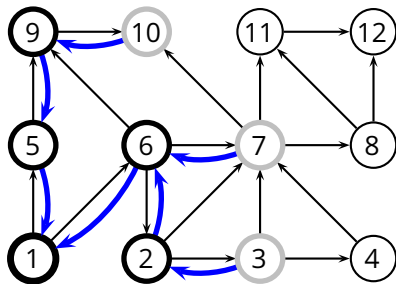


$u = 2$

$Q = \{7, 10, 3\}$

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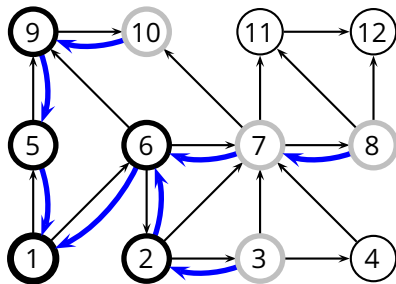


$u = 7$

$Q = \{10, 3\}$

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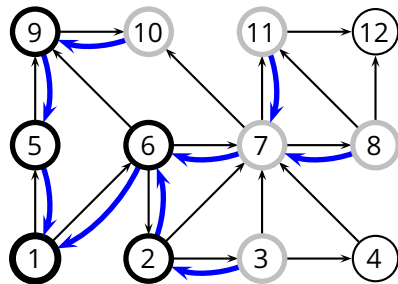


$u = 7$

$Q = \{10, 3, 8\}$

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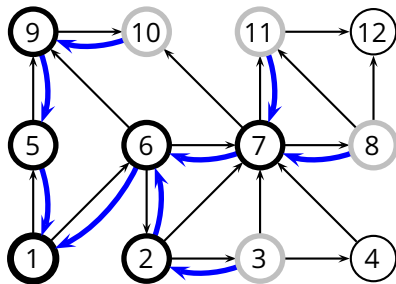


$u = 7$

$Q = \{10, 3, 8, 11\}$

# BFS Algorithm

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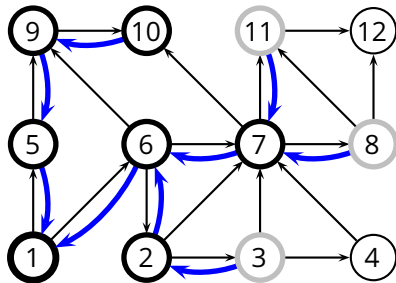


$u = 10$

$Q = \{3, 8, 11\}$

# BFS Algorithm

```
BFS( $G, s$ )
1  for each vertex  $u \in V(G) \setminus \{s\}$ 
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4       $\pi[u] = \text{NIL}$ 
5   $color[s] = \text{GRAY}$ 
6   $d[s] = 0$ 
7   $\pi[s] = \text{NIL}$ 
8   $Q = \emptyset$ 
9  ENQUEUE( $Q, s$ )
10 while  $Q \neq \emptyset$ 
11      $u = \text{DEQUEUE}(Q)$ 
12     for each  $v \in \text{Adj}[u]$ 
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17             ENQUEUE( $Q, v$ )
18      $color[u] = \text{BLACK}$ 
```



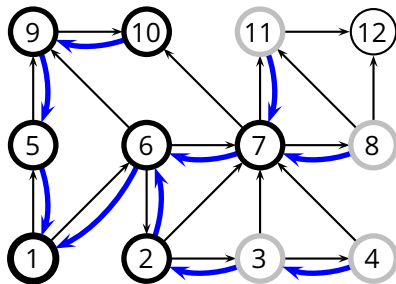
$u = 3$

$Q = \{8, 11\}$



# BFS Algorithm

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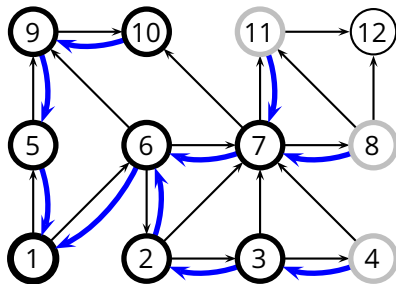


$u = 3$

$Q = \{8, 11, 4\}$

# BFS Algorithm

```
BFS( $G, s$ )
1  for each vertex  $u \in V(G) \setminus \{s\}$ 
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9  ENQUEUE( $Q, s$ )
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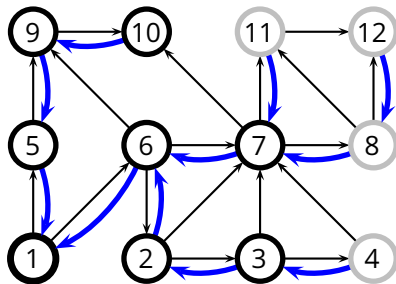


$u = 8$

$Q = \{11, 4\}$

# BFS Algorithm

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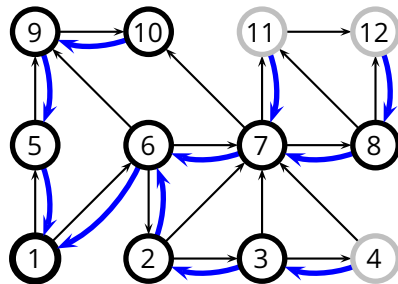


$u = 8$

$Q = \{11, 4, 12\}$

# BFS Algorithm

