



INF421, Lecture 4

Trees and DFS

Leo Liberti

LIX, École Polytechnique, France



Course

- **Objective:** teach notions AND develop intelligence
- **Evaluation:** TP noté en salle info, Contrôle à la fin. Note:
 $\max(CC, \frac{3}{4}CC + \frac{1}{4}TP)$
- **Organization:** fri 31/8, 7/9, 14/9, 21/9, 28/9, 5/10, 12/10, 19/10, 26/10,
amphi 1030-12 (Arago), TD 1330-1530, 1545-1745 (SI:30-34)
- **Books:**
 1. K. Mehlhorn & P. Sanders, *Algorithms and Data Structures*, Springer, 2008
 2. D. Knuth, *The Art of Computer Programming*, Addison-Wesley, 1997
 3. G. Dowek, *Les principes des langages de programmation*, Editions de l'X, 2008
 4. Ph. Baptiste & L. Maranget, *Programmation et Algorithmique*, Ecole Polytechnique (Polycopié), 2006
- **Website:** www.enseignement.polytechnique.fr/informatique/INF421
- **Blog:** inf421.wordpress.com
- **Contact:** liberti@lix.polytechnique.fr (e-mail subject: INF421)



Lecture summary

- Introduction and reminders
- Spanning trees
- Chemical trees
- Grammars and languages
- Depth-First Search (DFS)



Introduction and reminders

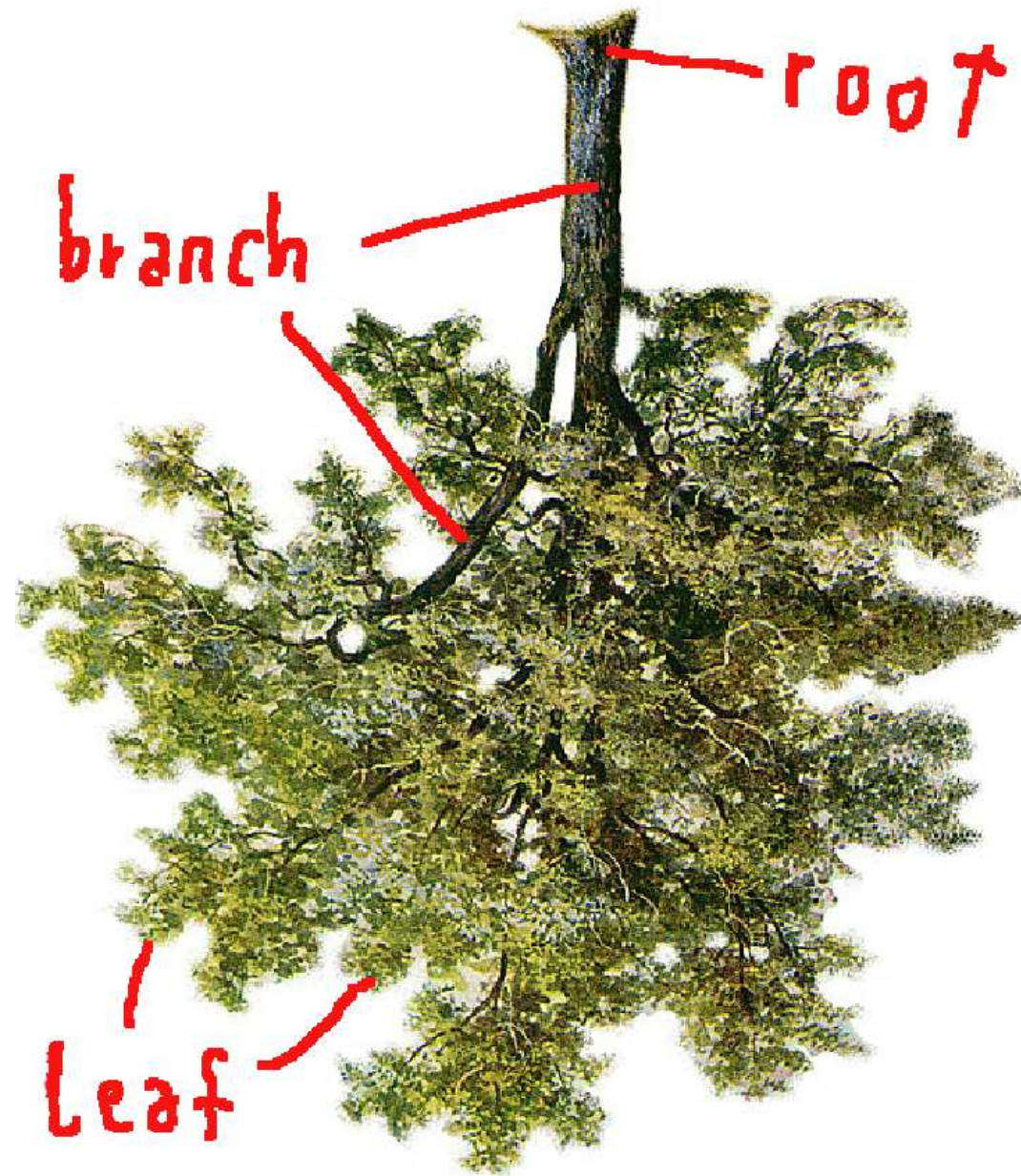
Trees



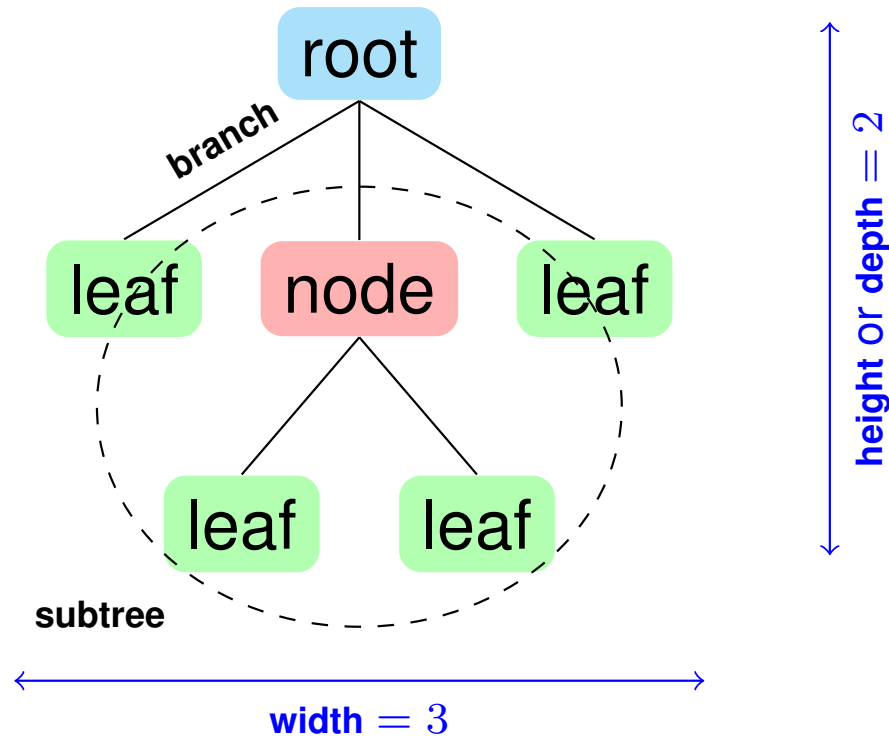
How we draw them



Nomenclature



Graphical representation



height/depth = length (#branches) of longest walk [root \rightarrow leaf]

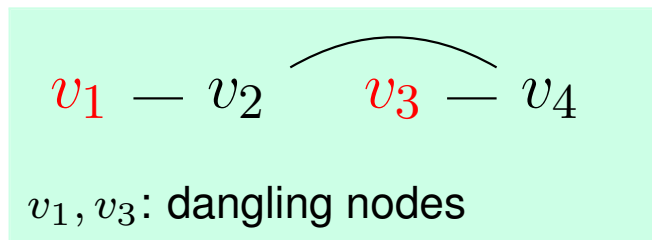
width = max (#nodes) with same depth



Mathematical definition of a tree

Tree: a connected graph $G = (V, E)$ without cycles

- **root node** \Rightarrow **rooted tree**
- If v has $|N(v)| = 1$, v is a **dangling node**



- **Leaf:** non-root dangling node
- **Branch:** edge of a rooted tree



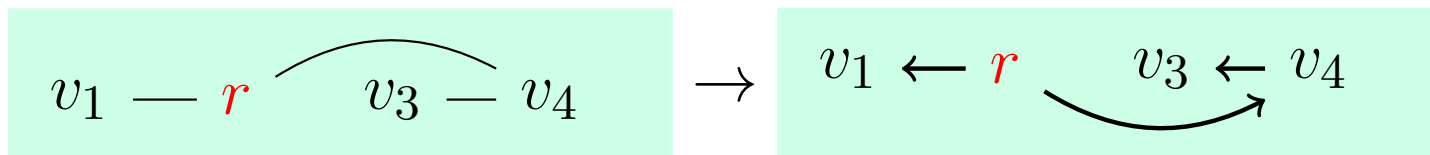
Orientations

- **Orientation of a tree** $T = (V, E)$ with root $r \in V$: digraph $U = (V, A)$ s.t.:

$$\forall \{u, v\} \in E \quad (u, v) \in A \text{ XOR } (v, u) \in A$$

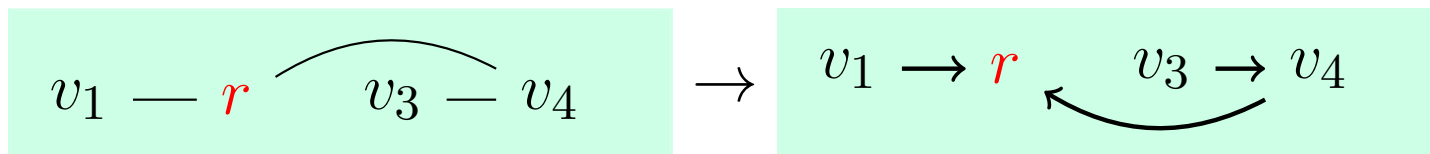
- **Outward orient.:** an orientation s.t.:

$$\forall \ell \in V \quad \text{leaf}(\ell) \rightarrow \exists \text{ path in } U : r \rightarrow \ell$$



- **Inward orient.:** an orientation s.t.:

$$\forall \ell \in V \quad \text{leaf}(\ell) \rightarrow \exists \text{ path in } U : \ell \rightarrow r$$





A tree has $|V| - 1$ edges

Thm.

A tree T on a set V has $|V| - 1$ edges

Proof

Let $m(T)$ be the number of edges in T

Show $m(T) = |V| - 1$ by induction on $|V|$

If $|V| = 2$, a spanning tree has one edge

Induction hypothesis: Suppose $m(T) = |V| - 2$ for all trees T on $|V| - 1$ nodes

Let T be any tree on V

Any tree must have at least one leaf node ℓ (why?)

Because ℓ is a leaf, it is incident to only one edge e

Consider the tree $T' = T \setminus \{e\}$ on $V' = V \setminus \{\ell\}$

Because $|V'| = |V| - 1$, $m(T') = |V| - 2$ by the induction hypothesis

Thus, T has exactly $m(T) = m(T \cup \{e\}) = m(T') + 1 = |V| - 1$ edges



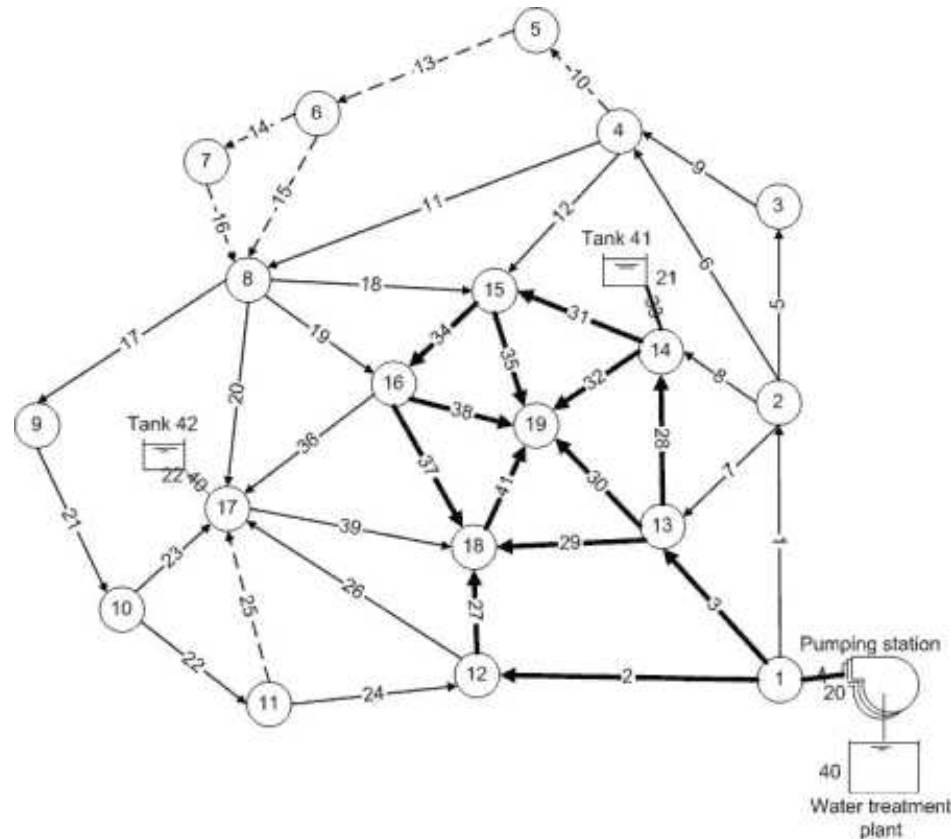
Spanning trees

Distribution networks

- A **network** is another term for a digraph (V, A) , when used to model a distribution process
 - E.g. V : production sites, customer sites
 - Arc between two sites: transfer of material
 - Arc between two production sites: transfer of raw material
 - Arc between production and customer: transfer of finished material
- Main cost of distribution: transportation
- How do you guarantee that each site has access to the material?

Electricity/water distribution

- Raw and finished material is the same
- Blurred distinction between production and customer sites
- Cable/duct reaches customer γ_1 , it is then extended to customer γ_2 (γ_1 is both production and customer)
- The main cost is laying the cables/ducts





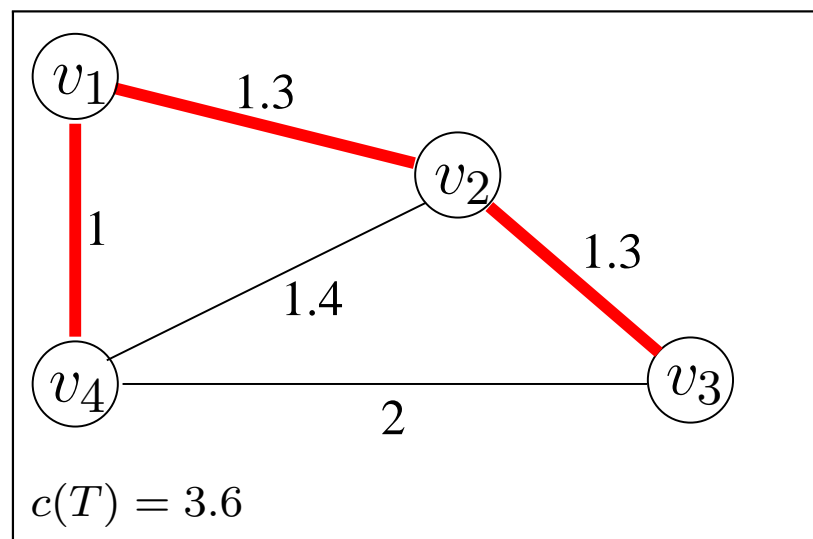
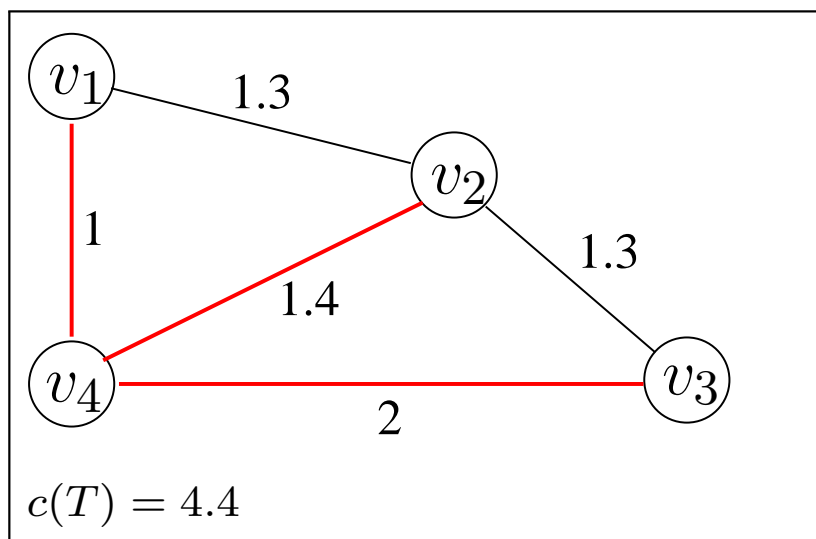
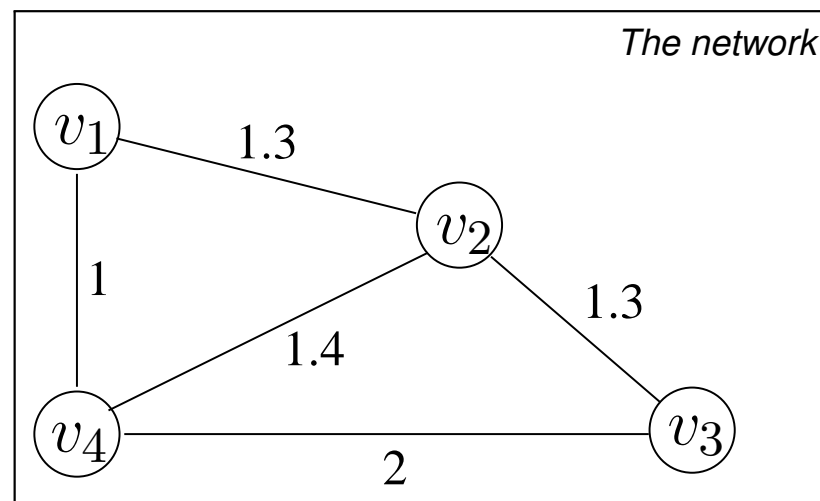
Spanning trees

- Cost is optimized if material can be distributed to all sites using as few cables/duct as possible
- **Recall:** tree on $U \subseteq V$ is **spanning** if $U = V$
- If each edge e has weight/cost c_e , weight/cost of T is

$$c(T) = \sum_{e \in E(T)} c_e$$

MINIMUM SPANNING TREE (MST): Given an undirected weighted graph $G = (V, E)$, find a spanning tree of minimum weight in G

Example





Prim's algorithm

● **Idea:** grow connected subgraph from vertex s , min. cost at each step

● **Data structures:**

- R : set of reached vertices (vertices in the tree)
- F : set of edges in the tree
- u : best next vertex
- $\zeta : V \setminus R \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$: cost of reaching from R a vertex outside R
- $\pi : V \setminus R \rightarrow R$: immediate predecessor in T to a vertex outside R .



