

Overview

- A-sort,
- Sparse polynomials and matrices,
- Low-level Access to Memory,
- Hashing,
- Heaps,
- Arithmetic expressions, notations and conversion between them,
- Graphs and their representation,
- Graph-algorithms.

A-sort

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- Your finger points at the leaf (of the B -tree) where we inserted last.
- We are not start the insertion process at the root but where our finger is pointing.
- Yields good results when the input is pre-sorted (we don't bubble too often to the root).

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- Head can be used to find that we reached the end of the polynomial.

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 - Linked list of the elements (ordered in both dimensions),
 - linked list of linked lists (list of rows consisting of list of columns),
 - Dividing into quarters (divide the matrix into four parts – left top, right top, left bottom, right bottom). If the submatrix is "too large" and non-zero, we divide again.

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- `function MemAvail: longint;` – returns number of available bytes on heap
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- `function MaxAvail: longint;` – returns size of the largest free block (largest allocable size)
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- `FreeMem` – deallocates memory allocated by `GetMem` – (DTTO)

Example of GetMem/FreeMem

We create an array of uncertain length

```
type parr=^tarr;  
    tarr=array[1..10000] of longint;  
var arr:parr;  
begin  
    GetMem(arr,500);{get 500 bytes}  
    arr^[10]:=1000;{This is OK}  
    arr^[500]:=1024;{Problem -- array too small!}  
    FreeMem(arr,500);{FreeMem(arr); should suffice}  
end.
```

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- Then we allocate a table much smaller than the universum (range).
- This is called the *hashing*.
- It may happen that more candidates want to access the same cell in the table. This is called a *collision*.

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- implies problem with delete (almost unimplementable as we could break the chain).
- Where to place the element in collision? There are many possibilities. Either we pick next free cell or we design a function that proposes next cell.
- If we know the size of the data, we may try to implement *perfect hashing*, i.e., hashing without collisions. Hashing should be in more detail explained in the lecture of Algorithms and Data Structures (proofs)

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- $((10 5 +) (15 4 -) *) 2 /$ (with superfluous parentheses),
- by a tree: Each node contains an operator (and has two sons - operands) or a value (leaf).
- Evaluation will be only sketched, pseudocode has to be creatively interpreted!

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- Is it possible to evaluate expressions in all these notations?
- Can we convert one notation into another one?
- Yes, e.g., using a tree.

Evaluating the prefix notation

```
We use recursion: function evaluate:integer;
begin
    if (we read a number) then
        evaluate:=value_of_the_input_number
    else
        begin operator:=read_operator();
            arg1:=evaluate;
            arg2:=evaluate;
            evaluate:=perform(operator, arg1, arg2);
        end;
    end;
end;
```


Tree from the prefix notation

```
function pref_tree:tree;
begin
    if (we read a number) then
        pref_tree:=leaf(value_of_input);
    else
        begin tmp:=inner_node(operator);
            tmp.arg1:=evaluate;
            tmp.arg2:=evaluate;
            evaluate:=tmp;
        end;
    end;
```

end;

function leaf creates a leaf,

function inner_node creates a node of out_deg 2,

vertex of out_deg 2 has sons arg1 a arg2.

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- in one phase we search the right child and in one phase we write the operator.
- All three notations arise by correct ordering of these phases.
- Even though we always visit the left child before the right one, **we change the time when we output the operator!**

Generating prefix notation

```
procedure gen_pref(v:tree);
begin
    if(leaf(v)) then
        output(v);
    else
    begin output(v);
        gen_pref(v.arg1);
        gen_pref(v.arg2);
    end;
end;
```

Function output outputs the operator or number (resp.),
function leaf decides whether a given node is a leaf.

Generating postfix notation

```
procedure gen_post(v:tree);
begin
    if(leaf(v)) then
        output(v);
    else
        begin gen_post(v.arg1);
              gen_post(v.arg2);
              output(v);
            end;
    end;
end;
```

Function `output` outputs the operator or number (resp.),
function `leaf` decides whether a given node is a leaf.

Generating infix notation

almost correctly!

```
procedure gen_puf(v:tree);
begin
    if(leaf(v)) then
        output(v);
    else
        begin gen_puf(v.arg1);
            output(v);
            gen_puf(v.arg2);
        end;
    end;
end;
```

Function output outputs the operator or number (resp.),
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Generating infix notation

ugly but correct!

```
procedure gen_puf(v:tree);
begin
    if(leaf(v)) then
        output(v);
    else
    begin write('(');
        gen_puf(v.arg1);
        output(v);
        gen_puf(v.arg2);
        write(')');
    end;
end;
```

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Evaluating postfix notation

...towards the solution

Revision of our knowledge:

Buffer is a data structure with the following operations:

- `push` – insert at the top of the buffer,
- `pop` – remove from the top of the buffer,
- i.e., last in, first out.