```
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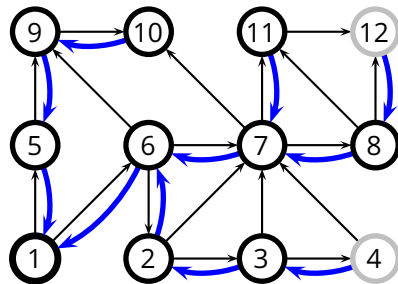


$u = 11$

$Q = \{4, 12\}$

# BFS Algorithm

```
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9  ENQUEUE( $Q, s$ )
10 while  $Q \neq \emptyset$ 
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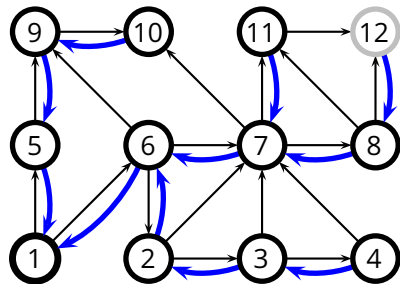


$u = 4$

$Q = \{12\}$

# BFS Algorithm

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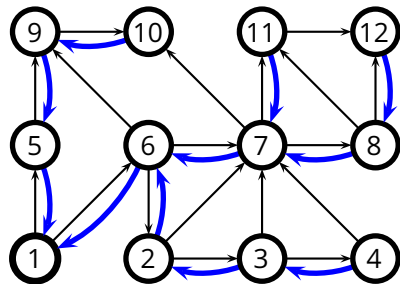


$u = 12$

$Q = \emptyset$

# BFS Algorithm

```
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1  for each vertex  $u \in V(G) \setminus \{s\}$ 
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# Complexity of BFS

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- We enqueue a vertex only if it is white, and we immediately color it gray; thus, we enqueue every vertex *at most once*

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- We enqueue a vertex only if it is white, and we immediately color it gray; thus, we enqueue every vertex *at most once*
- So, the (dequeue) while loop executes  $O(|V|)$  times
- For each vertex  $u$ , the inner loop executes  $\Theta(|E_u|)$ , for a total of  $O(|E|)$  steps
- So,  $O(|V| + |E|)$



- Immediately follow the links of the most recently-visited vertex, then backtrack when you reach a dead-end
  - ▶ i.e., backtrack when the current vertex has no more adjacent vertices that have not yet been visited

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- *Input:  $G = (V, E)$* 
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  - ▶ i.e., backtrack when the current vertex has no more adjacent vertices that have not yet been visited
- *Input:  $G = (V, E)$* 
  - ▶ explores the graph, touching *all vertices*
  - ▶ produces a ***depth-first forest***, consisting of all the ***depth-first trees*** defined by the DFS exploration
  - ▶ associates ***two time-stamps*** to each vertex
    - ▶  $d[u]$  records when  $u$  is first discovered
    - ▶  $f[u]$  records when DFS finishes examining  $u$ 's edges, and therefore backtracks from  $u$



# Complexity of DFS

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- So, the overall complexity is  $\Theta(|V| + |E|)$

# Applications of DFS: Topological Sort

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- **Problem:** (topological sort)

Given a *directed acyclic graph* (DAG)

- ▶ find an ordering of vertices such that you only end up with *forward links*



# Applications of DFS: Topological Sort

## ■ **Problem:** (topological sort)

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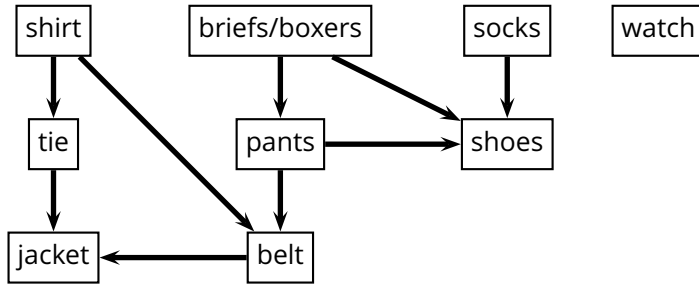
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## ■ **Example:** dependencies in software packages

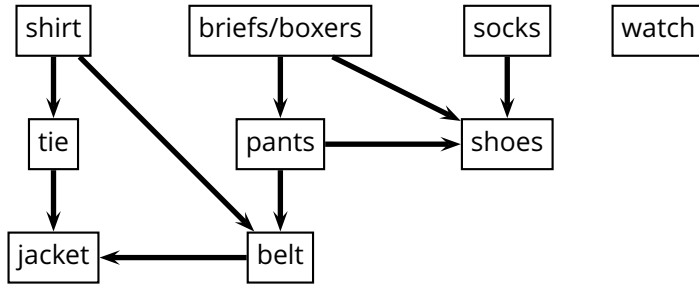
- ▶ find an installation order for a set of software packages
- ▶ such that every package is installed only after all the packages it depends on

# Topological Sort Algorithm

# Topological Sort Algorithm



# Topological Sort Algorithm



**TOPOLOGICAL-SORT**( $G$ ) 1 **DFS**( $G$ )  
2 output  $V$  sorted in reverse order of  $f[\cdot]$