Prim's algorithm

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- R : set of reached vertices (vertices in the tree)
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- $\zeta : V \setminus R \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$: cost of reaching from R a vertex outside R
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1: $R = \{s\}$, $F = \emptyset$, $\forall v \in V$ set $\zeta(v) = \infty$, $\pi(v) = s$

2: **for** $w \in N(s)$ **do**

3: $\zeta(w) = c_{sw}$

4: **end for**

5: **while** $R \neq V$ **do**

6: let $u \in V \setminus R$ such that $\zeta(u)$ is minimum

7: mark u as reached by adding it to R

8: add the edge $\{\pi(u), u\}$ to T

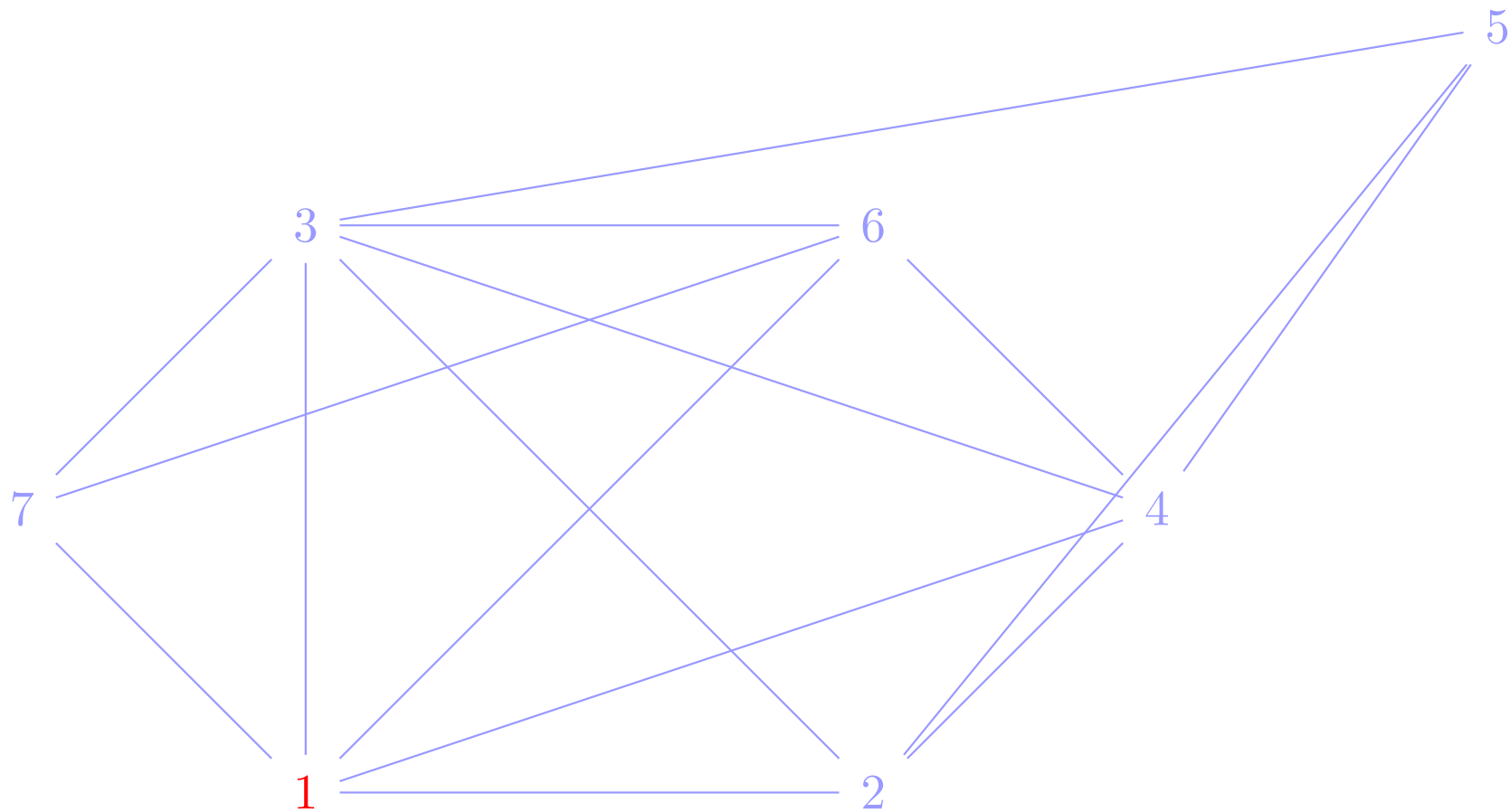
9: update ζ, π : $\forall v \in N(u)$ s.t. $\zeta(v) > c_{uv}$, let $\zeta(v) = c_{uv}$ and $\pi(v) = u$.

10: **end while**



Prim's algorithm

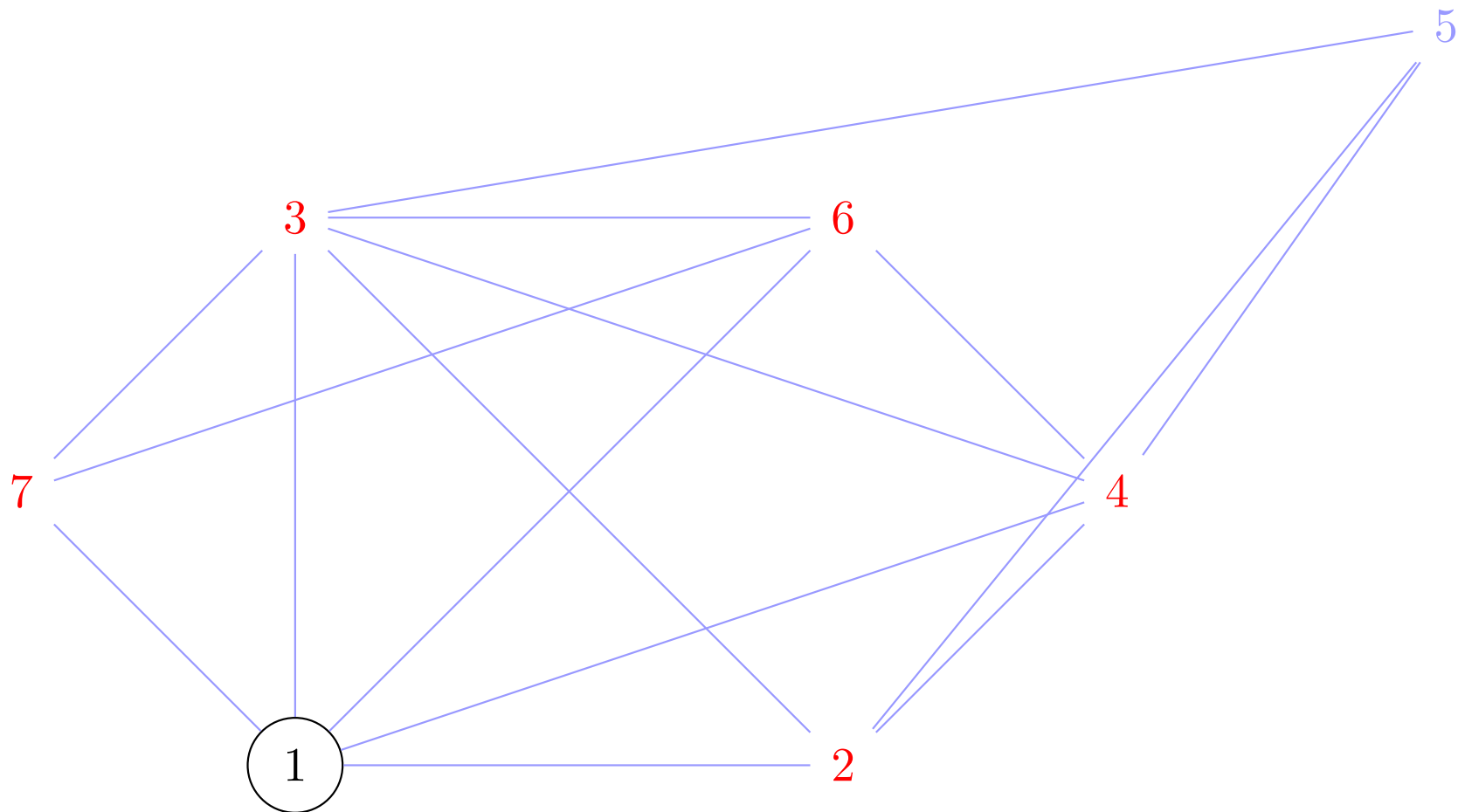
$s = 1$





Prim's algorithm

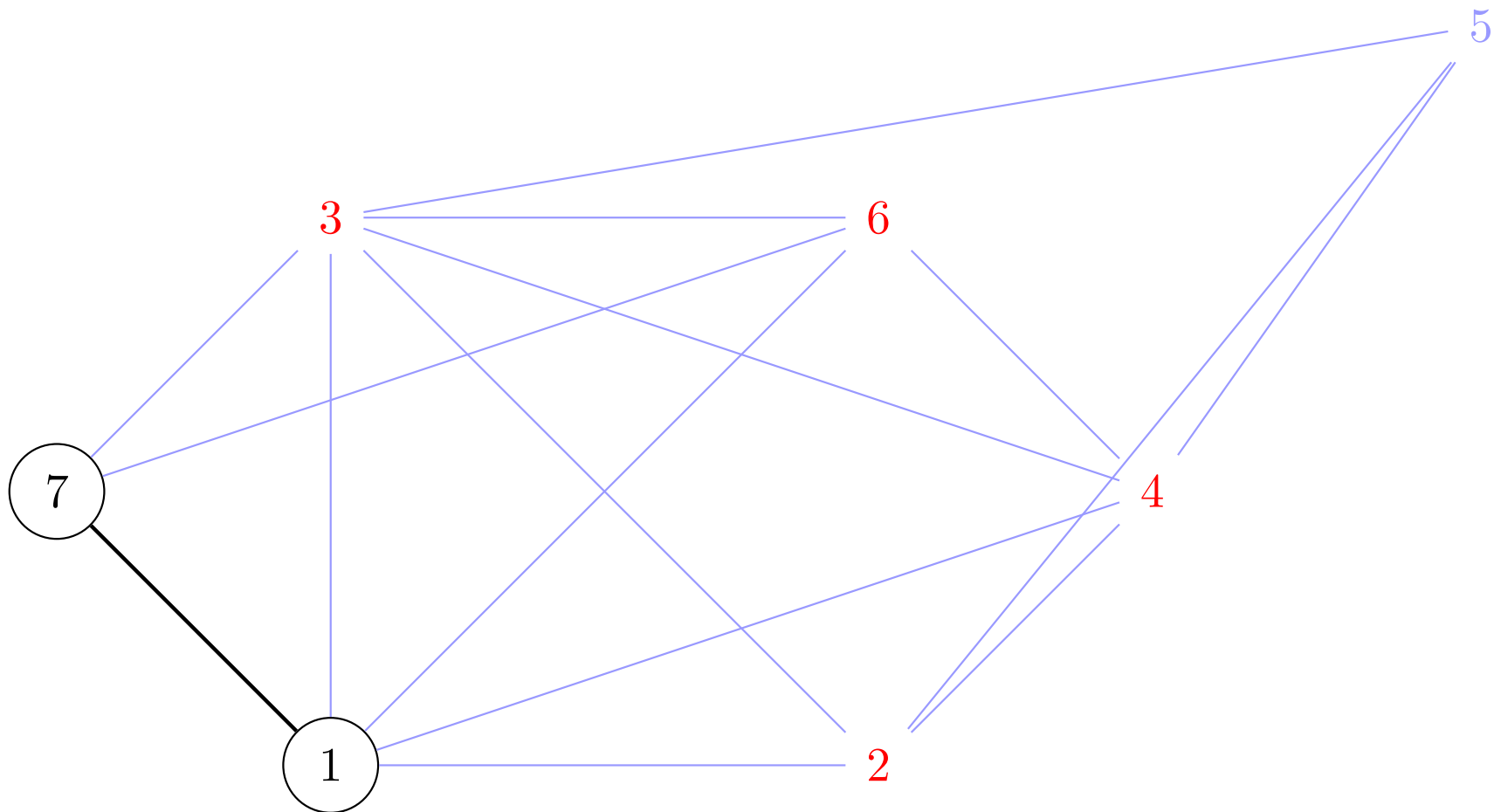
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Prim's algorithm



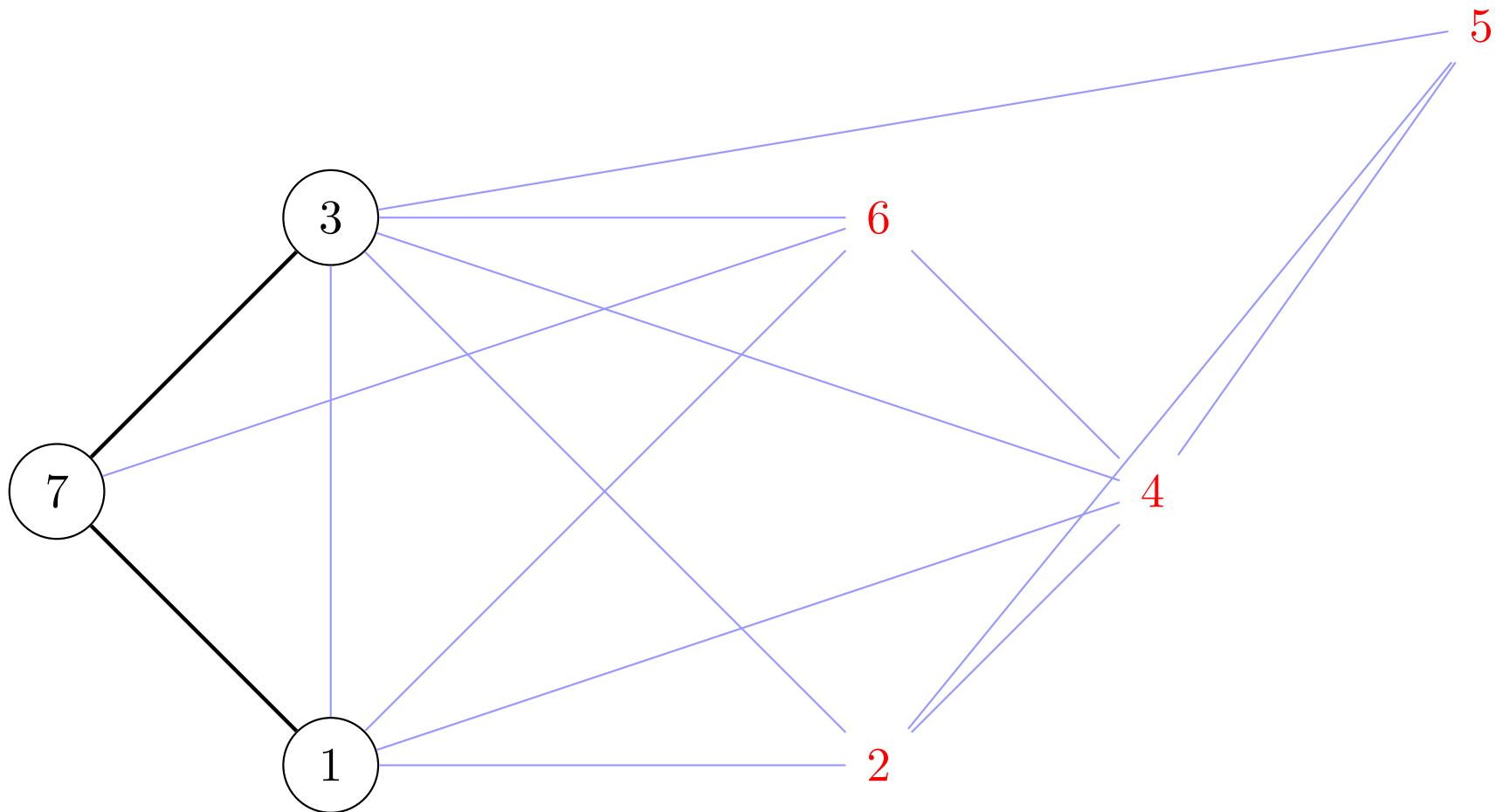
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Prim's algorithm