Evaluating postfix notation

```
function eval_post:integer;
begin
    while not eof do
        begin if (we read a number) then
                push(number);
            if (we read an operator) then
                begin arg2:=pop;
                    arg1:=pop;
                    push(operator(arg1,arg2));
                end;
            end;
        end;
    writeln(pop);{Result is on the buffer-top}
end;
```

Tree from the prefix notation

```
function tree_post:tree;
begin
  while not eof do
    begin if (we read a number) then
      push(leaf(number));
      if (we read an operator) then
        begin pom:=node(operator);
          pom.arg2:=pop;
          pom.arg1:=pop;
          push(pom);
        end;
      end;
    end;
  tree_post:=pop;{Result is on the buffer-top}
end;
```

Evaluating the tree

should be clear, but let's go:

```
function eval_tree(v:tree);
begin
    if(leaf(v)) then
        eval_tree:=value(v)
    else
    begin arg1:=eval_tree(v.arg1);
        arg2:=eval_tree(v.arg2);
        op:=operator(v);
        eval_tree:=op(arg1,arg2);
    end;
end;
```

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- 5 in cases 2^i (i.e., 1, 2, 4) employ recursion.

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- How should one represent a graph when programming?

Graphs – remarks to definition

- Goal: Advantages and disadvantages of individual representations.

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- Define basic notions (walk, trail, path, connectivity, trees).

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- Advantages and disadvantages?
- Can we convert these representations?

Converting A_G to B_G and back

```
init_with_0s( $B_G$ );
edge_index:=1;
for i:=1 to n do begin
  for j:=i+1 to n do begin
    if( $A_G[i,j]=1$ ) then
      begin
         $B_G[i,edge\_index]:=1$ ;
         $B_G[j,edge\_index]:=1$ ;
        inc(edge_index);
      end;
  end;
end;
```

B_G to A_G

Either we analyze the incidence matrix (in a similar way) or:

$$A_G := B_G \times B_G^T;$$

for $i:=1$ to n do

$$A_G[i, i] := 0;$$

Důkaz.

Exercise in Combinatorics and Graph Theory I



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- `vertices`,
- `edges` or `edge(u,v)` – we can find it through `vertices` and `find_neighbors`,

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Further graph representations

- List of vertices and edges incident to individual vertices.
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- Advantages/disadvantages?
- In the oriented case we have to modify the representation.

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- A trail is a circle if it starts and ends in the same vertex and each vertex occurs there exactly once.

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 - How do we decide whether a graph is a tree?
 - Similarly!

Graph connectivity

A graph is connected iff from one (fixed) vertex we can reach all the other vertices.

```
for i in vertices do
    unvisit(i); {so far we visited nothing}
i:=start_vertex;
queue:={i};{for reachable vertices}
while nonempty(queue) do begin
    visit(i);
    queue:=queue+unvisited_neighbors(i);
end;
connected:=true;
for i in vertices do begin
    if unvisited(i) then
        connected:=false;
```

Algorithm analysis

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- Thus a good representation yields the complexity $\Theta(m + n)$.

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- Advantages/disadvantages:
- DFS may get implemented using recursion (and thus without an auxiliary data-structure).
- BFS visits the vertex using the shortest path.

Looking for a cycle

A graph has a cycle if we return to a particular vertex while searching the graph.

```

cycle:=false; {so far no cycle}
for i in vertices do unvisit(i);
for i in vertices do
    if unvisited(i) then{new component}
    begin queue:={i};
        while(nonempty(queue)) do
            begin dequeue_from_queue_and_assing_into(i);
if(visited(i)) then
                cycle:=true;
            else for j in neighbors(i) do
                begin queue:=queue+{j};
                    erase_edge({i,j});
                end;
end;
end; end;

```

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- Or we test cycle-freeness and connectivity (one component).
- Or we test connectivity (or cycle-freeness) and an appropriate number of edges (Euler's formular).

Shortest path

When looking for the shortest path, it depends on the representation:

- Perform BFS (considering the list of vertices and edges),

Theorem

In A_G^k position i, j gives number of walks with length k from (vertex) i to j .

Corollary

In $(A_G + I)^k$ position i, j says the number of walks of length at most k from i to j .

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Dijkstra's algorithm

Looks for the shortest path from a given vertex into all other vertices

Input: Graph with nonnegatively evaluated edges.

- We keep the "queue" for vertices ordered by the shortest so far found path.
- At the beginning we initialize the distances to all vertices [except start] by infinity [large-enough value], distance to start is 0.
- We add start into the queue for reachable vertices.
- Remove the first vertex of the "queue" and inspect its neighbors.
- Repeat this while the "queue" is non-empty.

Extending the path

When extending the path, for a vertex v in distance $d(v)$ we try for each edge $\{v, w\}$ whether

$$d(w) > d(v) + \text{length}(\{v, w\}).$$

If so, let $d(w) := d(v) + \text{length}(\{v, w\})$ and correct the position of w in the "queue".

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- The algorithm is kind of modification of BFS!
- Complexity depends on the representation of the graph and of the 'queue'!

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Thank you for your attention...