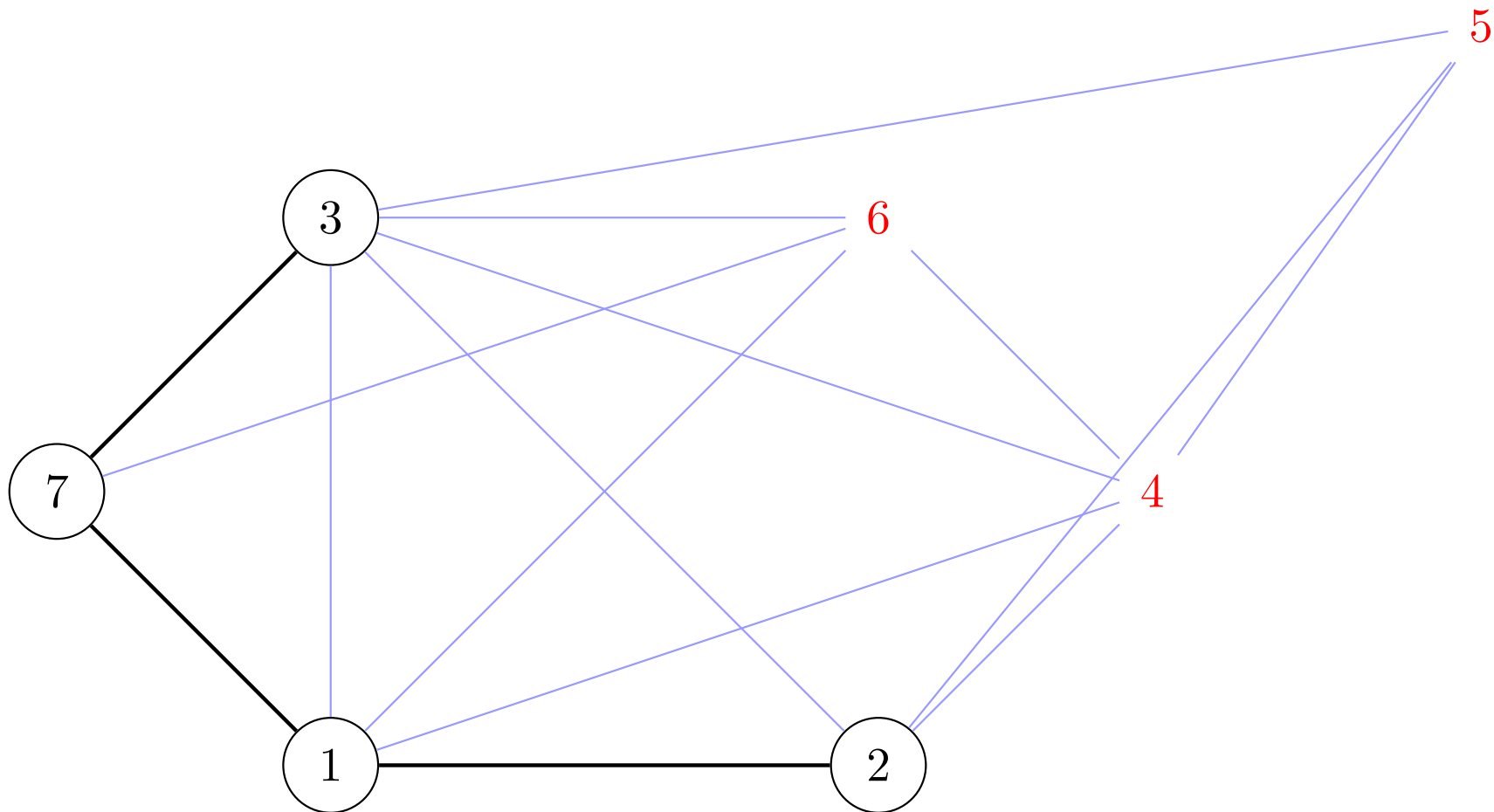
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Prim's algorithm



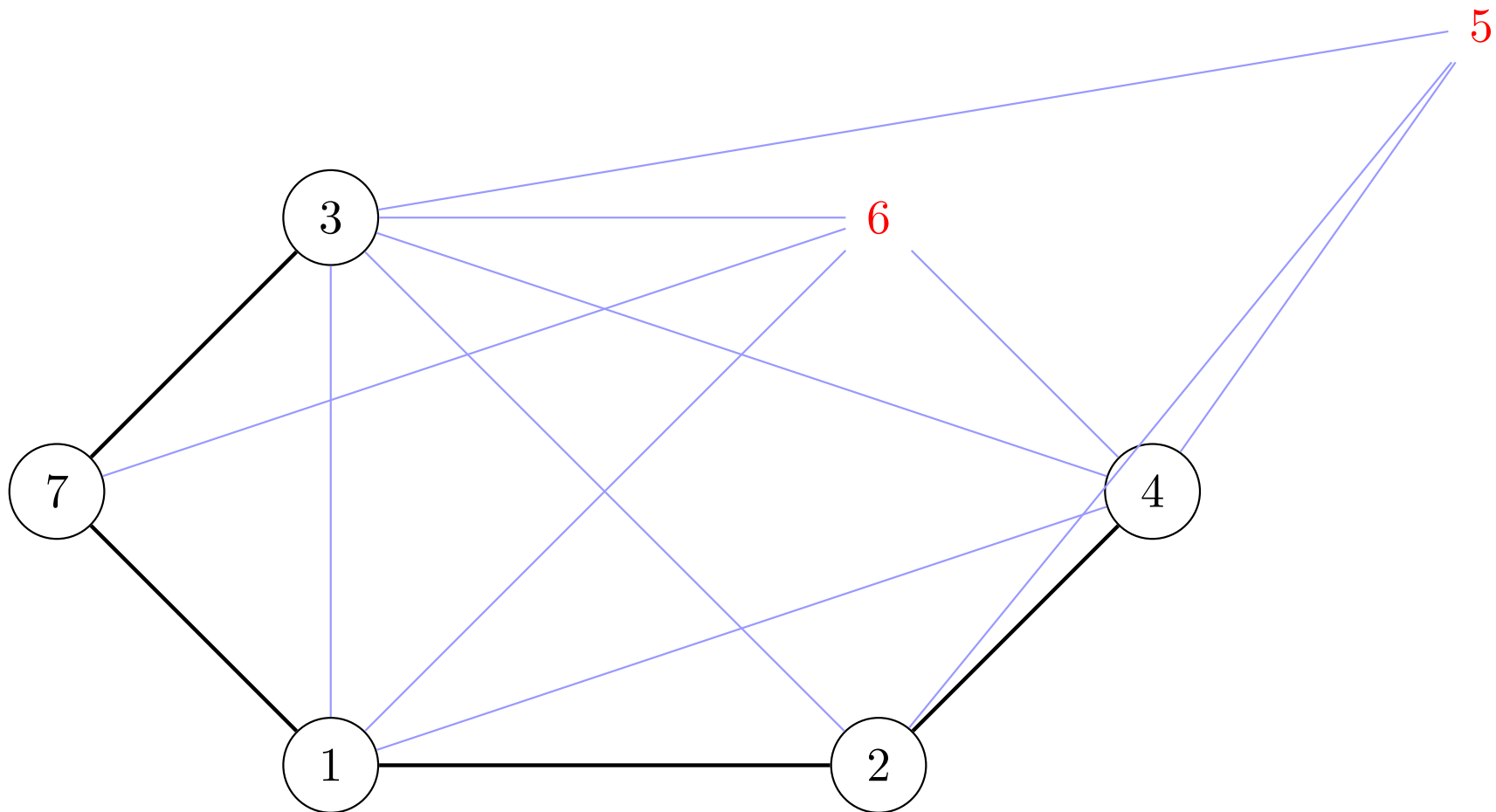
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Prim's algorithm



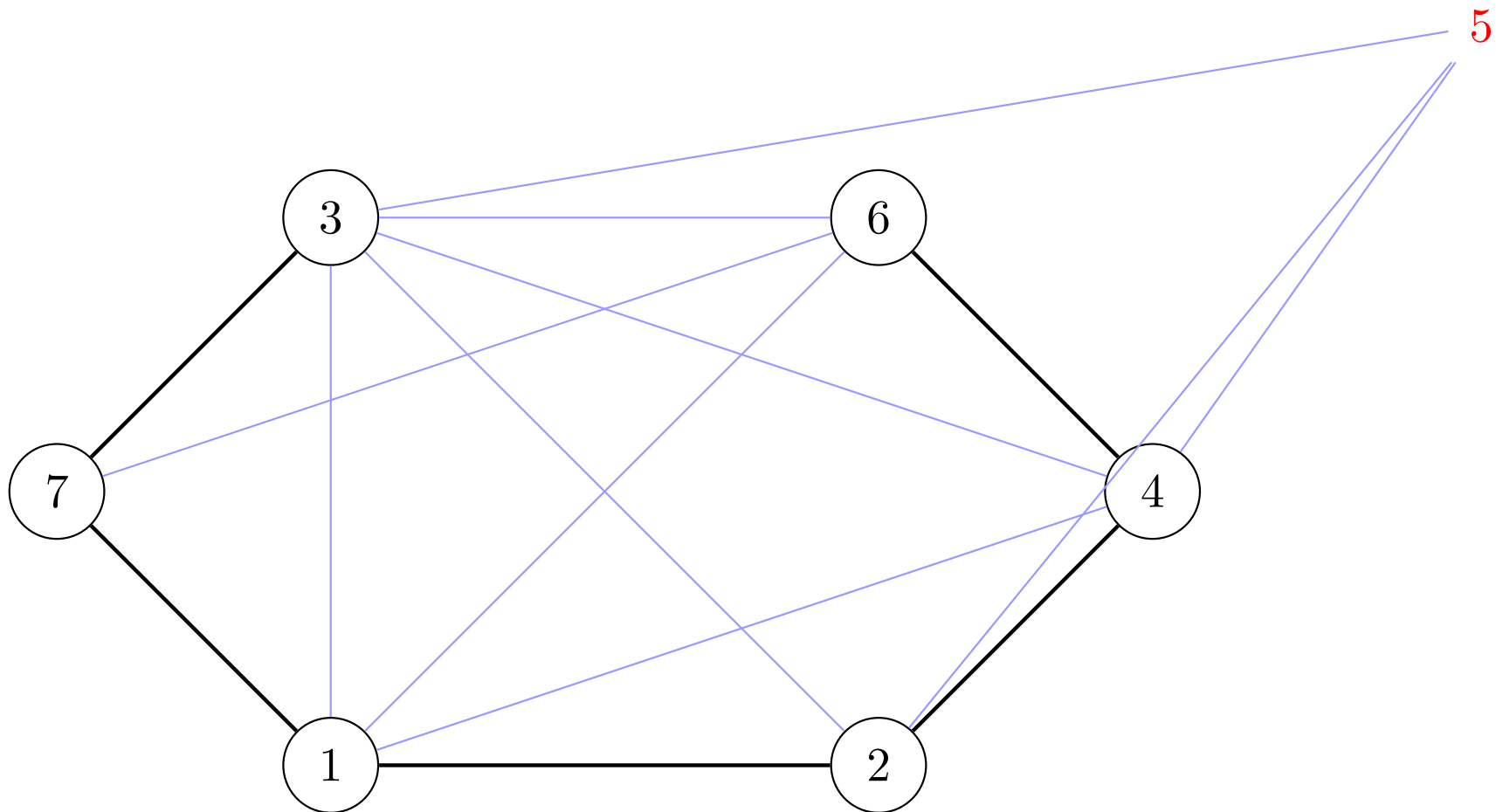
$s = 1$



Prim's algorithm



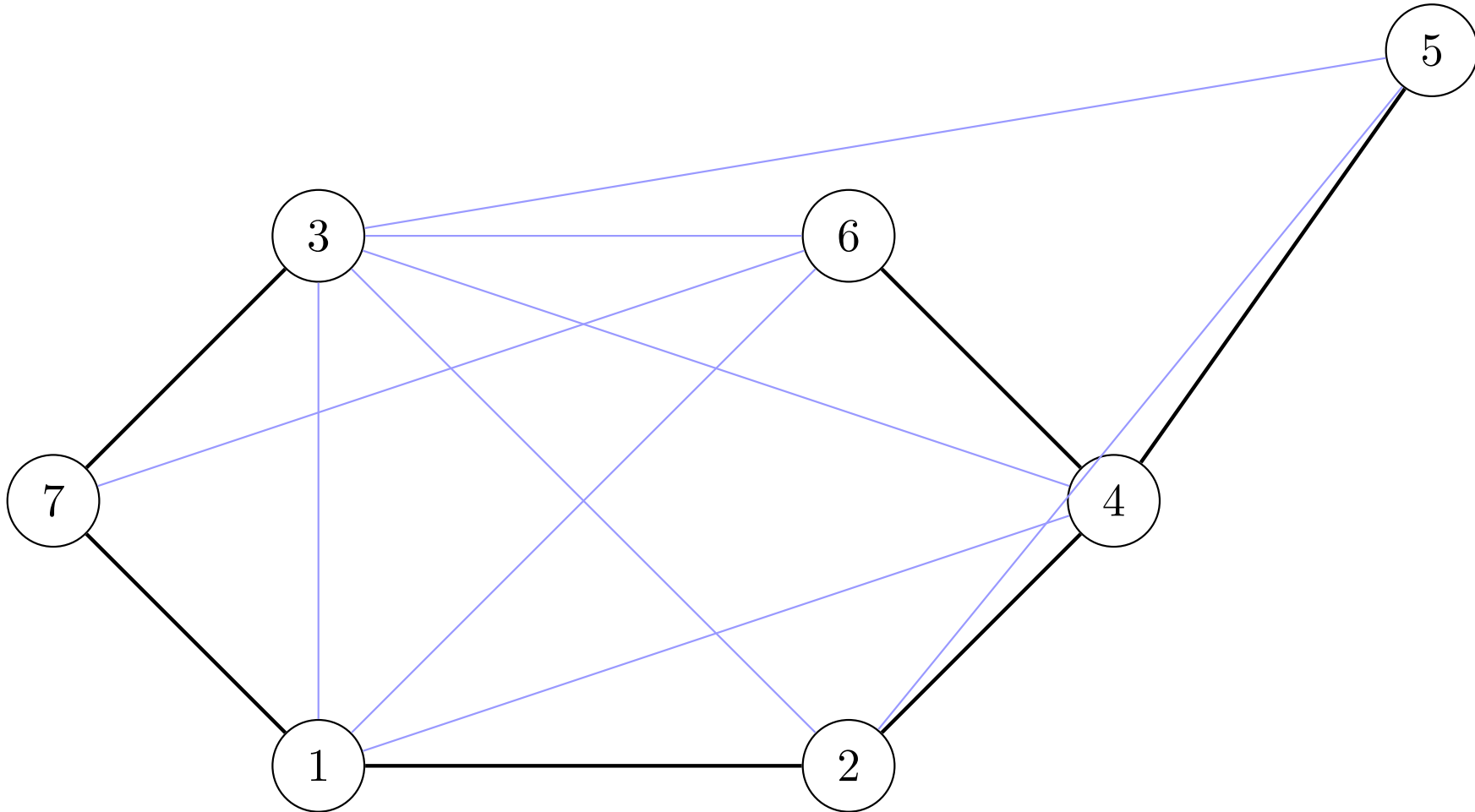
$s = 1$



Prim's algorithm



$s = 1$





A local property with global scope

1. **Local choice** : at each step, choose best edge in cutset
2. **Global optimum** : end up with the globally optimal spanning tree

The reason

Thm.

Let T be a spanning tree of G , and $c : E(G) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_+$

T has minimum cost \Leftrightarrow

$\forall \emptyset \subsetneq U \subsetneq V(G) \exists e \in E(T) (\delta(U) \cap E(T) = \{e\} \wedge c(e) = \min c(\delta(U)))$

Proof

(\Rightarrow) By contradiction, if $\exists U$ with $f \in \delta(U)$ having $c_f < c_e$, then $T' = T \setminus \{e\} \cup \{f\}$ has lower cost than T

(\Leftarrow) Consider T' with $c(T') < c(T)$ and $T \cap T'$ as large as possible, take $f \in T \setminus T'$, removing f from T determines $U \subsetneq V(G)$, consider unique $g \in \delta(U) \cap T'$, if $c(f) = c(g)$ then $T \cap T'$ as large as possible implies $f = g$, but $f \in T \setminus T'$ yields a contradiction; otherwise $c(f) < c(g)$ by hypothesis, then $T'' = T' \setminus \{g\} \cup \{f\}$ has $c(T'') < c(T)$, contradiction, hence $T \setminus T' = \emptyset$, i.e. $T = T'$



Complexity

Worst-case complexity of Prim's algorithm: $O(n^2)$



Kruskal's algorithm: a sketch

- Idea: grow subgraph keeping minimum cost, connect at termination

- Implementation in INF431: requires union-find data structure

1: $T = \emptyset$

2: **while** $|T| < |V| - 1$ **do**

3: let $e = \arg \min\{c_e \mid e \in E\}$

4: **if** $T \cup \{e\}$ has no cycle **then**

5: $T \leftarrow T \cup \{e\};$

6: **end if**

7: $E \leftarrow E \setminus \{e\};$

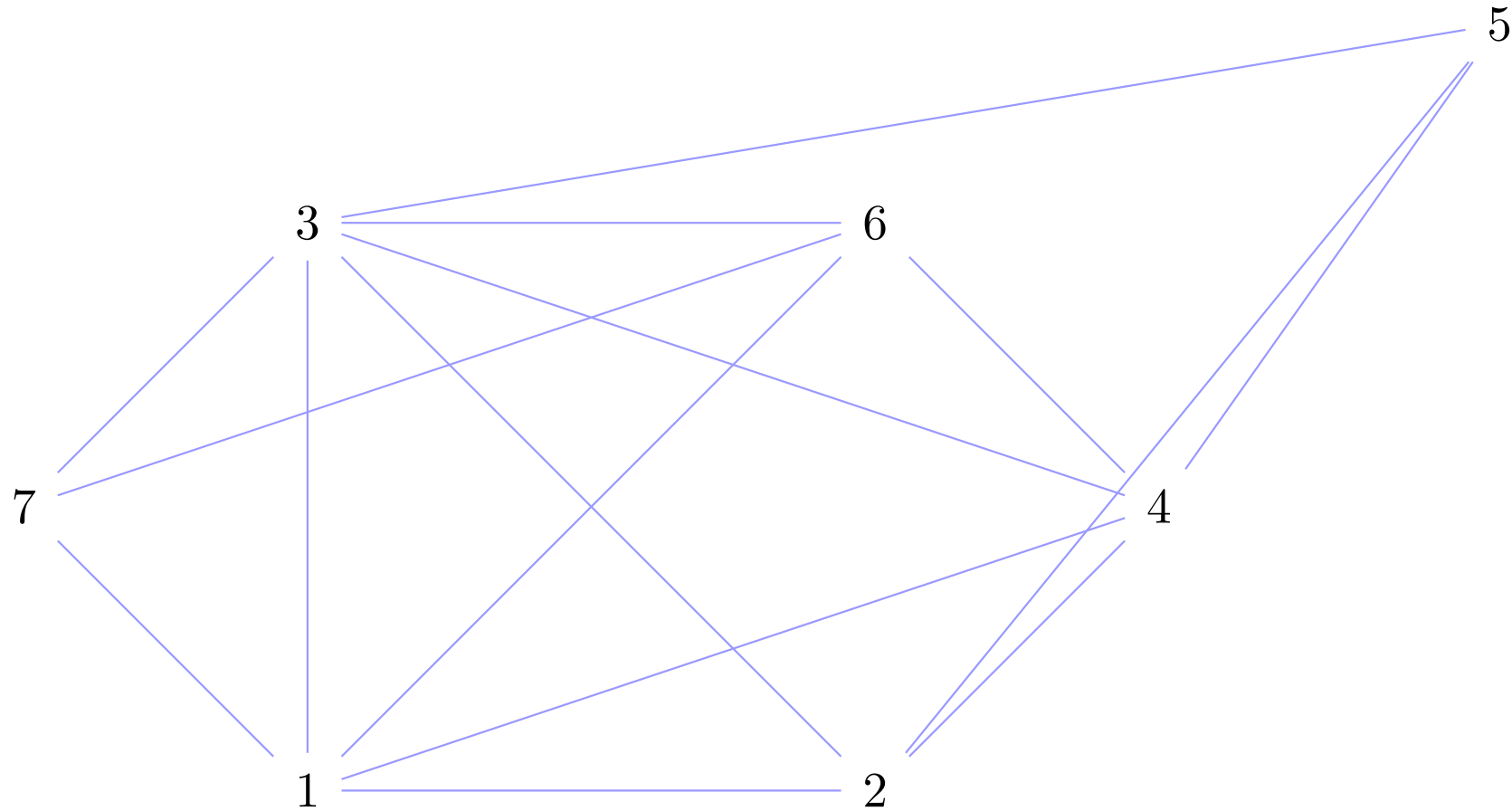
8: **end while**

- At termination, T has $|V| - 1$ edges and no cycle

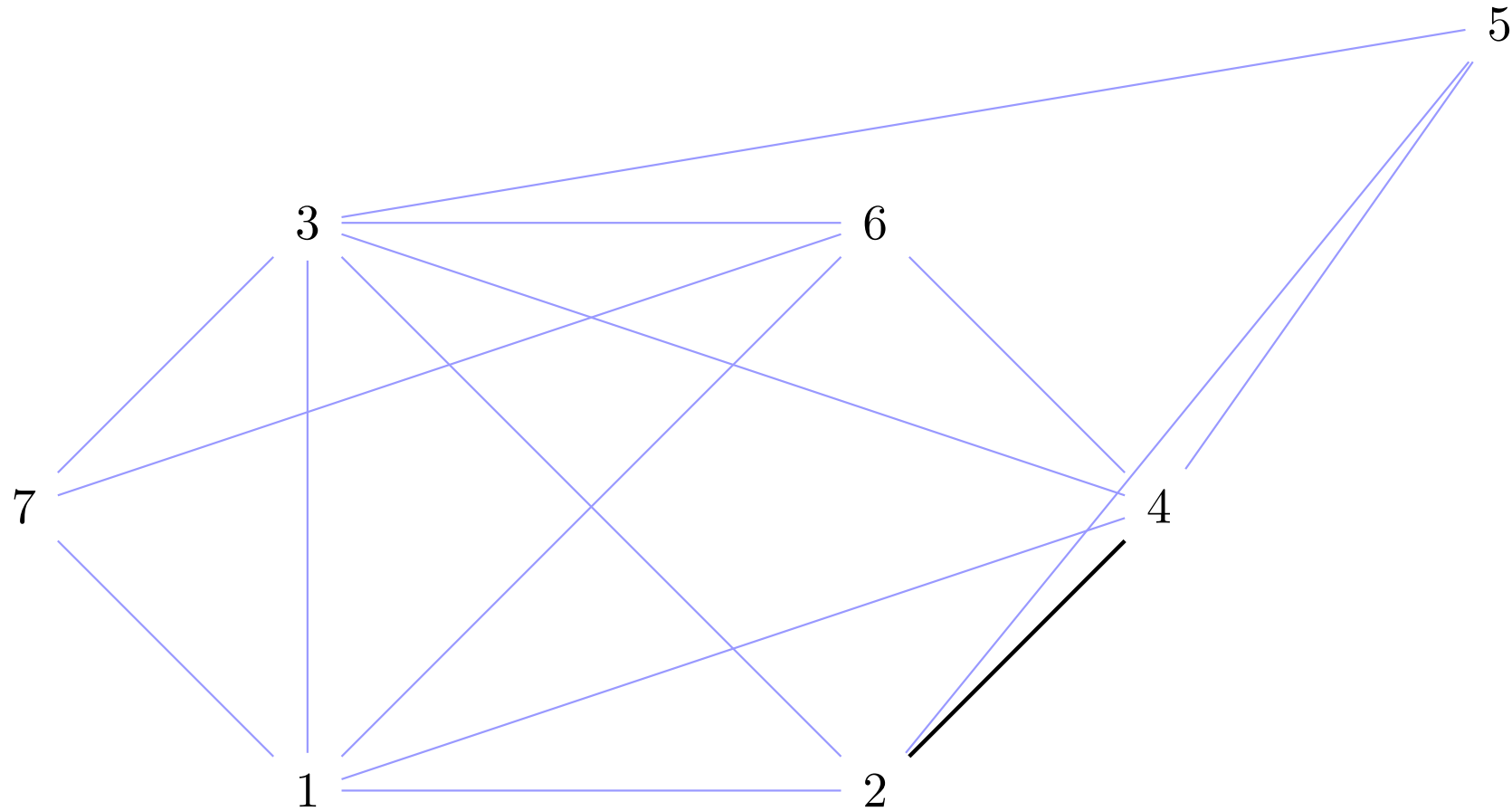
- \Rightarrow A tree by definition

Worst-case complexity of best implementation: $O(m \log n)$

Kruskal's algorithm

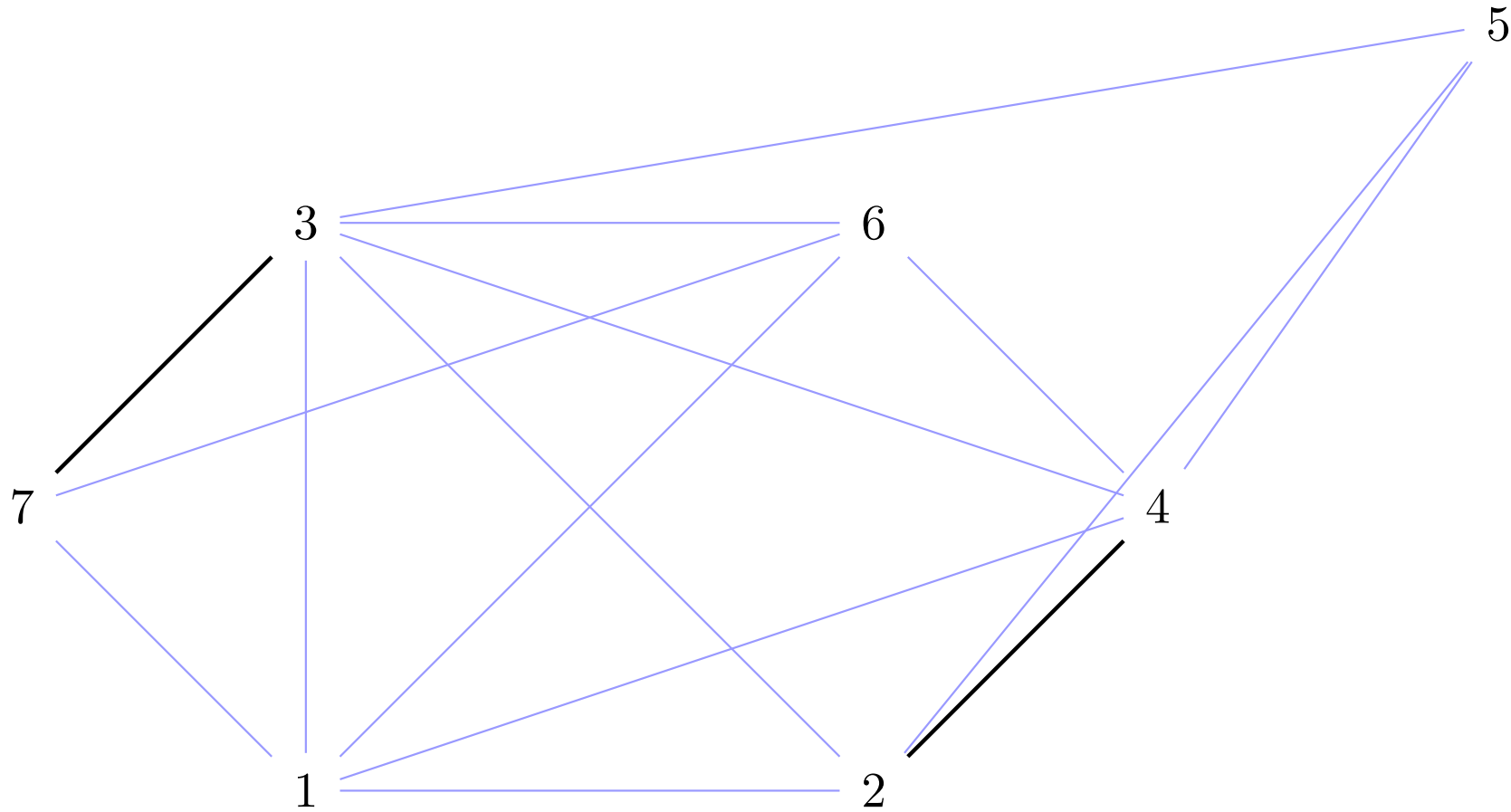


Kruskal's algorithm



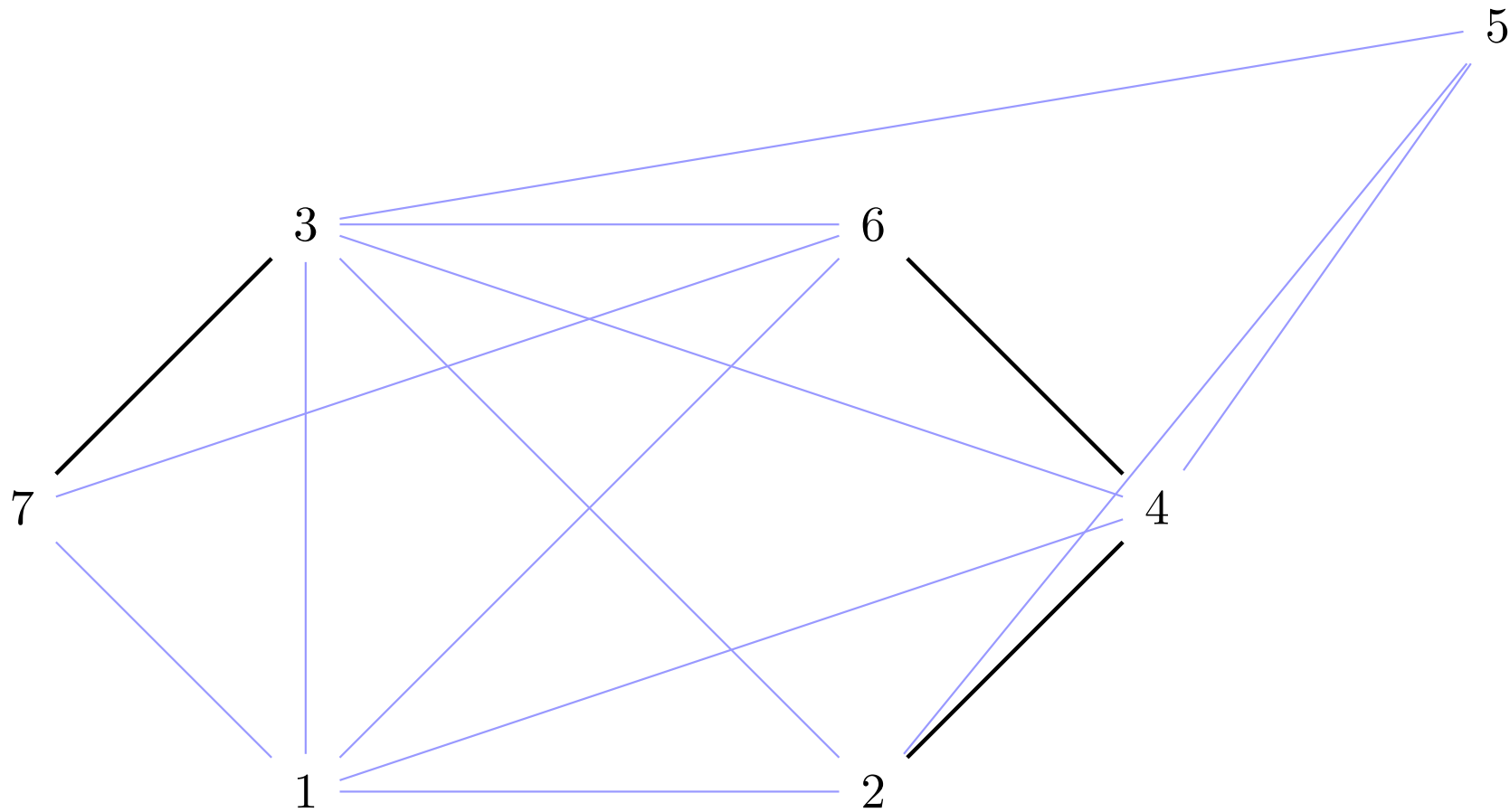


Kruskal's algorithm



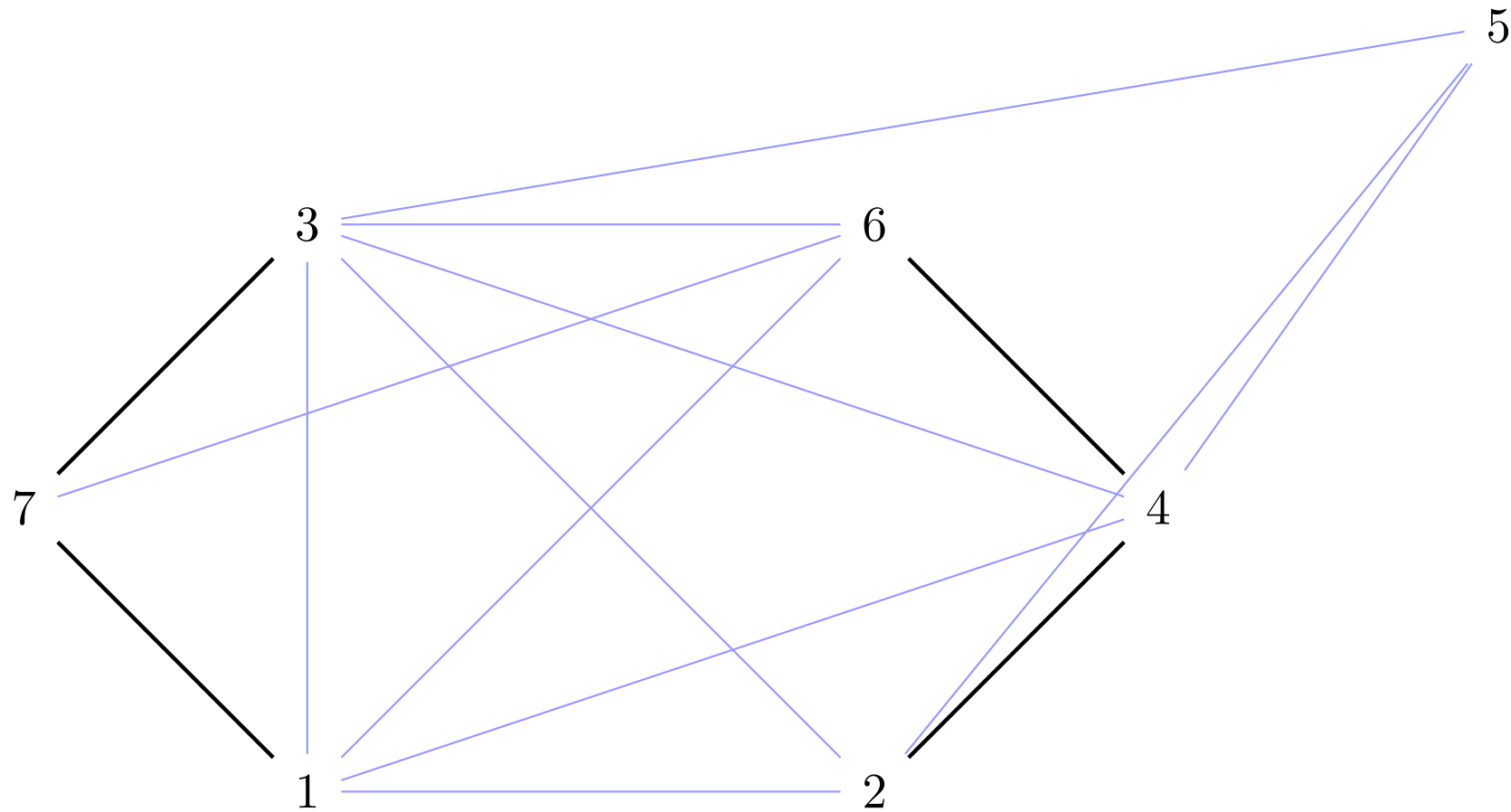


Kruskal's algorithm



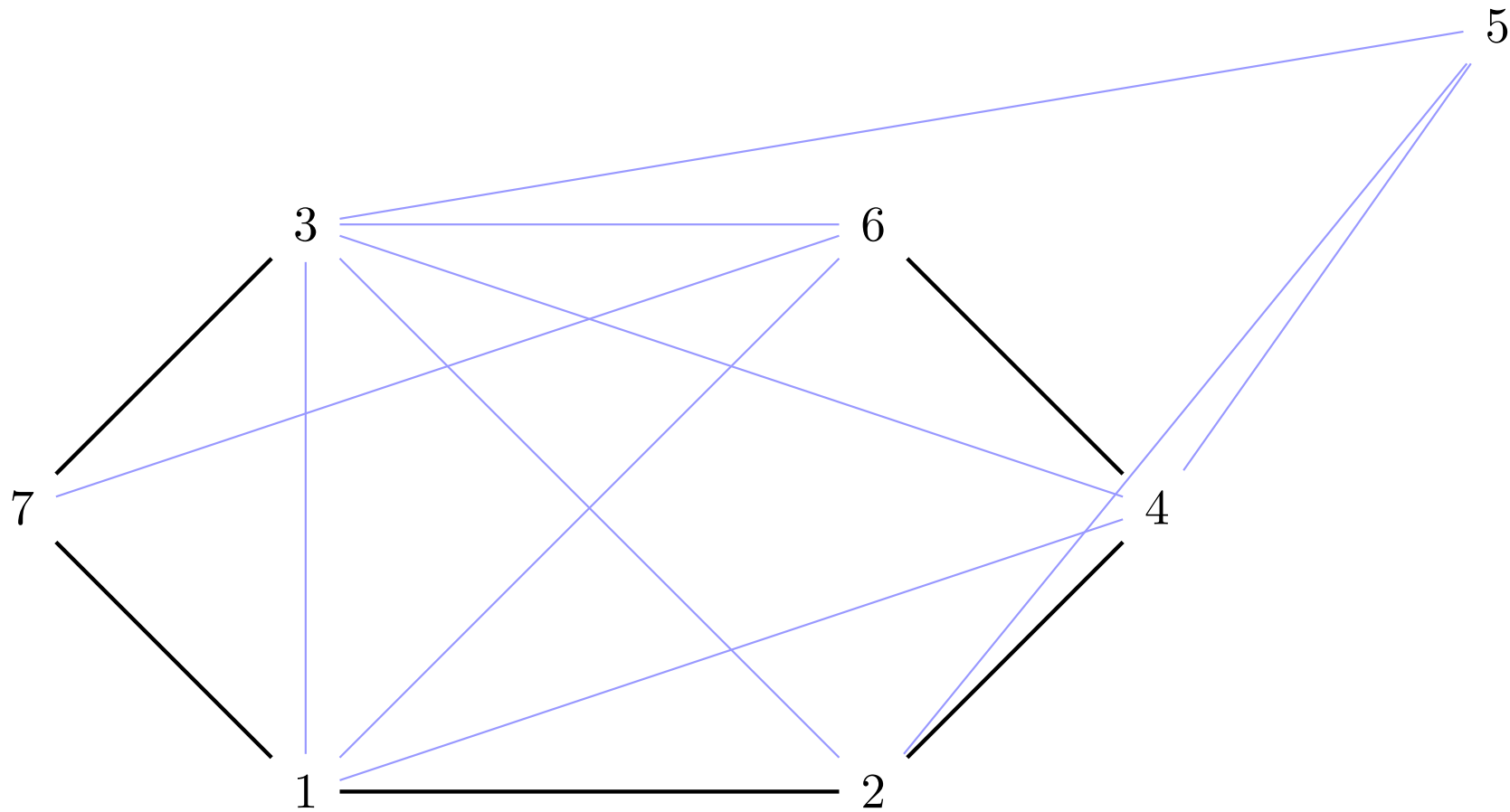


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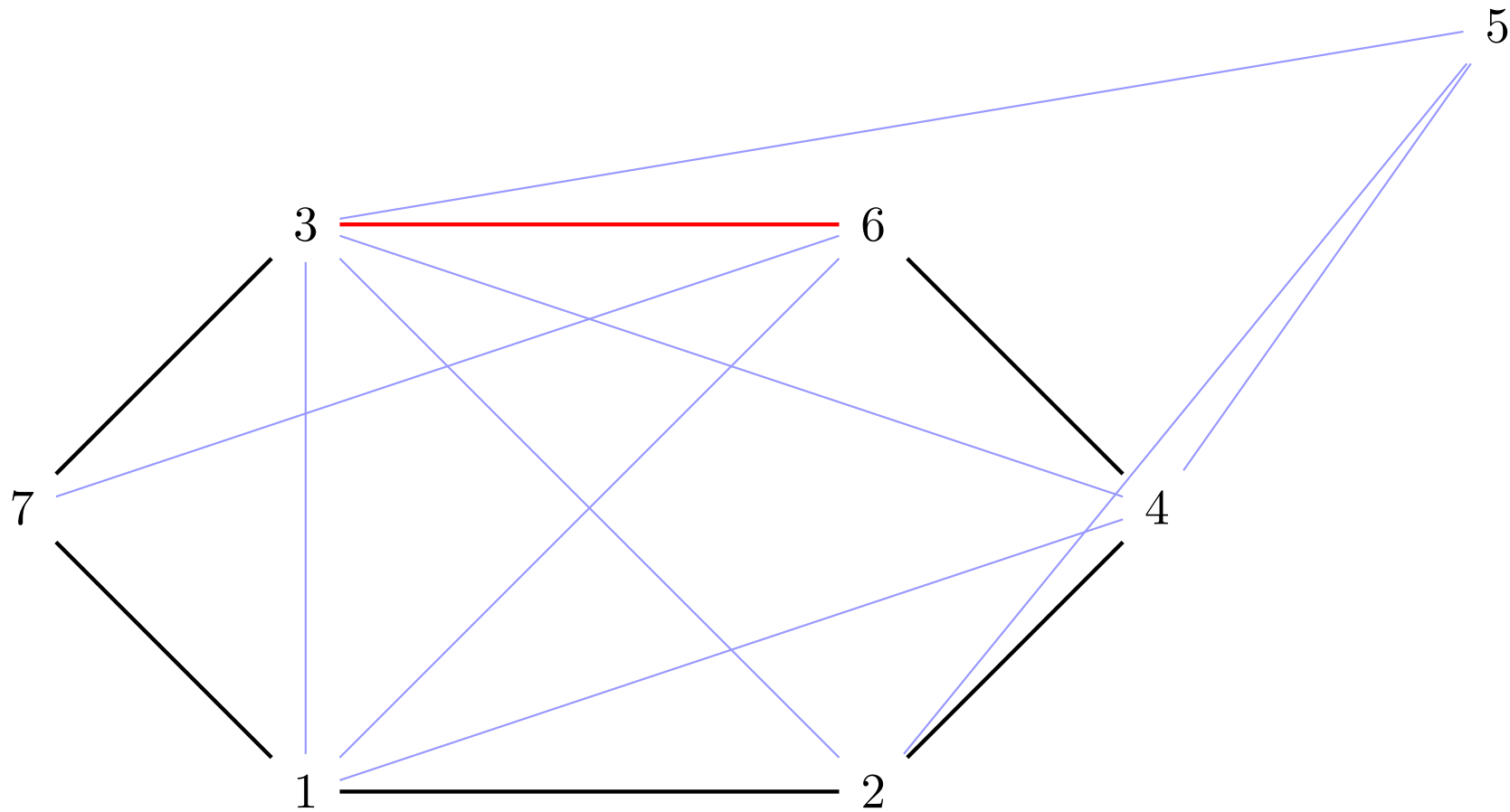


Kruskal's algorithm



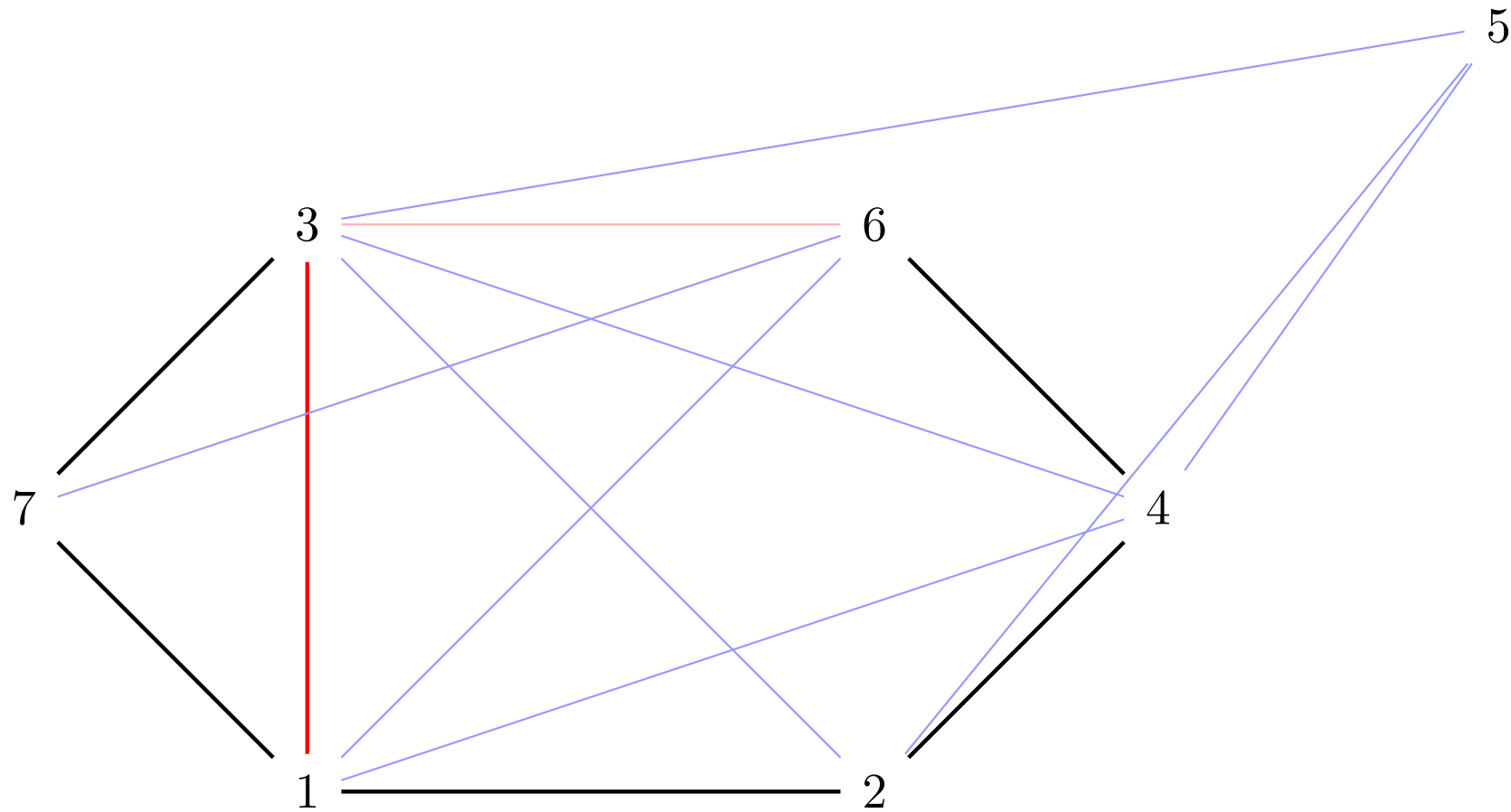


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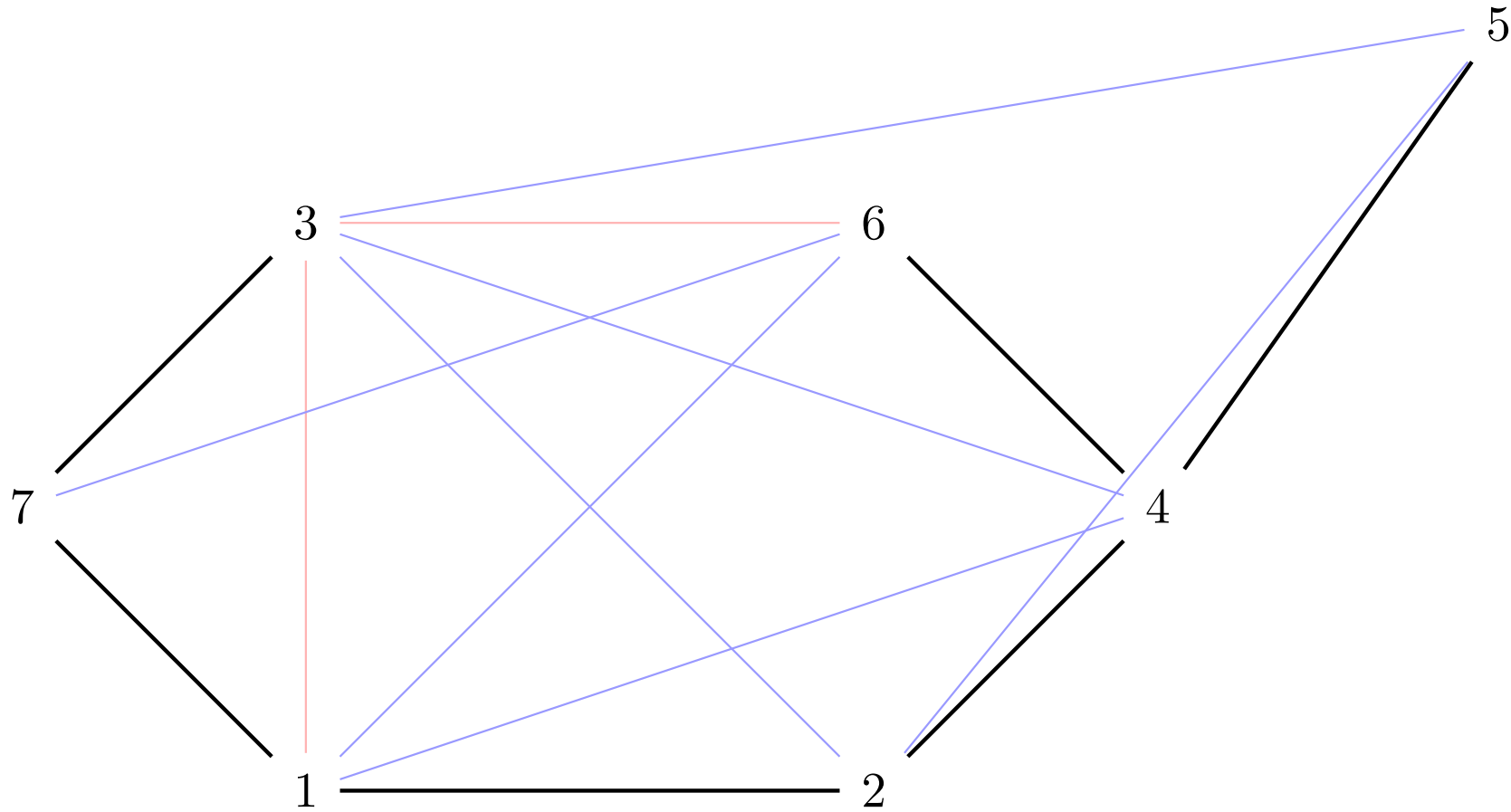


Kruskal's algorithm





Kruskal's algorithm

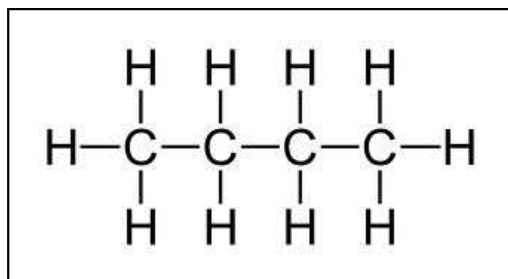




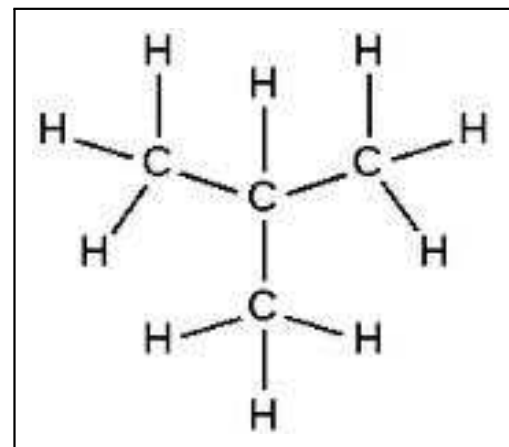
Chemical trees

Molecular descriptions

- Until mid-XIX century: molecules are completely defined by their atomic formula
- E.g. paraffins are C_kH_{2k+2}
- Experiments showed different bond relations give rise to substances with different properties: **isomers**



butane



isobutane



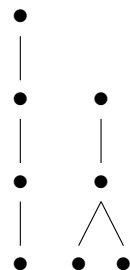
Listing isomers

- Carbons have valence 4
- Hydrogens have valence 1
- Paraffins known to have tree-like bond relations
- Finding paraffin isomers in the mid-XIX century:
 - list all trees on $n = 3k + 2$ nodes
 - remove those whose valences does not match the paraffin chemical formula
- How do we list all trees? How many are there?

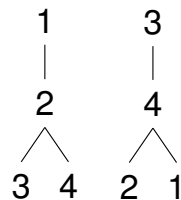


Listing labelled trees

- Two possible interpretations
- These two are different **unlabelled trees**:



- These two are different **labelled trees**:

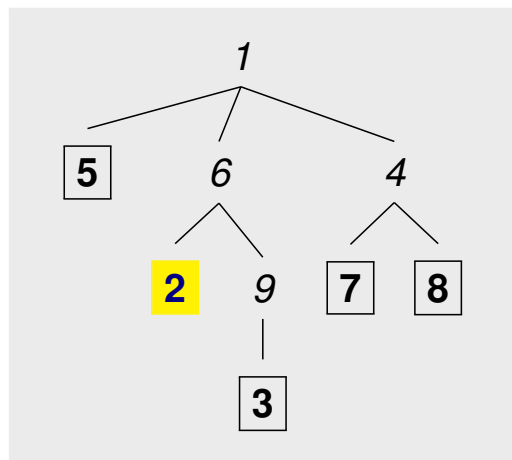


- Listing labelled trees is easier
- \exists more labelled than unlabelled trees

Prüfer sequences

Mapping trees on V to sequences in $V^{|V|-2}$

- For a tree T let $L(T)$ be the set of leaf nodes of T
 - 1: **for** $k \in \{1, \dots, |V| - 2\}$ **do**
 - 2: $v = \min L(T)$;
 - 3: let e be the only edge incident to v ;
 - 4: let $t_k \neq v$ be the other node incident to e ;
 - 5: $T \leftarrow T \setminus \{v\}$;
 - 6: **end for**
 - 7: **return** $t = (t_1, \dots, t_{|V|-2})$

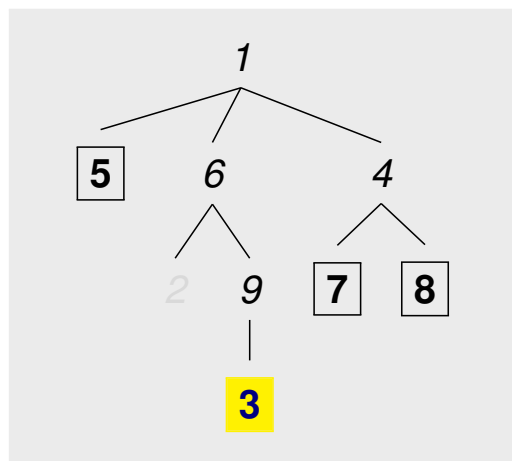


$$L(T) = \{5, 2, 3, 7, 8\}, v = 2, t = (6)$$

Prüfer sequences

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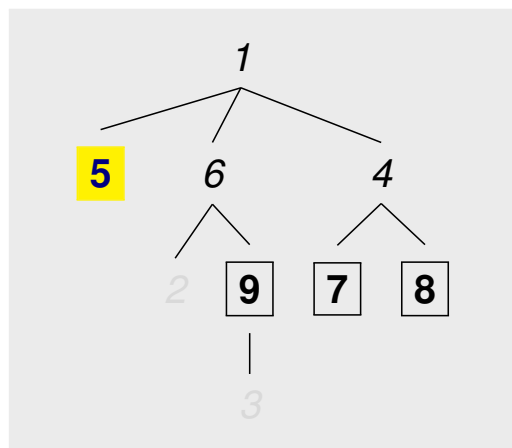


$$L(T) = \{5, 3, 7, 8\}, v = 3, t = (6, 9)$$

Prüfer sequences

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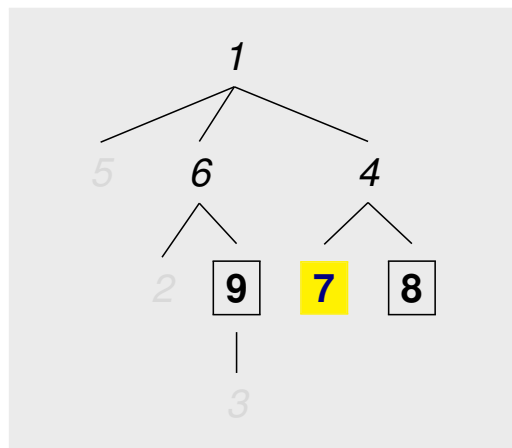


$$L(T) = \{5, 7, 8, 9\}, v = 5, t = (6, 9, 1)$$

Prüfer sequences

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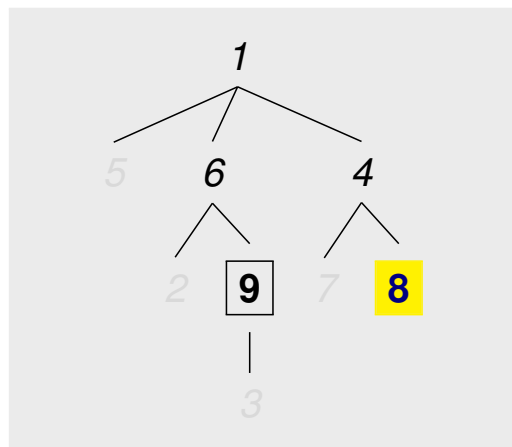


$$L(T) = \{7, 8, 9\}, v = 7, t = (6, 9, 1, 4)$$

Prüfer sequences

Mapping trees on V to sequences in $V^{|V|-2}$

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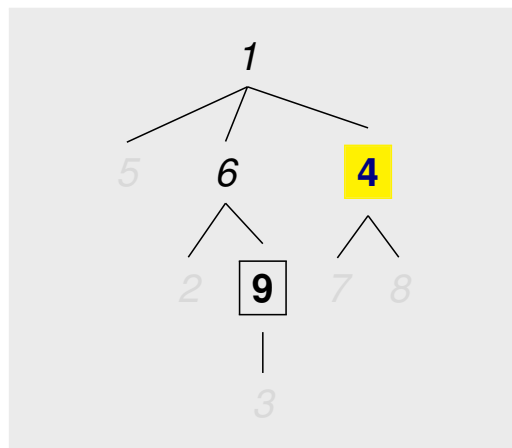


$$L(T) = \{8, 9\}, v = 8, t = (6, 9, 1, 4, 4)$$

Prüfer sequences

Mapping trees on V to sequences in $V^{|V|-2}$

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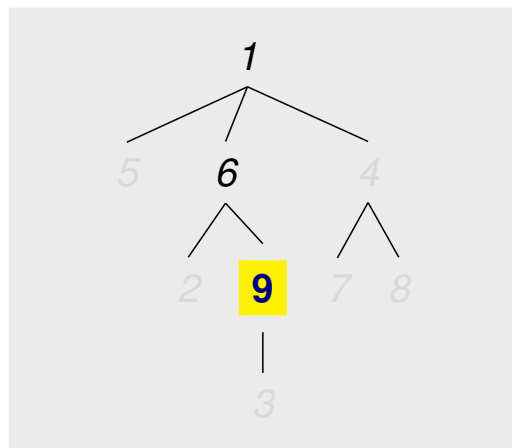


$$L(T) = \{9, 4\}, v = 4, t = (6, 9, 1, 4, 4, 1)$$

Prüfer sequences

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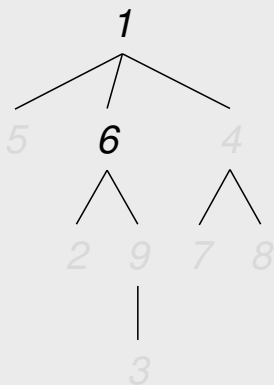


$$L(T) = \{9\}, v = 9, t = (6, 9, 1, 4, 4, 1, 6)$$

Prüfer sequences

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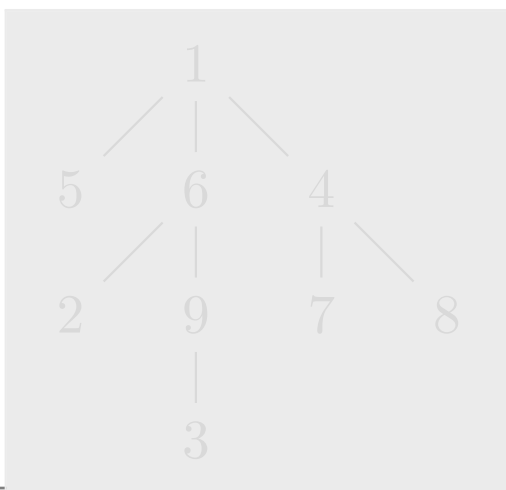


$L(T) = \{6\}$, $t = (6, 9, 1, 4, 4, 1, 6)$, **stop**

Back to the trees

Mapping $V^{|V|-2}$ to trees

1. Given a Prüfer sequence t on V , e.g. $(6, 9, 1, 4, 4, 1, 6)$
2. Find smallest index ℓ in $V \setminus t = \{2, 3, 5, 7, 8\}$, e.g. 2
3. Add $\{\ell, t_1\}$ to T , e.g. $\{2, 6\} \in E(T)$
4. Remove t_1 from t , e.g. $t = (9, 1, 4, 4, 1, 6)$
5. Remove ℓ from V , e.g. $V \setminus t = \{3, 5, 7, 8\}$
6. Repeat from Step 2 until $t = \emptyset$
7. At this point $|V \setminus t| = 2$ (it is an edge): add it



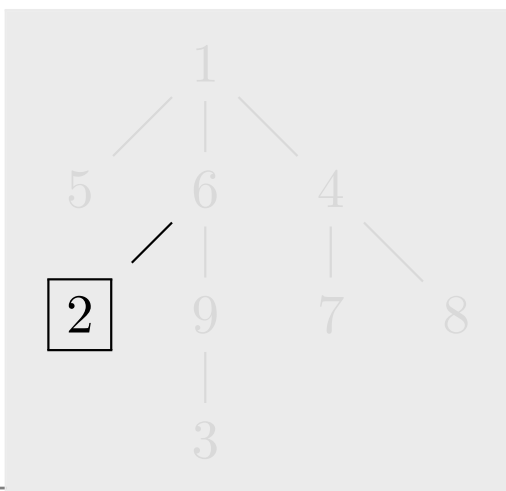
$$V \setminus t = \{2, 3, 5, 7, 8\},$$

$$t = (6, 9, 1, 4, 4, 1, 6)$$

Back to the trees

Mapping $V^{|V|-2}$ to trees

1. Given a Prüfer sequence t on V , e.g. $(6, 9, 1, 4, 4, 1, 6)$
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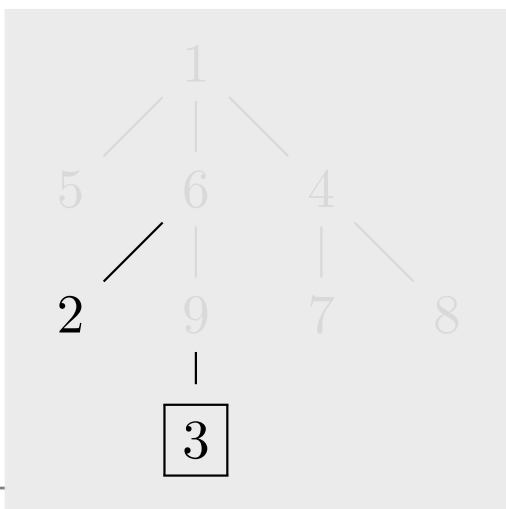


$V \setminus t = \{2, 3, 5, 7, 8\}$, $\ell = 2$,
 $t = (6, 9, 1, 4, 4, 1, 6)$, edge $\{2, 6\}$

Back to the trees

Mapping $V^{|V|-2}$ to trees

1. Given a Prüfer sequence t on V , e.g. $(6, 9, 1, 4, 4, 1, 6)$
2. Find smallest index ℓ in $V \setminus t = \{2, 3, 5, 7, 8\}$, e.g. 2
3. Add $\{\ell, t_1\}$ to T , e.g. $\{2, 6\} \in E(T)$
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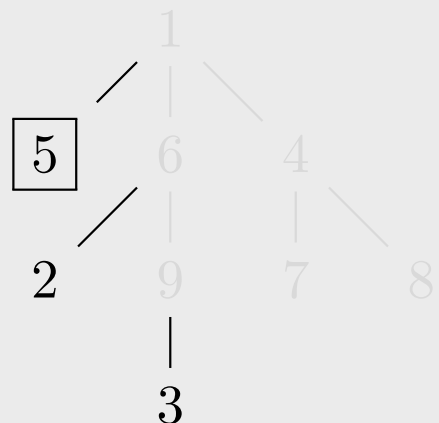


$V \setminus t = \{\boxed{3}, 5, 7, 8\}$, $\ell = 3$,
 $t = (9, 1, 4, 4, 1, 6)$, **edge** $\{3, 9\}$

Back to the trees

Mapping $V^{|V|-2}$ to trees

1. Given a Prüfer sequence t on V , e.g. $(6, 9, 1, 4, 4, 1, 6)$
2. Find smallest index ℓ in $V \setminus t = \{2, 3, 5, 7, 8\}$, e.g. 2
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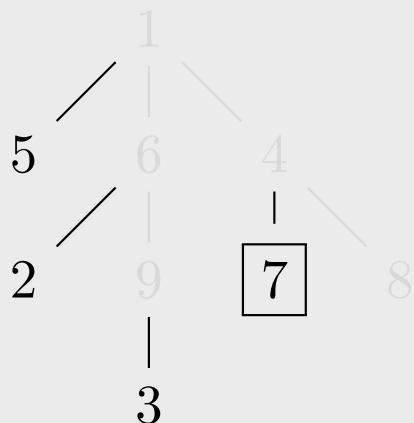


$V \setminus t = \{5, 7, 8, 9\}$, $\ell = 5$, $t = (1, 4, 4, 1, 6)$,
edge $\{5, 1\}$

Back to the trees

Mapping $V^{|V|-2}$ to trees

1. Given a Prüfer sequence t on V , e.g. $(6, 9, 1, 4, 4, 1, 6)$
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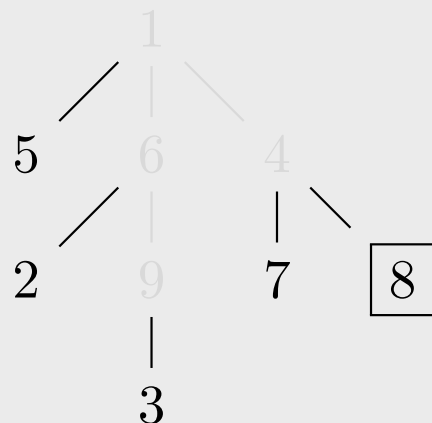


$V \setminus t = \{\boxed{7}, 8, 9\}$, $\ell = 7$, $t = (4, 4, 1, 6)$,
edge $\{7, 4\}$

Back to the trees

Mapping $V^{|V|-2}$ to trees

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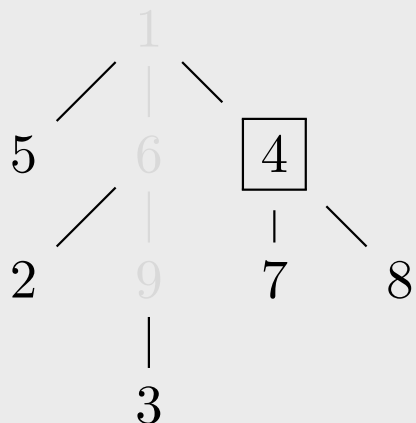


$V \setminus t = \{8, 9\}$, $\ell = 8$, $t = (4, 1, 6)$,
edge $\{8, 4\}$

Back to the trees

Mapping $V^{|V|-2}$ to trees

1. Given a Prüfer sequence t on V , e.g. $(6, 9, 1, 4, 4, 1, 6)$
2. Find smallest index ℓ in $V \setminus t = \{2, 3, 5, 7, 8\}$, e.g. 2
3. Add $\{\ell, t_1\}$ to T , e.g. $\{2, 6\} \in E(T)$
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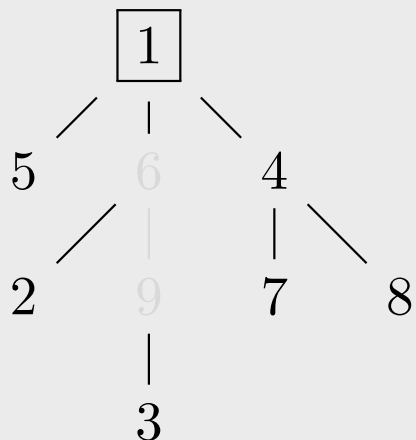


$V \setminus t = \{9, \boxed{4}\}$, $\ell = 4$, $t = (1, 6)$,
edge $\{4, 1\}$

Back to the trees

Mapping $V^{|V|-2}$ to trees

1. Given a Prüfer sequence t on V , e.g. $(6, 9, 1, 4, 4, 1, 6)$
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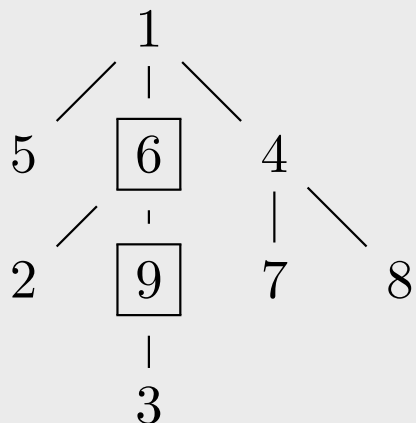


$V \setminus t = \{1, 9\}$, $\ell = 1$, $t = (6)$,
edge $\{1, 6\}$

Back to the trees

Mapping $V^{|V|-2}$ to trees

1. Given a Prüfer sequence t on V , e.g. $(6, 9, 1, 4, 4, 1, 6)$
2. Find smallest index ℓ in $V \setminus t = \{2, 3, 5, 7, 8\}$, e.g. 2
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$V \setminus t = \{6, 9\}$,
edge $\{6, 9\}$



Bijection

Thm.

There is a bijection between trees on V and sequences in $V^{|V|-2}$

Proof

Essentially follows by two algorithms above

Left to prove: no cycles occur when constructing the tree from the sequence

Claim: no cycles, proceed by contradiction

Notice the mapping trees \rightarrow sequences always deletes leaf nodes

By definition, a cycle must have ≥ 3 nodes, and none of these can be a leaf

So the resulting sequence has at most $|V| - 3$ nodes, contradiction (why?)

Thm.

[Cayley 1889] Let $|V| = n$. There are n^{n-2} labelled trees on V

Proof

By previous theorem, the number of labelled trees is the same as the number of sequences in $V^{|V|-2}$ (this proof is by Prüfer, 1918)



Grammars and languages



A remark

- Most students *(and not just students!)* find arrays, lists, maps, queues and stacks “easier” than trees



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People are used to read sequence-like rather than tree-like text



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- **Thesis 1:** **the graphical representation**
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- **Thesis 2:** **iterative vs. recursive**
 - *Sequences are models of **iteration** and trees models of **recursion***
 - *Most people think iteratively rather than recursively (?)*

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- **Thesis 1:** **the graphical representation**
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- **Thesis 2:** **iterative vs. recursive**
 - *Sequences are models of **iteration** and trees models of **recursion***
 - *Most people think iteratively rather than recursively (?)*
- **Thesis 3:** **trees require decisions**
 - *Every node has ≤ 1 next node in a sequence
tree nodes might have more than one subnodes*
 - \Rightarrow *Scanning a sequence: no decisions to take*
 - \Rightarrow *Exploring a tree: which subnode to process next?*



Languages and grammars

- Remember *nouns, adjectives, transitive verbs* from school?
- Sentence analysis: identify and name grammatical components
- Analyze components recursively:

sentence \longrightarrow *names verb*

names \longrightarrow *name names*

name \longrightarrow *noun*

\parallel *article noun*

\parallel *adjectives noun*

\parallel *article adjectives noun*

adjectives \longrightarrow *adjective adjectives*

verb \longrightarrow *...*



Parse trees

The soft, furry cat purrs

<u>sentence</u>	→	names verb
names	→	name names
name	→	noun
		article noun
		adjectives noun
		article adjectives noun
adjectives	→	adjective adjectives
verb	→	...



Parse trees

The soft, furry cat purrs

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names	→	name names
name	→	noun
		article noun
		adjectives noun
		article adjectives noun
adjectives	→	adjective adjectives
verb	→	...

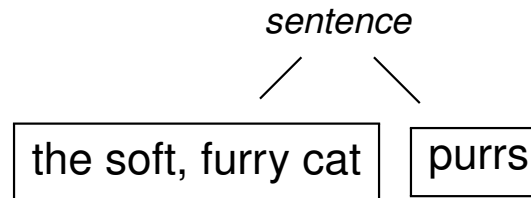
the soft, furry cat purrs



Parse trees

The soft, furry cat purrs

<u>sentence</u>	→	names verb
names	→	name names
name	→	noun
		article noun
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adjectives	→	adjective adjectives
verb	→	...

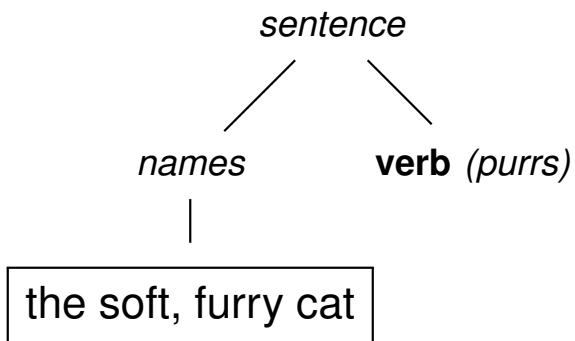




Parse trees

The soft, furry cat purrs

<u>sentence</u>	→	names verb
names	→	name names
name	→	noun
		article noun
		adjectives noun
		article adjectives noun
adjectives	→	adjective adjectives
verb	→	...

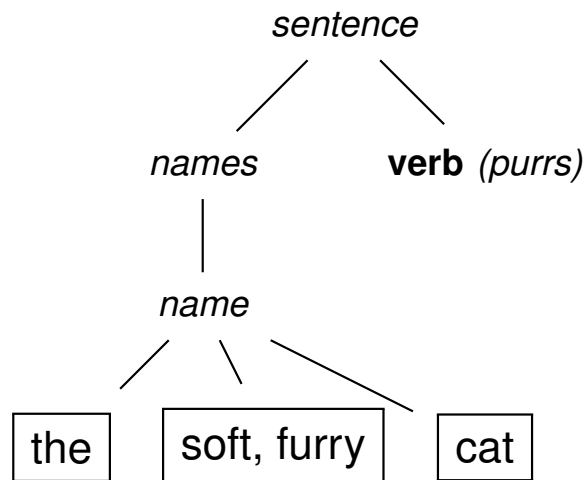




Parse trees

The soft, furry cat purrs

<u>sentence</u>	→	names verb
names	→	name names
name	→	noun
		article noun
		adjectives noun
		article adjectives noun
adjectives	→	adjective adjectives
verb	→	...

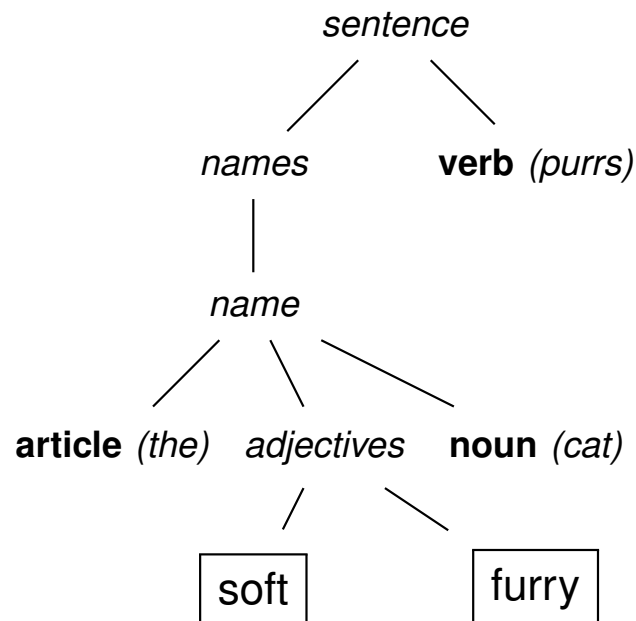




Parse trees

The soft, furry cat purrs

<u>sentence</u>	→	names verb
names	→	name names
name	→	noun
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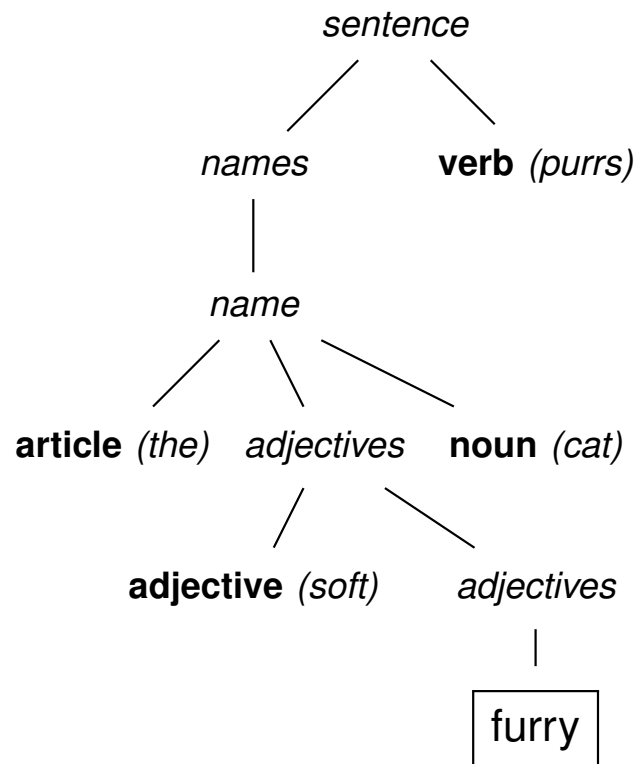




Parse trees

The soft, furry cat purrs

<u>sentence</u>	→	names verb
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name	→	noun
		article noun
		adjectives noun
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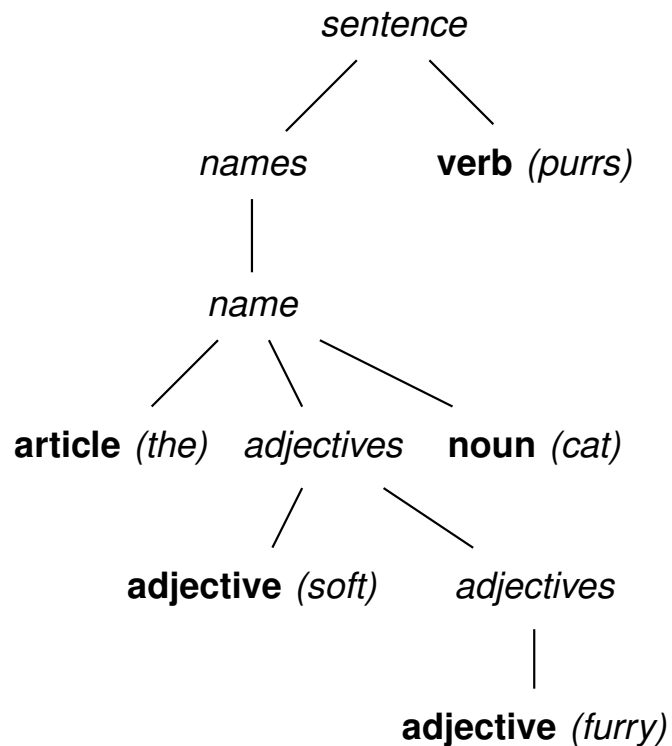




Parse trees

The soft, furry cat purrs

<u>sentence</u>	→	names verb
names	→	name names
name	→	noun
		article noun
		adjectives noun
		article adjectives noun
adjectives	→	adjective adjectives
verb	→	...





Formal and natural languages

- More than one parse tree to a given sentence \Rightarrow **ambiguous grammar**
- Different parse trees lead to different meanings \Rightarrow **ambiguous language**
- **Formal languages:** non-ambiguous
(*e.g. formal logic, C/C++, Java,...*)
- **Natural languages:** ambiguous
(*e.g. common mathematical language, English, French,...*)
- Richard Montague (1930-1971): grammar based mechanisms to disambiguate subsets of English



Depth-First Search

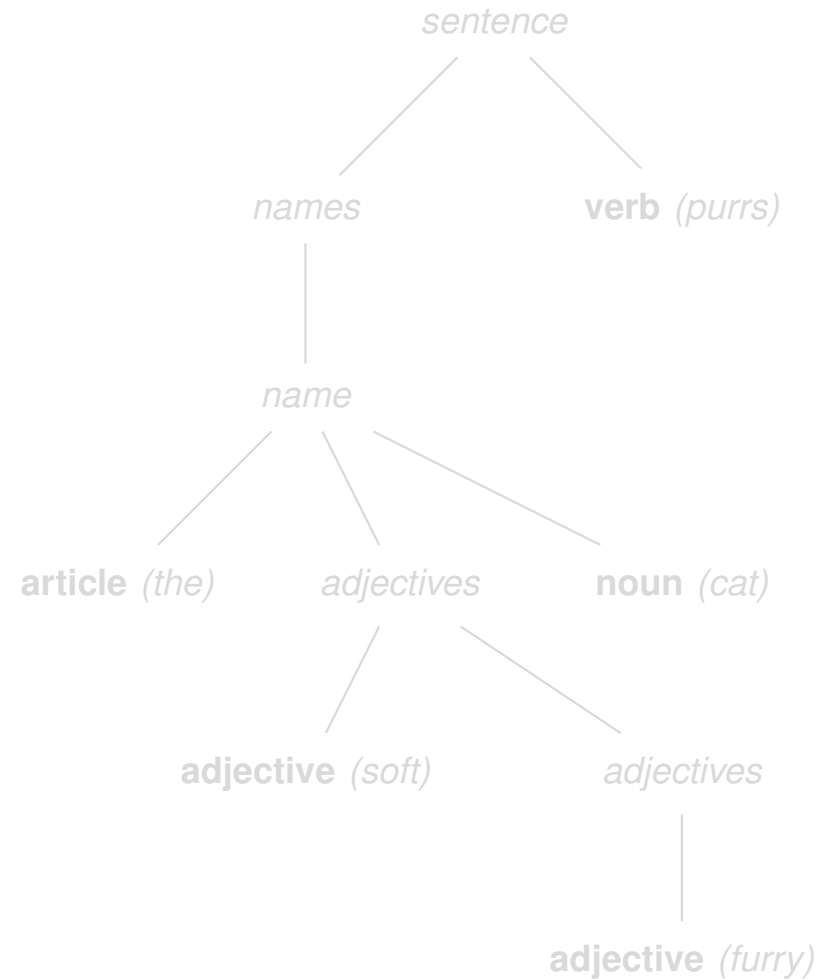


Tree exploration

- Breadth-First Search (BFS — seen in Lecture 2 on graphs)
find the way out of a maze in the smallest number of steps
- Depth-First Search (DFS — on trees)
- DFS: recursive call to $\text{dfs}(\text{node } v)$:
 - 1: optionally perform an action on v (*prefix*);
 - 2: **for** all subnodes u of v **do**
 - 3: $\text{dfs}(u)$;
 - 4: **end for**
 - 5: optionally perform an action on v (*postfix*);
- DFS on trees is: $\text{dfs}(\text{root})$



DFS: exploring a parse tree



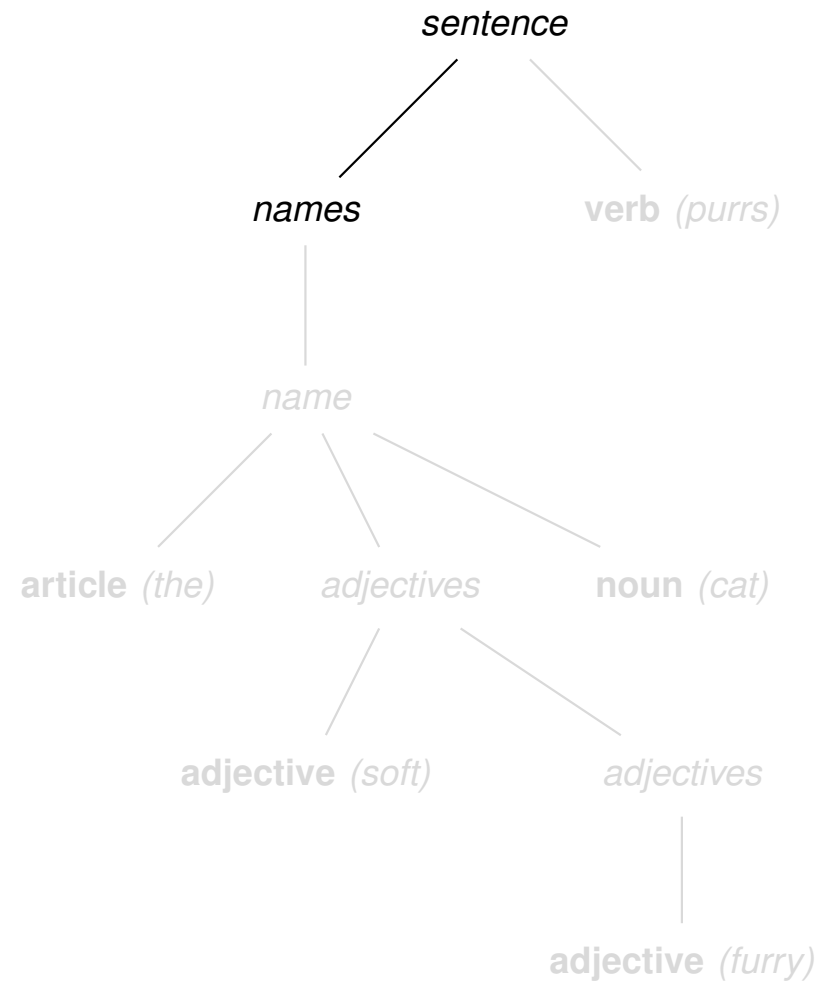


DFS: exploring a parse tree



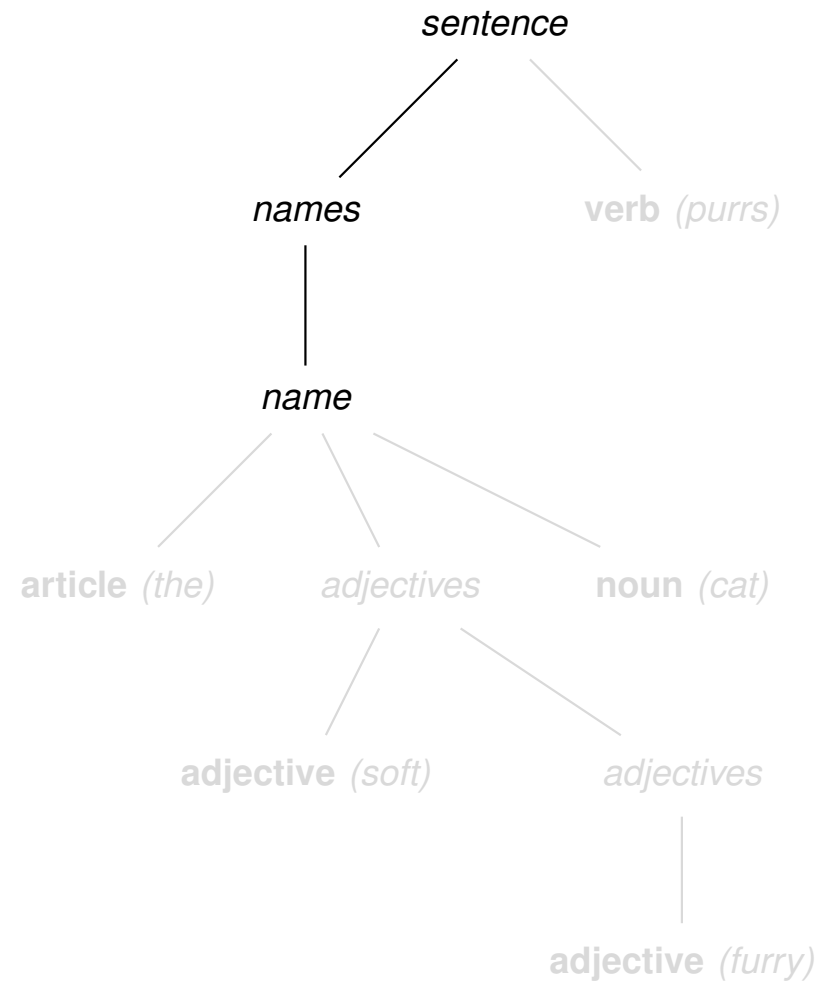


DFS: exploring a parse tree



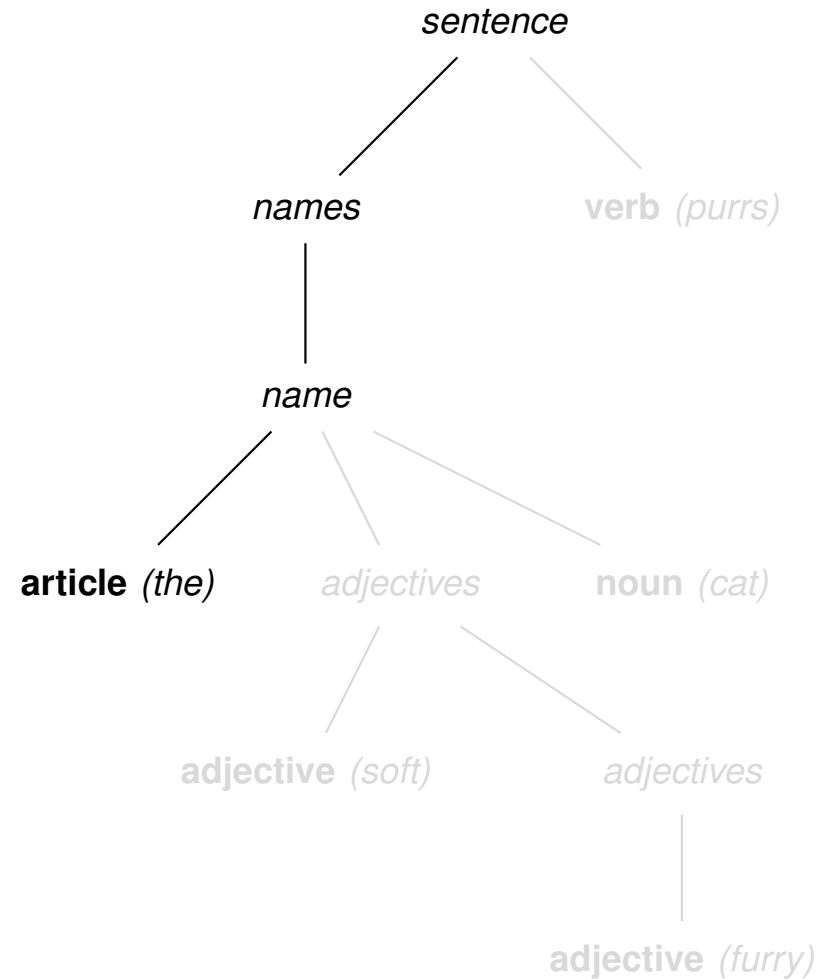


DFS: exploring a parse tree



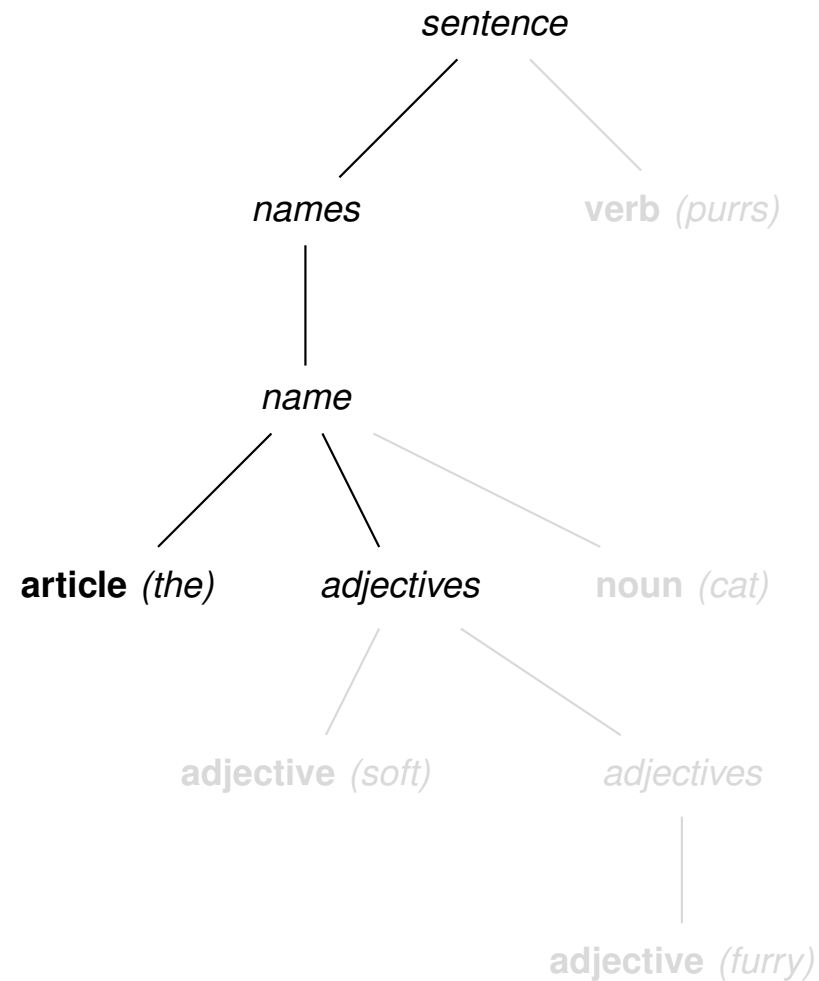


DFS: exploring a parse tree



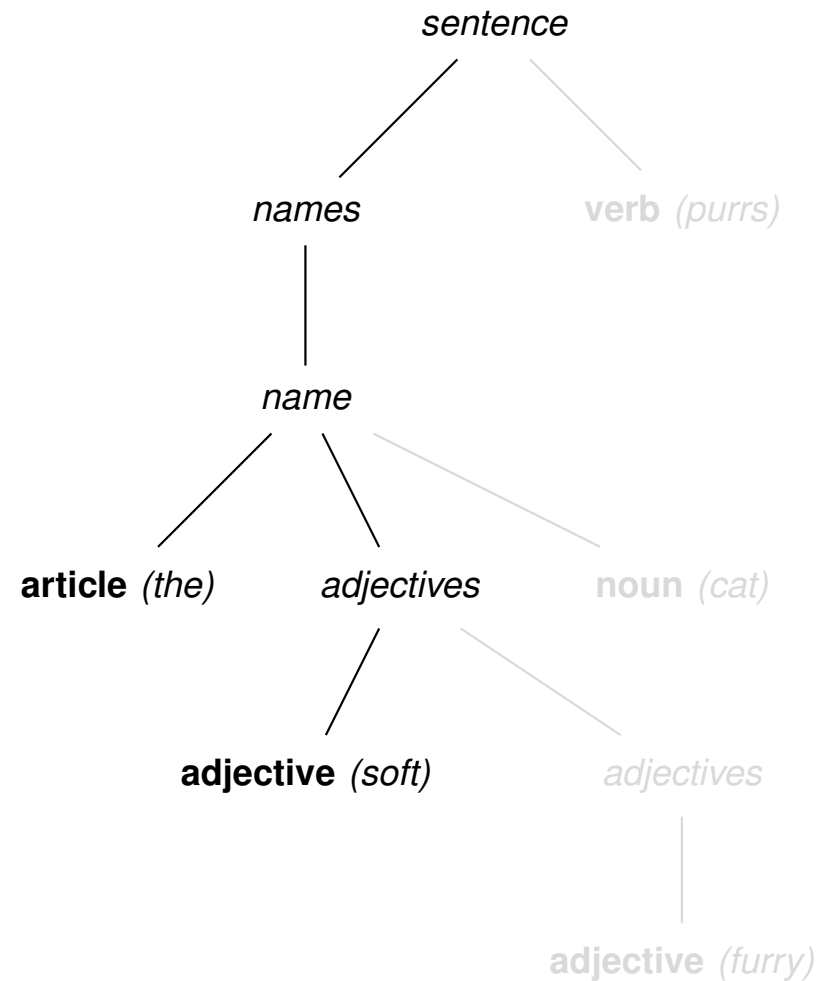


DFS: exploring a parse tree



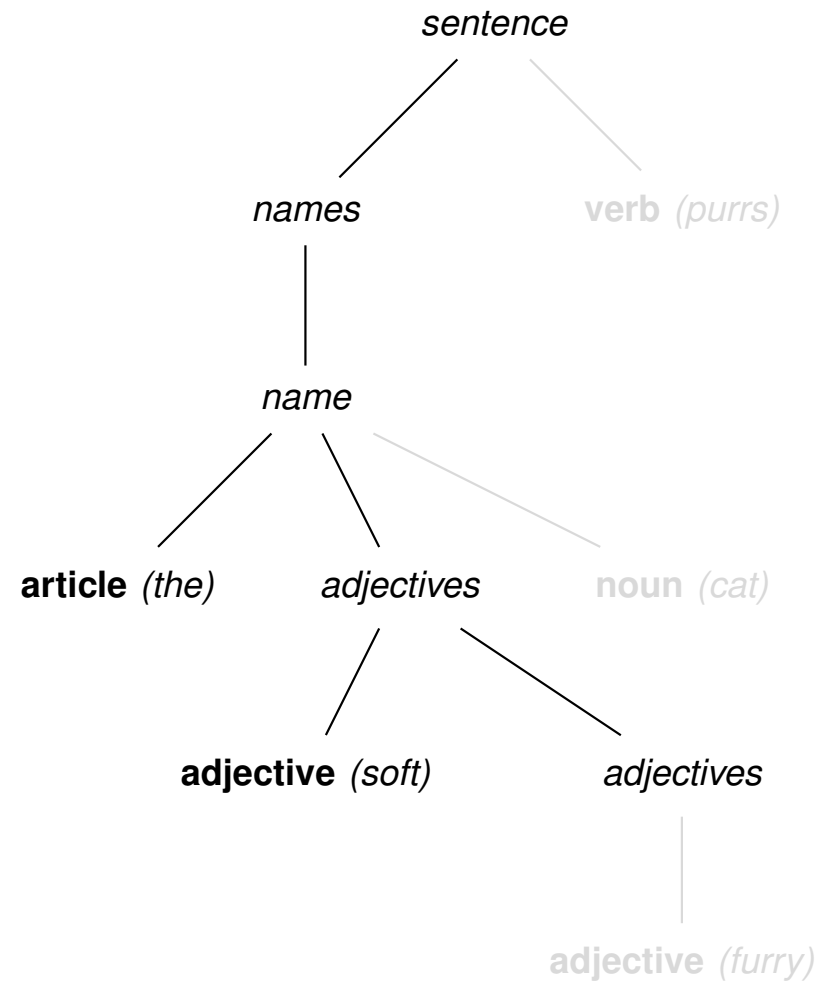


DFS: exploring a parse tree



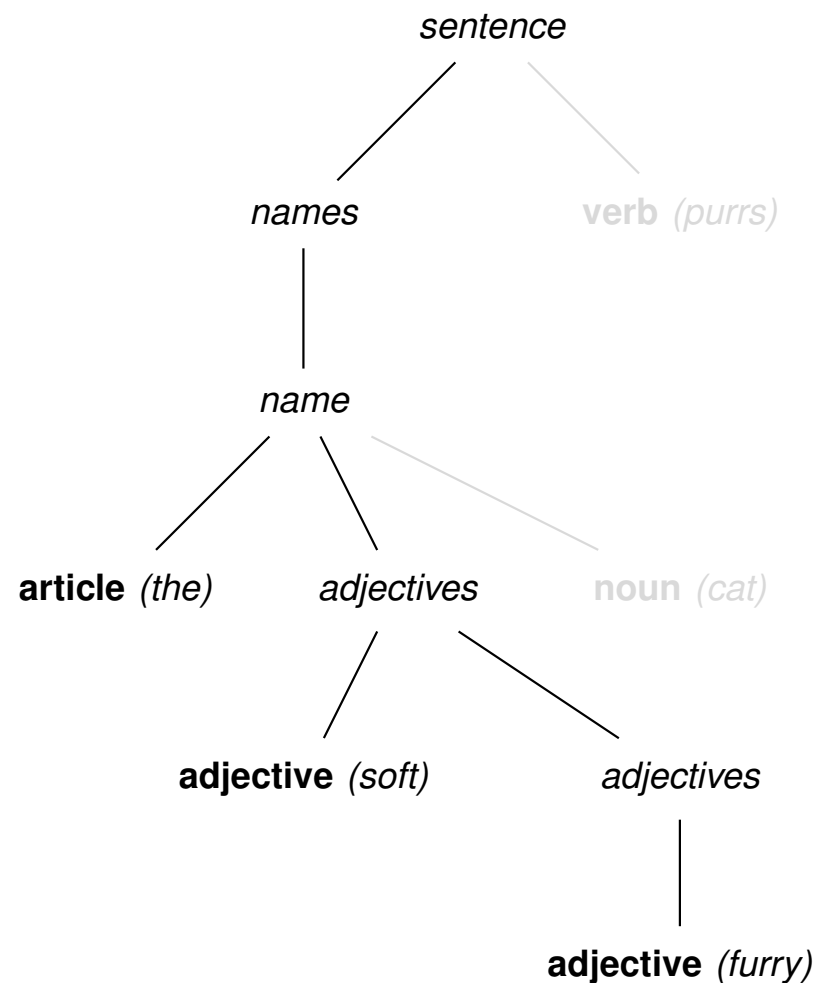


DFS: exploring a parse tree



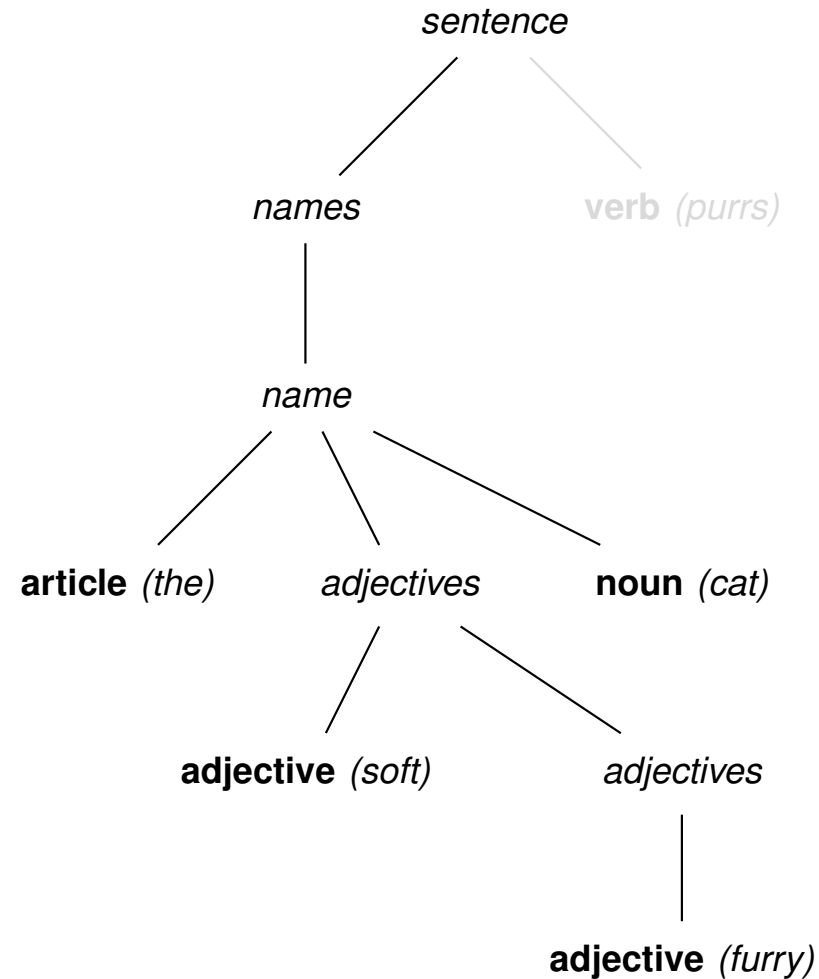


DFS: exploring a parse tree



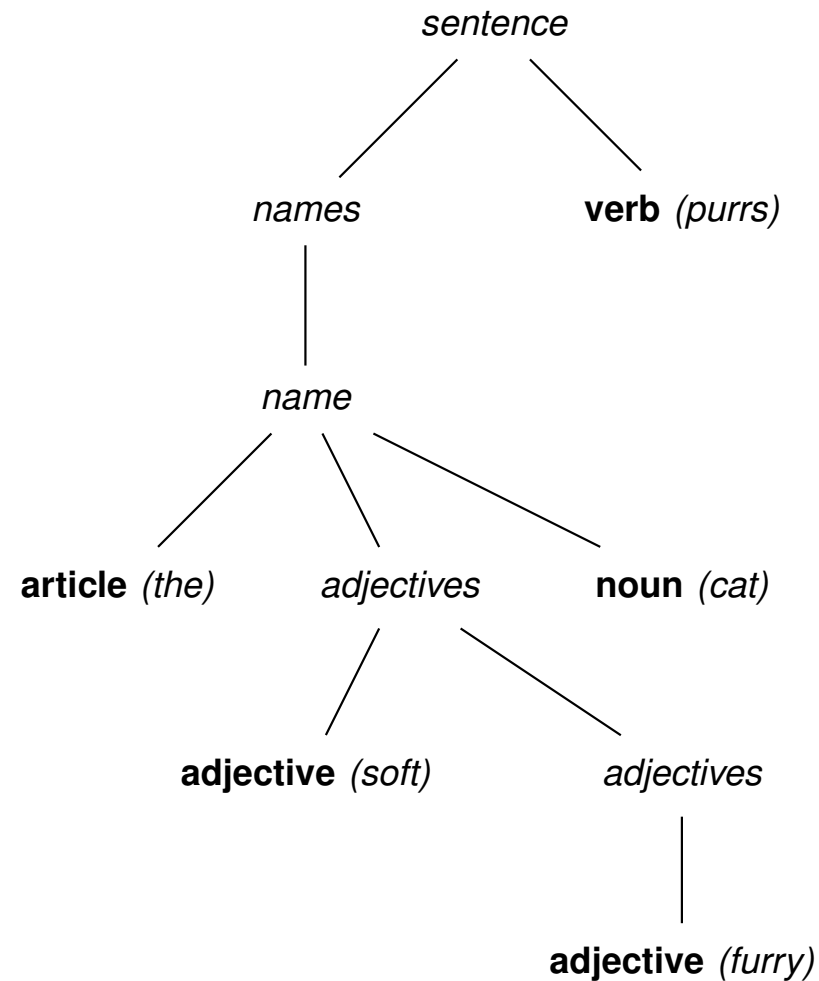


DFS: exploring a parse tree





DFS: exploring a parse tree





Digraph scanning

- DFS on trees: explore nodes from root, visit each node once
- DFS on digraphs: record visited nodes, don't visit them again

Require: $G = (V, A)$, $s \in V$, $R = \{s\}$, $Q = \{s\}$

- 1: **while** $Q \neq \emptyset$ **do**
- 2: **choose** $v \in Q$ // v is scanned
- 3: $Q \leftarrow Q \setminus \{v\}$
- 4: **for** $w \in N^+(v) \setminus R$ **do**
- 5: $R \leftarrow R \cup \{w\}$
- 6: $Q \leftarrow Q \cup \{w\}$
- 7: **end for**
- 8: **end while**

The algorithm is correct



Thm.

If there is an oriented path P from s to $z \in V$, then DIGRAPH SCANNING scans z

Proof

- Suppose not, then $\exists (x, y) \in P$ with $x \in R$ and $y \notin R$ (for otherwise, by induction on the path length, $z \in R$ by Step 5 and hence in Q by Step 6)
- By Step 6 x was added to Q
- The algorithm does not stop before eliminating x from Q in Step 3 at some iteration
- When this happens, $N^+(x) \subseteq R$ by Steps 4-5
- Hence $y \notin N^+(x)$, which implies $(x, y) \notin P$, which yields a contradiction

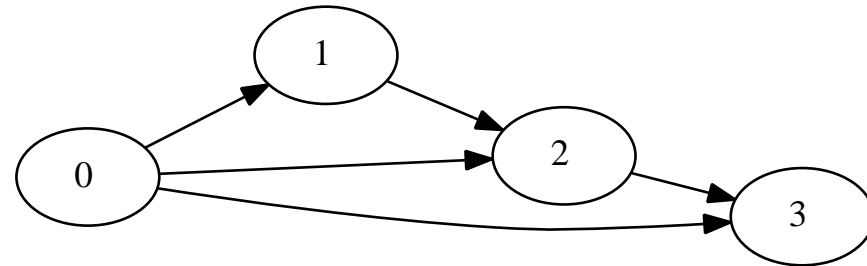
Storing a digraph

- Seen in Lecture 1: use the *jagged array* representation (also called **adjacency list**)

$$N^+(0) = (1, 2, 3)$$

$$N^+(1) = (2)$$

$$N^+(2) = (3)$$



- Seen in Lecture 2: use the *list of arcs* representation

$$L = ((0, 1), (0, 2), (0, 3), (1, 2), (2, 3))$$

Different efficiency on different algorithms

The algorithm takes $O(n + m)$

Thm.

If the digraph is encoded as adjacency lists, DIGRAPH SCANNING takes CPU time proportional $O(n + m)$ in the worst case

Proof

● **Each node is considered only once:**

- Whenever a node x is eliminated from Q , it was previously inserted by Step 6, which means that it was also added to R by Step 5
- By Step 4, x is never re-added to Q

● **Each arc (x, y) is considered only once:**

- When $x = v$ in Step 2 then $y \in N^+(x)$, so either $y = w$ in Step 4 or it must be verified that $y \in R$
- In both cases, the relation (x, y) was considered once



The choice of $v \in Q$

- In Step 2, the choice of $v \in Q$ determines the order in which the nodes are scanned
- Can alter this using different data structures for implementing the set Q
- Two data structures are commonly used:

1. Queues (*lecture 2*)

BREADTH-FIRST SEARCH: this corresponds to the order being First-In, First-Out (FIFO)

2. Stacks (*lecture 6*)

DEPTH-FIRST SEARCH (DFS): this corresponds to the order being Last-In, First-Out (LIFO)



Stacks: a first peek

- Linear data structure
- Accessible from only one end (top)
- Operations:
 - **push** an item on the top
 - **pop** an item from the top
 - test whether stack is empty
- Implement using arrays or lists in $O(1)$



DFS on a digraph \equiv GRAPH SCANNING with a stack



End of Lecture 4